GLOBAL PERSPECTIVES ON HIGHER EDUCATION

Global and Local Internationalization

Elspeth Jones, Robert Coelen,
Jos Beelen and Hans de Wit (Eds.)

SensePublishers

Global and Local Internationalization

GLOBAL PERSPECTIVES ON HIGHER EDUCATION

Volume 34

Higher education worldwide is in a period of transition, affected by globalization, the advent of mass access, changing relationships between the university and the state, and the new technologies, among others. *Global Perspectives on Higher Education* provides cogent analysis and comparative perspectives on these and other central issues affecting postsecondary education worldwide.

Series Editors:
Philip G. Altbach
Hans de Wit
Laura E. Rumbley
Center for International Higher Education, Boston College, USA

This series is co-published with the Center for International Higher Education at Boston College.

Global and Local Internationalization

Edited by

Elspeth Jones
Leeds Beckett University (Emerita), UK

Robert Coelen
Stenden University of Applied Sciences, The Netherlands

Jos Beelen
Amsterdam University of Applied Sciences, The Netherlands

and

Hans de Wit
Center for International Higher Education, Boston College, USA

SENSE PUBLISHERS
ROTTERDAM/BOSTON/TAIPEI

A C.I.P. record for this book is available from the Library of Congress.

ISBN: 978-94-6300-299-8 (paperback)
ISBN: 978-94-6300-300-1 (hardback)
ISBN: 978-94-6300-301-8 (e-book)

Published by: Sense Publishers,
P.O. Box 21858,
3001 AW Rotterdam,
The Netherlands
https://www.sensepublishers.com/

Printed on acid-free paper

TABLE OF CONTENTS

ELSPETH JONES, ROBERT COELEN,
JOS BEELEN AND HANS DE WIT

1. INTRODUCTION

This book offers the reader a range of perspectives on the theme of local and global internationalisation of higher education from a globally dispersed group of authors. The theme was chosen by Hans de Wit as the topic of his Farewell Seminar on leaving the Amsterdam University of Applied Sciences, and the chapters in the book have been developed in part out of that seminar. The resulting varied contributions reflect the many facets of the theme and emphasise the notion that, while internationalisation in higher education is strongly connected to the globalisation of our society, it is at the same time deeply embedded in local political, economic and social structures, systems and cultures.

There is little doubt that the internationalisation is receiving ever-increasing attention from institutions around the world. The drivers, mix of activities, and extent of engagement across institutions shows great variation globally, but invariably the impact of internationalisation is becoming more noticeable at the local level. Internationalisation activities are dominated by international mobility of students, staff, and programs, but internationalisation at home also continues to gain momentum as a key aspect of practice.

The book is divided into six sections, in turn dealing with internationalisation in local and global contexts, the drivers for change, internationalisation of the curriculum, the outcomes of international education, and the impact of internationalisation on employability. It concludes with a section of observations on local and global internationalisation at regional or national levels. The section titles make it clear the book highlights that increasing attention given to internationalisation is not simply leading to more of the same, just on a larger scale. Diversification and broadening of internationalisation practice is leading to a deepening of our understanding of what is needed to enhance the educational experiences of our students. In turn, the learning outcomes from internationalisation are increasingly being recognised as contributing to the type of skills needed in a globalised and multicultural society, a clearly discernable thread of the chapters in this volume

A further thread addresses a number of questions from an academic practitioner perspective: “What is in it for me?” Why should I be interested in internationalisation of higher education, or indeed, why should this topic detract from other important aspects of my work? The often-heard complaint is that internationalisation is seen as something that needs to be added on; something that is new and competing

E. Jones et al. (Eds.), Global and Local Internationalization, 1–4.

for space/time in a course rather than embedded within teaching, learning and assessment practice, with appropriate learning outcomes as a fundamental element of the students' programme.

The issue of addressing stakeholder needs is clearly articulated in the chapter by Hans de Wit. This has been one of a number of themes in his writing over the years, with the starting point that we do not need more of the same without addressing the question of why we are trying to internationalise. Robert Coelen's chapter continues this notion and proposes that we need to define internationalisation as a learner-centred activity with clearly articulated learning outcomes. He argues that a greater level of interaction with pre-tertiary education is required in order to take advantage of the international experiences that students bring with them as they enter university.

The increased energy put in internationalisation has created a greater mix of global and local opportunities. This has increased the range and number of stakeholders that play a role in or stand to benefit from it. As Laura Rumbley and Philip Altbach present in their chapter, the challenge for each of the stakeholders is to make sense of this complex kaleidoscope of opportunities. Governments are developing policies based on the internationalisation activities of universities to facilitate building their knowledge-based economy.

In another take on the future of internationalisation, John Hudzik's chapter discusses how it might help navigate the dramatic changes the world is expected to undergo over the next two decades or so. The influence of the traditional Western higher education powers on internationalisation is expected to wane, whilst those of Asia and later other regions of the world will gain in importance. These thoughts are reflected on more fully by Hanneke Teekens who poses some challenging questions for the 'West'. In particular, how its higher education institutions will cope with the changing global order and the challenges of urbanisation, ageing, and the effects of technology. Perhaps institutions can take lessons from Montague's storydoing and Clark's organisational saga as concepts to enable them to undertake the necessary transformation as Fiona Hunter puts it in her chapter. Or maybe the Collaborative Online International Learning model (COIL), as Jon Rubin explains, could provide part of the answer to engage students in their home context rather than requiring them to study abroad.

Several chapters draw attention to the need for a greater focus on internationalisation of the curriculum at home, in particular those from Betty Leask, Jos Beelen, Elspeth Jones, Bernhard Streitwieser and Gregory Light. Betty Leask makes the argument that academic staff, where necessary, should be given expert support to ensure that Internationalisation of the Curriculum receives sufficient focus to deliver intended internationalised learning outcomes. Jos Beelen considers six themes around internationalisation at home drawing evidence from the 4th Global Survey of the International Association of Universities in comparison with Trends 2015 of the European University Association and the EAIE Barometer of the European Association for International Education.

One of the often-quoted intended outcomes of study abroad is to prepare graduates to be good global citizens. This term suffers from a great diversity of conceptualisations and a lack of clear understanding of how it can be measured or whether it is even useful as a concept. Bernard Streitwieser and Gregory Light reflect on student perceptions of the term and argue for more meaningful debate on intercultural engagement.

Further focus on the learning outcomes of internationalisation is provided in the third section of this book. Jeanine Gregersen-Hermans addresses the development of intercultural competence and argues that universities fall short in their mission to deliver on this through a lack of organisational capability. Indeed, according to Darla Deardorff, universities often fail in their quest to measure the learning outcomes in an adequate way. This is particularly true for intercultural competence and significant attention is required to get this right. Marcel van der Poel takes up the notion of faculty support, earlier addressed by Betty Leask, and describes the development of, and successful experience with, an intercultural training environment for academic staff.

It is becoming increasingly clear that at least the mobility elements of internationalisation are having a positive impact on employability. This is in itself a worthwhile outcome, but requires a more nuanced approach if mobility participation is to be widened as Elspeth Jones comments in her chapter. She offers a mobility model for practitioners and highlights the need to internationalise the curriculum at home so that all students can benefit, not only the mobile few. Uwe Brandenburg, Obdulia Taboadela and Mihaela Vancea consider the outcomes of the Erasmus Impact Study of 2014 and highlights its key findings from the perspective of a range of stakeholders, notably students and employers. Both personal and professional dimensions of mobility are considered, with the conclusion that mobility can be life-changing.

Nannette Ripmeester looks at the skills gained from studying abroad and how they benefit graduates in the work place. She argues that the increasing attention paid to such skills by employers requires students to interpret their experiences in terms that employers will appreciate. Erik Kostelijk and Maarten Regouin present a case study of the added value of international mobility and consider personality factors which may be at play. They contend that profession-specific skills may not be enhanced any more through mobility than through the same period at home, although other kinds of learning clearly do take place.

This book would not be complete without offering the reader a breadth of impressions from a number of countries or regions around the world. This is particularly important in view of the great variation of conceptualisations and state of play in different countries. Jocelyne Gacel-Ávila and Francisco Marmolejo give an overview of internationalisation in Latin America and the Caribbean and how it has been progressing in recent times. Edilio Mazzoleni and Robert Coelen discuss the attempt at transformation of Italian Higher Eduaction through legislation and the opportunities this presents for further internationalisation of the Italian system.

Adinda van Gaalen and Renate Gielesen discuss how internationalisation at home can be further stimulated in The Netherlands based on the results of a study of 54 Dutch higher education institutions. Finally, Adriana Pérez Encinas shows the response to the ERASMUS program at a time of significant economical hardship in Spain and how students see mobility as an opportunity to enhance their employment prospects.

Many of the chapters in this book, in one way or another, address the question posed earlier in this introduction: "What is in it for me?" This question represents a positive driver for the discussion on the societal effects of internationalisation of higher education. Inevitably, a single question leads to a whole range of questions. How can we define more precise learning outcomes that underpin learning and teaching? How do we avoid the societal risks of internationalisation and ensure that internationalisation opportunities and benefits are shared equally? How do we prevent brain drain and commercialisation? What are the values that underlie our actions? These are only some of the questions that will occupy our minds, locally and globally, in the years to come.

This book as well as the Seminar which originated it are joint products of the *Centre for Applied Research in Economics and Management* (CAREM) of the Amsterdam University of Applied Sciences, The Netherlands, and of the *Centre for Higher Education Internationalisation* (CHEI) of the Università Cattolica del Sacro Cuore in Milan, Italy. Over the past five years, Hans de Wit has been affiliated with both centres as a scholar in the field of internationalisation of higher education, before moving to his current position as Director of the *Center for International Higher Education* (CIHE) at Boston College, USA. We thank the two centres for their support in making this publication possible.

Elspeth Jones
Robert Coelen
Jos Beelen
Hans de Wit
(Editors)

PART ONE

INTERNATIONALIZATION IN LOCAL AND GLOBAL CONTEXTS

LAURA E. RUMBLEY AND PHILIP G. ALTBACH

2. THE LOCAL AND THE GLOBAL IN HIGHER EDUCATION INTERNATIONALIZATION

A Crucial Nexus

Analysis of higher education internationalization has typically gone in two directions. Those concerned with the practical aspects of internationalization—such as student mobility programs, campus internationalization efforts, and similar initiatives—have been focused on the "local" aspects of the theme. Policy-makers and others more concerned with strategy for universities or governments, or with broadly understanding internationalization as a trend, have engaged in "global" analyses. Here, the focus has been on broader strategic, structural, socio-economic, and political issues. The dialog between these strands in the discussion has been quite limited.

It is clear, however, that the global and the local are linked both in practical and analytical terms. Broader trends affect campus-based programs and policies. At the same time, decisions "on the ground" at universities impact national policy, and can coalesce into wider developments, as well. We will focus first on some patterns of internationalization playing out at the level of individual institutions and then on some key current global trends. We will then endeavor to address a fundamental question: What are the implications of the dynamic interplay between the local and global dimensions of internationalization?

CURRENT TRENDS IN INTERNATIONALIZATION AT THE INSTITUTIONAL LEVEL

Internationalization at the campus level remains rooted in a number of tried and true approaches, but is also evolving in new directions—and facing new challenges. Student mobility remains a bedrock component of the internationalization agendas of most institutions, but there are notable efforts to innovate in this area. For example, in North America and Europe, many program administrators are working (with limited success) to encourage their students to consider outward mobility experiences in "non-traditional" locations, particularly in Asia, but also in Africa and Latin America. Students are also now finding more options to incorporate research, work, and volunteer activities into their overseas study experience (Farrugia, 2013). Programming is also increasingly concerned with taking a "comprehensive" approach to student learning and development. Here, the focus is on endeavoring

E. Jones et al. (Eds.), Global and Local Internationalization, 7–13.

to ensure that students are well-prepared before the mobility experience, well-supported while abroad, and able to make the most of the what they learn as mobile students once they return home.

On the inbound mobility side, there is growing attention paid to assessing the foreign student experience and to providing the necessary supports so that international students can make the most of their time at the host institution. At the same time, while certainly not discounting the enhanced revenue streams that (in some systems) come with the inflow of full fee-paying students, host institutions appear to be increasingly interested in extracting maximal benefits from the presence of international students and scholars in both intellectual and cultural terms.

The question of how best to leverage the resources of an international student and scholar population on campus is directly in line with the growing understanding that international mobility will likely never be something in which all students participate, and that "internationalization at home" (de Wit, 2010) must play a key role in the internationalization agenda. To this end, there is a great deal of experimentation underway across many university campuses, ranging from efforts to expand international perspectives across curricula (Brewer & Leask, 2012), encourage faculty engagement with internationalization (Institute of Education, 2012), and develop strategic partnerships with foreign institutions that allow for collaboration across many different areas of teaching, research, and community engagement (Rumbley & Helms, 2012). Institutional-level internationalization may also include physically expanding operations abroad, through the establishment of all manner of "outposts" of the home institution in foreign locations (Kinser & Lane, 2012).

At the campus level, internationalization is in a growth phase in many countries. This growth may be expressed either in real terms (such as increasing student mobility or growing numbers of international partnerships), or simply in terms of institutions' articulated aspirations to do more in the international arena. Growth brings new possibilities, as well as challenges.

Some universities with limited resources or visibility find it expedient to work with "third party providers"—i.e., companies or non-profit organizations external to the institution—to achieve their internationalization goals. Third party providers can provide information, support services, and networking resources that an institution alone cannot marshal. However, particularly when working with for-profit agents or other commercial entities, serious questions and conflicts may arise concerning the extent to which the third party provider's business model is compatible with the mission and objectives of a not-for-profit higher education institution. Much debate surrounds these dynamics today, and many institutions are thus faced with complex choices about how to manage and develop their international footprint. This is especially true in light of the fact that international education is a dynamic, fast-changing, and increasingly competitive area in which individual universities may wish (indeed, need) to distinguish themselves for crucial "market placement" purposes.

EMERGING GLOBAL INTERNATIONALIZATION THEMES

Internationalization has become "big business" globally, in some sense directly, with for-profit entities of all kinds making a business of student mobility, language training for international students, and new "pathways" programs. Likewise, we see the growing importance of agents and recruiters, and other such actors. Uwe Brandenburg and Hans de Wit (2011) have analyzed the growing commercialization of international higher education.

Countries, as well as individual academic institutions, involve themselves in internationalization activities for many complex reasons. Increasingly, among the major motivating forces is the need to earn revenues, as state budgets are reduced and the pressure to serve growing numbers of students and to ensure high quality grows. International student enrollments are increasingly seen as revenue sources. Internationalization is also seen as a way to improve not only an individual university's place in the global rankings, but also a country's global profile; visibility on the rankings is understood as a way of building an international name brand.

A significant element of internationalization is regionalization. This trend has a significant tradition. The Erasmus scholarship program to encourage cross-border mobility in Europe started in the late 1980s, while a larger set of initiatives, under the umbrella of the Bologna Process, instituted in 1999 a much larger array of reforms aimed at European higher education integration. Smaller initiatives were launched in North America, and are now taking place in Latin America, Southeast Asia, and Africa. The concept behind these diverse efforts is to better link academic institutions, as well as students and faculty, in a regional context.

Cross-border higher education is a newer element of internationalization. This concept includes branch campuses, joint-degree programs, and a range of other initiatives. Typically, these programs feature the involvement of universities in Europe, North America, or Australia in developing or middle-income countries. However, China, Mexico, and India, among other countries, have their own cross-border initiatives, as well. Often, cross-border programs are intended to earn income for the sponsoring university, and to provide capacity or specific expertise to a particular institution in the host country. The host country may also be looking for more system-wide effects from the presence of foreign providers, to include expanded access to local students, or prestige as a regional "education hub" (Knight, 2014). Without question, cross-border initiatives are growing in scope and complexity and are an increasingly important part of internationalization.

Double and joint degrees are growing in popularity, and present unique opportunities for students and faculty to expand their perspectives and for universities to develop deeper relationships with peer institutions. They can also be fraught with serious difficulties, particularly in regard to issues of quality assurance and credential recognition for graduates. Responsible bodies (often at the national level) tasked with oversight of higher education quality and the evaluation of credentials are challenged to make sense of many new types of programmatic arrangements, and to apply standards thoughtfully and judiciously in a complex international environment.

Perhaps nowhere is our understanding about the quality and comparability of cross-border higher education more deeply challenged than in the context of MOOCs, or massive open online courses. MOOCs offer enormous potential to transform the higher education landscape, with profound implications for the internationalization of higher education. Technology has already had a significant impact on different aspects of teaching, learning, and research. In the internationalization sphere, this has been particularly notable in terms of the much-enhanced ease of communication and collaboration that has come of greatly improved information and communication technologies in recent years. With the advent of MOOCs, questions about the future of higher education are taken to an entirely new level, bringing with them discussions of such matters as "virtual mobility," "virtual internationalization," and the like. Of course, the hype may far outpace the reality of ensuing developments. But a global conversation around these topics is clearly underway, along with much experimentation with new kinds of border-crossing platforms and approaches.

TRAINING AND RESEARCH TO MEET NEW CHALLENGES

The local and the global are clearly intertwined in today's internationalization of higher education. As we have shown, they are often linked in specific programs and initiatives. Indeed, it seems as if many aspects of internationalization exhibit these two dimensions, or realities, in one way or another. A good example is the branch campus. Branch campus developments are part of a global trend in cross-border higher education, but at the same time they are quite specific to the local context in which they occur and to the institutional actors involved in this international transaction. The nexus between the local and global is increasingly important to international initiatives of all kinds, and understanding this relationship is key to comprehending the increasingly complex nature of 21st century higher education internationalization. Most crucially, dealing effectively with this complexity requires a commitment to the training of thoughtful practitioners in the field, working in tandem with researchers, policymakers, and institutional leaders who are sensitive to the practicalities that reside within the "big issues" dominating so many strategic discussions about internationalization today.

This raises a very fundamental question: where and how are practitioners, researchers, and policymakers trained for the work they do, and to what extent is internationalization a focus of this training? Work recently completed by the Boston College Center for International Higher Education (CIHE) to map the global landscape of higher education research and training (Rumbley et al., 2014) provides a number of insights that are in some ways encouraging, but also leaves many questions decidedly unanswered.

Rumbley et al. (2014) found that, globally, there are some 217 research centers around the world focused primarily on higher education, as well as 277 academic programs granting graduate-level degrees or other credentials in the field of higher education studies. A survey of these centers and programs found that a significant proportion of the both research centers and academic programs in higher education list "comparative or international studies," as well as "globalization and internationalization," among their primary areas of specialized focus or expertise (see Table 1).

Table 1. Most frequently selected "primary areas of specialized focus or expertise" for higher education research centers and programs worldwide, by percentage
Source: Rumbley et al. (2014)

Centers	
Focus areas	*Percentage*
Comparative or international studies	42.9
Administration, management, or leadership	41.9
Economics, financing, or funding of higher education	33.6
Globalization or internationalization	31.8
Quality assurance, assessment, or accreditation	25.8
Programs	
Focus areas	*Percentage*
Administration, management, or leadership	75.0
Comparative or international studies	44.7
Curriculum and instruction or teaching and learning	40.8
Economics, Financing, or Funding of Higher Education	31.6
Globalization or internationalization	30.3
Academic Profession	30.3

The global data provide some encouragement for the idea that comparative and international studies, as well as issues of internationalization and globalization, are recognized as important in higher education training and research circles. However, many questions and anomalies come with these data. For example, there does not seem to be the same level of commitment to these issues across different regions of the world. Notably, the United States is home to 70 percent of the degree-granting academic programs in higher education identified by the global inventory. However, just 6.7 percent of programs in North America indicate that comparative and international studies are a key focus area, and a mere 8.2 percent point to globalization and internationalization as primary topics of interest. By contrast, although comparatively smaller in absolute numbers, 53.3 percent of Asian and 22.7 percent of European academic programs register a primary interest in comparative and international studies, while globalization and internationalization are apparently key focus areas for 31.1 of Asian programs and 31.8 of European programs. Similar variations on this theme can be seen in the analysis of the priorities of research centers.

An examination of the ages (i.e., years of establishment) of the centers and programs included in inventory seems to reinforce the pervasive sense that globalization and internationalization are areas of growing interest. Among research centers focusing to some extent on these topics, 56 percent were established from the year 2000 onwards; 60 percent of academic programs indicating some specialization in globalization and internationalization were also established in the last 14 years.

These numbers begin to scratch the surface of a complex picture of training and research relevant to our deeper understanding of internationalization's realities, at the local and global levels, and the extent to which personnel working in our universities are trained in these areas. But, there is much we do not know. How many individuals are trained in the academic programs identified by the inventory? Are the courses offered of sufficient quality, as determined by whom? What is the scope and impact of the research produced by the world's higher education research centers focused on internationalization? What specific topics and issues are being addressed, or skills being cultivated? What is the relationship between research, training, and policymaking? And what about the training that is occurring outside of degree-granting academic programs, by ministries, foundations, corporations, and the like?

THE CRUCIAL NEXUS

The American author F. Scott Fitzgerald (1945) is credited with saying that "the test of a first-rate intelligence is the ability to hold two opposed ideas in mind at the same time and still retain the ability to function." Internationalization's global and local dimensions do not represent categorical opposites. They do, however, challenge practitioners, researchers, and policymakers the world over to make sense of a complex panorama of opportunities and imperatives, in a fluid, multifaceted, and potentially high-stakes environment. What is called for then is "intelligent internationalization," which demands that those participating in the elaboration of internationalization activities and agendas have access to the information, ideas, and professional skill-building opportunities that will enhance their ability to navigate the crucial nexus of internationalization at global and local levels.

REFERENCES

Brandenburg, U., & de Wit, H. (2011). The end of internationalization. *International Higher Education*, *62*(winter), 15–16.

Brewer, E., & Leask, B. (2012). Internationalization of the curriculum. In D. Deardorff, H. de Wit, & J. Heyl (Eds.), *The Sage handbook of international higher education* (pp. 245–265). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

de Wit, H. (2010). *Internationalisation of higher education in Europe and its assessment, trends and issues*. Den Haag, The Netherlands: Accreditation Organisation of the Netherlands and Flanders. Retrieved from http://nvao.com/page/downloads/Internationalisation_of_Higher_Education_in_Europe_DEF_december_2010.pdf (Accessed July 2015).

Farrugia, C. (2013, August 16). *Education abroad: Moving out of the classroom and into the real world*. Retrieved from http://www.iie.org/Blog/2013/August/Education-Abroad-Moving-Out-Of-The-Classroom (Accessed July 2015).

Fitzgerald, F. S. (1945). *The crack-up*. New York, NY: New Directions.

Institute of International Education. (2012). *Engaging faculty in internationalization: IIENetworker, Spring 2012*. Retrieved from http://www.iiebooks.org/iisp20enfain.html (Accessed July 2015).

Kinser, K., & Lane, J. (2012). Foreign outposts of colleges and universities. *International Higher Education*, *66*, 2–3.

Knight, J. (2014). *International education hubs: Student, talent, knowledge-innovation models*. Dordrecht, The Netherlands: Springer.

Rumbley, L. E., & Helms, R. M. (Eds.). (2012). Global engagement – New modalities. *International Briefs for Higher Education Leaders, 2*. Washington, DC and Chestnut Hill, MA: American Council on Education and Boston College Center for International Higher Education.

Rumbley, L. E., Stanfield, D. A., & de Gayardon, A. (2014). From inventory to insight: Making sense of the global landscape of higher education research, training, and publication. *Studies in Higher Education*, *38*(8).

Laura E. Rumbley
Associate Director
Boston College Center for International Higher Education
USA

Philip G. Altbach
Founding Director and Research Professor
Boston College Center for International Higher Education
USA

HANS DE WIT

3. MISCONCEPTIONS ABOUT (THE END OF) INTERNATIONALISATION

The Current State of Play

In 2011, I wrote two essays, which can be seen as capitalizing on the start of my professorship in Internationalisation of Higher Education at the School of Economics and Management of the Amsterdam University of Applied Sciences in 2009.

The first one, together with Uwe Brandenburg, had the provocative title '*The End of Internationalization'* (Brandenburg & de Wit, 2011). We spoke about our concerns of an increasingly more instrumentalist approach, a devaluation of its meaning, lack of innovation, and warned that we should no longer take things for granted and reinvent internationalisation for the future. We made an appeal on four points:

a. We have to move away from dogmatic and idealistic concepts of internationalisation and globalisation;
b. We have to understand these concepts in their pure meanings – not as goals in themselves but rather as means to an end;
c. We have to throw off the veil of ignorance and ask ourselves: why do we do certain things, and how do they help in achieving the goal of quality of education and research in a globalised knowledge society?
d. We should carefully reconsider our preoccupation with instruments and means and rather invest a lot more time into questions of rationales and outcomes.

The most important in our view, though was "to rethink and redefine the way we look at the internationalisation of higher education in the present time."

In the same year, as part of my Public Lecture as professor, I wrote about *Misconceptions of Internationalisation*, published also as a separate essay (de Wit, 2011). Building on the previous essay I noted that there is still a predominantly activity-oriented or even instrumental approach towards internationalisation. I mentioned nine misconceptions, wherein internationalisation is regarded as synonymous with a specific programmatic or organizational strategy to promote internationalisation, in other words: where the means appear to have become the goal.

These two essays received quite some attention and created much debate in the field of international education, and certainly have contributed to my recent selection together with my friend Mike Woolf as a leading Provocateur in International Education (http://www.ieleaders.net/). They also contributed to the start of a discussion by the *International Association of Universities* on rethinking

E. Jones et al. (Eds.), Global and Local Internationalization, 15–20.

internationalisation. I have mentioned eight reasons for this need to rethink internationalisation (de Wit, 2013), again building on the two previous essays:

1. The discourse of internationalisation does not always match reality in that, for too many universities, internationalisation means merely a collection of fragmented and unrelated activities, rather than a comprehensive process;
2. The further development of globalisation, the increasing commodification of higher education and of the notion of a global knowledge society and economy, has resulted in a new range of forms, providers and products, and new, sometimes conflicting dimensions, views and elements in the discourse of internationalisation;
3. The international higher education context is rapidly changing. 'Internationalisation' like 'international education' was until recently predominantly a western phenomenon in which the developing countries only played a reactive role. Now the emerging economies and higher education communities in other parts of the world are altering the landscape of internationalisation. This shift away from a western, neo-colonial concept, as 'internationalisation' is perceived by several educators, means incorporating other emerging views;
4. The discourse on internationalisation is often dominated by a small group of stakeholders: higher education leaders, governments and international bodies. Other stakeholders, such as employers, and in particular the faculty and the student voice are heard far less often, with the result that the discourse is insufficiently influenced by those who should benefit from its implementation;
5. Too much of the discourse is oriented towards national and institutional levels with little attention to programmes themselves. Research, the curriculum, and the teaching and learning processes, which should be at the core of internationalisation, as expressed by movements such as 'Internationalisation at Home', often receive little attention;
6. Internationalisation is evaluated too often in quantitative terms through numbers, or input and output, instead of a qualitative, outcomes approach based on the impact of internationalisation initiatives;
7. To date there has been insufficient attention to norms, values and the ethics of internationalisation practice. With some notable exceptions, the approach has been too pragmatically oriented towards reaching targets without a debate on the potential risks and ethical consequences;
8. The increased awareness that the notion of 'internationalisation' is not only a question of the relations between nations but even more of the relations between cultures and between the global and the local, the leading theme of this seminar.

In presentations, blogs, articles and books I have been building on these eight rationales, alone and together with others, in particular Elspeth Jones (Jones & de Wit, 2012). With her I wrote about the fact that internationalisation was not so much coming to an end, but that one of the fascinating new developments of the concept is its globalisation.

The rethinking process has resulted in A Call for Action, *'Affirming Academic Values in Internationalisation of Higher Education'*, by the International Association of Universities, April 2012 (International Association of Universities, 2012).

It also has contributed to the '*Global Dialogue on the Future of International Education'* organized by the '*International Education Association of South Africa'* (IEASA) in January 2014, and the Nelson Mandela Bay Global Dialogue Declaration (IEASA, 2014) signed by the key international education associations around the world on that occasion, focusing on three integrated areas of development:

- Enhancing the quality and diversity in programmes involving the mobility of students and academic and administrative staff;
- Increasing focus on the internationalisation of the curriculum and of related learning outcomes;
- Gaining commitment on a global basis to equal and ethical higher education partnerships.

I must confess that the blog for University World News I wrote with Nico Jooste (de Wit & Jooste, 2014) on the dialogue and the declaration, has also most likely contributed to my selection as leading provocateur, but it was and is not my intention nor that of Nico Jooste to deny the relevance of the declaration and the three focus points for the future of internationalisation which were agreed upon.

From the above it becomes clear that over the past years, a most needed intense and stimulating, sometimes provocative debate about the future of internationalisation has taken place. The directions it will take are also taking shape. A long road to their implementation and adaptation to ever more rapidly changing global developments is still to follow. The critical political and economic climate in the world, and in particular in Europe where nationalism seems to become more dominant than Europeanism or globalism, is not a solid foundation for more internationalisation. There are some positive signs though, such as the development of and increased budget for ERASMUS+ and the new strategy 'European Higher Education in the World' (European Commission, 2013).

There is also an increasing number of studies that show a positive impact of study abroad on employability and European and global identity, compared to non-mobile students (for instance European Commission, 2014). But unfortunately, also I notice a continuing focus in national and institutional strategies on most of the misconceptions I identified in 2011: more teaching in English, more recruitment of international students, more study abroad, more partnerships, little assessment of international and intercultural learning outcomes, all for the sake of output and quantitative targets, while failing to focus on impact and outcomes.

If I would add one main misconception to the list of nine, I would say: *'you cannot define the what, how and outcome of internationalisation strategies without first having answered the 'Why'*. Over the years I have been involved in the preparation and evaluation of many internationalisation strategies, both at the (inter)national, institutional and programme level. And still in nearly all cases this question is not or is only very superficially and marginally answered. But how can clear objectives and goals be defined, and how can the intercultural and international learning outcomes be defined and assessed, without first having described the specific (inter)national, institutional and/or programmatic context and, based on that context, the relevance of the internationalisation strategy?

Unless we constantly ask ourselves the question ‘Why?’, we are in essence failing to acknowledge our purpose in seeking to internationalise, one could even say we ‘have reached the end of internationalisation’ without achieving our objectives, in reference to the title of the essay of 2011.

Whenever there is discussion of a vision for internationalisation, the question ‘Why?’ should be at the heart of it, but unfortunately that is in general not the case. The recent joint document of the Association of Dutch Universities (VSNU) and the Association of Universities of Applied Sciences (Vereniging Hogescholen), Visie Internationaal (Vision International) of March 2014, as well as the subsequent vision paper of the Dutch Minister of Education of July 15, 2014 (Coelen, 2014), are examples of a lack of focus on the question ‘Why?’ and by that a lack of vision for internationalisation. In themselves, the actions proposed in these two documents are relevant, but by lack of a clear vision, the context, their implementation and the impact of the actions remain unclear.

One might wonder how this is related to the theme of *Global and Local Internationalisation*. The link between globalisation and localization comes to my mind as one that has many different aspects related to my work over the past 5 years:

- My work for the Amsterdam University of Applied Sciences and its School of Economics and Management in its efforts to internationalise has always been combined with my work in the global arena. The one should feed the other and vice versa;
- Local, meaning at city level, is becoming increasingly more important than national, ie at state level, in and because of globalisation, and this is certainly also the case with higher education.
- Local, in the meaning of interculturality and diversity, is bringing the global into our direct environments, and increasingly also into institutions of higher education. The divide between intercultural and international is no longer relevant, just as it is not for local and global.
- The same applies to the professional field: enterprises, social sectors and organisations increasingly combine local and global dimensions. Take for example the health sector and law, two fields that 10 to 15 years ago were rather local and national, and which have now moved to the forefront of internationalisation.

This increased intertwining of local and global in my view is an essential part of the internationalisation for the kind of future which I referred to earlier. It will require that we, as international educators, more than ever look at what is happening elsewhere and do not stay in our own cocoon. The work of my colleague at CAREM in Amsterdam, Willem van Winden, on urban management and the knowledge economy, is one example. The work of Darla Deardorff on intercultural competences is another example. The Global Talent Bridge work on Community Engagement by World Education Services, headed by Mariam Assefa, on which board I have had the pleasure to sit for nearly 20 years, is a third example.

It is shocking to observe that in the whole current focus on competition for top talents and skilled immigrants no attention is paid to the presence of a large group of immigrants and refugees in our own countries. With the kind of attention offered by the Global Talent Bridge in the US and organizations like UAF (Universitair Asiel Fonds) in The Netherlands, they can also be members of the new skilled workforce. So here is another example of the misconception that local and global are two different things.

In my current role, as of 2015, as Professor and Director of the Center for International Higher Education at Boston College, following in the footsteps of Philip Altbach, I will continue to be a provocateur in international education. In that, I have been trained by my professor in sociology and friend during my studies, the late Rudy Koopmans, who always taught us: 'only contradiction brings us further.'

REFERENCES

Brandenburg, U., & de Wit, H. (2011). The end of internationalization. *International Higher Education*, *62*(winter), 15–16.

Coelen, R. (2014). A revamped vision for international education. *University World News*, Issue 329, July 18, 2014.

de Wit, H. (2011). Misconceptions about internationalization. *University World News*, Issue 166, April 10, 2011.

de Wit, H. (2013). Rethinking the concept of internationalisation. *Going global: Identifying trends and drivers of international education* (pp. 213–218). London, England: Emerald Group Publishing.

de Wit, H., & Jooste, N. (2014). Can international education be truly equal? *University World News*, Issue 0308, February 23, 2014.

European Commission. (2013). European higher education in the world. *Communication from the commission to the European parliament,* The Council, The European Economic and Social Committee and The Committee of the Regions. Brussels, 11.7.2013 COM (2013) 499 final. Retrieved from http://eurlex.europa.eu/LexUriServ/LexUriServ.do?uri=COM:2013:0499:FIN:en:PDF (Accessed July 2015).

European Commission. (2014). *The Erasmus impact study: Effects of mobility on the skills and employability of students and the internationalisation of higher education institutions*. European Commission: Education and Culture. Retrieved from http://ec.europa.eu/education/library/study/2014/erasmus-impact_en.pdf (Accessed July 2015).

IEASA. (2014). *Nelson Mandela bay global dialogue declaration on the future of internationalisation of higher education*, Port Elizabeth, South Africa, January 17, 2014.

International Association of Universities. (2012, April). *Affirming academic values in internationalization of higher education: A call for action*. Paris, France: Author.

Jones, E., & de Wit, H. (2012). Globalization of internationalization: Thematic and regional reflections on a traditional concept. *AUDEM: The International Journal of Higher Education and Democracy, 3*, 35–54.

VSNU en Vereniging Hogescholen. (2014). *Gezamenlijke Visie Internationaal*. Den Haag, The Netherlands: VSNU en Vereniging Hogescholen.

Hans de Wit
Boston College Center for International Higher Education
USA

PART TWO

LOCAL AND GLOBAL DRIVERS FOR CHANGE

JOHN K. HUDZIK

4. DRIVERS OF AND SPECULATION OVER THE FUTURE OF HIGHER EDUCATION INTERNATIONALIZATION

This chapter speculates on the future directions of higher education internationalization. It is driven by data related to the development of global higher education capacity in teaching/learning and research/scholarship as well as considering changes being imposed on higher education generally. Speculation centers on the futures of: mobility patterns and flows; cross border institutional competition and collaboration; patterns of multi-mission and comprehensive internationalization; rising expectations of accountability not only for higher education generally, but in outcomes and impacts from internationalization; and changing mixes of decision makers and priorities driving cross-border engagements.

Forecasting is inherently risky because it always has some probability of error associated with it. At best, forecasting is a mix of science and art. J. Scott Armstrong, (1978) a noted scholar and author on forecasting techniques advises that those in need of forecasters should not seek to hire the best, but rather the cheapest, with results thereby not being worse. Yet, while forecasts per se have error, one way to maximize error is not to consider plausible futures at all, thereby guaranteeing surprises at every turn. This article speculates about plausible futures for higher education internationalization as a means of stimulating further discussion.

A STARTING POINT FOR PLAUSIBLE FORECASTS ABOUT INTERNATIONALIZATION

Peter Drucker (1969) popularized concepts of the knowledge society and the knowledge economy. At the core of these concepts are the widespread generation and sharing of knowledge and its translation into innovation for societies. With globalization, the capacity of societies to generate and use such knowledge takes on a world-spanning scale. Knowledge becomes a key resource for the economies and cultures of contemporary societies—equal to, or perhaps surpassing the importance of the more traditional building blocks of "land, labor and capital."

The central role of universities in creating, shaping and applying knowledge for social and economic development is widely recognized. See for example the World Bank publication, "How Universities Promote Economic Growth." (Yusuf & Nabeshima, 2007; also, Hill, 2006). OECD analyses also find a strong correlation

E. Jones et al. (Eds.), Global and Local Internationalization, 23–30.

between GDP per capita and higher level literacy, numeracy, and analytical skills as measured by the Programme for the International Assessment of Adult Competencies (PIAAC) (van Damme, 2014); these higher level skills are the product of post-secondary and higher education capacity.

One consequence of growing global development and capacity is that the playing field for competition as well as collaboration is shifting from local/national to a global reference frame and increasingly in ideas and talent. Competition and collaboration in ideas require knowledge societies supported by high quality higher education systems. High-quality, cutting-edge higher education requires access to global pathways of learning, talent and ideas. Higher education institutions become a meeting ground of the local and the global.

CONTEMPORARY DRIVERS OF INTERNATIONALIZATION

The traditional drivers and motivations of internationalization were political and social and included the need for and benefits arising from building cross-cultural understanding, relations, peace, justice and mutual benefits of development. More recently the motivations and drivers have become more diverse to incorporate: (1) Recognition that the core missions and business of higher education (knowledge creation, transmission and application) are increasingly conducted across borders, and that higher education institutions function in a global market place; (2) a view that customers of higher education (e.g., students, communities and employers) live and work in a global environment, and that customers "at home" are global customers too; and (3) the over-arching needs of knowledge societies and economies are expanding to become part of a global market place. These combine to become powerful inducements for higher education to think strategically and comprehensively about engaging internationally, and intertwining local and global (Hudzik, 2015).

THE DEVELOPMENT OF GLOBAL HIGHER EDUCATION INSTRUCTIONAL AND RESEARCH CAPACITY

It is the global development of higher education capacity and trade routes that make more strategic and comprehensive internationalization among institutions both possible and necessary. Global capacity is "flattening" in Thomas Friedman's (2007) terms. Student demand and capacity projections vary, partly based on definitions of higher education, but one commonly referenced projection is for available spaces to increase from 100 to 250 million (or more globally) from 2000 to 2025 with most expansion occurring outside the U.S., Europe and the Antipodes (Ruby, 2010). Mobility also is projected to increase in the coming decade – from 2.3 million a decade or so ago to 4.1 million in 2011 (OECD Education at a Glance, 2013, & 2014) and to 7.2 million or more by 2025 (Banks et al., 2007; van Damme, 2014).

Perhaps more important is the elaboration of mobility models to include short and long term study abroad, degree seeking, non-credit-bearing study, active learning models and so forth (Waechter, 2013). If participation levels in all mobility models are counted in official statistics (which they are not uniformly), numbers will be even more robust than projected. The directions of mobility flows are also undergoing elaboration. Wildavsky (2010) points toward the emergence of "brain circulation" patterns that are global and multi-directional, involving both students and scholars, and with multiple instances of mobility by individuals. While brain drain remains an issue, it appears under modification owing to a wider variety of circulation paths.

Research capacity is spreading globally along with instructional capacity. Data reflect a similar "flattening" as well as shift in research capacity globally. This is plainly evident in global R&D expenditures comparing 1996 to 2014 projections. Data from the National Science Board (NSB) (2014) and the Battelle organization forecasts for 2014 (Grueber & Studt, 2013) show U.S. R&D expenditures dropping from 36% to 29% of the global total, the EU dropping from 27% to 22%, while Asia's proportion has risen from 23% to 35–39%. In 2014, The U.S. was projected to lead the world in total R&D expenditures at $465b (with China second at $284b, then Japan at $165b, Germany at $92b, and South Korea at $83b). Battelle (Grueber & Studt, 2013) predicts that China's R&D expenditures will surpass Europe's by 2019 and the US by 2023. Data also from the NSB (2014) reflect the rising quality of Chinese science and engineering articles as measured by citation rate.

A further trend of importance is that co-authorship of scholarly articles is on the rise having grown 67% between 1988 and 2010; but internationally co-authored articles (authors from more than one country) grew 300% during the same period (NSB, 2010; NSB, 2014). Envelope-pushing research is no longer centered in a few countries and one or two world regions. This has massive implications for where one looks for cutting edge ideas and for where institutions look to build research collaborations and partnerships.

It is not simply a matter of where the good ideas are, but also affordability. As Stephen Toope, former President of the University of British Columbia has pointed out, the rising cost of cutting edge research makes it increasingly difficult or impossible for a single institution to afford it; it must look for partners, and also increasingly the best partners are found across borders and regions (Loveland, 2011).

RISING COSTS AND PUBLIC AND PRIVATE INVESTMENT IN HIGHER EDUCATION

While public disinvestment in higher education is spreading, it does not manifest itself uniformly across all countries and regions. Yet, the trend as reflected in North America, portions of Europe and in the size of private sector higher education in all world regions reflects a significant per capita proportionate decline in public expenditures globally and a rise in private expenditures. Private expenditures for higher education have risen to 32% of total expenditures in 2010 – a 5–7 point increase compared to the not too distant past (van Damme, 2014).

Declining public revenues have consequences: (1) increased costs to consumers (students and parents) through rising tuition to compensate for declining public allocations; (2) growing private-like forces in public higher education in the form of pressures to diversify revenue through entrepreneurial activity, managerialism, commodification, and cost cutting (e.g., Sporn, 2003); and (3) rising pressures to demonstrate efficiency, outcomes and impacts. (Kehm & Teichler, 2007; Miller, 2006; APLU, 2011; & Henard et al., 2012). Further consequences include a far more cost-conscious consumer and an expansion of consumer cross-border comparison shopping based on cost effectiveness. The latter is aided by spread and growth in global higher education capacity and by global growth in the middle class.

THE GLOBAL MIDDLE CLASS

The middle class drives a wide range of consumer spending behaviors, including family funds for higher education. The upper middle class especially invests substantially in education, particularly when public sponsorship of higher education capacity falls short of demand. In numerous countries e.g., Brazil, S. Korea, Japan, Mexico, Poland (PROPHE, 2010) the private higher education sector is demand absorbing and private funding increasingly supports a large portion of mobility. Growing middle classes, particularly in developing economies, and inadequate higher education supply in many such countries, expand the numbers of mobile students, especially if there are intra-regional education opportunities.

The definition of middle class is open to debate, and differs substantially country to country because of purchasing power differences. The World Bank uses an income figure of $10–$100 per day to define middle class. While such amounts are inadequate in much of the developed west, these amounts in purchasing power parity (PPP) in several countries begin to elicit middle-class buying behaviors, including for education.

Massive growth in the world's middle class is underway, the vast majority in Asia and not in the developed West. Ernst and Young (2013), based on World Bank data, estimates the global middle class population will be about 3.2 billion by 2020 and 4.9 billion by 2030. The upper middle class will have its own substantial global growth, particularly in China where, in the views of some, self-funded mobility is in whole or in part becoming the norm (Choudaha et al., 2013).

TECHNOLOGY

The use of technology in education can expand access, improve cost effectiveness, and be demand absorbing. One aspect of global higher education competition will be those countries and systems which develop and market high-quality, technology-assisted education which in turn will require (a) development of flexible teaching models and pedagogies, (b) active learning components, and (c) availability of up-to-date technology as well as development of both faculty and students capable of making productive use of technology. Systems which adopt and adapt to such changes will likely thrive in a competitive global higher education market place; those mired in traditional pedagogies and education models will less so.

Some, such as MIT (2013) in its strategic planning and its commitment to MOOCs (massive open online courses), are recognizing that technology can flexibly spread the time and space in which teaching/learning can occur, and that further effects may result in recognizing that there is no optimal academic calendar. Through use of technology and increased virtual and physical mobility, education itself could become more unbundled and degrees disaggregated 'into smaller credential units, with the possibility that the credentialing entity may be different from the institution that offers the course or degree.

The global market place of higher education may come to look like a system of credentialed parts suppliers rather than sources of a completed product only (e.g., institutions as places offering complete degrees). Although perhaps this is an unrealistic view, technology networks may develop to proffer a catalog of network products to be assembled from a multitude of suppliers by a globally mobile (virtually and physically) consumer.

MORE SPECULATION ABOUT FUTURE DIRECTIONS IN HIGHER EDUCATION INTERNATIONALIZATION

Decision Makers and Leadership

As the motivations driving internationalization diversify and the global scale of international activity increases, the number of diverse institutional actors with significant stakes in the defining of international priorities will widen to shape priorities. This is particularly true of faculty when internationalization offers opportunities to strengthen research and scholarly capacity and impact the content and pedagogy of teaching and learning.

In institutions becoming more comprehensively engaged internationally, leadership may paradoxically both centralize as well as devolve to lower levels. On the one hand, centralization may strengthen when it comes to overall institutional priority setting and coordination, thereby strategically focusing international efforts—particularly in forming partnerships abroad. At the same time leadership may devolve also, to imbed responsibility at the level of academic units to deliver relevant instructional, scholarly and engagement activity.

Mobility

Mobility patterns and models of both students and scholars as well as models of inter-institutional collaboration are likely to become much more diverse and competitive as a result of developing global higher education capacity. Trade patterns will shift to strengthen Asian in-bound and out-bound mobility. While traditional receiving countries are likely to maintain aggregate numbers, they will decline significantly in the proportion of globally mobile students and scholars.

Basic demographics (e.g., declining birth rates) will alter flows of senders and receivers not only because of population changes, but excess or inadequate higher education capacities. Senders may evolve toward becoming receivers (e.g., China?) and countries with relatively low rates of mobility may evolve into major senders and receivers as their higher education capacity and middle classes develop. Intra-regional mobility will grow as a cost effective option.

Knowledge society demands and the global expansion of high quality instructional and research capacity worldwide will increase competition for the best in students and scholars. English is likely to remain a dominant language of exchange for some time, except as moderated by sender-receiver countries sharing Spanish. Chinese will rise in importance parallel to China's economic and socio-cultural influence. Traditional provider and sender countries will remap themselves in light of developing global higher education capacity, also following changing patterns of economic development and strength.

Cross-Border Collaborations and Partnerships

Cross-border partnerships are likely to evolve from single-purpose to multi-purpose (multi-mission) collaborations, e.g., from a dominance of student exchange agreements toward incorporating faculty exchange, research collaborations, joint bidding on research and projects, and dual/joint degrees. Among research and graduate intensive institutions, a strong set of drivers and priority setting for partnerships, collaborations and other forms of international activity will be driven by research, scholarship, and institutional reputation building.

Inter-institutional agreements are likely under diverse models: bi-lateral, multi-lateral, and network arrangements. They are also likely to be controlled in number to focus on strategic institutional priorities. The formation of memoranda of understanding are already taking on a more institutional and corporate cast, replacing MOUs arising from the interests of an individual or a particular academic unit alone.

For institutions engaging internationally across all missions (teaching, research and service) and across diverse disciplinary fields, there is likely to be increased attention to developing strategic and deep partnerships. But as no given set of partnerships can hope to meet all needs, the formation of global institutional networks may well take on increased importance. Networks can service a more diverse and complex array of interactions. Networks can be fixed in membership and roles or flexible (e.g., working with some members for x-type projects and other network members for y-type projects).

Setting the Internationalization Agenda

The agenda of internationalization (e.g., motivations, program priorities, terms of collaborative agreements, outcome expectations, and so forth) will be less dictated and shaped by the traditional higher education powers (e.g., Europe, North America, and the Antipodes) but more broadly, particularly by Asian markets and consumers and later also by markets, institutions, and consumers in other world regions.

Quality and Standards

With global expansion of suppliers in both educational and research capacity, global competition among institutions is likely to intensify in terms of both price and quality, following patterns similar to those in other industries and markets (e.g., automobiles). A shifting and constantly improving global standard of price and quality is likely to develop in response to an increasingly mobile and informed consumer and suppliers (also similar to patterns in other industries and markets). Government regulation is also likely to play a strong quality control role, but so will market forces.

The further development of world higher education capacity, coupled with a more mobile consumer (moving virtually as well as physically) will increase pressure for reform in low-performing systems. The question is whether homogenizing forces such as world ranking schemes or the emergence of a dominant global higher education culture will reduce beneficial diversity among systems and institutions.

IN SUM

Nothing is as certain as change, and perhaps nothing as uncertain as the details of change. However, as outlined in this article, expansion of the motivations and rationales for internationalization and its components, the widespread development of global higher education instructional and research capacity, and global economic development will no doubt alter traditional patterns and models of international higher education competition and collaboration. The markets for international activity will change as a result, likely impacting cost, quality, the role of technology and forms of partnerships and collaborations.

REFERENCES

Armstrong, J. S. (1978). *Long-range forecasting: From crystal ball to computer*. Canada: John Wiley and Sons.

Association of Public and Land Grant Universities (APLU). (2011). *The voluntary system of accountability*. Retrieved from http://www.voluntarysystem.org (Accessed July 2015).

Banks, M., Olsen, A., & Pearce, D. (2007). *Global student mobility: An Australian perspective five years on*. Canberra, Australia: IDP Education.

Chaudoha, R., Chang, L., & Kono, Y. (2013). International student mobility trends 2013: Towards responsive recruitment strategies. *WES, World Education News and Reviews*. New York, NY: World Education Services.

Drucker, P. (1969). *The age of discontinuity: Guidelines to our changing society*. New York, NY: Harper and Row.

Ernst & Young. (2013). *Hitting the sweet spot: The growth of the middle class in emerging markets*. EYGM, England.

Friedman, T. L. (2007). *The world is flat: A brief history of the twenty-first century*. New York, NY: Farrar, Straus and Giroux.

Grueber, M., & Studt, T. (2013, December). 2014 global R&D funding forecast. *Battelle: The Business of Innovation*. Retrieved from www.battelle.org

Hénard, F., Diamond, L., & Roseveare, D. (2012). Approaches to internationalisation and their implications for strategic management and institutional practice: A guide for higher education institutions. *OECD Higher Education Programme (IMHE)*. Paris, France: OECD.

Hill, K. (2006). *University research and local economic development*. Phoenix, AZ: W. P. Carey School of Business, Arizona State University.

Hudzik, J. K. (2015). *Comprehensive internationalization: Institutional pathways to success*. London, England: Routledge

Illuminate Consulting Group (IGC). (2014). Presentation and comments made at the June 2014 annual meeting of the British Columbia Centre for International Education, Summer, Seminar 2014.

Kehm, B. M., & Teichler, U. (2007). Research on internationalisation in higher education. *Journal of Studies in International Education, 11*, 260–273. doi:10.1177/1028315307303534

Loveland, E. (2011). Place and promise: An interview with Stephen J. Toope, president and vice-chancellor of the University of British Columbia. *International Educator, 20*, 22–28.

Massachusetts Institute of Technology (MIT). (2013). *Institute-wide task force on the future of MIT education: Preliminary report*. Massachusetts, MA.

Miller, C. (2006). *A test of leadership: Charting the future of U.S. higher education*. Washington, DC: Department of Education.

National Science Board (NSB). (2010). *Science and engineering indicators 2010*. Arlington, VA: National Science Foundation Board.

National Science Board (NSB). (2014). *Science and engineering indicators 2014*. Arlington, VA: National Science Foundation Board.

OECD. (2013). *Education at a glance 2013*. Paris, France: OECD Publishing.

OECD. (2014). *Education at a glance 2014*. Paris, France: OECD Publishing.

PROPHE. (2010). *Private and public higher education shares for 117 countries*. Program for Research on Private Higher Education. Retrieved from http://www.albany.edu/dept/eaps/prophe/data/international.htm (Accessed June 15, 2011).

Ruby, A. (2010). *The uncertain future for international higher education in the Asia-Pacific region*. Washington, DC: NAFSA: Association of International Educators.

Sporn, B. (2003). *Convergence or divergence in international higher education policy: Lessons from Europe*. Publications from the Forum for the Future of Higher Education.

van Damme, D. (2014). *The economics of international higher education*. Presented at the European Association for International Education, 25th Anniversary Event, Amsterdam, The Netherlands.

Waechter, B. (2013). *The drivers of mobility*. Presented at the ACA 20th Anniversary Conference, Academic Cooperation Association (ACA), The Hague, The Netherlands, 9–11 June, 2013.

Wildavsky, B. (2010). *The great brain race: How global universities are reshaping the world*. Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press.

Yusuf, S., & Nabeshima, K. (2007). *How universities promote economic growth*. Washington, DC: The World Bank.

John K. Hudzik
Michigan State University, USA
NAFSA Senior Scholar for Internationalization

HANNEKE TEEKENS

5. THE BIG QUESTIONS FOR THE 'WEST'

The 20th century was the Age of the West. A period where the developed world was dominant in both political and economic terms. The attack on the Twin Towers could be seen as the end of an era and its prevalent power structures. But old patterns die slowly and new structures need time to develop. This also concerns higher education, but new contours have clearly emerged and in a multi-centered world.

WHO WILL BE DEVELOPED AND WHY?

It is estimated that around 18,000 universities around the world provide degree programs and half of these institutions are in the developed world. One could even argue that the very notion of the modern research university is a western concept and a model that originated in Europe which was then emulated around the world. In Europe and North America universities played an important role in creating stable states and strong economies. Over the years increasing numbers of students through improved local access provided higher education with the talent and numbers necessary to sustain growth and innovation. At the same time mass higher education raised questions about quality and finance. Higher education became no longer an elitist privilege for the few, but a mass product for all. That is, at least, in the 'West'.

Capacity needs in other parts of the world still create a flow of students from the global 'South' to the developed world. Or putting it differently: after World War II growing numbers of students from underdeveloped countries came to universities in Europe and the US. Often those students were sponsored through aid programs. A disappointing number returned to their country of origin. The idea that their education in the developed world was going to help to build up their own societies came only true to some extent. On the other hand it is clear that those international graduates who have remained in their host countries have greatly contributed to the countries where they chose to settle. It is assumed that the number of Nigerian doctors in the UK is actually bigger than in Nigeria. Brain drain and brain gain are two sides of the same coin. Developed countries, like the Netherlands and Germany, now openly try to attract high potential students from all over the world to study in order to stay and join the workforce to sustain economic growth in the 'West'. In the 21st century development will be based on a knowledge based society where talent and innovation are in high demand. No longer are 'the West' and 'developed' simply synonymous. Development will take place where knowledge creation and

E. Jones et al. (Eds.), Global and Local Internationalization, 31–33.

validation is stimulated. That is a worldwide phenomenon and an important driving force behind globalization.

THE GLOBAL RE-INVENTION OF HIGHER EDUCATION

Higher education first developed to educate the professionals (medical doctors, lawyers, teachers etc.) in a given country and was closely linked to national interest. This is the reason why governments were willing to pay at the time. But this is no longer true; national interest, personal ambition and economic development do not necessarily overlap. Higher education has become a product in a global marketplace. This is not to say that national political interest has become obsolete, just think of visa regulations and tax measures. But universities have to re-invent themselves to cater for international classrooms and to face the challenges of the But universities have to re-invent themselves to cater for international classrooms and to face the challenges of the 'thumb generation', where students are permanently online and those virtual environments may be stronger that the physical reality of the lecture hall. As a consequence they are often less immersed in the host culture than former generations who were cut off from home while studying abroad.

The knowledge base of the 21st century is dependent on new ways of knowledge production. Many jobs, in fact whole sectors, that now sustain economic growth will no longer exist in the future. Not only change, but in particular the speed of technological progress puts high demands on the necessary adjustments to the pedagogical environment of higher teaching. Open access and blended learning pose questions, new opportunities and challenges. The sum total of these may provide a disruptive innovation with unprecedented impact. But the main factor is the international world of work; learning and working will increasingly blend. Not only because the job market demands it, but students will need it to meet changing requirements. The cost of higher education will only remain affordable if the total of student debts does not pose an economic risk. Forbes[1] estimates that at the moment in the US the total student debt is larger than the total credit card debt and is growing fast.

THE LOCAL FACTOR

For the first time in history more people live in urban environments than in rural ones. Increasingly this means living in mega cities of many millions of inhabitants. By 2050 it is expected that the world population will grow from 7 to 9 billion people and cities will expand accordingly. So will higher education, but not in the 'West'. The main growth will be in Asia, especially in China and India. This will have mayor implications for the flow of students around the world. The student flow from countries in development to the 'West' will change. For the time being perhaps not in actual numbers, but in quality. With increased capacity in countries like China, Vietnam, Indonesia and Malaysia, mobile students will make their choice based on quality and not because of capacity issues. The best students will remain at home and seek shorter stay international experiences, just as most students in the developed world do already. International internships and academic study placements will be equally sought after, providing the social networks to enhance employability. It is open to question as to whether the percentage of a little less than 2% mobile students in the world will actually change. It has not over the past 50 years. In other words, the huge increase in international education is mainly due to increased enrollment worldwide.

The local factor in higher education and the large number of students who will not be mobile mean we have to pay more attention to the internationalization of home students. How do we provide them with the skills to live and work in the 21st century, a century that is already typified by diversity and multi-culturalism. The local factor is also closely linked to demographic developments. Growing population numbers are more and more the result of a sharp increase in average age. Who cares for the old? Is political tension between generations the new class struggle?

In conclusion the main question for the 'West' is how do we cope with diversity at home and in the world. Is higher education capable of making the shift from traditional teaching and learning to new forms of knowledge production in sharp competition with what not so long ago was named 'the rest' and which may become the best.

NOTE

[1] www.forbes.com

Hanneke Teekens
Senior Fellow for Internationalization
NAFSA: Association of International Educators, USA

ROBERT COELEN

6. A LEARNER-CENTRED INTERNATIONALISATION OF HIGHER EDUCATION

As educators, we need to be aware of the forces that shape the future of education and the world for which we prepare our graduates. In an idealistic way, one can consider internationalisation of higher education the sector's response to globalisation. This is one of the most significant forces shaping the world. Another effect of greater economic interrelation is the growth of the global middle class, arguably the economic and social motor of the world. Emerging middle classes (when sufficient in number) enable a country to transform from an export-driven economy to one of domestic consumption. They demand quality and not just access to services. This was aptly demonstrated by the massive demonstrations against the government in Chile in the middle of 2011. After many decades of high economic growth (with the consequent development of the middle class segment), students and others demonstrated to implore the government to provide excellent education at low cost (Pezzini, 2012). Despite promises of a reform by President Michelle Batchelet, the students remain active in 2015 claiming inadequacy of the reforms.

Globalisation and greater economic wealth, in heretofore-developing areas, will dramatically change the order of things. After all, through the educational programs we create, we intend to prepare students to participate as global citizens. We prepare them for a (professional) world that is changing at an ever-increasing pace, fuelled by the demands of a burgeoning global middle class. The role of internationalisation of higher education will increase in urgency and importance. It is the intention of this paper to demonstrate that we need a paradigm shift in institutional culture in how we think and act to deliver education.

The rate of global change will accelerate over the next decade and-a-half and educators need to ensure that our graduates will be able to work and contribute gainfully over more than three times that period. If, as many institutes of higher education (IAU Global Survey on Internationalization of Higher Education – 2003, 2005, 2010, 2014) claim, our graduates are educated in such a way as to be able to apply their skills and knowledge in any cultural context both locally and globally, then we have our work cut out to make sure that our education delivers on that promise. Other often quoted reasons for internationalising higher education include the improvement of academic quality, the strengthening of research, attracting new students, generating revenue, and more and more enhancing prestige and reputation (Egron-Polak, 2012).

E. Jones et al. (Eds.), Global and Local Internationalization, 35–42.

Of particular concern in all this is to place the learner central to our thinking. For too long we have considered the various levels in education as separate entities that, although ostensibly connected, have developed too much in isolation. The impact of learner-centred education is that we smooth out transitions between the various levels. Probably more important is that we learn to let go of aspects of our own institution's education if we know that personal growth and capabilities see these aspects better addressed elsewhere. For example, linguists have told us that the ability to learn foreign languages decreases dramatically in quality after about 12 years of age. Why then do we wait in many educational systems until after that age to start giving foreign language instruction?

The notion that internationalisation of higher education is in part a response to globalisation says little about what it actually is. The term internationalisation has been used for a long time in politics and law, well before its rise to popularity in the educational context in the late 1980s to early 1990s.

This is not to say that prior to that time activities we now group under the term internationalisation did not occur at many universities throughout the world. International staff and student mobility, as an example of such an internationalisation activity, has been a feature of higher education almost since its inception. Indeed, the 'Authentica Habita' proclaimed by Frederik Barbarossa in 1158 in respect of the University of Bologna's staff and students, gave the foreign students and staff the opportunity to come and go as they pleased and assured their protection (Otterspeer, 2008).

Apart from international mobility there were a variety of other activities related to international pursuits. They were more generally referred to as multicultural education, international studies, peace education, or area studies (Jones & de Wit, 2012). The term internationalisation of education became popular in the 1990s and was meant to cover the international dimension of education. Its popularity reflected the gradual transfer of international activities from the margins of higher education to its core (Jones & de Wit, 2012).

Knight (2004, p. 11) refined the definition of internationalisation of higher education and proposed that:

> Internationalisation at the national, sector, and institutional levels is defined as the process of integrating an international, intercultural, or global dimension into the purpose, functions or delivery of post-secondary education.

This definition is comprehensive and refers to internationalisation as a process in which an additional dimension is added to that what is already carried out by institutes of higher education. This definition does not say anything about why one would want to internationalise higher education or what the outcomes of the internationalisation processes would be. Knight deliberately formulated this as neutral to allow for the many and varied interpretations, motivations, and outcomes related to this process.

The value of the definition by Knight is that from the perspective of university management it talks about a process of integrating certain dimensions into the normal functions of a university. The disadvantage of this definition is that it does not address the learner in the way that we think about them in respect of other elements of the learning process. Another disadvantage is that the measurement of success in internationalisation tends to focus on enumerating the extent of student mobility across the institution, and ticking boxes as to whether features of individual programs exist or not. Indeed, some of these parameters have ended up counting towards global ranking and world class.

Nowadays curricula should be designed to achieve learning outcomes. These learning outcomes are ideally framed in such a way as to motivate the learner to want to achieve them. Good curricula of course also assess whether the intended outcomes are indeed realised. These learning outcomes must be applicable in the next phase of a graduate's life long learning quest.

Over the last three years scholars have increasingly asked whether 'more of the same' constitutes a better form of internationalisation. It appears that the call is out to more precisely define the learning outcomes that are gained by internationalisation activities. Whilst previously these activities were defined by the location in which they occurred (abroad or at home), it appears more logical to refer to these activities as having an impact on the curriculum. This aligns better with the learner-centred approach and acknowledges that different learners will track through their learning experiences in a variety of ways. Increasingly, learning situations are made more individualised. Blended modes of learning, involving the provision of on-line learning materials, are becoming more commonplace. Joint degrees are increasing in number and are being encouraged. Students spend part of their learning at their 'home' institution and part of the same curriculum abroad. Indeed, some of the Erasmus Mundus programs can be initiated at one of several partner universities and concluded at any of the partners, as long as a student chooses more than one place to study. The distinction between what happens 'at home' and 'abroad' becomes blurred. Equally in programs where students go international together with their own academics (so-called island programs) the distinction between internationalisation at home and abroad becomes one of semantics. The 'external' environment changes, but the actors remain the same. In what sense is this then internationalisation abroad or at home? Indeed, Beelen and Jones (2015) address this key issue, arguing that it is a 'problematic distinction', before going on to propose a new definition of Internationalisation at Home (IaH) which, they argue, may be helpful in some contexts and for certain purposes:

> The purposeful integration of international and intercultural dimensions into the formal and informal curriculum for all students within domestic learning environments.

A similar argument can be brought for the recruitment of foreign students to campus. From the perspective of the inward bound foreign student this would, in the previously used distinction, be internationalisation abroad. For the students staying at their home campus this would have been called internationalisation at home. The distinction is borne out of the perspective of the learner, however for both this could be called internationalisation of the curriculum. A similar difference of perspective exists for staff working with foreign colleagues on their campus. Whose perspective prevails?

The foregoing argues for the term internationalisation of the curriculum as a mantle for internationalisation insofar as it relates to the teaching and learning functions of a university. The distinction of ‘at home’ or ‘abroad’ as discussed is less relevant and moves the focus away from the learner. The definition of internationalisation proposed in this paper benefits from this more inclusive and, especially, learner-centred approach.

The state of internationalisation should be measured. Most frequently, this involves enumerating the extent of the various activities such as outlined above. Some of these parameters have also found their way into global ranking of higher education institutes. These tend to be quantitative data such as the number or proportion of international students on campus, the proportion of international academics, or the proportion of programs taught in a foreign language. Jones (2013) argues that for the assessment to be effective and holistic, it also requires qualitative evaluation. Jones proposed the 7R’s method (rationale, route (strategy), realisation, report, return (qualitative evaluation), review, revise) of evaluating internationalisation. In which the qualitative evaluation measures the value of the activities, rather than the quantitative aspects.

For a long time, the prevailing thought has been that as long as the quantity of activities was sufficient, more and more students would receive the benefits of this internationalisation. Thus, senior management of universities, along with national, and international organisations, pursued ways to increase the extent of these activities. There was a degree of acceptance that different type of activities were relevant depending on the discipline involved and that the internationalisation landscape would be uneven across the spectrum of university offerings. This kind of thinking was well aligned with the paradigm that prevailed for a long time in higher education in which the delivery of the appropriate materials coupled with the didactic methodology would ensure the graduation of young persons ready to face the challenges of the world.

This thinking is undergoing rapid changes and for some time now the processes involved in teaching and learning have been assessed for their effectiveness in terms of learning outcomes. Programs are increasingly being designed with learning outcomes in mind, rather than teaching inputs.

Studies of learning outcomes in terms of internationalisation indicate that, unlike what was previously thought, mere participation in internationalisation activities does not adequately confer learning outcomes that are sought in relation to these aspects. Whilst Euler and Rami (2006, cited in Behrnd & Porzelt, 2012) were quoted as demonstrating increases in intercultural competence for sojourners going abroad, Williams (2005) made similar findings, and the Erasmus Impact study also demonstrated this for tolerance of ambiguity amongst other impacts (European Commission, 2014), others have not been so definite about this. Stephenson (2002) found that many factors play a role as to whether any gains are made in intercultural competence. Behrnd and Porzelt (2012) showed that there was some effect from staying abroad. However, their post-hoc analysis showed that 10 months was critical for developing increased intercultural competence. This is far longer a period than most students spend abroad. Whilst time abroad was significant, whether the student had prior experience abroad or not had no effect.

It may just be that the impact of personality traits that, quite stable over time, affect the observable speed of change of intercultural competence (see also Kostelijk this volume). This may be due to the relatively short duration of such experiences. Indeed, Dwyer (2004) and also Stronkhorst (2005) also demonstrated that longer time periods were required to develop additional intercultural competence. Finally, both Wiers-Jenssen (2010) and the Erasmus Impact Study (European Commission, 2014) have shown that internationally mobile students often have higher existing social capital and attendant competences before going abroad (see also Brandenburg et al., this volume). This may point to a degree of selection, the effect of which has not been able to be separated from the impact of mobility.

It has been argued that, without intervention, students made no significant progress in intercultural competence development from studying abroad alone (see for example Bosley, 2010). Only if specific attention was paid to intercultural aspects did any shift in intercultural competence occur. The last word on this issue has not been said. Parsons (2009) concluded from a study with students in Australia and the United States that there were positive effects from all aspects of an internationalised education.

It appears that unless specific and detailed attention is paid to the intercultural aspects of an internationalisation activity, unless students are given the opportunity to reflect on their feelings and their attitudes towards what is happening as they encounter another culture, they will not gain much in respect of their intercultural competences. Indeed, it has been demonstrated that such specific attention may be given, before, after, and/or during the internationalisation activity for the effect to be enhanced and for some intercultural competence enhancement to occur (Behrnd & Porzelt, 2012).

The international awareness and knowledge about foreign countries and cultures is more readily dealt with by explicitly introducing such information into learning materials and presents less of a problem. Nevertheless, it must be programmed into the curriculum; otherwise the desired outcomes may not be achieved. Indeed, evaluation of the achieved learning outcomes must take place to ensure that they match the intended outcomes. Equally, examples and case studies must be examined for cultural bias, to ensure that learning materials are readily accessible and understood by students from a variety of cultural backgrounds. Indeed the starting point for curriculum should also be considered; from whose perspective is it written?

Leask (2015) considers this and other fundamental questions. These are particularly important when international students are invited on campus to participate in programs or when programs are mobilised into other cultural contexts. The idea that foreign students have to come with the same ‘cultural baggage’ as local students in order to participate, diminishes the quality of their experience (if not present) and may lead to complete disengagement from the learning process.

The learner-centred definition for internationalisation of higher education proposed in this paper needs to be seen in the context of a chain of situations, in which the learner is the constant, who connects the various elements of the chain. As higher education institutes, we receive students from secondary education. They undergo a teaching and learning process with us that is to further their transformation. This transformation, whether it takes place just in the undergraduate phase, or also during postgraduate learning, is aimed at making them ready for the next link in the chain and to instil a desire for life long learning.

Thus, the learner’s first work place may provide an opportunity where the learning outcomes are brought to bear on a work environment. Whether this work environment is defined in terms of what are the most optimal learning outcomes with reference to internationalisation, and to what extent this varies depending on a particular environment is, for the purpose of this discussion, not dealt with here. However, it is thought that this aspect needs careful analysis and definition so that higher education institutes may focus on the most appropriate domain-relevant aspects. The same can be said for the learner’s interaction with society at large as a global citizen.

The chain, as described above could easily be expanded to include primary education. Given that the one central aspect in defining learning outcomes is the individual, it may be appropriate to add a learner-centred definition of internationalisation. The definition proposed in this paper, in respect of students in higher education is that:

> Internationalisation of higher education constitutes the provision of an environment containing such elements that a learner is given the opportunity to attain achieved learning outcomes associated with international awareness and intercultural competence.

It should be noted that the elements of this environment are not just parts of the curriculum, but also constitute important aspects such as the senior management support, support services, and processes that create and evaluate a holistic internationalisation (Jones, 2013). The quality of this environment relies on a whole-of-institute approach and must recognise the diversity of willingness to support internationalisation.

To take full advantage of the chain of learning situations, it is necessary to add that one of the links in the educational chain should take responsibility for the overall management. The very organisations that are capable of providing the evidence for the placement of appropriate learning relevant to the state of development of the individual (higher education) are possibly best placed to provide at least the advice on the management of the chain. Appropriate organisations should work with this advice to improve the chain.

The proposed definition gives centrality to the transformation of the individual; with all the attendant benefits. It focuses the shaping of the environment towards achieving (or expressing) learning outcomes. Thus, it differs from definitions that place the activities of an organisation in the central position. Whilst such definitions are convenient from a management perspective, they may draw attention away from organising internationalisation activities in such a way as to achieve learning outcomes related to international awareness and intercultural competence. This definition also acknowledges that, argued from the perspectives of institutes of higher education, we receive students with predefined prior learning outcomes, and that the learner will leave us for another chapter in their life long learning and ultimately contribute both locally and globally to the longevity of this world.

REFERENCES

Beelen, J., & Jones, E. (2015) Redefining internationalisation at home. In A. Curaj, L. Matei, R. Pricopie, J. Salmi, & P. Scott (Eds.), *The European higher education area: Between critical reflections and future policies*. New York, NY: Springer International. ISBN:978-3-319-18767-9

Behrnd, V., & Porzelt, S. (2012). Intercultural competence and training outcomes of students with experiences abroad. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations, 36*(2), 213–223.

Bosley, G. W. (2010). Beyond immersion: Global engagement and transformation through intervention via student reflection in long-term study abroad. In E. Jones (Ed.), *Internationalisation and the student voice: Higher education perspectives* (pp. 55–67). London, England: Routledge.

Dwyer, M. M. (2004). More is better: The impact of study abroad program duration. *Frontiers: The Interdisciplinary Journal of Study Abroad, 10*, 151–164.

Egron-Polak, E. (2012). Re-thinking internationalization – Internationalization of higher education – An introduction. *IAU Horizons, 17*(3), 15–16.

European Commission. (2014). The Erasmus impact study: Effects of mobility on the skills and employability of students and the internationalisation of higher education institutions. *European Commission: Education and Culture*. Retrieved from http://ec.europa.eu/education/library/study/2014/erasmus-impact_en.pdf (Accessed July 2015).

Jones, E. (2013). The global reach of universities: Leading and engaging academic and support staff in the internationalisation of higher education. In R. Sugden, M. Valania, & J. R. Wilson (Eds.), *Leadership and cooperation in academia: Reflecting on the roles and responsibilities of university faculty and management* (pp. 161–183). Cheltenham, England: Edward Elgar.

Jones, E., & de Wit, H. (2012). Globalization of internationalization: Thematic and regional reflections on a traditional concept. *AUDEM: The International Journal of Higher Education and Democracy, 3*, 35–54.

Knight, J. (2004). Internationalization remodeled: Definition, approaches, and rationales. *Journal of Studies in International Education*, *8*(1), 5–31.

Leask, B. (2015). *Internationalising the curriculum*. London, England: Routledge

Otterspeer, W. (2008). *Het Bolwerk van de Vrijheid*. Leiden, The Netherlands: Leiden University Press.

Parsons, R. L. (2009). The effects of an internationalized university experience on domestic students in the United States and Australia. *Journal of Studies in International Education, 14*(4), 313–334.

Pezzini, M. (2012). *An emerging middle class*. Retrieved from http://www.oecdobserver.org/news/fullstory.php/aid/3681/ (Accessed July 2015).

Stephenson, S. (2002). Beyond the lapiths and the centaurs: Cross-cultural “deepening” through study abroad. In W. Grünzweig & N. Rinehart (Eds.), *‘Rockin’ in red square: Critical approaches to international education in the age of cyberculture (Education & Innovation)* (pp. 85–104). Münster, Germany: Lit Verlag.
Stronkhorst, R. (2005). Learning outcomes of international mobility at two Dutch institutions of higher education. *Journal of Studies in International Education, 9*(4), 292–315.
Wiers-Jenssen, J. (2011). Background and employability of mobile vs. non-mobile students. *Tertiary Education and Management, 17*(2), 79–100.
Williams, T. R. (2005). Exploring the impact of study abroad on students’ intercultural communication skills: Adaptability and sensitivity. *Journal of Studies in International Education, 9*(4), 356–371.

Robert Coelen
Professor of Internationalisation of Higher Education
Stenden University of Applied Sciences, The Netherlands

FIONA HUNTER

7. THE TRANSFORMATIVE POWER OF ORGANISATIONAL SAGAS

Throughout human history, people have told stories as a powerful means to communicate ideas. Each one of us, in our different countries and cultures, grew up on the stories that shaped our world and our understanding of it. And stories continue into our adult and professional lives, even though we may become less aware of the part they play and how they influence us in the way we think and behave. The power of storytelling is researched in the business world and Montague (2013), writes that good companies are storytellers but great companies are "story*doers*. They do not only tell the story but they advance it through action.

That difference becomes clearer to me as I interact with many universities in different contexts and countries around the world. The global challenges might be the same for all, but the response is always a local one. And in my experience there is a fundamental difference in higher education between those who talk and those who act. Montague (ibid.) in his article describes the nature of storydoing in 6 points, which I would like to use to illustrate the transformative power of the organisational saga in our world of higher education and how it can enable each university to develop its unique response to the pressures of a changing environment.

THEY HAVE A STORY

And it is a compelling one. Burton Clark (1972) defines the organisational saga in higher education as an intrinsically historical account of accomplishment that has been embellished through retelling and rewriting. It generates a sense of identity and institutional spirit that pervades and protects the organisation and influences its performance.

Sagas require certain conditions. They initiate in institutions with a strong purpose. Over the years, the original believers will successfully expand the idea so that it finds expression in the academic culture and performance. Unique academic practices, symbols, rituals will emerge as expressions of institutional distinctiveness and the institutional beliefs will be actively perpetuated and promoted by the organisational members.

A saga is a powerful means to unite people through a common belief and sense of uniqueness. It creates a strong emotional sense of community and belonging. It is a valuable resource for building trust and loyalty, which will give the university a

E. Jones et al. (Eds.), Global and Local Internationalization, 43–46.

competitive edge as its members believe in – and are proud of – the distinctiveness of their organisation. Put simply, people are willing to go the extra mile.

THEIR STORY IS ABOUT A LARGER AMBITION TO MAKE THE WORLD OR PEOPLE'S LIVES BETTER

We could argue that advancement has always been the mission of higher education, but the new competitive environment is forcing universities to make fundamental changes in the way they operate. A well-devised mission characterises the institution, but it will necessarily evolve over time. Those in possession of a compelling story of uncommon effort and achievement have a unique tool to reaffirm their purpose and adapt accordingly.

While there may be similarity of response among institutions operating in the same environment, each university's translation of its own purpose will give rise to a unique combination that is its own story. It is in re-interpreting the mission in a way that reflects the beliefs and values of the institution that it will also identify a clear direction for action.

THE STORY IS UNDERSTOOD AND CARED ABOUT BY SENIOR LEADERSHIP

At a time when adjusting to the new environment often leads to disruptive change, universities need leadership that can inspire people to act in unfamiliar – and what they might perceive as unwelcome – ways. Response to changing conditions can be developed explicitly through mission and strategy, but also implicitly through cultural change. Through a retelling and re-enacting of the story. That is a leadership role.

Leaders create the credible vision for the future but that vision must build on the institutional story. To do so they will need an acute historical sense of institutional dynamics but also believe in the university mission and care for its future. A university with a compelling saga can build on its past successes but equally, those institutions with weak sagas and negative stories will be less well equipped to imagine a bright future. Whether starting from a strong or weak point of departure, it is a leadership task to recount the next chapter of the saga. And it is leadership behaviour that will make it credible.

THAT STORY IS BEING USED TO DRIVE TANGIBLE ACTION THROUGHOUT THE ORGANISATION: PRODUCTS, POLICIES, PROCESSES

It is not just storytelling but storydoing. The vision should lead to implementation. Readjusting the university to a shifting set of challenges will require a set of actions. And those actions will lead to change. It will have implications for the academic portfolio, not only what is offered, but how it is delivered and to whom. It will have implications for research, what is done, where and with which partnerships. Changes in the academic activities will impact the support structures, tools and processes, the competences that are required, the staff that are selected and promoted. Such decisions will affect resource management, not only in terms of providing human capacity to deliver the change, but in determining financial health to sustain it.

And the bigger the change, the more important the saga, and the values it communicates, will become in reinforcing the daily actions and beliefs of the different members. Each university has its own strengths and weaknesses. There are those that are better endowed and better placed to respond because of age, size, location, reputation, financial or human resources but the institution's self-belief plays a major part in activating the response. The structures or processes in themselves will not generate responsiveness. They are essential but not sufficient to bring about the transformation. People must be willing to walk the talk.

THESE ACTIONS – TAKEN WITH ENERGY AND ENTHUSIASM – ADD BACK UP TO A COHESIVE WHOLE

Leadership may initiate and drive the process but institutional will sustains it. Leaders need to ensure that that the new values and practices are embraced by the members and embedded in institutional life. They will evolve to become the new version of the story.

Responding to the environment is not an easy task for any institution, no matter how well endowed. Each university is faced with a particular set of conditions both in its internal and external environment that may constrain its response, but it is those institutions with a strong sense of shared purpose and identity that will find the energy and enthusiasm to respond rather than submit to the challenges. In other words, change happens and is sustained over time.

CUSTOMERS AND PARTNERS (OR IN OUR CASE STUDENTS AND STAKEHOLDERS) ARE MOTIVATED TO ENGAGE WITH THE STORY AND ARE ACTIVELY USING IT TO ADVANCE THEIR OWN STORIES

A saga that is actively perpetuated but also promoted by all institutional stakeholders in their different activities and practices will be understood beyond the institution in the wider environment. This may be part of a carefully planned consultation and communication strategy but is also realised through a myriad of informal, spontaneous interactions as all the stakeholders, internal and external, engage with others in their personal and professional lives. Each tells their own version of the same story and in doing so reinforces reputation and builds the extended network. Internal and external stories align, positioning the university in its environment and creating opportunity for new partnerships and projects. As people come together in new endeavours, the storyline is continued and enriched.

IN CONCLUSION

In my work with higher education institutions, I am increasingly drawn to both Montague's storydoing and Clark's organisational saga as concepts to explain why, in the face of similar local and global challenges, some universities are more responsive than others. The energy to embark on a process of transformation lies in the institution's perception of purpose and self-belief. The saga opens the institution up to possibilities for reinvention and regeneration, as it retells and re-enacts its own story. It changes in order to stay the same: that is the transformative power of an organisational saga.

REFERENCES

Clark, B. R. (1972, June). The organizational Saga in higher education. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 17*(2), 178–184.

Montague, T. (2013). Good companies are storytellers: Great companies are storydoers. *Harvard Business Review Blog Network*. Retrieved from https://hbr.org/2013/07/good-companies-are-storyteller/ (Accessed July 2015).

Fiona Hunter
Research Associate
Centre for Higher Education Internationalisation (CHEI)
Università Cattolica del Sacro Cuore Milan, Italy

PART THREE

GLOBAL AND LOCAL DIMENSIONS OF CURRICULUM INTERNATIONALIZATION

BETTY LEASK

8. INTERNATIONALIZING CURRICULUM AND LEARNING FOR ALL STUDENTS

There has been a resurgence of interest in internationalization of the curriculum in theory and in practice in recent years. Internationalization of the curriculum does have the potential to connect broader institutional agendas focused on internationalization with student learning. However, there is a tendency to focus internationalization of the curriculum more on what *some* students will *experience* than on what *all* students will *learn*. All students will live in a globalized world, as professionals and citizens and this is a common rationale for internationalization. Therefore it is not surprising that most university policy statements contain bold claims that their graduates will have international and global perspectives and be ready and able to make a positive difference in our increasingly interconnected yet divided world.

Exactly how these statements are connected with student learning in the disciplines is not clear but they are often linked to internationalization of the curriculum. In many universities, internationalization of the curriculum is associated with activities such as student mobility. However, outbound student mobility usually involves only a small percentage of students. In some universities the focus of internationalization of the curriculum is on teaching in English but rarely in/for all programs, and the connection between teaching in English and the achievement of international and intercultural learning outcomes is not clear. In other cases the focus of internationalization of the curriculum may be primarily on content through the inclusion of specialized optional international modules and in others on increasing student diversity in the classroom and on campus without considering how this will internationalize student learning. Individually and collectively these approaches are insufficient. They are focused on inputs rather than outcomes. Internationalization of the curriculum must become more directly connected to all students' learning.

THE BASICS

This illustrates that there is often confusion about what the term internationalization of the curriculum actually means and how it is connected with student learning. The following definition, developed over six years and informed by extant international literature and extensive work in universities in Australia emphasizes the active engagement of students in the learning process and, through this, the systematic and

E. Jones et al. (Eds.), Global and Local Internationalization, 49–53.

purposeful development of international and intercultural learning outcomes in all students:

> Internationalisation of the curriculum is the process of incorporating international, intercultural and global dimensions into the content of the curriculum as well as the learning outcomes, assessment tasks, teaching methods and support services of a program of study. (Leask, 2015, p. 9)

The definition highlights the need to move beyond approaches to internationalization of the curriculum based on inputs such as content or isolated, optional experiences and activities for a few students that do not link directly to international and intercultural learning outcomes.

It is useful to distinguish between the *process* of internationalization of the curriculum as defined above and the *product*, an internationalized curriculum. Consistent with the above definition of the *process,* an internationalized curriculum;

> Will engage students with internationally informed research and cultural and linguistic diversity and purposefully develops their international and intercultural perspectives as global professionals and citizens. (Leask, 2009, p. 209)

Distinguishing between product (an internationalized curriculum) and process (internationalization of the curriculum) helps to distinguish between the *end* and the *means*, an enduring source of confusion as evidenced by, for example statements that claim mobility programs as evidence of internationalization of the curriculum. Mobility programs are a possible means by which a small number of students *might* achieve desired international and intercultural learning outcomes.

Focusing internationalization of the curriculum on learning outcomes rather than inputs will open up greater potential for all students and the possibility of connecting previously unrealized policy statements with student attainment.

AN INTERNATIONALIZED CURRICULUM FOCUSED ON STUDENT LEARNING

There are two useful and connected ways to focus the internationalized curriculum on student learning. First, by ensuring the process of internationalization occurs within the context of the different cultures and practices of knowing, doing and being in the discipline. This means we must *engage faculty in the process*. Second, by ensuring that faculty who do not have the experience, skills or knowledge required to internationalize the curriculum are supported by *expert facilitators* in the process of defining intended internationalized learning outcomes and assisting all students to achieve them.

Disciplines have distinct cultures and values (Becher & Trowler, 2001) and different approaches to internationalizing the curriculum (Clifford, 2009). In addition, approaches to internationalization of the curriculum will also be influenced by ‘individual differences between academics working in the same context’

(Whitsed & Green, 2015, p. 291). Faculty will need to be clear about why they think internationalization of the curriculum is important for their program but it is often the case that they have not discussed this in any depth.

In the various discussions I have had with academic staff over the years the most effective starting point for our discussions about internationalizing the curriculum has been to raise the question 'Why bother?' I get them to discuss, sometimes in discipline groups and sometimes in mixed discipline groups, why they think internationalization of the curriculum is important for their program. Here are some of the rationales they have developed:

As members of a caring profession nurses have an ethical responsibility towards all members of the global community (Bachelor of Nursing).

We have a responsibility to empower staff, students and industry to be global citizens and practitioners. This means they must be:

- Able to enact their ethical and social responsibilities in relation to the impact of global media communications;
- Sensitive to the varied cultural responses to communications in international, regional and local markets;
- Respectful, ethical, responsible, adaptive and flexible;
- Critically aware of the impact of their own culture on the way they feel and act towards others in a global context. (Bachelor of Media and Communication).

> The big problems in biology are international problems that require international solutions. There are many important problems to be solved in the developing world. (Bachelor of Biological Sciences)

> Scientists in a globalised world need to be able to critically analyse the connections between culture, knowledge and professional practice in science, employ problem-based methodologies and be flexible, adaptive and reflexive problem solvers who can conduct community-based as well as industry-based investigations. (Bachelor of Science, based on Carter, 2008, p. 629)

Rationales such as these provide the foundation on which the rest of the curriculum can be designed. They give purpose and meaning to the task in the context of the discipline and the program of study (Leask, 2015, p. 24).

Once the rationale is clear, program teams, as distinct disciplinary communities, do need to engage in discussions and debates on the international and intercultural learning outcomes that their graduates will require to be effective professionals and citizens in a globalized world. If their students are to achieve the intended international and intercultural learning outcomes they subsequently describe, faculty will need to develop a clear and systematic plan to support their students' learning. Learning activities in different modules/subjects/courses at all year levels of the program will need to be designed to incrementally develop students' international perspectives and intercultural skills. And students will need formal and informal feedback on their international and intercultural learning and advice on how to improve their performance at different levels of the program. Hence the process of internationalization of the curriculum must be undertaken by faculty and engaging them in the process of designing the curriculum, with a specific focus on defining specific 'internationalized' learning outcomes, is a critical part of any institution's internationalization strategy.

However, once engaged, not all faculty will have the experience, skills or knowledge required to internationalize the curriculum and many will need to be supported throughout the process. Facilitation and support are important because faculty who are not prepared may adopt a narrow focus such as viewing mobility as the solution to an internationalized curriculum. This will have serious consequences for the international strategy of the university and student learning. It is important not only to create the motivation to start the *process* of internationalizing the curriculum (Leask & Bridge, 2012) but also to ensure persistence (Carroll, p. 105). Expert facilitators play a very important role at different stages of the process. They can assist in defining intended internationalized learning outcomes and developing learning approaches and assessment strategies to ensure all students achieve the intended international learning outcomes in individual courses/subjects and across a program of study. These interventions are sometimes best facilitated by an expert advisor or consultant in internationalization of the curriculum (Carroll, 2015; de Wit & Beelen, 2012).

Facilitators may come from outside the discipline or the university as well as from within. They may provide guidance and advice as well as practical support. There should be an emphasis on building the capacity of faculty as the champions of the future, with the skills and knowledge to assist others to address critical issues and key questions associated with internationalization of the curriculum across disciplines and across the institution over time. In this way internationalization of the curriculum will become an ongoing process focused on student learning in which faculty are deeply engaged.

Approaches to and interpretations of internationalization of the curriculum will inevitably vary across disciplines. Regardless of the disciplinary and institutional context, focusing internationalization of the curriculum on learning outcomes rather than inputs provides greater potential for all students and the possibility of connecting previously unrealized policy statements with student attainment. This puts faculty and the disciplines at the center of internationalization of the curriculum.

REFERENCES

Becher, T., & Trowler, P. (2001). *Academic tribes and territories: Intellectual enquiry and the cultures of the disciplines* (2nd ed.). Buckingham, England: Society for Research into Higher Education and Open University Press.

Carroll, J. (2015). *Tools for teaching in an educationally mobile world*. Abingdon, England: Routledge.

Carter, L. (2008). Globalization and science education: The implications of science in the new economy. *Journal of Research in Science Teaching*, *45*(5), 617–633.

Clifford, V. (2009). Engaging the disciplines in internationalising the curriculum. *International Journal for Academic Development*, *14*(2), 133–143.

de Wit, H., & Beelen, J. (2012). Socrates in the low countries: Designing, implementing and facilitating internationalisation of the curriculum at the Amsterdam university of applied sciences (HvA). In J. Ryan (Ed.), *Cross-cultural teaching and learning for home and international students: Internationalisation of pedagogy and curriculum in higher education* (pp. 156–167). London, England: Routledge.

Leask, B. (2009). Using formal and informal curricula to improve interactions between home and international students. *Journal of Studies in International Education*, *13*(2), 205–221.

Leask, B. (2015). *Internationalizing the curriculum*. Abingdon, England: Routledge.

Leask, B., & Bridge, C. (2013). Comparing internationalisation of the curriculum across the disciplines: Theoretical and practical perspectives. *Compare: A Journal of Comparative and International Education* (Special issue: Contemporary issues in the Internationalisation of Higher Education: Critical and Comparative Perspectives), *43*(1), 79–101.

Whitsed, C., & Green, W. (2015). Critical reflections on the internationalization of the curriculum. In W. Green & C. Whitsed (Eds.), *Critical perspectives on internationalising the curriculum in the Disciplines: Reflective narrative accounts from business, education and health.* Rotterdam, The Netherlands: Sense Publishers.

Betty Leask
Pro Vice Chancellor Teaching and Learning
La Trobe University, Melbourne, Australia

JOS BEELEN

9. GLOBAL AT HOME

Internationalisation at Home in the 4th Global Survey

INTRODUCTION

> A significant development in the conceptualisation of internationalisation has been the introduction of the term[s] 'internationalisation at home' […]. (Knight, 2013, p. 85)

The *4th Global Survey* of the International Association of Universities (Egron-Polak & Hudson, 2014), is a fitting topic for this publication for three reasons. First, because Hans de Wit has been closely involved, through his membership of the Advisory Committee, with the Global Surveys, while at the same time raising critical questions about its outcomes (see e.g., de Wit & Beelen, 2014). He also critiqued the conceptualisation of internationalisation as mobility only and advocated Internationalisation at Home as a means to provide internationalisation opportunities to all students (see e.g., de Wit & Jones, 2012; de Wit & Jooste, 2014).

A second reason is that the Global Surveys are the only available source for quantitative research on Internationalisation at Home at local levels but on a global scale. The Surveys paint an aggregate global picture based on a regional structure and informed by local universities. It therefore connects the global and the local in the internationalisation of higher education.

A third, and final, reason is that the 4th Global Survey was the first to include dedicated questions on Internationalisation at Home, where previous surveys just included this concept merely as an item in some of the questions. This article therefore also looks back at critical review (Beelen, 2011) of the *3rd Global Survey* (Egron-Polak & Hudson, 2010) and reflects on the extent to which the dedicated questions in the *4th Global Survey* have led to a better understanding of policies and practices for Internationalisation at Home.

The outcomes of the *4th Global Survey* are compared and complemented here with those of two other recent surveys: *Trends 2015* of the European University Association (Sursock, 2015) and the *EAIE Barometer* of the European Association for International Education (Engel et al., 2015), with recent literature and with experiences of Internationalisation at Home in practice. In order to place the outcomes of these surveys in context, we first explore their respective aims, the composition of the respondents and further relevant differences and similarities.

E. Jones et al. (Eds.), Global and Local Internationalization, 55–65.

On the basis of the surveys, six key issues are considered with regard to Internationalisation at Home: strategies and priorities, activities that universities undertake to implement their strategies, internationalised learning outcomes and their assessment, the experience and expertise of academic staff, professional development for Internationalisation at Home and, finally, the role of international officers in the process of Internationalisation at Home. After the discussion of each issue, recommendations for the 5th Global Survey are given, where relevant.

Out of the discussion of the six issues, a number of misconceptions arise, some of which have already been identified by de Wit (2011). In the concluding section of the chapter, a summary of recommendations for the 5th Global Survey is given and conclusions are drawn.

SURVEYS COMPARED

The surveys discussed here are: the *4th Global Survey* (Egron-Polak & Hudson, 2014), *Trends 2015: Learning and Teaching in European Universities* by the European Association of Universities (EAU) (Sursock, 2015) and *The EAIE Barometer; Internationalisation in Europe* by the European Association for International Education (EAIE). The three surveys have different aims, geographical scopes and respondents but also have enough similarities to compare their outcomes in relation to Internationalisation at Home. Those similarities and differences are first explored here.

The *4th Global Survey* focuses on internationalisation in higher education across the globe. The outcomes are given both at regional and aggregate global levels. For comparison with the two other surveys, the regional data for Europe are given here, as far as they are included in the report. The regional results for Europe were based on 609 Higher Education Institutions (HEI's) (45% of the global sample). 42% of the respondents identified themselves as international officers (Egron-Polak & Hudson, 2014, p. 39).

Considering that nearly half the respondents of the *4th Global Survey* were international officers, some of their views were already known before the publication of the *EAIE Barometer,* which is entirely focused on European practitioners in international higher education. The aim of the *EAIE Barometer*, the first of its kind, was to gain insight into the role, challenges and needs of practitioners in internationalisation at European HEI's. The respondents consisted of 2,093 practitioners, mainly international officers, at 1,500 HEI's.

Trends 2015 looks more broadly at how European HEI's have adapted their learning and teaching to the Bologna reforms and other contextual change drivers. The respondents represented 451 universities. Only 13% of the respondents identified themselves as international officers.

The two European surveys give a break down of respondents by country. The *EAIE Barometer* shows that The Netherlands is overrepresented with 230 HEI respondents, more than Germany, France and Italy combined (Engel et al., 2015, p. 17). The Nordic countries are well represented too. In *Trends 2015* the top contributors in terms of respondents are Germany, Italy, Turkey and Poland (Engel et al., 2015, p. 120, Fig. 29).

This shows that, in the *EAIE Barometer*, countries where Internationalisation at Home has a relatively strong presence are well represented, while countries with many respondents in *Trends 2015* come from the other side of the spectrum.

The three surveys approach benefits and strategies for internationalisation differently. While the *4th Global Survey* includes questions on the benefits of internationalisation and connected policies and strategies, without mentioning the content of those strategies, the *EAIE Barometer* includes both a question on the benefits of internationalisation and on the content of strategies.

STRATEGIES AND PRIORITIES

The question on the content of strategies in the *EAIE Barometer* shows that 56% of European HEI's which responded include Internationalisation at Home in their strategies for internationalisation. However, 68% also include the related concept of internationalisation of the curriculum (Engel et al., 2015, p. 41, Fig. 4.2). The distinction between the two concepts is not made in the survey and the respondents were therefore most likely not aware that internationalisation of the curriculum may include the 'abroad' while Internationalisation at Home considers the 'abroad' an additional learning experience to the home curriculum. Beelen and Jones (2015) have explored these distinctions and proposed a new definition for Internationalisation at Home along these lines.

While both items are prominent in internationalisation strategies, they have a low priority. The Netherlands and Flemish speaking Belgium, where Internationalisation at Home has a long and strong tradition, both include them as their priorities 4 and 5 out of five. Curiously enough, internationalisation of the curriculum is given priority 2 in French speaking Belgium, Georgia and Italy (pp. 108–109, Fig. 0.3), where internationalisation of the curriculum has until now hardly manifested itself. It is not clear how this should be interpreted.

ACTIVITIES

The surveys allow us to see what activities European HEI's report when it comes to backing up their policies to internationalise teaching and learning. With regard to activities in general, the *4th Global Survey* shows that 31% of universities include "strengthening the international/intercultural content of the curriculum" among their top three priority actions for internationalisation (Egron-Polak & Hudson, 2014, p. 78). This 31% represents the same score as in the *3rd Global Survey* but that included also a related item Internationalisation at Home, which was given priority by 15% of universities (Egron-Polak & Hudson, 2010, p.

91). With this conflicting item removed, the percentage for the remaining item remained the same.

Trends 2015 gives a much higher percentage: 64% of responding European HEI's include Internationalisation at Home among their activities (Sursock, 2015, p. 32).

A next step is to see what specific activities universities undertake to internationalise their programmes. The *4th Global Survey* mentions "activities that develop international perspectives of students" which are considered a priority by 45% of responding universities globally, as well as "programmes or courses with an international theme" (44%) and foreign language learning (44%). European HEI's include foreign language learning among their top five activities (Egron-Polak & Hudson, 2014, p. 101, Fig. H.2).

Trends 2015 distinguishes three type of activities for Internationalisation at Home that European HEI's consider an enhancement to teaching and learning: International students (40%), teaching in English (25%) and international staff (24%).

The highest scoring specific activity within the formal home curriculum is the provision of scholarships for outgoing mobility, which is reported by 52% of universities as a top priority (Egron-Polak & Hudson, 2014, p. 99). This is all the more remarkable since Internationalisation at Home is included in the list of terms as meaning "Internationalization activities that do not require physical mobility of students and staff" (p. 145).

A similar focus on outgoing mobility can be found in *Trends 2015*, where 66% of respondents indicate that they consider outgoing student mobility the main contribution that internationalisation makes to the quality of learning and teaching at the home institution (Sursock, 2015, p. 71, Fig. 17). Still, it is difficult to imagine how transferring students to a partner HEI would enhance the quality of the home curriculum per se. There may be high expectations of the contribution that returning students make to teaching and learning at home, but it is unknown to what extent this is formalised and constitutes purposeful practice.

The surveys do not allow us to draw conclusions on the effects of activities on student learning. After all, their effect and impact depends on the extent to which they are part of a deliberate strategy for internationalised teaching and learning. It is evident that teaching in English or learning a foreign language do not automatically lead to international perspectives. Nor do home students learn automatically from incoming international students nor do international staff internationalise teaching and learning by their mere presence. Another question is if these activities reach all students or just a minority. The activities may be electives for a minority of students, a single module in an entire programme or just content focused and not aimed at acquiring skills with an international or intercultural character.

The association of internationalisation with outgoing mobility is so strong that mobility even enters a question on home curricula in the *4th Global Survey* and that the effects of study abroad are considered the main contribution to the quality of teaching and learning in *Trends 2015*. Outgoing mobility and its effects assume an importance in the surveys that seems incompatible with the fact that they only involve a minority of students.

The item 'scholarships for outgoing mobility' should be removed from question 30 in the *4th Gobal Survey* as it is not only confusing but also at variance with the design of the survey itself. The items in this question should also include other activities within an internationalised curriculum, particularly online collaboration of students.

LEARNING OUTCOMES AND THEIR ASSESSMENT

The *4th Global Survey* shows that 35% of universities across the world which responded to the survey, report having implemented outcomes for internationalised and intercultural learning at institutional level. At the same time, 18% indicate that they have implemented discipline-specific internationalised learning outcomes in all disciplines (Egron-Polak & Hudson, 2014, pp. 104, 106). On the basis of these figures the authors conclude that the practice of defining outcomes for international and intercultural learning is spreading quickly for such a relatively recent phenomenon.

Yet, it remains to be seen if this optimism is justified. It seems unlikely that learning outcomes at university level have an impact on teaching and learning, as they are necessarily at a general and abstract level and cannot be assessed. Only when learning outcomes are defined at programme, and module levels do they become meaningful. When the *4th Global Survey* shows that only 18% have implemented internationalised learning outcomes in all disciplines, this means that more than 80% of universities cannot assure that all their students experience international and intercultural learning within the context of their discipline or programme.

Another issue is to what extent these learning outcomes are assessed. After all, meaningful intended learning outcomes can only be defined within the context of a programme of study. Jones (2013, p. 113) therefore concludes that the literature only contains a limited number of studies into the achievement of internationalised learning outcomes for all students and notices a "relative lack of research into the outcomes of an internationalised curriculum for all students". She argues that more evidence is required of the achievement of these learning outcomes, in order to shed light on the benefits and the means of delivering curriculum internationalisation at home.

It can be expected that the 5th Global Survey will show another increase in the number of learning outcomes for internationalisation, considering the attention this topic is now getting both in the literature (e.g., Deardorff, 2015), in practice at universities and within academics associations such as EAIE, which has now started to deliver well attended training courses on the assessment of internationalised learning outcomes. Another driver for further development of internationalised learning outcomes – and their assessment- is quality assurance, as is visible in the Certificate for Quality in Internationalisation (CeQuInt) (Aerden, 2014). The bigger picture here is that 94% of universities which responded to *Trends 2015* see a growing recognition of the importance of teaching in European HEI's (Sursock, p. 80).

The 5th Global Survey should include more and more detailed questions on learning outcomes and also give a regional breakdown for the outcomes of the question on discipline specific learning outcomes and their assessment.

EXPERIENCE AND EXPERTISE OF ACADEMIC STAFF

The authors of the *4th Global Survey* combine three staff related obstacles that universities include among their top three obstacles: limited experience/expertise (including linguistic skills) of faculty and staff (30%), limited faculty involvement/interest (22%) and limited capacity/expertise (16%) (Egron-Polak & Hudson, 2014, p. 68) This means that a staggering 68% of universities which responded consider the limited skills and involvement of their staff among their top three obstacles to internationalisation. This is an enormous increase compared to the *3rd Global Survey*, where this percentage was 22% (Egron-Polak & Hudson, 2010, p. 77).

In the next Global Survey, a question on skills of academics (question 15 in the present survey) should incorporate a wider and more specific range of skills for internationalisation of curricula. Formulation and assessment of learning outcomes and foreign language learning should be among those as separate items, as has been suggested before (Beelen, 2011, 262).

PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

The magnitude of staff-related obstacles that universities report, contrasts sharply with the activities that they undertake to remedy them. The *4th Global Survey* shows that only 37% of universities which responded include "professional development for faculty to enhance their ability to integrate international/intercultural dimensions into teaching" among their top three internationalisation activities (Egron-Polak & Hudson, 2014, p. 99).

This low priority for professional development for internationalisation is remarkable, given the sharp rise in the scores for lack of skills and experience as an obstacle. We do not know what skills the respondents consider necessary for academic staff. This depends on their views on internationalisation. If they take a narrow view of internationalisation as mainly mobility, sending students out, recruiting international students and teaching in English in international classrooms, it is logical that the international and intercultural dimensions of the curriculum and the methodology of teaching and assessing them are not receiving more attention.

Trends 2015 indicates that professional development for internationalisation is equated with staff mobility. Nearly 60% of responding universities have policies in place for internationalising staff through mobility (Sursock, 2015, p. 14). The *Erasmus Impact Study* (European Commission, 2014, p. 148) indicates that teaching mobility would have a positive impact on teaching and learning but these are self-reported data by a small minority of academics. For some universities at least this means nothing more than staff mobility without an explicit focus on the development of teaching skills.

In the 5th Global Survey, a question on professional development should distinguish the range of skills needed by academics, such as foreign language training, dedicated training for internationalisation of the home curriculum and teaching in the international classroom.

THE ROLE OF INTERNATIONAL OFFICERS

The *EAIE Barometer* allows us to look deeper into the role of practitioners of internationalisation in the process of Internationalisation at Home. The survey outcomes show that Internationalisation at Home has a prominent position in HEI policies (p. 41) but that it is an area of responsibility for only 12% of international officers (p. 18, Fig. 2.2).

This seems at odds with the widespread interest in Internationalisation at Home within the EAIE, culminating in the participation of more than 150 international officers in EAIE training courses on the implementation of IaH since 2006. These international officers tended to *feel* quite responsible for the implementation of Internationalisation at Home, strengthened by the fact that many others *hold* them responsible. A reason that this sense of responsibility is not reflected in the *EAIE Barometer*, could be that the responses are reported under the heading of responsibilities while the original survey question (see p. 132), was about the activities of international officers. Therefore, the *Barometer* outcomes only allow the conclusion that a minority of international officers play an active role in the implementation of internationalisation of the curriculum, not that they would not feel responsible.

The *EAIE Barometer* also mentions that the challenges of internationalising curricula are still new to many international officers. This is undoubtedly correct, but it cannot be concluded on the basis of evidence from the survey, since Internationalisation of curricula is not included in the list of challenges in the corresponding question (Engel et al., p. 81).

When international officers gain more experience, it is expected that they “provide informative insights” to institutional leaders, international peers and policy makers (Engel et al., p. 96). This would imply that the role of international officers in the process of Internationalisation at Home is mostly policy related. In reality, international officers are now keenly aware that policy will not change practice and that they will need to focus on the key stakeholders in Internationalisation at Home: the academics (see Green & Whitsed, 2015).

MISCONCEPTIONS ABOUT INTERNATIONALISATION AT HOME

Hans de Wit started his professorship at the Amsterdam University of Applied Sciences with a much-quoted list of nine misconceptions about internationalisation (de Wit, 2011). Many of those persist to this day and their number has even increased now that specific misconceptions about Internationalisation at Home are becoming apparent. Below we distinguish two misconceptions that have already been identified by de Wit and two additional ones pertaining to Internationalisation at Home.

A prominent misconception is that teaching in English equals international education (de Wit, 2011, p. 11). This is found in *Trends 2015* when Sursock (p. 72) notes that some respondents mentioned negative aspects connected to Internationalisation at Home. They considered teaching in English problematic, but only as far as foreign language skills of academics are concerned. There is no mention of the international dimension of education, which is independent of foreign language. Nor is the methodology of teaching in a second language mentioned as an obstacle. The focus on language learning as an element of or maybe a replacement for internationalisation remains strong. It is the second priority of European HEI's according to the IAU survey (Egron-Polak & Hudson, 2014, p. 99).

Another misconception is that more incoming international students mean more internationalisation (de Wit, 2011, p. 13). In reality, international and intercultural learning only takes place if learning environments facilitate a purposeful learning process. In addition, all students would need to participate in international classrooms, which would require a large number of incoming students across the university (see Beelen, 2014).

An additional misconception is that recruiting international staff will automatically lead to more internationalisation in the curriculum. Research shows that this is an assumption that is not justified (Brewer & Leask, 2012, p. 250; Agnew, 2013, pp. 190–191).

Another misconception relevant to Internationalisation at Home is that electives and activities for a minority of students constitute Internationalisation at Home. Only when these activities touch all these students and are purposeful can they be called Internationalisation at Home (see Beelen & Jones, 2015).

The three surveys discussed here have their fair share of methodological issues, internal contradictions, fuzzy terminology and assumptions. These have the unfortunate effect of proliferating misconceptions or even creating new ones. While methodology and terminology can be adjusted, some aspects of the surveys constitute flaws that cannot be eradicated. One of these is the appearance of politically correct answers (see de Wit & Beelen, 2014). Another is the continued attempt to measure complex processes like Internationalisation at Home with quantitative tools that are more suitable for measuring and counting input rather than outcome.

The most prominent single issue is that internationalisation is still strongly associated with mobility and that this is also the default mode of approach of the surveys. The effects of this become apparent in the *EAIE Barometer*, where Internationalisation at Home is absent as a trend in internationalisation (pp. 54–55) because it has been omitted in the list of items that respondents could choose from. This is all the more remarkable because the *EAIE Barometer* did detect its prominence in institutional strategies (p. 41).

SUGGESTIONS FOR THE 5TH GLOBAL SURVEY

While the inclusion of specific questions on Internationalisation at Home in the *4th Global Survey* is certainly a step in the right direction, more specific questions need to be asked to shed real light on the state of affairs in this increasingly important field of internationalisation. This could be achieved by the following steps:

- Insert a question on the specific obstacles to internationalisation of the curriculum;
- Remove grants for mobility as an item from question 30a;
- Include questions on alternative types of mobility, such as virtual mobility;
- Insert a question on the assessment of learning outcomes;
- Include a question on specific skills of academic staff for curriculum internationalisation;
- Distinguish between different skills of academics in question 15.

CONCLUSIONS

The outcomes of the *4th Global Survey* are consistent with an internationalisation practice that is still largely traditional. It is leadership driven, focused on a mobile minority, input oriented, assigns high importance to foreign language learning, is costly, does not place academic staff at the centre of internationalisation and does not offer them structured support and professional development.

Many universities may have acknowledged the shift in internationalisation that has taken place during the last 15 years, but have not really acted upon it. We are still far from home and much more needs to be done to reach the aims that universities say they have.

Still, we need to acknowledge that no quantitative survey can give us the qualitative data that we are looking for to capture the complicated process of internationalising teaching and learning. The *4th Global Survey* does not give us the answers, only the perceptions of university leadership and international officers. Still, this helps to focus further, qualitative, research into internationalisation at home.

Internationalisation at Home may have come into its own but this has not caused the conceptual and terminological confusion to diminish. It seems unlikely that the recently published new definition of Internationalisation at Home by Beelen and Jones (2015) will terminate this confusion, but it may help to stress that Internationalisation at Home is not about ad hoc activities for a section of the student population.

If universities want to make steps towards their self professed aim of increasing international awareness of students, they cannot limit themselves to some students but they have to target all students through the compulsory formal curriculum and make the activities outcomes focused rather than input based.

REFERENCES

Aerden, A. (2014). *A guide for assessing the quality of internationalisation*. Paris, France: European Consortium for Accreditation. Retrieved from http://ecahe.eu/home/services/publications/a-guide-to-assessing-the-quality-of-internationalisation/ (Accessed July 2015).

Agnew, M. (2013). Strategic planning: An examination of the role of disciplines in sustaining internationalization of the university. *Journal of Studies in International Education, 17*(2), 183–202. doi:10.1177/1028315312464655

Beelen, J. (2011). Internationalisation at home in a global perspective: A critical survey of the 3rd global survey report of IAU. *Revista De Universidad y Sociedad Del Conocimiento, 8*(2), 249–264.

Beelen, J. (2014). The other side of mobility: The impact of incoming students on home students. In B. Streitwieser (Ed.), *Internationalisation of higher education and global mobility* (pp. 287–299). Oxford, England: Symposium Books Ltd.

Beelen, J., & Jones, E. (2015). Redefining internationalization at home. In A. Curaj, L. Matei, R. Pricopie, J. Salmi, & P. Scott (Eds.), *The European higher education area: Between critical reflections and future policies* (pp. 67–80). Dordrecht, The Netherlands: Springer.

Brewer, E., & Leask, B. (2012). Internationalization of the curriculum. In D. Deardorff, H. de Wit, D. Heyl, & T. Adams (Eds.), *The Sage handbook of international higher education* (pp. 245–266). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

de Wit, H. (2011). Law of stimulating arrears? Internationalisation of the universitiesof applied sciences, misconceptions and challenges. In H. de Wit (Ed.), *Trends,issues and challenges in internationalisation of higher education* (pp. 7–24). Amsterdam, The Netherlands: CAREM.

de Wit, H., & Beelen, J. (2014, May 2). Reading between the lines: Global internationalisation survey. *University World News*, issue 318. Retrieved from http://www.universityworldnews.com/article.php?story=20140429110128348& (Accessed July 2015).

de Wit, H., & Jones, E.(2012, October 14). Five years of changing internationalisation agendas. *University World News,* issue 243. Retrieved from www.universityworldnews.com http://www.universityworldnews.com/article.php?story=20121009165209797& (Accessed July 2015).

Deardorff, D. (2015). *Demystifying outcomes assessment for international educators: A practical approach*. Sterling, VA: Stylus.

Egron-Polak, E., & Hudson, R. (2010). *Internationalization of higher education: Global trends, regional perspectives* (IAU 3rd Global Survey Report). Paris, France: IAU.

Egron-Polak, E., & Hudson, R. (2014). *Internationalization of higher education: Growing expectations, essential values* (IAU 4rd Global Survey Report). Paris, France: IAU.

Engel, L., Sandström, A.-M., Van der Aa, R., & Glass, A. (2015). *The EAIE barometer; Internationalisation in Europe*. Amsterdam, The Netherlands: EAIE.

Green, W., & Whitsed, C. (Eds.). (2015). *Critical perspectives on internationalising the curriculum in disciplines: Reflective narrative accounts from business, education and health*. Rotterdam, The Netherlands: Sense Publishers.

Jones, E. (2013). Internationalisation and student learning outcomes. *An introduction to higher education internationalisation* (pp. 107–116). Milan, Italy: Vita e Pensiero.

Knight, J. (2006). *Internationalization of higher education: New directions, new challenges* (2005 IAU Global Survey Report). Paris, France: IAU.

Knight, J. (2013). The changing landscape of higher education internationalisation – For better or for worse? *Perspectives: Policy and Practice in Higher Education, 17*(3), 84–90.

Sursock, A. (2015). *Trends 2015: Learning and teaching in European universities*. Brussels, Europe: European University Association.

Jos Beelen
Centre for Applied Research on Economics and Management
School of Economics and Management
Amsterdam University of Applied Sciences
The Netherlands

BERNHARD STREITWIESER AND GREGORY LIGHT

10. THE GRAND PROMISE OF GLOBAL CITIZENSHIP THROUGH STUDY ABROAD

The Student View

Today we live in an age of mass marketing and educational commerce where international education has become a big business, full of promise and reward. It is not surprising that in this spirit many colleges, universities and third party providers that promote study abroad characterize it as essentially guaranteeing "Global Citizenship," a very attractive credential to students and parents alike. While in the research on international higher education increasing numbers of studies have explored the possible range of competencies students earn by engaging in international learning, we have little empirical evidence for how, exactly, students understand this idea of Global Citizenship and, indeed, if they even take it seriously.

The essential promise that studying abroad makes you a Global Citizen is a prominent feature in much of the promotional rhetoric around international education (Dolby, 2004; Streitwieser, Light, & Wang, 2009; Woolf, 2009; Zemach-Bersin, 2009). This idea hinges on the basic argument that participating in study abroad offers a life-changing experience and broadens students' horizons in unimaginable ways. In the end and regardless of whether one studies abroad for a few short weeks or longer or spends time in a familiar western context or in a less traditional setting, the idea holds that the student will acquire the recognized professional and intellectual credential of Global Citizenship. Indeed, Global Citizenship is touted as being nothing less than a guaranteed outcome.

The problem with this rhetoric is that many study abroad providers use the term Global Citizenship as if it were commonly understood without any ambiguity of interpretation. Rarely is there any explanation for how the programming on offer will develop specific competencies associated with a Global Citizenship they have clearly defined. Even more rarely do these providers share any data from participants that documents an actual alignment between an aspiration for Global Citizenship and the actual acquisition of it. Within the study abroad field more widely, moreover, there is no meaningful consensus yet about how to define or measure Global Citizenship. Using the term requires specificity and support from a credible base of literature; assessing the concept as a type of intercultural competency will only be possible if it is also aligned with realistically attainable outcomes (Deardorff, 2009; Deardorff, de Wit, Heyl, & Adams, 2012). In the absence of this, students searching for a study

E. Jones et al. (Eds.), Global and Local Internationalization, 67–73.

abroad program are left with little choice but to make a leap of faith that is premised on a vague ideal – even if that ideal in itself may be intuitively attractive. This promise allows study abroad to be presented as an experience that offers something potentially far grander than may be realistically possible.

If the promise, *Study Abroad = Global Citizenship* lacks intellectual coherence, the critical issue of what it is that students actually believe Global Citizenship means is even less understood. The research on student understanding of the concept of Global Citizenship remains limited to date. While there has been some research of student study abroad experience in terms of European identity and European Citizenship (de Wit, 2009; Ellwood, 2011; Maiworm & Over, 2013; Mitchell, 2012; Sigalas, 2010; Streitwieser, 2012; Streitwieser & Van Winkle, 2014) that inquiry is still in its early stages. The study reported here addressed the question of study abroad and identity in the North American context and asked, How do American university students understand the concept of Global Citizenship?

This research to address this question was informed by reference to two related conceptual frameworks: variation theory and phenomenography. Variation theory argues that there are a finite number of ways of understanding or experiencing a particular phenomenon and that these understandings are hierarchically related so that succeeding understandings are richer and more complex than preceding ones (Marton & Booth, 1997; Pang & Marton, 2005). The identification of different conceptions and aspects of variation distinguishing them can lead to more informed and targeted educational learning outcomes and assessment (Micari, Light, Calkins, & Streitwieser, 2007; Trigwell, 2000). Phenomenography is a qualitative research paradigm that primarily uses in-depth interviews to identify the totality of different ways that learners experience or understand a phenomenon in a particular context. The approach is useful in providing in-depth insights into how particular inputs – programs, courses, and teaching – can lead to stronger outputs i.e., meaningful experiences, learning and knowledge.

Our study drew on in-depth, semi-structured interviews conducted with 29 undergraduates at a mid-sized research-intensive university in the Midwestern United States. The sample represented diversity in terms of gender, year of study, discipline, duration of time spent abroad, and program type and students were asked a set of nine questions with follow up prompts that allowed them to share basic demographic information, discuss the details of where and when they had traveled or lived abroad, compare and reflect deeply on each of their experiences, and finally explain their interpretation of the idea of Global Citizenship.

The typology of variation in student understanding of Global Citizenship is described in our analysis in terms of the increasing complexity differentiating the conceptions from one another as well as the key aspects of variation constituting the differences between each conception. The data analysis disclosed five hierarchically distinct ways in which students understand Global Citizenship, which we refer to as Global Existence, Global Acquaintance, Global Openness, Global Participation and

Global Commitment. Each conception is distinguished in two closely related ways: first, what students believe are the key characteristics of Global Citizenship and second, how they see these conceptions differing from one another.

TYPE I: GLOBAL EXISTENCE

The first conception of Global Citizenship – Global Existence – is the least complex interpretation. It simply states that because we are all born as human being on this earth we are all by default Global Citizens.

> To be a global citizen, you know, if you're willing to be anywhere a part of Earth, I think that would make, under that definition, you more of a global citizen….By default. (Megan)

TYPE II: GLOBAL ACQUAINTANCE

In the second conception, students also view Global Citizenship in fairly simple terms, however this time through a status they have by being born into an international family or through having a career that involves frequent international travel. While the acquaintanceship may indeed need to be 'real' in a tangible sense—travel is not enough, one must also live there for some time—what the person actually does in those places is less important than the mere fact of physical acquaintanceship with the place.

> A Global Citizen is like the person of Turkish descent that's grown up in Germany whose mother is also Brazilian…being born of international circumstances. (Dennis)

TYPE III: GLOBAL OPENNESS

In the third conception, students see a connection to one or more countries as important but also feel that having an inclusive view of others, searching for common ground on a basic human level, and seeking mutual understanding are essential qualifying features of Global Citizenship. A hallmark of this third conception is seeing Global Citizenship as a way of thinking and behaving that is deliberately not American-centric.

> I guess to be a Global Citizen means you aren't only focused on your own country as the most important…but you also have to recognize your own bias and cultural perspective that you'll never be able to shed. (Cathy)

TYPE IV: GLOBAL PARTICIPATION

Students holding the fourth conception believe that Global Citizenship is not gained merely through being acquainted with another country or having been open to learning from others, but feel that active engagement with the cultural practices of people in those other countries matters most. To these students a sense of belonging—inclusion and connection—with the other country or culture is critical to what it means to be a Global Citizen. To achieve this level of Global Citizenship, these students look for ways to participate in diverse communities wherever they are; they articulate a sense of purpose to their foreign travel that combines openness and interest with emotional and intellectual engagement and leads ultimately to the kind of personal transformation they see as critical for Global Citizenship. These students seek to learn about others and then to apply that knowledge to how they lead their lives.

> I feel like if I met somebody and they said they were a global citizen I would think they've probably been everywhere, they've probably lived different places and really interacted with other people everywhere and not just visited or had a look around but actually was a part of different communities…

TYPE V: GLOBAL CITIZENSHIP AS GLOBAL COMMITMENT

Students with the fifth conception make a critical distinction between simply being open to and learning about and participating in other countries, and believing that Global Citizenship requires above all a commitment to action that can actually make the world a better place. These students are keenly aware of the globe's interconnectedness, that decisions made by people halfway around the world may have a direct bearing on others, how their consumer choices may impact those in less developed countries. Students with this conception regard Global Citizenship as embracing a responsibility and identity shaped by taking concrete action to positively impact the planet. Many of these students also feel it is imperative to make a commitment to civic action.

> I'm a Global Citizen in the sense that I'm not only interested in…what's going on in America. I care very strongly about what's going on in other countries and how we relate to other countries….Our economy interacts with their economy. If you buy something that was made in China you're interacting with China… choices other people make affect us. (Gabby)

The findings of our study indicated that there was considerable variation in how even a small sample of students from a single institution understood the meaning of Global Citizenship. Some students articulated a straightforward understanding of the notion: we are all Global Citizens because we are human beings born on this planet or because our parents come from different countries. Yet others expressed much more complex conceptions: we are not Global Citizens unless we are interested in learning beyond our communities, in actively participating in the life experiences of others, and in understanding how our actions may impact others who live many millions of miles away from us. The sample did not present a common understanding or one easy definition of Global Citizenship. These findings resonate to some degree with research by Lilley (2014), who has also studied the ambiguity of notions of global citizenship.

Much of the existing theoretical discussion around Global Citizenship remains at an abstract level and does not adequately reflect the wide spectrum of ways that students understand the notion through their experiences in international, intercultural exchange. The way the study abroad industry currently uses Global Citizenship assumes a shared and simplistic understanding of the concept our data has shown does not exist. In fact, only the higher-level conceptions articulated in Conceptions IV and V in our typology bear any resemblance at all to most of the current theoretical discussion around Global Citizenship.

Of the empirical studies that have been conducted on study abroad populations, most have concerned themselves with exploring student competency development on various levels. However, these competencies are not in and of themselves constructs of student understanding, even if they may be associated with certain levels of understanding. The development of Global Citizenship competencies requires the development of higher-order levels of conceptions; one understanding cannot develop in isolation from the other. While students are not necessarily expected to make the kind of deep commitment illustrated by the Conception V after only a short period of time, it is important they recognize how attaining Global Citizenship involves a developmental progression that may expand over time and through the accumulation of experiences.

The fallacy that some current study abroad promotion has operated under is the assumption that students completing a study abroad program will acquire higher-level conceptions by default. Our data show that some students, however, do not return from time spent abroad with higher order understandings. When programs claim to be providing students with experiences that will lead to Global Citizenship, they should be aware that they are raising different understandings of the concept in the minds of their students. In fact, they are even likely to tacitly be working with different understandings of the concept themselves.

While we are not promoting specific conceptions of Global Citizenship on which all study abroad programs should focus, we are urging program developers to think about how the conceptions presented here might help them in their future planning. Our typology provides a developmental progression that we believe program developers can use to help students recognize their limitations and potential for growth. Seeking a closer alignment between program goals on the one hand and students' understandings of Global Citizenship on the other is likely to positively affect the levels at which programs are able to a) formulate their goals and learning outcomes, b) design and implement their activities, c) assess their students' learning outcomes, and d) evaluate their program's effectiveness.

Finally, we posit that the practical value of our typology is that it offers programmers a set of guideposts that indicate how students think about a core competency, Global Citizenship, that intercultural learning experts have identified as important but are as yet grappling to fully understand in a nuanced way (Deardorff, 2009; Hovland, 2006, 2009). If programmers accept the complexity of the concept, they will be better suited to construct the core competencies they wish to develop in students and to contextualize what they can offer in line with their outcome goals.

The activity of study abroad and the accompanying promises that engagement in it develops global citizenship attributes will undoubtedly continue to grow at a rapid pace. However, without making a meaningful relationship to student experience and understanding of Global Citizenship, this easy claim will continue to be criticized as an empty marketing gimmick (Woolf, 2010). But this pattern need not continue. We believe that reconceptualizing how intercultural engagement can become meaningful more generally (Ogden, Streitwieser, & Crawford, 2014), and providing more clarity on the concept of Global Citizenship more specifically in terms of students' understanding, additional research may be able to help study abroad providers address some of the critiques that have been leveled at them.

Lewin (2009) argued that it is the educational experts in the field who must define terms so that marketing firms do not do it for them. Rather than relying on an ill-defined, contested, and vague term du jour to continue attracting students to study abroad, its promoters have an intellectual responsibility to problematize, particularly for learning purposes, a specific and empirically derived terminology they can justify using – with concepts that are informed by scholarly reflection but also include the voices of the most important stakeholders themselves: students.

REFERENCES

Deardorff, D. (2009). Understanding the challenges of assessing global citizenship. In R. Lewin (Ed.), *The handbook of practice and research in study abroad: Higher education and the quest for global citizenship* (pp. 346–364). New York, NY: Routledge.

Deardorff, D., de Wit, H., Heyl, J., & Adams, T. (2012). *The Sage handbook of international higher education*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

de Wit, H. (2009). Global citizenship and study abroad: A European comparative perspective. In R. Lewin (Ed.), *The handbook of practice and research in study abroad: Higher education and the quest for global citizenship* (pp. 212–229). New York, NY: Routledge.

Dolby, N. (2004). Encountering an American self: Study abroad and national identity. *Comparative Education Review, 48*(2), 150–173.

Ellwood, C. (2011). Undoing the knots: Identity transformations in a study abroad programme. *Educational Philosophy and Theory*, *43*(9), 960–978.

Hovland, K. (2006). *Shared futures: Global learning and liberal education*. Washington, DC: Association of American Colleges and Universities.

Hovland, K. (2009). Global learning: What is it? Who is responsible for it? *Peer Review, 11*, 4.

Lewin, R. (2009). Introduction: The quest for global citizenship through study abroad. In R. Lewin (Ed.), *The handbook of practice and research in study abroad: Higher education and the quest for global citizenship* (pp. xiii–xxii). New York, NY: Routledge.

Lilley, K. (2014). Educating global citizens: Translating the 'idea' into university organisational practice. Discussion paper 3, in *Fostering global citizenship and global competence: A national symposium.* Australia: International Education Association of Australia.

Maiworm, F., & Over, A. (2013). *Studentische Mobilitaet und europäische Identität*. Bonn, Germany: Deutscher Akademischer Austausch Dienst.

Marton, F., & Booth, S. (1997). *Learning and awareness*. New Jersey, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Micari, M., Light, G., Calkins, S., & Streitwieser, B. (2007). Assessment beyond performance: Phenomenography in educational evaluation. *American Journal of Evaluation, 28*(4), 458–476.

Mitchell, K. (2012). Student mobility and European Identity: Erasmus study as a civic experience. *Journal of Contemporary European Research*, *8*(4), 490–518.

Ogden, A., Streitwieser, B., & Crawford, E. (2014). Empty meeting grounds: Situating intercultural learning in U.S. education abroad. In B. Streitwieser (Ed.), *Internationalization of higher education and global mobility* (pp. 229–258). Oxford Studies in Comparative Education: Symposium Books.

Pang, M. F., & Marton, F. (2005). Learning theory as teaching resource: Another example of radical enhancement of students' understanding of economic aspects of the world around them. *Instructional Science, 33*, 159–191.

Sigalas, E. (2010). Cross-border mobility and European identity: The effectiveness of intergroup contact during the ERASMUS year abroad. *European Union Politics, 11*(2), 241–265.

Streitwieser, B. (2012). Erasmus mobility and students' conceptions of national, regional and global citizenship identity. In J. Beelen & H. de Wit (Eds.), *Internationalisation revisited; New dimensions in the internationalisation of higher education* (pp. 135–150). Amsterdam, The Netherlands: CAREM. Retrieved from http://www.hva.nl/carem/publicaties/content/publicaties-algemeen/internationalisation-revisited-new-dimensions-in-the-internationalisation-of-higher-education.html (Accessed July 2015).

Streitwieser, B., & Van Winkle, Z. (2014). The Erasmus citizen: Student's conceptions of citizenship identity in the Erasmus mobility programme in Germany. In B. Streitwieser (Ed.), *Internationalization of higher education and global mobility* (pp. 259–286). Oxford Studies in Comparative Education: Symposium Books.

Streitwieser, B., Light, G., & Wang, S. (2009). *The student conceptions of international experience study*. Presentation for the American Educational Research Association (AERA) Annual Conference, San Diego, CA.

Trigwell, K. (2000). Phenomenography: Variation and discernment. In C. Rust (Ed.), *Improving student learning*. *Proceedings of the 1999, 7th International Symposium* (pp. 75–85). Oxford, England: Oxford Centre for Staff and Learning Development.

Woolf, M. (2009). *Study abroad changed my life and other problems*. Paper presented at the Annual Forum on Education Abroad Meeting, Portland, OR, February 18–20, 2009.

Woolf, M. (2010). Another Mishegas: Global citizenship. *Frontiers: The Interdiscipliary Journal of Study Abroad, 19*, 47–60.

Zemach-Bersin, T. (2009). Selling the world: Study abroad marketing and the privatization of global citizenship. In R. Lewin (Ed.), *The handbook of practice and research in study abroad: Higher education and the quest for global citizenship* (pp. 303–320). New York, NY: Routledge.

Bernhard Streitwieser
Assistant Professor of International Education
The George Washington University, USA

Gregory Light
Director of the Searle Center for Advancing Learning and Teaching
Northwestern University, USA

JON RUBIN

11. NAUTICAL MUSINGS ON LOCAL AND GLOBAL INNOVATION AND CHANGE

The Disruptive Pedagogy of Coil

Artist's rendering of the floating cinema by Jane Dixon

While my present administrative title is Director of the SUNY Center for Collaborative Online International Learning, my background is that of a media artist, and my particular conceptual focus in that role was on the many ways that context affects reception. Films and video presentations, especially in the 90's when I was most active, were viewed in theatres, museums, the classroom, or on television. But because the very act of deciding to go to the cinema or selecting a show on TV presumes already having a cognitive framework of what one wants to see, and therefore what one is open to experiencing, it was clear that audiences would then be unlikely to select films that were difficult or out of their comfort zone. This seemed a significant limitation to the capacity of media to effect change.

E. Jones et al. (Eds.), Global and Local Internationalization, 75–79.

In response to this apparent problem, I created a number of unannounced, site-specific film and video installations that audiences encountered not by choice, but by chance. These took many forms, and were performed in many places. The one I developed most fully was my Floating Cinema, which was presented in Rotterdam in 2003 and 2004, once in the pool surrounding the Netherlands Architecture Institute and once in the Westersingel Canal. In this work, films which I designed were presented on screens floating on the water in locations where they might be seen by passersby, or were floated into venues where films would not be expected, such as by a rural campground at night, adjoining a riverside lovers lane or as in Rotterdam, floating down a canal.

The films themselves were usually presented on an oval screen, to distance the images further from the associations of the typical media rectangle, while the content was less narrative and more a series of fragmentary imagistic and questioning probes designed to engage the audience's curiosity. Sometimes two screens were choreographed to move across the water, while the potential audience was engaged without any prior knowledge of why this was happening where and when it erupted. The media event was usually accepted as a gift by the startled onlookers, and those on the shore often called out offering their thanks and expressing their wonderment.

So you may be wondering, what does this quirky media art project have to do with innovation and change, or with global and local internationalization? I see these as being very conceptually interconnected because both projects are in some way about the value of seeing things anew, through the shifting of context. They both are motivated by engaging difference and valuing the response this interaction can engender in a receptive mind. While there are many economic drivers to study abroad and to film production, on another level they are both about providing the kinds of insights one gets from looking at the world from a new perspective. And they are both a form of travel, even if the latter is usually engaged locally from an armchair.

But there is an inherent tension between the potential revelations that emerge from a deeply immersive shift of perspective and the more marketable and less threatening expectations that allow a satellite university campus or a Hollywood film to be successfully promoted. When an activity directly and experientially stretches our understanding of the world and of our place within it, mental discomfort is one of the outcomes, and that state of mind is not easy to market. For this reason, most people rarely view or engage challenging non-entertainment media. Similarly, many international education programs focus on insuring that local standards are transported to distant sites, thereby reducing culture shock and risk. They expand the milieu of their own culture, reframing it in an exotic location, while carefully protecting the underlying cognitive framework of the sojourners. Or alternatively, they market the economic advantages of the exported culture in a package attractive to those living far away, who have been introduced to it by the same mainstream media and thus more easily and passively assimilate it.

So, is there any counterpart on the seas of higher (international) education to the surreptitious yet disruptive model of the Floating Cinema? Such a format would have to be an intervention that engages students while they sit at their desks studying, listening to their professor, and doing their academic tasks. This format would bring into their studies other voices and other perspectives, engaging them in a discourse with other cultures that they had not realized they wanted to be part of. They would have no need to set themselves on this path – rather the path would open up before them. Hopefully, many would then find the path interesting and proceed further along as it led them to new experiences, where they would choose to venture still further on their own.

The COIL (Collaborative Online International Learning) international education model is such a format. It does not require that a student make the decision to study abroad, but instead engages them right where they sit – in the classroom. COIL is not a technology, or a technology platform, but a new approach to teaching and learning which provides faculty and students the ability to communicate directly and immediately with their peers far away. The COIL approach is to link a class in one country with another in a different cultural space, usually at a university abroad. The classes may be totally online or more often they are offered in a blended format with face-to-face sessions taking place at both schools while collaborative work between the groups takes place online. Students do not need to pay a fee or enroll in a special program. They come to class and engage and are engaged by their peers far away.

The courses are always team-taught, with faculty members working with peers at their partner institutions. This method promotes interactive shared coursework, emphasizing experiential learning. Collaborating students first get to know each other, using social networking tools, and then participate in joint tasks that require the negotiation of meaning between students across the network. This is where experiential learning takes place and intercultural awareness develops. Cooperating instructors work closely with all students, but in most cases these students are enrolled, charged tuition, and awarded grades only at their home institution. It is a cost-effective internationalization method through which institutions can meet strategic goals and internationalize their curricula.

But on the higher education seas it is not easy to sail against the academic and institutional currents, especially in the smaller vessels that are likely to carry such disruptive and innovative pedagogical practices. Until very recently, COIL courses were largely launched by individual faculty partnerships, far away from the central power structures of the universities, with little involvement by senior administrators. In the metaphorical nautical trip we have embarked on in this essay, these COIL faculty initiators could be viewed as pirates, navigating amongst the much larger navy ships that make up our higher education institutions. These pirates seem to be offering a new and important educational model, but can they join together to provide benefits to large numbers of students, or alternatively, can the navy learn from and adopt "piratical" methods to the benefit of their students – and what would such adaptation processes look like?

In the early days of his career at Apple, Steve Jobs was quoted as having said: "It's more fun to be a pirate than to join the navy," while in fact, he was beginning to build one of the largest navies on the corporate seas. Of course, Jobs used "pirate" in an idiosyncratic way, not quite what one finds in the dictionary ("someone who attacks and steals from a ship at sea" Merriam-Webster). For Jobs the term probably conveyed independent agency, and the ability to move quickly, in his case to create useful and marketable technology where he saw a need or an opening. A lean, agile, and maneuverable piratical initiative is quite different from innovating within the nearly static silos of large, hierarchically organized and slower moving institutions like our universities.

So, to what extent can international education, and in particular COIL, play this piratical role amidst the often staid navy of academe, and are there models for a successful intervention wherein teacher pirates integrate with an institutional navy without giving up what makes them so valuable to their students? While there is tremendous interest in the COIL model, it is not yet clear that our universities are ready to engage the truly networked format of education which COIL represents, where no university and no campus can succeed without the direct involvement of international partners – who must at the same time remain fully independent so that the engagement does, indeed, require a shift of perspective.

Because technology allows us to create international linkages without travel, there is a huge temptation to adapt the ways of mainstream media to broadcast our educational models and cultural perspectives to the world, to create international beachheads and to build outposts. In many ways, this is what MOOCs are all about. But MOOCs are more the landing craft of the navy than the ferryboat of mutual understanding. Our goal should not be to export knowledge, but rather to take passengers back and forth to explore the cultures on each side, learning all the while about the value of the differences found on those shores. I believe it is time for those of us in international education with a piratical inclination to challenge our navies so that more of our students can see the world. They need to be able to travel the world without enlisting and they need to be given access to the ferryboats that our pirates have just begun to set free.

REFERENCE

de Wit, H. (2013). COIL – Virtual mobility without commercialisation. *University World News*, Issue 274, June 1, 2013. Retrieved from http://www.universityworldnews.com/article.php?story=20130528175741647&query=COIL (Accessed July 2015).

The COIL bridge

Jon Rubin
Director SUNY COIL Center
State University of New York
New York City, USA

PART FOUR

THE OUTCOMES OF LOCAL AND GLOBAL INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION

DARLA K. DEARDORFF

12. OUTCOMES ASSESSMENT IN INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION

Changing the Paradigm

Due to the growing trend in higher education accountability, many postsecondary institutions are now measuring student learning outcomes, including ones related to global or intercultural learning (de Wit, 2009; Deardorff & van Gaalen, 2012; Green, 2012; Egron-Polak & Hudson, 2014). However, a closer look is required at those assessment efforts which, although growing in popularity, are not always designed well, executed effectively, or leveraged to maximum effect. Often times, institutions engaged in outcomes assessment within international education will do the following: Have one person or one office "do the assessment"; use only one assessment tool (usually a pre/post survey tool); and use that particular tool because another university or all universities in a certain group are using it. Sometimes an institution will even design their own tool, often not vetting it for reliability or validity.

Far too often the assessment effort is an afterthought or an ad hoc effort, without sufficient work exerted at the planning stage, without clearly articulated goals and outcome statements, and without an assessment plan in place. Furthermore, the institution or program may simply shelve the data it has collected, claiming to have done assessment, ending the process there, and repeating this process again in subsequent years, as long as funding or staffing is available. The assessment data are rarely provided back to the students for their own continued learning and development that are crucial in intercultural learning. Much of this is the result of outcomes assessment being in its infancy within international education, despite the fact that outcomes-based assessment has existed within higher education for nearly one hundred years (Deardorff, 2015). Effectiveness of assessment efforts can be enhanced by the questions asked in the beginning of the process, as well as what kind of preparation goes into assessment (instead of rushing to use an existing assessment tool).

International educators embarking on assessment efforts will often start by asking, "Which tool should we use?" While this may seem like a logical place to start, it is important to first ask "Why?" What is the reason for assessing outcomes in international education? Is it to improve students' learning? Is it to show the value of a program? To improve a program? Because of accreditation or because it is

E. Jones et al. (Eds.), Global and Local Internationalization, 83–89.

mandated or required? (And why is it required?) For many in international education, it may be more about program advocacy (for resources, existence, justification) than about student learning, although ostensibly the emphasis is on the student – but *to what end*? As some assessment experts observe (i.e., Steinke & Fitch), staff too often push for a selection of easily measurable outcomes and/or use of a particular easy-to-use assessment tool without giving thought to why, or even without articulating the goals and objectives.

The "why assess" question is critical and must be the focus of any discussion early on, *before* engaging in assessment. This "why assess" question must pre-empt any discussion of "how" and "what" to assess since the purpose determines the direction of assessment efforts. So *why* focus on outcomes assessment? That depends on who you ask. For educators, outcomes assessment is about deepening students' learning and improving both the teaching and learning. For administrators, it is about evidence for accountability to stakeholders and advocating for program viability and resources. For students, it may be about completion of a credentialing process, as well as about gaining knowledge and skills needed for the future, especially in terms of employability. For employers, it may be about team development or candidate selection.

In the end, assessment experts see outcomes assessment as closely linked to student learning, each informing the other. Barbara Walvoord (2004) calls assessment a "powerful instrument for improvement" and "potentially the best lever for change" when done properly. She goes on to add that such

> careful attention to students' learning… can help create a climate of caring and engagement that supports students' own commitment to their learning. (p. 6)

Another assessment guru, Trudy Banta, (2005) notes that learning outcomes assessment can reform curricula and cautions against the use of standardized testing. And while there are certainly other measures of international education efforts such as faculty research and funding, institutional reputation, and economic impact (see Aerden, 2014, for a full list of elements that can be evaluated in internationalization), focusing on outcomes assessment, and specifically learning outcomes assessment, is at the heart of education: What do our students know and what can they do as a result of their intercultural learning experiences? Outcomes assessment provides the evidence in response to this question. Green (2012) concurs when she states,

> an institution that seeks to be comprehensively internationalized, infusing internationalization throughout its many programs and making it a way of accomplishing its central work, must also pay close attention to what students are learning. (p. 8)

The importance of learning outcomes in international education was reaffirmed by the 2014 Nelson Mandela Bay Declaration of the Future of Internationalization in Higher Education (IEASA, 2014), which was written and endorsed by the major international education associations around the world. With proper and careful focus on assessing student learning outcomes, the other reasons for assessment – such as accountability and advocacy – can also be addressed (see Deardorff, 2015).

Once the "why assess?" question has been explored thoroughly, the next question to ask is "What is it that we want to measure?" This question will lead to a closer examination of stated mission and goals that determine the appropriate assessment tools. When considering an assessment agenda for an international education program or initiative, it is helpful to step back and reflect on the following three questions, to help create an assessment road map: (1) Where are we going? (mission/goals); (2) How will we get there? (objectives/outcomes); and (3) How will we know when we have arrived? (evidence). Possibly, the evidence of student success goes beyond counting numbers (which are the outputs) to perceptions of students' learning (indirect evidence such as through surveys or inventories) and actual learning (direct evidence of student learning such as assignments in e-portfolios). This crucial alignment of mission, goals, and outcomes will naturally point to which tools/methods are needed to collect evidence that these outcomes have been achieved. Note: It is imperative that assessment tools/methods align with goals and outcomes. Why? Even if an assessment tool is valid, the *results will be invalid* if the tool is used for a purpose other than originally intended and/or if it is not aligned with stated goals and outcomes.

One of the oft-stated goals within international education is intercultural competence, which is emerging as an important competency, not only within the United States but also around the world. It is especially relevant to employability, the increasing diversity of the world in which we live, and the pressing global challenges confronting us as humans. While other terms represent intercultural competence – global citizenship, cultural intelligence, global learning, and so on – they all imply the knowledge, skills and attitudes needed to interact successfully with others from different backgrounds.

What exactly is intercultural competence? Can it be assessed and if so how? Over the past half century, a considerable amount of scholarship has been produced on the concept of intercultural competence and its varying terms. In fact, Spitzberg and Changnon (2009) discussed more than 20 different definitions and frameworks. In 2006, the first research-based definition of intercultural competence appeared (Deardorff, 2006) followed by a synthesis of work published in the *Sage Handbook of Intercultural Competence* (Deardorff, 2009) and a subsequent growing list of publications on this topic, not only in the US but also in many other countries around the world. From all of this, several themes emerge:

1. Intercultural competence is a complex, broad learning goal and must be broken down into more discrete, measurable learning objectives representing specific knowledge, attitude or skill areas.
2. The attainment of intercultural competence is a lifelong developmental *process* which means there is no point at which one becomes fully interculturally competent.

3. Language fluency is necessary but in itself insufficient to represent intercultural competence.
4. Intercultural competence must be intentionally addressed throughout the curriculum and through experiential learning (such as study abroad, service learning, and so on).
5. Faculty need a clearer understanding of intercultural competence in order to more adequately address this in their courses (regardless of discipline) and in order to guide students in developing intercultural competence.

These emerging themes point to five implications for assessment of intercultural competence. The first is using the extant literature to define the concept. Intercultural competence is broadly about communication and behavior that is both *effective* and *appropriate* in intercultural interactions (and all interactions can be considered to be intercultural).

Second, research results indicate that intercultural competence can, indeed, be assessed (Deardorff, 2011; Fantini, 2009; Stuart, 2009). The 100+ existing commercial assessment tools are predominantly self-report instruments, which means only "half of the picture" is measured. What is often missing in intercultural competence assessment is the other half of the picture – the *appropriateness* of communication and behavior, which according to research studies, can only be measured through *others'* perspectives, beyond self-report.

Third, most assessments of intercultural competence focus on *results* instead of *process* (i.e., how one *approaches* others, reflects critically and thinks interculturally), relying on indirect evidence only (often a survey instrument) which provides an incomplete picture of an individual's intercultural competence development. The Association of American Colleges and Universities provides a sample rubric, based on the intercultural competence framework from my research, as well as based on Bennett's Developmental Model of Intercultural Sensitivity, (Bennett, 1993) for measuring direct evidence of intercultural learning. It is important to keep in mind, though, that even this rubric does not capture the full complexity of intercultural competence and thus rubrics must be developed that are aligned with specific learning objectives within intercultural competence development. For more on this, see *The Sage Handbook of Intercultural Competence,* (Deardorff, 2009) as well as a recently published book on assessing intercultural learning outcomes (Deardorff, 2015).

Fourth, intercultural competence assessment must involve a multi-method, multi-perspective approach that is focused more on the process of intercultural competence than on an end result (Deardorff, 2012; Deardorff & Edwards, 2012; Gordon & Deardorff, 2013). Examples of how intercultural competence is currently being assessed include through embedded course assessment, self-report instruments, reflection papers, critical incident analysis, interviews, observations (by professors, internship supervisors, host families, group members, etc.), simulations and longitudinal studies. While it is encouraging that more institutions are assessing intercultural competence outcomes, there is much work that needs to be done on improving intercultural competence assessment and as such, there are currently no examples of "best" practices.

Fifth, it is essential to determine whether students can *think and act interculturally* (Bok, 2006). For example, are students living an intercultural lifestyle? Are students interculturally successful in their actions and interactions with others?

When all is said and done, the goal is to collect *evidence* of intercultural competence development and to use that information to guide students in their intercultural journey as well as for program improvement. In this sense, assessing intercultural competence is about much more than assessing a complex learning outcome, it's about developing an essential lifelong competence.

This leads to a shifting paradigm within outcomes assessment in international education as assessment within the field continues to develop and mature. While self-report tools continue to proliferate, they are insufficient in measuring the complexity of the learning that occurs through international education. Thus, the more traditional survey paradigm is shifting to one that goes beyond individual knowledge and written surveys.

Given the realities of a 21st century society, the needs of today's learners and the possibilities afforded through technology, assessment will shift to a performance-based, learner-centered paradigm that is relevant, collaborative, integrated, tailored, and more meaningful to the learner. What are the implications of this changing paradigm? Educators will need to change their thinking about assessment from something that is "done to" learners, which ultimately benefits the educators and administrators more than the learners. Instead, educators and administrators will need to explore thoroughly questions such as: Do the learners view these assessments as relevant in their contexts? How can assessment be more collaborative by engaging the learners? How will learners benefit from these assessment efforts?

If self-perspective instruments continue to be used*, is it always about obtaining the higher score* or, given the complexities of international education outcomes, perhaps a lower score is desired on post-surveys which may indicate more of a willingness to learn, a sense of cultural humility, and an awareness of the scope of personal development still needed (of course depending on the parameters of the actual tool used). How will assessment approaches encourage and recognize lifelong learning? And ultimately, to return to the first question raised in this chapter, *why* engage in assessment efforts? Is it about finding the "easy way out" (i.e., the "one" tool- which doesn't actually exist) in terms of "doing assessment" or is it about "assessment as a powerful tool for learning," within the many different contexts of international education? This changing paradigm will result in moving beyond traditional, self-report surveys to more observable behavior assessment, including the ability to work in a team and subsequent relationship development. There will be a more tailored assessment approach incorporating individuals' *different pathways* for acquiring global, international and intercultural learning outcomes, taking into account different personal development levels within a more holistic framework of lifelong learning. And within this new paradigm, the results of assessment efforts will shift from program improvement to individual coaching for further personal development.

If higher education institutions are serious about internationalization, assessment, and student learning, it is time to embrace the shifting paradigm of outcomes assessment that is learner-focused and thus meaningful for all involved, especially our students. Hans de Wit (2015) summarized the importance of these efforts by stating,

> Outcomes assessment is one of the key priorities we need to focus on in international education in the coming years, as it makes us accountable for what we are doing, and it provides us with better insight into the kind of impacts on students, faculty and policy.

REFERENCES

AACU. (n.d.). *Value rubric development project*. Association of American Colleges and Universities. Retrieved from http://www.aacu.org/value/rubrics (Accessed July 2015).

Aerden, A. (2014). *A guide to assessing the quality of internationalisation*. European Consortium for Accreditation in higher education Occasional Paper.

Banta, T. (Ed.). (2004). *Hallmarks of effective outcomes assessment*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Bennett, M. J. (1993). Towards ethnorelativism: A developmental model of intercultural sensitivity. In R. Paige (Ed.), *Education for the intercultural experience* (2nd ed., pp. 21–71). Yarmouth, ME: Intercultural Press.

Bok, D. (2006). *Our underachieving colleges: A candid look at how much students learn and why they should be learning more*. Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press.

Deardorff, D. K. (2006). Identification and assessment of intercultural competence as a student outcome of internationalization. *Journal of Studies in International Education, 10*(3), 241–266. Retrieved from http://jsi.sagepub.com/content/10/3/241.full.pdf+html (Accessed July 2015).

Deardorff, D. K. (2011). Assessing intercultural competence. *New Directions for Institutional Research*, 149. Retrieved from http://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1002/ir.381/pdf (Accessed July 2015).

Deardorff, D. K. (2012). Intercultural competence in the 21st century: Perspectives, issues, application. In Breninger's (Ed.), *Creating cultural synergies* (pp. 7–23). Cambridge, England: Cambridge Scholars.

Deardorff, D. K. (2015). *Demystifying outcomes assessment for international educators: A practical approach*. Sterling, VA: Stylus.

Deardorff, D. K. (Ed.). (2009). *The Sage handbook of intercultural competence*. Thousand Oaks, CA.

Deardorff, D. K., & Edwards, K. (2012). Research on intercultural learning of students in service learning. In P. H. Clayton, R. G. Bringle & J. A. Hatchers's (Eds.), *Research on service learning: Conceptual frameworks and assessment* (pp. 157–186). Sterling, VA: Stylus.

Deardorff, D. K., & van Gaalen, A. (2012). Outcomes assessment in the internationalization of higher education. In D. Deardorff, H. de Wit, J. Heyl, & T. Adams (Eds.), *The Sage handbook of international higher education* (pp. 167–191). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.

de Wit, H. (2009). *Measuring success in the internationalisation of higher education*. Amsterdam, The Netherlands: European Association for International Education (EAIE).

de Wit, H. (2015). Foreword. In D. K. Deardorff (Ed.), *Demystifying outcomes assessment for international educators: A practical approach*. Sterling, VA: Stylus.

Egron-Polak, E., & Hudson, R. (2014). *IAU 4th global survey*. Paris, France: International Association of Universities (IAU).

Fantini, A. (2009). Assessing intercultural competence: Issues and tools. In D. K. Deardorff (Ed.), *The Sage handbook of intercultural competence* (pp. 456–476).Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Gordon, J., & Deardorff, D. K. (2013). Demystifying assessment: A critical component in student success. In W. Nolting, D. Donohue, C. Matherly, & M. Tillman (Eds.), *Successful models and best Practices for internships, service learning and volunteering abroad* (pp. 74–81). Washington, DC: NAFSA.
Green, M. (2012). *Measuring and assessing internationalization*. NAFSA: Association of National Educators.
IEASA. (2014). *Nelson Mandela Bay global dialogue declaration on the future of internationalisation of higher education*, Port Elizabeth, South Africa, 17 January 2014.
Spitzberg, B. H., & Changnon, G. (2009). Conceptualizing multicultural competence. In D. K. Deardorff (Ed.), *Handbook of intercultural competence* (pp. 2–52). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
Steinke, P., & Fitch, P. (2011). Outcome assessment from the perspective of psychological science: The TAIM approach. *New Directions for Institutional Research*, *2011*(149), 15–26.
Stuart, D. K. (2009). Assessment instruments for the global workforce. In M. Moodian (Ed.), *Contemporary leadership and intercultural competence: Exploring the cross-cultural dynamics within organizations* (pp. 175–190). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
Walvoord, B. (2004). *Assessment clear and simple: A practical guide for institutions, departments, and general education*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Darla K. Deardorff
Duke University, USA

JEANINE GREGERSEN-HERMANS

13. FROM RATIONALE TO REALITY IN INTERCULTURAL COMPETENCE DEVELOPMENT

Working towards the University's Organizational Capability to Deliver[1]

It can confidently be stated that internationalization is an established reality at most continental European universities and that it has become an integral part of institutional strategies for education and research. Most universities in one way or another have adopted an international dimension in their strategies, either as core to, and fully integrated in, the overall institutional strategy or as a separate pillar and action line. As a consequence a myriad of activities can be observed under the umbrella of internationalisation. Today mobility of students and staff, internationalisation of the curriculum, international recruitment of students and staff to increase diversity on campus, international university networks and partnerships in research and teaching today all are part of daily life in most institutions for higher education (EUA, 2013).

The academic discourse reviewing the themes and rationales for internationalization of higher education at institutional, governmental and supra-governmental levels all include cultural awareness, developing mutual understanding and intercultural competence as a traditional rationale that over the years has retained its validity (Knight, 2004, 2013; Teichler, 2007; de Wit, 2002, 2011). However, the underlying values have shifted from contributing to 'a better, more peaceful world'; to recruiting and attracting talents in the context of the knowledge society; and from 'creating global citizens' to increased opportunities for employability and 'obtaining knowledge useful of the internationalized professions of the post-industrial era' (Knight, 2013). The problem is that beyond statements that 'internationalization is also about relating to diversity of cultures' or 'celebrating cultural difference' (Scott in Kelo, 2008) these rationales offer little clarity on how higher education institutions which aspire to enhance intercultural learning and competence development have progressed in this regard.

A SHIFTING FOCUS ON OUTCOMES AND ASSESSMENT, A STEP FORWARD

Although shifts can be observed in the discourse on internationalization (Altbach & Teichler, 2001; Altbach & Knight, 2007; de Wit, 2011; Deardorff, de Wit, Heyl, & Adams, 2012; Knight, 2004, 2011) from outputs in terms of internationalization activities to outcomes of these activities in terms of intercultural

E. Jones et al. (Eds.), Global and Local Internationalization, 91–96.

competence development and how this is assessed, the question arises whether it can also confidently be stated that universities actually deliver and enhance the intercultural competence of their graduates. Recently, Gabriel Hawanini (2011) raised serious concerns whether transformation towards truly global universities is actually taking place.

Even those institutions considered successful in their internationalization reach might fail to deliver in terms of richness of the international experience and student learning. The process of internationalization might be failing because of institutional grounding in a domestic setting, organizational inertia and regulatory and institutional barriers.

This analysis makes it clear that any approach to internationalization will not only need to take into account the developments in the external national or international environment but also internal factors such as the organizational culture or available internal resources are of influence as well. A focus on the organizational capability of a university at the local level to actually deliver on intercultural competence development of its graduates so far seems to be a missing link in continental European universities' strategies on internationalization and receives only limited attention in the academic literature.

ORGANIZATIONAL CAPABILITY, THE MISSING LINK

Constraints in terms of organizational capability can be identified according to three levels in a university structure: institutional level; academic disciplinary level as organized by faculty or school; and at the level of the individual academic staff member.

Institutional Level

A disconnect can be observed in continental European universities between strategic statements on intercultural competence development and how staff members actually include this learning outcome in their delivery of education and their daily activities, if at all. This is caused by a lack of awareness of intercultural competence development as an institutional strategic aim; a lack of a joint and agreed institutional vocabulary on how intercultural competence should be understood and how it could be developed; or a lack of professional capability to contribute to the development of intercultural competence. An accepted university-wide approach to intercultural competence development for all its students is rarely found.

How diversity is perceived in a university and included in the construction of daily activities depends on the approach to diversity by a specific institution. Perceptions of diversity and the associated level of institutional intercultural competence determine the relevance of intercultural competence in a given institution and thereby the focus of the learning activities, the target groups, and how assessment and quality control are tailored. Many continental European universities have realized that the ability to include English as a medium of instruction is one of the conditions for successfully achieving their internationalization aims. Therefore they have included English language competence in their HR requirements for their staff and their systems of quality assurance. However, integrated HR requirements regarding intercultural competence, assessment of the level of intercultural competence of staff members – new and or current – and requiring professional development of intercultural competence can be considered rare exceptions.

Despite evidence in the literature to the contrary, the prevalent assumption in universities is still that exposure to diversity and different international contexts will lead to the development of intercultural competence. Even when this type of exposure leads to personal transformational experiences, these are not necessarily intercultural ones. Gains in levels of intercultural competence development are mostly self-reported and, despite satisfaction with the experience, the levels perceived to have been developed are often higher than the actual levels gained (Gregersen-Hermans, 2015). This assumption is sustained through the personal experience of staff members, who themselves have spent periods abroad and or have been engaged in an international professional or academic community.

Academic Disciplinary Level

A discipline and the community of scholars and students a discipline represents can be described as a culture that reaches across national and cultural boundaries. The epistemology of a discipline will refer to its unique language, paradigms and theoretical concepts. The culture of a discipline can be identified by disciplinary conventions and how these impact on the interaction between its scholars and the external world.

Differences can be observed between the range of academic disciplines – languages and linguistics, the social sciences, economics, medicine and the natural sciences – that can also be understood as cultural differences. A strong academic or disciplinary culture can lead to constraints for intercultural competence development. Intercultural competence, as a transferable skill, may be perceived as less relevant to effectively function within the context of an academic discipline. When students 'join' the academic discipline they are socialized towards how things are done within the discipline, both through formal and informal learning. Consequently, because of the social pressure to fit in and adapt to the disciplinary culture, the impetus to develop advanced level competences to handle complex and controversial situations across cultures may be lacking (Gregersen-Hermans, 2015, forthcoming).

Individual Academic Level

An individual academic is caught between the demands of the discipline and the institutional aspiration to educate graduates for a globalized labor market. Integrating intercultural competence as a learning outcome in education is perceived to take valuable time away from a focus on the academic discipline (Hawanini, 2011). Engaging home and international students to collaborate in classroom activities is consistently reported as problematic by academics (Leask, 2009). Instead of aligning intercultural and global competences to the academic discipline, these have been driven by small numbers of academics offering separate developmental modules or workshops (Jones & Killick, 2013).

The past decades have seen a transformation from teacher-centered academic education to more student-centered approaches. For many academics the role change from a teacher to facilitator is still an uncomfortable one. Adding the ability to understand cultural differences among students and within oneself, to recognize intercultural incidents and to create an intercultural learning experience out of these, demands high levels of intercultural competence of an academic, which traditionally are not part of a university's definition of the academic profile. This ability requires specific pedagogic and didactical skills that an academic may rightfully feel uncertain about.

FROM RATIONALE TO REALITY

In their aspiration to develop interculturally competent graduates university leaders need to focus not only on outputs or outcomes. Institutions need to address the missing link at the local level: the university's organizational capability to deliver.

To enhance intercultural competence development in its graduates, universities should focus on developing and implementing generic and discipline specific learning outcomes which emphasize this aspect. They should support the professional development of academic staff and enhance their ability to facilitate multicultural classrooms and intercultural competence development in students; and include intercultural competence as a basic requirement in all job specifications and HR frameworks. Furthermore, intercultural competence development as a graduate attribute or student outcome and a staff requirement is assessed preferably as part of a developmental portfolio that consists of different quantitative and qualitative methods, ensuring multiple data points and the opportunity for a holistic and contextualised approach (Gregersen-Hermans, 2016, forthcoming).

To achieve such an ambition a university-wide, adequately resourced change program with a specific focus on intercultural competence development seems to be needed, in which a university engages actively with its stakeholders. Examples of such approaches at the local level have been described for the Australian context by Leask (2009) and Jones and Killick (2013) for the UK. In the Netherlands the University of Groningen since 2013 has been engaging in a university wide project to fully integrate internationalisation throughout the organisation and its policies, and to link internationalisation with the quality of education and research. Notably, the Groningen project includes integrating the international classroom into the broader educational strategy of the university and developing support for staff (and students) for the development of intercultural competence, English language, and pedagogical skills (Groningen, n.d.).

Focusing on the organizational capability to deliver intercultural competence as a graduate attribute is about transforming the dotted line between outputs and outcomes into a solid one. However, unless universities fully commit to a holistic approach to internationalize the university as whole, and to embed the development of intercultural competence in the curriculum closely aligned to the disciplinary content, their internationalization strategies may fail to become a reality.

NOTE

[1] This chapter is adapted from an essay by the author in *International Higher Education (IHE)* 2014, Vol. 78, pp. 8–10.

REFERENCES

Altbach, P. G., & Knight, J. (2007). The internationalization of higher education: Motivations and realities. *Journal of Studies in International Education*, *11*(3–4), 290–305.

Altbach, P. G., & Teicher, U. (2001). Internationalization and exchanges in a globalized university. *Journal of Studies in International Education, 5*(5), 5–25.

de Wit, H. (2002). *Internationalization of higher education in the United States of America and Europe: A historical, comparative and conceptual analysis*. Boston, MA: Boston College.

de Wit, H. (2011). Internationalization of higher education: Nine misconceptions. *International Higher Education*, *64*, 6–7.

Deardorff, D., de Wit, H., Heyl, J., & Adams, T. (Eds.), (2012). *The Sage handbook of international higher education*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage publications.

European University Association. (2013). *Internationalization in European higher education: European policies, institutional strategies and EUA support*. Brussels, EUA.

Gregersen-Hermans, J. (2015, forthcoming). The impact of exposure to diversity in the international university environment and the development of intercultural competence in students. In A. Curaj, L. Matei, R. Pricopie, J. Salmi, & P. Scott (Eds.), *The European higher education area: Between critical reflections and future policies.* Springer. Retrieved from http://www.springer.com/gp/book/9783319187679

Gregersen-Hermans, J. (2016, forthcoming). A critical reflection on measuring intercultural competence. *International Higher Education (IHE)*. The Boston College for Higher Education, Chestnut Hill, MA

Groningen University. (n.d.). [Web pages]. Retrieved from http://www.rug.nl/about-us/internationalization/international-classroom/ (Accessed July 2015)

Hawanini, G. (2011). *The internationalization of higher education institutions*. A critical review and a radical proposal. Paris, France: INSEAD Working Paper.

Jones, E., & Killick, D. (2013, May). Graduate attributes and the internationalised curriculum: Embedding a global outlook in disciplinary learning outcomes. *Journal of Studies in International Education, 17*(2).

Knight, J. (2004). Internationalization remodeled, definition, approaches, and rationales*. Journal of Studies in International Education*, *8*(1), 5–31.

Knight, J. (2013). The changing landscape of higher education internationalisation – For better or worse? *Perspectives: Policy and Practice in Higher Education*, *17*(3), 84–90.

Leask, B. (2009). Using formal and informal curricula to improve interactions between home and international students. *Journal of Studies in International Education, 13*(2), 205–221.

Scott, P. (2008). Challenges for global higher education in the 2020s: What the next decade holds in store. In M. Kelo (Ed.), *Beyond 2010: Priorities and challenges for higher education in the next decade*. Bonn, Germany: Lemmens Medien GmbH.

Teichler, U. (2007). Die Internationalisierung der Hochschulen. *Neue Herausforderingen und Strategien*. Frankfurt, Germany/New York, NY: Campus Verlag.

Jeanine Gregersen-Hermans
Pro Vice Chancellor & Vice Principal (International)
Glasgow Caledonian University, UK

MARCEL H. VAN DER POEL

14. THE INTERCULTURAL COMPETENCES LEARNING LAB

A Training Initiative for Intercultural Competences Development of Faculty as a Precondition for Intercultural Competences Development of Students

INTRODUCTION

"So why do we assume our teachers pull at the right end of the rope?" This question was raised during a discussion concerning the intercultural competences of our faculty in comparison to the perceived disappointing level of intercultural competences of our graduates. Intercultural competence development is only one part of internationalization at home, yet a part that seems to be more difficult to grasp than language proficiency or international learning outcomes (van der Poel & van der Werf, 2014). At our International Business School we decided to address the issue, and started training our faculty members at our so-called *Intercultural Competences Learning Lab* (ICLL).

The purpose of the Lab is related to what Lilley (2014) posits as one of the main facilitating circumstances for students in becoming global citizens, namely learning from inspirational cosmopolitan role models, thus enabling global education to be addressed in local context. Likewise, the effect of mobility as a mere instrument for learning depends largely on the quality of education prior to, during, and after the mobility episode (European Commission, 2014). Hence the purpose of the Lab further relates to the ongoing discussion on defining internationalization as an integral process-based approach aiming at improved competences of *both* staff and students (de Wit, 2011).

THE INTERCULTURAL COMPETENCES LEARNING LAB

The *Intercultural Competence Learning Lab* (ICLL) is a local initiative at the International Business School, part of the Hanze University of Applied Sciences Groningen, The Netherlands. The initiators aim at the development of the educator's intercultural competences by sharing intercultural (classroom) experiences or incidents, personal intercultural learning, critical reflection of current intercultural competence (IC) models, and discussing pedagogical best practices for IC

E. Jones et al. (Eds.), Global and Local Internationalization, 97–104.

development. The educator's intercultural competence (development) is taken as a precondition for sound facilitation of the intercultural competence development of students.

The framework for the Lab is based on the Process Model of Intercultural Competence designed by Deardorff (2009), and the Developmental Model of Intercultural Sensitivity – DMIS designed by Bennett (1993) (see Figure 1). The ICLL framework structures our facilitation of the intercultural competences development: a total of 9 sessions of 4 hours each, spread over a period of 10 months.

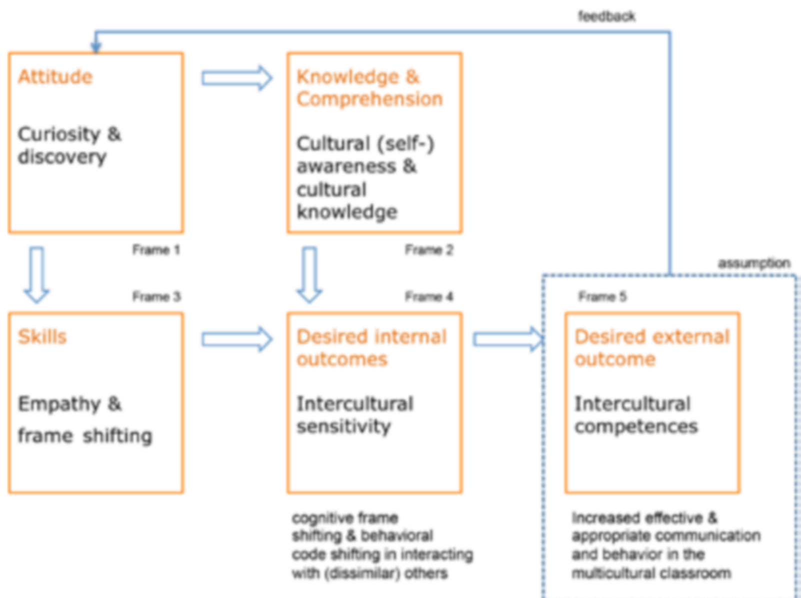

Figure 1. The ICLL framework

The starting point for both the model as well as for the Lab activities (frame 1 in Figure 1) is the general attitude of faculty toward intercultural relations. Participants are expected to be open, respectful and curious (Deardorff, 2009). We operationalize curiosity by asking for voluntary participation in the Lab. Respect and openness is manifest at the start of each Lab session when participants discuss personal IC experiences or critical (classroom) IC incidents. This fixed opening of each Lab session is called *your month* (see Figure 2). We jointly analyse to what extent cultural values, prejudices, stereotypical behaviour, etc. play a role in our (teaching) experiences and classroom observations.

We facilitate the process of cultural (self-) awareness (frame 2 in Figure 1) by having all participants fill out the IDI[1] questionnaire at the start of the ICLL trajectory (pre-test). The participants receive both group- and individual feedback and articulate their personal IC learning outcomes based on the profiles. Participants fill out a second IDI questionnaire at the end of the ICLL trajectory (post-test), receive a second profile, and reflect on the outcomes. We interview all participants after the ICLL trajectory, finding out what participants report as insights and learning moments from the ICLL that enhanced their intercultural competences. All participants keep a logbook where they self-report critical incidents or key learning moments that relate to their self-selected IC exploration issues. These issues are called *your intrigue* and – as the name suggests – concern personal fascinations in the field of intercultural communication. Sharing the intrigues with the group is a fixed component of each Lab session (see Figure 2).

For skills development (frame 3 in Figure 1) we focus predominantly on empathy and perspective taking. Pettigrew (2008) showed that these elements are crucial in IC development; Deardorff (2009) found that over 20 experts in the field of IC see empathy as the single fully agreed upon subcomponent of IC. We stimulate cultural empathy and perspective taking by doing multiple exercises + debriefing as sample classroom exercises during each ICLL session (see Figure 2; *your classroom practices*).

The other fixed components of each ICLL session are *IC theory and models* (aiming at expanding the educator's knowledge base; frame 2 and 3), *your IC development* (with the pre-test IDI profile as main reference point; frame 4), the *student perspective* (aiming at effective transfer of knowledge; frame 5), and *management advice* (aiming at leveraging the school's intercultural learning context; frame 5) (see Figure 2).

THE ICLL ASSUMPTION

By triangulation of the findings from the IDI pre- and post-test, the individual self-reports, logbooks and intrigues, and from the interviews, we aim at achieving a higher validity of our data related to the development of intercultural competences facilitated by the ICLL intervention. Our line of thinking is as follows: attitude, knowledge, comprehension and skills development lead to a desired internal outcome, namely an increased intercultural sensitivity. *Intercultural sensitivity* refers to an ability to construe cultural differences, or to discriminate more complex and sophisticated cultural experiences (Bennett, 2013). The improved intercultural sensitivity is *assumed* to lead to an external outcome, namely improved intercultural competences.

We define intercultural competences as a set of abilities that support operating and communicating both effectively *and* appropriately in a variety of cultural contexts (J.M. Bennett, 2009). Since we operate in international higher education we specify this further as the ability to educate both internationally effective and internationally appropriate, made visible by respecting and using the variety of cultural contexts present in the multicultural classroom. The *multicultural classroom* in this case is a 'classical' international classroom with students from different cultural and linguistic

Red Threads:	Session 1	Session 2	Session . .	Intended learning outcomes (each session):	ICLL framework references:
Your month				To share, listen to, and discuss intercultural (classroom) events and incidents as experiences of cultural differences	Frame 1; respect and openness
Your intrigue				To explore and understand, plus share and discuss a specific ICC related issue, based on personal interest	Frame 1 + 2; curiosity, knowledge
IC theory & models				To compare, analyze and understand various models and concepts of ICC, and discuss suitability and usefulness for (educating) ICC development	Frame 2 + 3; knowledge and comprehension
Your classroom practices				To observe, experience, and evaluate ICC related exercises; to interpret, practice and reflect on ICC related didactics	Frame 3; skills and reflection
Your IC development				To recognize, comprehend, and review personal intercultural sensitivity development; to construe, plan, and exhibit personal intercultural sensitivity developmental steps	Frame 4; informed frame of reference shift
The student perspective				To investigate and understand learner perspectives and to contrast this with own skills and understanding	Frame 5; effective teaching
Management advice				To assess, validate and consider organizational change for enhancing ICC conducive education	Frame 5; leveraging intercultural context
Underlying framework (DMIS)				Each session: choice of topics, exercises, examples, etc. relate to a specific theme, i.e. a stage from the DMIS	

Figure 2. The ICLL matrix

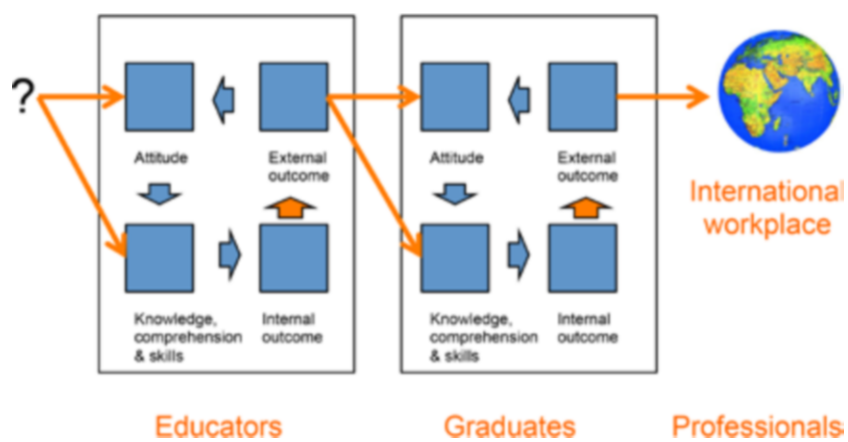

Figure 3. The ICLL assumption

backgrounds (Beelen, 2007). In doing so educators role model the critical reflection and the behaviour that we think is indispensible for interculturally competent graduates, or grooming global citizens (Lilley, 2014, see Figure 3).

FINDINGS

Results of the pre-test from the first ICLL group (2011; 10 participants) showed that the group had not resolved issues related to tendencies to assume that people from other cultures are basically 'like us', and that the group had not resolved issues related to tendencies to shift perspective according to cultural context. Phrased differently, the group takes commonalities among different people as leading in their interaction with others. The test labels this worldview as *minimization*. The post-test of this group showed a shift of 8 points on the IDI's 90-point scale toward a more developed worldview of *acceptance*. In comparison with other empirical research, which made use of the IDI, this gain can be seen as meaningful (Vande Berg et al., 2012).

The second ICLL group (2012; 13 participants) scored identically in pre- and post-test: as a group – on average – no development took place. At individual level however 6 participants scored between 12 to 25 points shifts (of which 3 positive, and 3 negative), and 7 participants scored between 0 to 7 points shifts (of which 2 negative). It showed that the intervention did have an effect, yet not only in the direction of an increased multicultural worldview, but also in the direction of an increased mono-cultural worldview. The latter is not uncommon. Exposure to intercultural learning can have an effect on the learner's perception of their own intercultural sensitivity; increased awareness may lead to a more modest assessment of their personal capabilities. A traumatic intercultural experience may also cause 'regression', as well as what Vande Berg (2012) calls "the load of the stuff"; intercultural learning may be experienced as overwhelming.

A third ICCL group (2013; 11 participants) scored comparably in pre-test to the first ICLL group: a bit above *mid-minimization*. In the post-test this group scored *early acceptance*, a shift of just above 10 points (on the 90-point scale), hence the biggest average shift of all the three ICLL groups. At individual level however there were again meaningful differences: two participants shifted more than 20 points toward a more multicultural worldview, while another two participants shifted 9 and 10 points toward a more mono-cultural worldview (of 4 participants in total with a negative score). Apart from one, all participants made considerable shifts of 5.7 points or more.

For all three groups it is remarkable that most individual scores are relatively high scores (= many points). Changes of just a few points would not hint toward a change in worldview; high scores do. The higher the score, the more has happened to the individual's cognitive understanding and behavioural practice – it signals meaningful development (Lou & Bosley, 2012). Yet, not all scores were positive; how can this be interpreted?

For the positive (individual) IDI scores, we go by the assumption articulated above: shifts toward a more multicultural worldview can have a positive effect on (the quality of) the delivery of international higher education. Various scholars underpin our assumption; Deardorff (2009) posits that "the shifts of internal frames *predict* appropriate and effective outcomes" (italics added, p. 32). Other scholars wrote that increasing levels of intercultural sensitivity make increasing degrees of proficiency in intercultural competence *possible* (Medina-López-Portillo, 2004; Bennett & Bennett, 2004; Hammer, 2007). Still, predicting and making possible is not yet mastery or proficiency; cognitive frame shifting may be a required but is therefore not yet a sufficient step. Educators and managers alike will need to turn concepts into educational practices (Lilley, 2014).

As for the negative (individual) IDI scores the above *may* still be true: a more modest assessment of personal capabilities can have a positive effect on behaviour. Or as one participant had put it: "It feels as positive, but uncomfortable. The growing awareness made me insecure. I will need to move beyond this point." And in a similar vein, from yet another participant: "Typical, you don't know what you don't know, I thought I was culturally sensitive, but I am more culturally sensitive now." Yet, regression on the IDI scale may be hinting at a limited suitability for effective and appropriate international education, which is an equally valuable finding in the light of the objectives of the Lab: perhaps some faculty members better concentrate on other talents.

COMMUNITY OF PRACTICE

The above ICLL initiative can be placed in the tradition of Communities of Practice, or COP. According to Wenger, McDermott, and Snyder (2002) COPs are "groups of people who share a concern, a set of problems, or a passion about a topic, and who deepen their knowledge and expertise in this area by interacting on an ongoing basis" (p. 4). Essential for the COP is that the ones generating (new) knowledge will take this into practice, and return to the COP with (new) insights based on the experience and the reflection thereof: a so-called learning-loop. The aim with the ICLL was to make faculty behave as reflective practitioners, focusing on cultural differences and intercultural competences in the multicultural classroom, or school practice.

The typical expected impact of a Community of Practice can be categorized as both individual and communal, and both cognitive and emotional (Lankveld & Volman, 2011). Individually and cognitively one expects personal reflections on practices, and exchanges of best practices. Individual emotional outcomes concern recognition, being taken seriously, etc. Communal cognitive effects concern for instance arriving at agreed standards. Sense of community, or 'being in the same boat', would qualify as a communal emotional outcome. We have witnessed all four types of outcomes.

From participant feedback we learn that the most unique feature of the ICLL is that it offers a safe environment to faculty for sharing intercultural experiences that often create uncertainty, anxiety, and self-doubt. What makes participants experience the ICLL as a good practice is having regular moments with peers for sincere attention to intercultural experiences and (classroom) incidents, being part of a platform for

IC discussion, learning relevant IC theories and models, actively working on one's own intercultural competences, and generating teaching and management advice for improving the (IC) quality of the international educational environment.

CONCLUSION

The conclusion after three series of ICLL sessions – with a total of 34 participants spread over 11 different nationalities – is that intercultural competences of individuals – as measured by the IDI – can change substantially. The changes appear to have been facilitated by 9 × 4-hour intercultural competences learning sessions spread over 10 months periods; participants confirm this in interviews.

The second conclusion is that the changes are not always, and not necessarily toward more multicultural worldviews; some participants moved toward more mono-cultural worldviews (9 out of 34). Interestingly, the latter is not necessarily being experienced as a negative outcome; some participants confirmed to have become more modest in their self-assessment of their intercultural competences and found this a positive development. A third conclusion is that intercultural competences development as a component of internationalization at home can be successfully addressed through targeted training of faculty. Whether the changes are permanent or temporary has not been researched and is not known, this will require further research.

NOTE

[1] The IDI (Hammer, Bennett, & Wiseman, 2003) stands for the Intercultural Development Inventory: a 50-item validated questionnaire for measuring one's perception of dealing with cultural differences. The IDI is based on the Developmental Model of Intercultural Sensitivity – DMIS (Bennett, 1986, 1993). The DMIS is a staged model of how people experience cultural difference; it argues that individuals can progress from ethnocentrism where they experience events from a mono-cultural worldview to ethno-relativism where they experience events from a multicultural worldview. The personal IDI profile, it claims, will assist individuals in assessing how to move from one worldview to another.

REFERENCES

Beelen, J. (Ed.). (2007). *Implementing internationalisation at home: EAIE professional development series for international educators* (Vol. 2). Amsterdam, The Netherlands: EAIE.

Bennett, J. M. (2009). Transformative training: Designing programs for culture learning. In M. A. Moodian (Ed.), *Contemporary leadership and intercultural competence: Exploring the cross-cultural dynamics within organizations* (pp. 95–110). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Bennett, J. M., & Bennett, M. J. (2004). Developing intercultural sensitivity: An integrative approach to global and domestic diversity. In D. Landis, J. M. Bennett, & M. J. Bennett (Eds.), *Handbook of intercultural training* (3rd ed., pp. 147–165). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Bennett, M. J. (1986). Toward ethnorelativism: A developmental model of intercultural sensitivity. In R. Michael Paige (Ed.), *Cross-cultural orientation: New conceptualizations and applications* (pp. 27–69). New York, NY: University Press of America.

Bennett, M. J. (1993). Towards ethnorelativism: A developmental model of intercultural sensitivity. In R. Michael Paige (Ed.), *Education for the intercultural experience* (pp. 21–71). Yarmouth, ME: Intercultural Press.

de Wit, H. (2011). *Trends, issues and challenges in internationalisation of higher education*. Amsterdam, The Netherlands: Centre for Applied Research on Economics & Management, School of Economics and Management of the Hogeschool van Amsterdam.

Deardorff, D. K. (2006). Identification and assessment of intercultural competence as a student outcome of internationalization. *Journal of Studies in Intercultural Education, 10,* 241–266.

Deardorff, D. K. (Ed.). (2009). *The Sage handbook of intercultural competence*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

European Commission (2014). *The Erasmus impact study: Effects of mobility on the skills and employability of students and the internationalisation of higher education institutions*. European Commission: Education and Culture. Retrieved from http://ec.europa.eu/education/library/study/2014/erasmus-impact_en.pdf (Accessed July 2015).

Hammer, M. R. (2007). *The intercultural development inventory: Manual*. Portland, OR: The Intercultural Communication Institute.

Hammer, M. R., Bennett, M. J., & Wiseman, R. (2003). Measuring intercultural sensitivity: The intercultural development inventory. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations, 27*, 421–443.

Lilley, K. (2014). *Educating global citizens: Translating the idea into university organisational practice.* Fostering Global Citizenship and Global Competence: A National Symposium, Discussion Paper 3. Melbourne, Australia: IEAA.

Lou, K. H., & Weber Bosley, G. (2012). Facilitating intercultural learning abroad: The intentional, targeted intervention model. In M. Vande Berg, R. M. Paige, & K. H. Lou (Eds.), *Student learning abroad: What our students are learning, what they're not, and what we can do about it* (pp. 335–359). Sterling, VA: Stylus.

Medina-López-Portillo, A. (2004). Intercultural learning assessment: The link between program duration and the development of intercultural sensitivity. *Frontiers: The Interdisciplinary Journal of Study Abroad, X*, 179–200.

Pettigrew, T. F. (2008). Future directions for intergroup contact theory and research. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations, 32*(3), 182–199.

Vande Berg, M. (2012). *IDI scores and the measured average student gain*. IDI conference, (September) Minneapolis, MN.

Vande Berg, M., Paige, R. M., & Lou, K. H. (Eds.). (2012). *Student learning abroad: What they're learning, what they're not, and what we can do about it*. Sterling, VA: Stylus.

van der Poel, M. H., & van der Werf, E. (2014). Professional development of teaching staff for the international higher education environment. In M. Überwimmer, S. Wiesinger, M. Gaisch, T. Sumersberger, R. Füreder, J. Hofstadler … J. Kraigher-Krainer (Eds.), *Proceedings: Cross-cultural business conference 2014* (pp. 231–241). Aachen, Germany: Shaker Verlag.

van Lankveld, T., & Volman, M. (2011). Ondersteuning van docenten bij onderwijsvernieuwing: De rol van COPs. *Tijdschrift voor Hoger Onderwijs, 29*(1), 41–53.

Wenger, E., McDermott, R., & Snyder, W. (2002). *Cultivating communities of practice: A guide to managing knowledge*. Boston, MA: Harvard Business School Press.

Marcel H. van der Poel
Senior Lecturer and Researcher
Hanze University of Applied Sciences
Groningen, The Netherlands

PART FIVE

INTERNATIONALIZATION FOR LOCAL AND GLOBAL EMPLOYABILITY

ELSPETH JONES

15. MOBILITY, GRADUATE EMPLOYABILITY AND LOCAL INTERNATIONALISATION

INTERNATIONALISATION AND STUDENT LEARNING OUTCOMES

In recent years, an increasing interest and breadth of activity towards the internationalisation of higher education has been reflected in a growing body of research into its many dimensions. However, it has been argued that the research focus has been more on process than on outcomes (for example see de Wit, this volume). Policy, curricula, pedagogy, student experience and input models of mobility are in greater evidence in the literature than the impact on learning outcomes for students, especially in terms of their post-study transition into further study or employment. Where it does exist, the emphasis is often on quantitative, large-scale and market-driven research on graduate employment outcomes for international students (such as AEI, 2010; Banks & Olsen, 2008) rather than on the outcomes of an internationalised curriculum at home.

Newspapers frequently report employer complaints that university graduates are not equipped with the 'soft', employability skills required for today's global workforce. Yet increasing evidence suggests that education abroad can develop these skills and that students are increasingly making the connection between mobility and employability skills development (European Commission, 2014; Mellors-Bourne et al., 2015). However, this seems to be little understood by institutions or employers (Jones, 2013). Even less understood is the extent to which similar outcomes can be replicated domestically. This chapter seeks to explore whether the benefits of education abroad can be extended to all students through 'local internationalisation' of the curriculum, and calls for more evidence that such an approach can be effective.

EMPLOYABILITY SKILLS AND THE UNIVERSITY CURRICULUM

As far as employment-related outcomes for students are concerned, Fielden argued in 2007 that the intersection of internationalisation and employability had only been evidenced for a relatively short time and noted gaps in implementation, research and practice. The intervening years have seen some redressing of the balance with important studies by, amongst others, Crossman and Clarke (2010), Robertson et al. (2011), Wiers-Jenssen (2011), Brooks et al. (2012) and the European Commission (2014). These have considered different dimensions and outcomes of international education insofar as it relates to employability.

E. Jones et al. (Eds.), Global and Local Internationalization, 107–116.

Meanwhile, employer responses to surveys continue to endorse the view that, while graduates may have the technical skills required for a given role, they often lack the so-called soft skills which are key to effective working (Archer & Davison, 2008) or the intercultural skills which, employers argue, are needed to compete in the global economy (British Council/Think Global, 2011; British Council, 2013), and a range of scholars have urged that university curricula should be better aligned to employer needs (e.g., Bridger, 2015). Soft skills are sometimes called employability skills or transversal skills and include team-working, negotiation and mediation, problem-solving and interpersonal skills, flexibility, organisation and good communication. These employer surveys have been conducted in a wide array of countries from Australia to Zambia and similar sets of requirements have been found repeatedly across the world.

Academics, particularly in research-oriented universities, are often sceptical about such calls from employers, perhaps believing that the intellectual rigour of their program may be compromised by a focus on 'mere skills', as suggested by Leggott & Stapleford (2007). Indeed, it is undeniable that education is about much more than getting a job at the end of the process. Yet, as is argued elsewhere in this book, the local and global dimensions in working environments are increasingly intertwined. The requirement for global skills and competences is no longer limited to multi-national corporations and these skills are now needed in professions and roles which in earlier years might have been seen as more local in orientation.

It could be maintained therefore that we are failing our students unless we offer them opportunities to develop both a global outlook and intercultural competence through the curriculum. As argued by Jones (2013), we need to prepare students effectively for future employment needs, which means operating in multicultural and multinational contexts, both locally and globally. The ability to interpret local concerns within a global context and to judge the impact of global issues on their personal and professional lives should surely be an attribute of all graduates in contemporary society, and thus be incorporated into academic programmes across our universities through internationalisation of the curriculum.

EDUCATION ABROAD AND THE DEVELOPMENT OF EMPLOYABILITY SKILLS

What is remarkable is that many of the skills required by employers are precisely those which various studies have found to be developed through international experience of work, study, volunteering or service learning (Rowan-Kenyon & Niehaus, 2011; Jones, 2013; European Commission, 2014; CIMO, 2014). It has been demonstrated that even short periods of such activity – as long as students are effectively prepared and guided through the experience (Bosley, 2010) – can achieve these results, along with the many other benefits offered through international experiences (Mellors-Bourne et al., 2015).

Studies in several countries have identified profound transformational learning in various geographical locations outside the home country, although some contend that the students who self-select for international mobility may already have higher social and cultural capital (Bourdieu, 1986) in order to benefit from such experiences (Murphy-Lejeune, 2002; Wiers-Jenssen, 2011). Thus it could be argued that those students who already possess some of these skills, or who have a propensity to develop them, are particularly attracted to the opportunity of studying, working or volunteering abroad and that is why they are able to make such gains. These points give pause for thought but nevertheless the findings on transformational learning are both significant and repeated in one study after another.

The literature includes studies of a range of activities which challenge the student to a greater or lesser extent in countries outside their own. Results show clearly that exposing students to alternative perspectives and cultural contexts can result in a questioning of personal identity, values, beliefs and mindsets, and can offer significant results in terms of personal growth, self-efficacy, maturity, enhanced intercultural competence and transversal or employability skills (see Jones, 2013 for examples). Proponents of experiential learning (Kolb, 1984) may argue that it is the physical experience itself which results in such transformation, regardless of whether it takes place in an international environment. Nonetheless the international/intercultural environment also seems to play a role, as suggested by Mellors-Bourne et al. (2015).

IMPLICATIONS FOR UNIVERSITIES

The transformational potential of mobility and its impact on student learning outcomes has a number of implications for policy and practice within institutions. Firstly, the link between international experience and the development of employability skills is not widely recognised at institutional level (Jones, 2013). This means that, secondly, its importance is not transmitted to students either in encouraging more of them to take part in education abroad, or in helping them understand the skills they have developed as a result of doing so. Nor, thirdly, is this link communicated to employers; it is notable that they tend to call for more soft or transversal skills, not for more students with international experience. Crucially this means that students will need to understand how to articulate, in terms the employer will understand, the kind of skills they have developed, not simply that they have had a certain kind of international experience (see also Ripmeester, this volume).

Finally, and perhaps most significantly, there is a lack of exploration of what this means for the curriculum of all students, not simply the mobile minority. If education abroad can support employability in this way, can internationalisation of the curriculum at home offer similar benefits for the static majority? Bridger (2015) offers creative and interesting examples of some UK universities which offer 'domestic mobility' or intercultural learning opportunities for students unable or unwilling to travel abroad. Yet these still require students to be placed away from their home. As yet there is insufficient evidence of student learning outcomes from internationalised curricula on the home campus, to indicate the full potential of this approach. Soria and Troisi (2014) conducted a large-scale, self-reported study of students' perceptions of their development of global, international and intercultural (GII) competencies through internationalization at home contrasted with education abroad through mobility and claim:

> Conclusively, this study suggests that internationalization at home activities can positively influence students' development of GII competencies as much as—if not more than—traditional study/travel abroad. (2014, p. 273)

Although there are a number of limitations with this study, many of which are noted in the article, at least an attempt has been made to produce quantitative evidence of outcomes from internationalisation at home. Hopefully this should encourage further research.

IMPLICATIONS FOR THE DESIGN OF MOBILITY EXPERIENCES

Mezirow (1991) has argued that the real benefit of international experience for the kind of transformational learning noted above comes through the many 'disorienting dilemmas' a student is faced with outside the comfort zone of their home environment. Yet, if we accept the argument that mobility opportunities tend to attract those with higher levels of social and cultural capital as noted earlier (Murphy-Lejeune, 2002; Wiers-Jenssen, 2011; Brandenburg et al., this volume), can anything be done in designing the experience to make it accessible and attractive to a wider group of students? Equally, could more stretching or challenging experiences bring even greater benefit to those with existing high levels of social and cultural capital?

Pöllmann (2013) addresses the notion of 'intercultural capital', and argues that it is both an increasingly significant type of cultural capital and a marker of sociocultural distinction. He suggests that intercultural capital,

> can offer more than a set of economically viable skills that allow their respective bearers to successfully compete in global markets. It can complement "original" cultural perspectives without imposing a need to abandon them in favor of assimilation to "new" ones. And by doing so, it may lead people to appreciate cultural diversity and develop an understanding for previously unfamiliar and perhaps "strange" situations and contexts. (Pöllmann, 2013, p. 2)

These perspectives suggest that we should conceptualise mobility in a more finely-tuned way. Additionally, consideration needs to be given to the finding that beneficial learning outcomes can be achieved a) regardless of mobility type or b) duration of experience (Mellors-Bourne et al., 2015). If we wish both to attract more students to mobility opportunities, and also to widen the range of participants from different socio-economic groups, cultural backgrounds etc, perhaps a more tailored offer is required. A student with lower social/cultural (or intercultural) capital may be more attracted to forms of mobility which are easier to engage with, for example a more sheltered or protected type of mobility such as a faculty-led study tour. This type of mobility might be of less interest to students with higher levels of social/cultural/intercultural capital, and indeed they may gain more from a form of mobility which offers greater challenge.

Figure 1 illustrates a range of factors which may make mobility more or less challenging for a student, depending on their existing level of social/cultural/intercultural capital. Factors in terms of the degree of challenge include the language spoken in the destination country, the nature of accommodation they will experience, the degree of support provided by home staff, support from host staff etcetera. Social or cultural capital factors may include the degree to which students have monocultural or multicultural friendship groups, time they have spent in other countries and the nature of this experience, family background, socio-economic group, their existing language skills and so on.

On this basis, a student with higher social, cultural or intercultural capital at the start may well need a more challenging (or 'disorienting') experience to find maximum benefit in terms of enhanced international and intercultural learning outcomes. However someone with lower levels of social/cultural capital could require less challenging contexts to see similar benefits, including the development of transversal or employability skills. This means, for example, that even relatively 'protected' experiences such as summer schools or so-called 'island programmes' may be of value for students with little prior international or intercultural experience. Importantly, Mellors-Bourne et al. (2015) found that offering short-term mobility experiences can raise students' interest in going on to take part in other kinds of mobility where additional benefits can be gained.

IMPLICATIONS FOR INTERNATIONALISING THE CURRICULUM AT HOME

Jones (2013) argues that the challenge in internationalisation of the curriculum may be to recreate similar 'disorienting dilemmas' (Mezirow, 1991) to those which appear to lead to significant learning outcomes for students. Soria and Troisi (2014) point to some examples where internationalisation at home produces similar results. Virtual mobility, using technological means of sharing differing national and cultural experiences, offers one way of supporting curriculum internationalisation at home.

But other opportunities also present themselves; cultural 'otherness' comes in many forms and there are many different kinds of comfort zones. Students in a contemporary university are likely to include people from a range of religious, national or ethnic backgrounds, of different sexual orientation, from different socio-economic groups or with varied physical abilities. If 'otherness' is understood to refer to anybody whom you perceive as different from yourself, cultural others are not merely those from different countries or language groups but also anyone from across the spectrum of the Diversity Wheel (Loden, 1996) (see Figure 2) and there may be opportunities to explore a more local form of internationalisation. Loden's

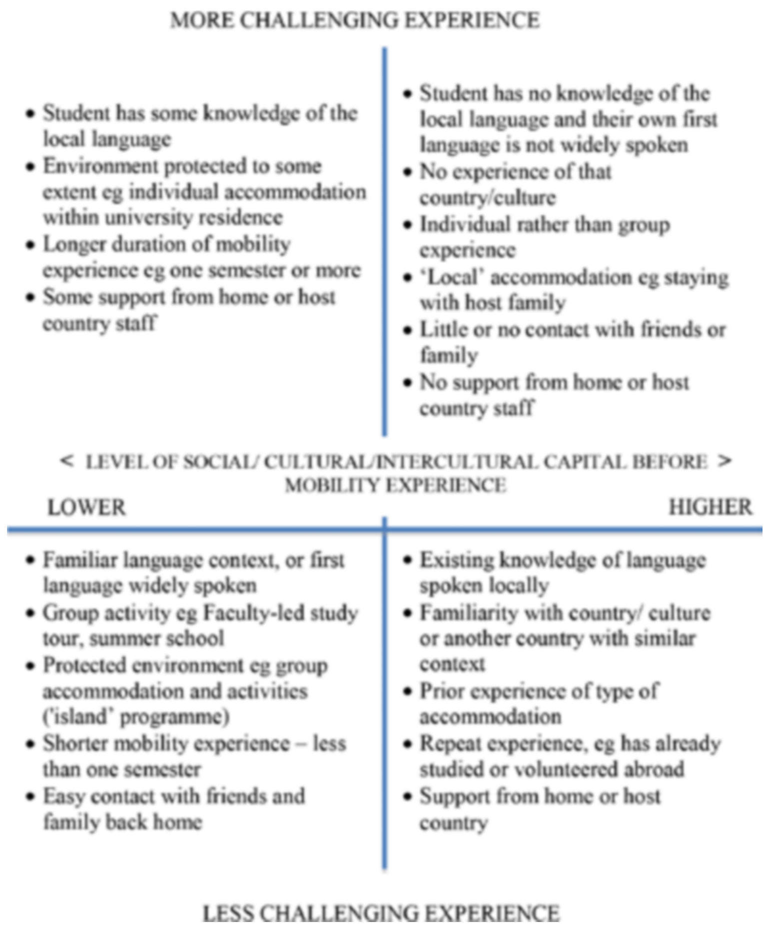

Figure 1. Degree of challenge in mobility experiences according to existing social/cultural/intercultural capital

model represents a series of innate characteristics combined with others influenced by environment and personal life history. Taken as a whole they illustrate the complexity and diversity of the population at large, which the student population will generally reflect.

With a focus on sharing conversations and perspectives across these 'intercultural' divides, and with a little imagination, creative opportunities can be developed for local internationalisation within a domestic curriculum. For example, if international community volunteering can result in personal transformation (Jones, 2010), could the same be true for local 'intercultural' volunteering such as with different religious

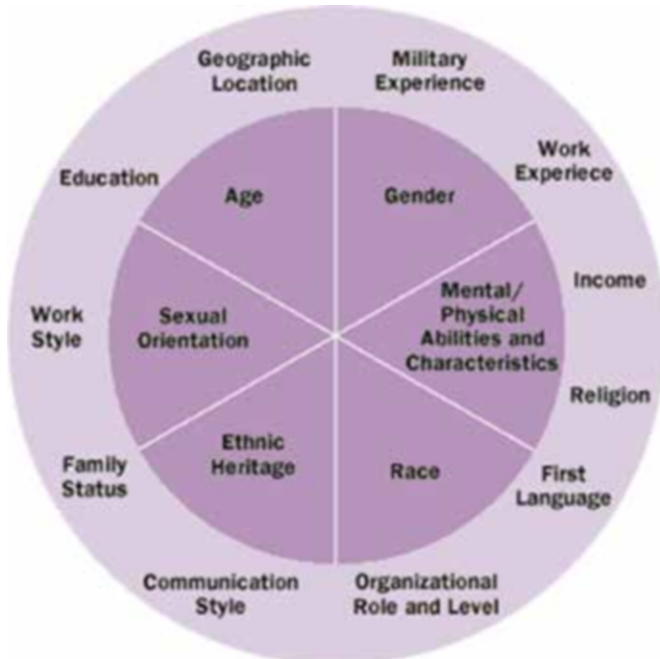

Figure 2. The diversity wheel (Loden, 1996)

or faith groups, drug addiction centres, shelters for homeless people, women's refuges or homes for mentally or physically challenged individuals?

Consider the dimensions of social/cultural capital and degree of challenge identified in Figure 1, alongside the hypothesis that it is the experiential learning (Kolb, 1984) in an intercultural context which is key, rather than the international element. If we consider also the different dimensions of diversity as 'intercultural' learning opportunities, the intersection between these 'cultures' represents the nexus for intercultural communication and understanding, along with the potential for transferable skills development in a domestic intercultural (as opposed to international) context. Just as in Figure 1, there will be differing degrees of challenge for those with higher or lower levels of existing social/cultural/ intercultural capital and the task of the academic is to identify the type of experience or activity which can facilitate intercultural learning in their specific discipline. Some of these will be in the classroom but others may draw on alternative learning environments, such as local community centres, faith environments or the kind of clinical placements in multicultural, urban environments for students from a regional university, reported in Bridger (2015).

CONCLUSION

We do not yet fully understand whether local internationalisation (or 'interculturalisation') of the curriculum in domestic contexts can be as successful as education abroad, including in the development of transferable employability skills. More research is needed to measure these outcomes. What is clear however is that we have yet to make the most of the diversity in our universities and local communities to support intercultural learning in domestic settings. A model for the development of such learning opportunities according to degree of challenge, as suggested here for international mobility, may be one way to conceptualise these opportunities. According to the nature of the student body within a specific cohort group in a given university, experiences with greater or lesser challenge may be called for, in order to engage the whole student group. Academic staff with specific disciplinary perspectives will be in the best position to identify these.

If we accept that transformational learning, of the kind identified in the literature on international mobility, relates to the intercultural and experiential dimensions of that international experience, it is likely that replication in domestic intercultural contexts may offer some equivalence at least. As argued by de Wit and Jones (2014):

> Maybe we should use the word 'internationalisation' less and connect it more to the international and intercultural dimensions of personal transferable skills and learning outcomes. (2014, p. 1)

International and intercultural must be framed as complementary aspects of the broader notions of equity, diversity and inclusion within our institutions, something not yet accepted in all universities. Relevant intercultural learning outcomes will need to be incorporated into curricula for all students, not simply opportunities for international mobility, and innovative assessment tasks developed which measure whether the outcomes have been achieved.

The assumption that study abroad offers the golden remedy for personal development, for intercultural competence or transversal skills development must be challenged. We know that study abroad is certainly one route, but we know also that there will be limits to the number of students able to take advantage of mobility opportunities. Further, for best results, mobility needs to be embedded as part of a local curriculum which addresses intercultural and international perspectives, otherwise it can remain incidental to the broader programme of study.

The demands of today's global professional contexts require us to offer an internationalised curriculum for all of our students rather than just the mobile few (see Leask, this volume). This is not only important in filling the skills gaps identified by employers but the enhanced global perspectives which can result from such 'local internationalisation' may also help students to grow as individuals and to contribute to the development of more just and tolerant societies. This surely has to be one of the prime functions of higher education, and one which needs to be reflected in learning outcomes for 100% of students, not simply the mobile minority.

REFERENCES

AEI. (2010). *International graduate outcomes and employer perceptions*. Australian Government: Australian Education International. Retrieved from https://www.aei.gov.au/News/Latest-News/Documents/2010_International_Graduate_Outcomes_pdf.pdf (Accessed July 2015).

Archer, W., & Davison, J. (2008). *Graduate employability: The views of employers*. London, England: The Council for Industry and Higher Education. Retrieved from http://www.brunel.ac.uk/services/pcc/staff/employability/?a=92718 (Accessed July 2015).

Banks, M., & Olsen, A. (Eds.). (2008). *Outcomes and impacts from international education: From international student to Australian graduate, the journey of a lifetime*. Canberra, Australia: IDP Australia Pty. Ltd.

Bosley, G. W. (2010). Beyond immersion: Global engagement and transformation through intervention via student reflection in long-term study abroad. In E. Jones (Ed.), *Internationalisation and the student voice: Higher education perspectives* (pp. 55–67). London, England: Routledge.

Bourdieu, P. (1986). The forms of capital. In J. G. Richardson (Ed.), *Handbook of theory and research for the sociology of education*. New York, NY: Greenwood.

Bridger, K. (2015). *Academic perspectives on the outcomes of outward student mobility*. Report for the International Unit and the Higher Education Academy. Retrieved from https://www.heacademy.ac.uk/sites/default/files/resources/Academic%20perspectives%20on%20the%20outcomes%20of%20outward%20student%20mobility%20-%20Final%20Report.pdf (Accessed July 2015).

British Council. (2013). *Culture at work: The value of intercultural skills in the workplace*. Retrieved from http://www.britishcouncil.org/organisation/publications/culture-work-intercultural-skills-workplace (Accessed July 2015).

British Council/Think Global. (2011). *The global skills gap: Preparing young people for the new global economy.* Retrieved from http://www.think-global.org.uk/resources/item.asp?d=6404 (Accessed July 2015).

Brooks, R., Waters, J., & Pimlott-Wilson, H. (2012). International education and the employability of UK students. *British Educational Research Journal, 38*(2), 281–298.

CIMO. (2014). *Faktaa – Facts and figures: Hidden competences*. Helsinki, Finland: Centre for International Mobility. Retrieved from http://www.cimo.fi/instancedata/prime_product_julkaisu/cimo/embeds/cimowwwstructure/32427_Faktaa_1_2014_Hidden_Competences.pdf (Accessed July 2015).

Crossman, J. E., & Clarke, M. (2010). International experience and graduate employability: Stakeholder perceptions on the connection. *Higher Education*, *59*(5), 599–613.

de Wit, H., & Jones, E. (2014). We need to change the language of internationalisation. *University World News,* Issue no. 343, 14 November, 2014. Retrieved from http://www.universityworldnews.com/article.php?story=20141112125546605& (Accessed July 2015).

European Commission. (2014). *The Erasmus impact study: Effects of mobility on the skills and employability of students and the internationalisation of higher education institutions*. European Commission: Education and Culture. Retrieved from http://ec.europa.eu/education/library/study/2014/erasmus-impact.en.pdf (Accessed July 2015).

Fielden, J. (2007). *Global horizons for UK universities.* London, England: CIHE.

Jones, E. (2010). Don't worry about the worries: Transforming lives through international volunteering. In E. Jones (Ed.), *Internationalisation and the student voice: Higher education perspectives.* London, England: Routledge.

Jones, E. (2013). Internationalization and employability: The role of intercultural experiences in the development of transferable skills *Public Money and Management, 33*(2), 95–104.

Kolb, D. A. (1984). *Experiential learning: Experience as the source of learning and development*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Leggott, D., & Stapleford, J. (2007). Internationalisation and employability. In E. Jones & S. Brown (Eds.), *Internationalising higher education* (pp. 120–134). London, England: Routledge.

Loden, M. (1996). *Implementing diversity*. New York, NY: McGraw Hill.

Mellors-Bourne, R., Jones, E., Lawton, W., & Woodfield, S. (2015, forthcoming). *Student perspectives on outward mobility*. Report by the Careers Research and Advisory Centre for the British Council and International Unit, Universities England.

Mezirow, J. (1991). *Transformative dimensions of adult learning.* San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Murphy-Lejeune, E. (2002). *Student mobility and narrative in Europe: The new strangers*. London, England: Routledge.

Pöllmann, A. (2013). *Intercultural capital: Toward the conceptualization, operationalization, and empirical investigation of a rising marker of sociocultural distinction*. Sage. doi:10.1177/2158244013486117 (Published 23 April 2013) Retrieved from http://sgo.sagepub.com/content/3/2/2158244013486117 (Accessed July 2015).

Robertson, S., Hoare, L., & Harwood, A. (2011). Returnees, student-migrants and second chance learners: Case studies of positional and transformative outcomes of Australian international education. *Compare: A Journal of Comparative and International Education*, *41*(5), 685–698.

Rowan-Kenyon, H. T., & Niehaus, E. K. (2011). One year later: The influence of short-term study abroad experiences on students. *Journal of Student Affairs Research and Practice*, *48*(2), 213–228.

Soria, K. M., & Troisi, J. (2014). Internationalization at home alternatives to study abroad: Implications for students' development of global, international, and intercultural competencies. *Journal of Studies in International Education, 18*(3), 261–280.

Wiers-Jenssen, J. (2011). Background and employability of mobile vs. non-mobile students. *Tertiary Education and Management, 17*(2), 79–100.

Elspeth Jones
Emerita Professor of the Internationalisation of Higher Education
Leeds Beckett University, UK

UWE BRANDENBURG, OBDULIA TABOADELA AND
MIHAELA VANCEA

16. MOBILITY MATTERS

The Erasmus Impact Study

MOBILITY AND THE LABOR MARKET

Europe seems to be experiencing a significant mismatch between the skills employers require from graduates, and the skills students acquire in higher education institutions. There are 5.7 million unemployed young people in Europe, including many higher education graduates,[1] at the same time as one third of employers cannot find employees with the right skills on the labor market (Mourshed et al., 2014). An analysis of the obvious mismatch between what employers demand and what young adults in general, and higher education graduates in particular, supply, may effectively inform policy-makers in labor market and education policy areas. This was one of the reasons for the European Commission to initiate an analysis of the Erasmus program, with a special emphasis on employability, the Erasmus Impact Study (European Commission, 2014).

From 1987 until the end of 2012–13, over 3 million students from more than 4,000 higher education institutions participated in Erasmus mobility. Erasmus is the largest mobility program in the world, and is financed by the European Commission. It is especially designed to promote the mobility of students in higher education. Therefore an assessment of the contribution of this program to employability might shed some light on the general issue of employability of higher education graduates. Research tells us that mobility in general, and therefore probably Erasmus in particular, might be a solution for the mismatch between employers' expectations and employees' competences (Kelo et al., 2006; European Commission, 2010; Teichler et al., 2011a, 2011b). Previous studies (for example Shaftel et al., 2007; Killick, 2011) have found that young people who study or train abroad, gain knowledge in specific disciplines and strengthen key transversal skills. Very often, though, studies on the effect of mobility have so far relied on hearsay, assumptions, or at best perceptions.

On the other hand, even if mobility could be a solution for the problem stated above, this could only be true for a minority. It is an illusion to think that everybody can be mobile. Mobility seems to be related to social status. Previously, studies compared mobile and non-mobile students, and revealed substantial socioeconomic differences between students participating in mobility programs and those students who do not go abroad (for example Messer & Wolter, 2007, pp. 647–663). Apart

E. Jones et al. (Eds.), Global and Local Internationalization, 117–120.

from notable differences in socioeconomic status, students who plan to go abroad tend to score higher on measures of intercultural communication skills (Killick, 2011). Mobile students appear to be intrinsically motivated, they value international experience as a whole and are not concerned so much in terms of immediate outcomes. The Erasmus Impact Study also provides some new insights on this.

No study so far, to our knowledge, has linked the aspects of social selectivity, mobility, and impact on employability with relevant personality traits, except for the relation between predisposition for study abroad and personality traits. The Erasmus Impact Study represents therefore an innovative approach in a number of ways. It addresses all five relevant target groups simultaneously: students; alumni; staff; higher education institutions; and employers. Moreover, it goes beyond the classical issue of intercultural and language skills. It introduces the new element of psychometric-related analysis of the real personality traits of individuals, using a selection of six factors which stem from the memo© (*m*onitoring *e*xchange *m*obility *o*utcome) project (CHE Consult no date). Further, it brings together these personality traits and their changes through mobility, with perceptions. In other words, it compares what people *think* is the case with what can be measured *objectively*. Not the least, by including alumni over a range of decades, the Erasmus Impact Study analyses the short-, medium-, and long-term effects of mobility, not only in relation to employability skills, but also in relation to real career and employment outcomes, as well as social life and relationships.

HOW WAS THE ERASMUS IMPACT STUDY DONE?

The Erasmus Impact Study consists of a quantitative study including 56,733 students; 18,618 alumni; and 4,986 staff members, and for all three groups, mobile and non-mobile individuals. It covers 964 higher education institutions and 652 employers across 34 European countries. To measure real developments in students' and staff's skills after their stay abroad, the Erasmus Impact Study uses six memo© factors closely related to employability and considered relevant by 92 percent of employers interviewed: 1) Tolerance of Ambiguity (acceptance of other people's culture and attitudes, and adaptability); 2) Curiosity (openness to new experiences); 3) Confidence (trust in own competence); 4) Serenity (awareness of own strengths and weaknesses); 5) Decisiveness (ability to make decisions); and 6) Vigor (ability to solve problems). The Erasmus Impact Study also includes a qualitative study that used online and telephone interviews, focus groups, and institutional workshops at higher education institutions.

MOBILITY HAS A STRONG IMPACT, BUT SO DOES SOCIAL BACKGROUND

The Erasmus Impact Study shows that mobile students are fundamentally different from non-mobile students even before going abroad. They show substantially higher memo© values and come far more often from families with an academic background. In other words, students with better employability values and starting conditions are also more apt to take the chance to improve their personality further through a stay abroad.

After the stay abroad, 52 percent of the students show real improvements on memo© values. On average, Erasmus students present higher memo© values than 70 percent of all students in Europe. The change in their personality traits is equivalent to a change over four years of life. Non-mobile alumni need even more years to achieve the memo© values of an average Erasmus student before going abroad. However, students also tend to overestimate their improvement. 81 percent *think* they improved, nearly 30 percent more than the quantitative testing confirms. This shows that surveys based only on perceptions cannot fully grasp real effects.

Next to their personality, Erasmus students also think that they improve their language skills, international competences and other transversal key competences such as knowledge and awareness of other countries and cultures; ability to deal with people from different cultures and environments; and communication skills. This perception is seconded by higher education institutions, employers, and alumni alike.

MONEY, CAREER, AND LIFE

Between 2006 and 2014, the proportion of employers who considered international experience important for recruitment, and paid higher salaries to employees with international experience, doubled. Today in the Erasmus Impact Study, a third even say they only employ candidates with such experience.

Erasmus students are half as likely as non-mobile students to be long-term unemployed; five years after graduation, their unemployment rate is substantially lower. Ten years after graduation, Erasmus alumni are considerably more likely to hold managerial positions. They are also far more inclined to take a job abroad than non-mobile students.

In addition, Erasmus influences entrepreneurial attitude: one third of the students on Erasmus work placements were offered a job by their host company, and nearly 10 percent started their own businesses; approximately ten times the usual rate amongst graduates.

Another objective of Erasmus is to contribute to creating a European identity among students and graduates. Indeed 80 percent of Erasmus students feel a strong attachment to Europe. This sense of belonging seems to be particularly reinforced by social or intimate ties with people from abroad: 33 percent of the Erasmus alumni stated that they had a life partner of a different nationality, while 27 percent had met their current life partner during their stay abroad. *Erasmus does change a person's life!*

NOTE

[1] Source: http://ec.europa.eu/europe2020/pdf/themes/21_youth_unemployment.pdf

REFERENCES

CHE Consult. (n.d.). *Memo© project (monitoring exchange mobility outcome)* [website]. Retrieved from http://www.che-consult.de/services/memoc/ (Accessed July 2015).

European Commission. (2010). Employers' perception of graduate employability: Analytical report. *Flash Eurobarometer Series #304*. European Commission. Brussels, Belgium. Retrieved from http://ec.europa.eu/public_opinion/flash/fl_304_en.pdf (Accessed July 2015).

European Commission. (2014). *The Erasmus impact study: Effects of mobility on the skills and employability of students and the internationalisation of higher education institutions*. European Commission: Education and Culture. Retrieved from http://ec.europa.eu/education/library/study/2014/erasmus-impact_en.pdf (Accessed July 2015).

Kelo, M., Teichler, U., & Wächter, B. (2006). *EURODATA: Student mobility in European higher education*. Bonn, Germany: Lemmens. Retrieved from http://ec.europa.eu/education/Erasmus/doc/publ/eurodata_en.pdf (Accessed November 14, 2013).

Killick, D. (2011). *Students as global citizens: Being and becoming through the lived-experience of international mobility* (PhD thesis). Leeds, England: Leeds Metropolitan University. Retrieved from http://www.researchgate.net/publication/265225890 (Accessed July 2015).

Messer, D., & Wolter, S. C. (2007). Are student exchange programmes worth it? *Higher Education, 54*(5), 647–663.

Mourshed, M., Patel, J., & Suder, K. (2014). *Education to employment: Getting Europe's youth into work*. Retrieved from http://www.mckinsey.com/insights/social_sector/converting_education_to_employment_in_europe (Accessed July 2015).

Shaftel, J., Shaftel, T., & Ahluwalia, R. (2007). International educational experience and intercultural competence. *International Journal of Business & Economics*, *6*(1), 25–34.

Teichler, U., Ferencz, I., & Wächter, B. (2011a). *Mapping mobility in European higher education: Vol. I: Overview and trends*. Brussels, Belgium, Europe: European Commission.

Teichler, U., Ferencz, I., & Wächter, B. (2011b). *Mapping mobility in European higher education: Vol. II: Case studies*. Brussels, Belgium, Europe: European Commission.

Uwe Brandenburg
CHE Consult
Berlin, Germany

Obdulia Taboadela
Associate Professor of Sociology
University of A Coruña, Spain

Mihaela Vancea
Research Fellow
Universitat Pompeu Fabra, Spain

NANNETTE RIPMEESTER

17. INTERNATIONALISATION AND EMPLOYABILITY

Making the Connection between Degree and the World of Work

INTERNATIONAL CORPORATE ORGANISATIONS: CONSUMERS OF GLOBAL TALENT?

Is the corporate world the consumer of global talent which the universities nourish? With the ever-growing globalisation of our world, organisations are in need of more culturally savvy staff, hence few would argue against this. But what turns a student into a graduate capable of operating successfully across different cultures and continents? How do students develop the skills the labour market is looking for, and how can Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) support their students? Is there a role in this process for corporate organisations, or will they just 'consume' the talent once 'delivered'? This chapter will look at various aspects of the debate, and will bring the voice of corporate employers into the discussion to move beyond a solely academic perspective.

To be able to gain a deeper understanding of what makes a student globally employable, we asked a selection of corporate employers across the globe how they view the link between higher education and the world of work (Ripmeester, 2014) and the results from this will be considered.

FROM ACADEMIC DEGREE TO THE WORLD OF WORK

There are studies indicating that graduates with study abroad experience are highly attractive to employers (Janson, Schomberg, & Teichler, 2009; Potts & Molony, 2013). There are articles identifying the alignment of transferable skills with international experience (Jones, 2013) indicating that the 'costs to an institution and its students of ignoring internationalization may exceed the costs of doing it' (Hudzik, 2012, p. 2). But does study abroad in the eyes of employers indeed provide the proxies for intelligence, skills and knowledge?

Since employers are an important part of the equation in the transition from education to work, we asked a selection of corporate employers, differing in size, sector and scope, whether an international study experience was considered an advantage for any individual student to get hired. All employers did consider it an advantage, but not necessarily a prerequisite. Kaleen Robinson, Vice President

E. Jones et al. (Eds.), Global and Local Internationalization, 121–127.

for Human Resources outsourcing at AON Hewitt, based in North America and responsible for 17,000 people globally, said,

> A global perspective is not required to get hired, but the ones that stand out, do often have a global perspective and in an organization that acts as a one-shore business, a global outlook can make or break it. Without the global perspective, you lack the understanding of how different people and different perspectives can contribute.

David Hulsenbek, Human Resources Director for the Netherlands with Accenture adds some nuance to a study abroad experience.

> Spending time abroad definitely enhances people's independence, it signals maturity, ambition and curiosity. But not every study abroad period brings the same. In fact, time spent abroad is getting rather common. If a graduate wants to stand out, a year of high school abroad staying with friends of their parents will not suffice. That does not signal maturity to us. However, recently I interviewed a girl who went to Singapore for a two year period as au pair and she was able to explain how she adapted to her new life and how she dealt with the cultural challenges she came across. Such an experience brings a lot more in terms of understanding cultural differences and growing as a person. So yes, we do look for international experience, but simply studying abroad is not enough – you have to be able to articulate very concisely what you have learned and how this can benefit your work for our organization.

STUDY ABROAD AND EMPLOYABILITY

We have all heard through both anecdotal evidence and some surveys (European Commission, 2014; Jones, 2014) that studies abroad almost directly add independence, open-mindedness and keenness to a student's Curriculum Vitae. The iMPACT survey of i-graduate backs this from the student's perspective (Custer, 2014) see Figure 1, of the 1,761 students surveyed in the study, 99% said the study experience "broadened my perspective on life" and 97% claimed it "helped make me the person I am today". However, how do higher education institutions ensure that students are able to use the experience to their advantage? How does higher education make sure that employers understand that leaving their comfort zone at home has turned the student into a more adaptive and flexible person?

TURNING EXPERIENCES INTO SKILLS

It is exactly this ability – being able to articulate what the study abroad experience has taught them – which students often lack. Hence higher education institutions can make a true contribution to the employability of their graduates when they are able to capitalise upon this, enabling students to understand what the study abroad

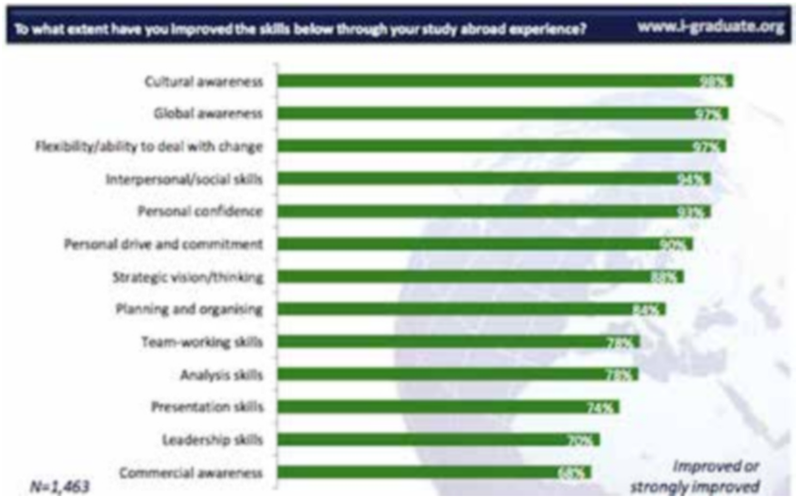

Figure 1. iMPACT survey, i-graduate 2014
Source: Custer (2014)

experience has taught them and that this is more important than the experience in itself to enhance their chances of a job after graduation.

Job advertisements hardly ever ask for a 'former exchange or study abroad student', hence students have to learn to turn the experience into an asset. When students are asked to describe their study abroad experience, they often use terms such as 'fun' and 'nice', and when pushed, they may say 'I've grown as a person'. However, when looking for work they should learn to turn the question around and think about what an employer would want to know about their study abroad experience. This would include skills, competencies and key experiences that have a direct and positive effect on their capacity to undertake the position's requirements. In turn, they need to describe these experiences using terminology that employers can connect with. Alexandra Haaxman, Career Development and Employment Advisor at Murdoch University in Western Australia says,

> If you mention, for example, you have been living alone, had to manage a tight budget, and learnt to cope within a new system, you should explicitly state the skills you have acquired during that process. Your experience spans coping with adversity, negotiation, initiative, resourcefulness, problem solving, etc. Hence we teach students not to say 'I'm adaptable', but impress upon them to provide an example that demonstrates their being adaptive. For instance, we tell them to articulate how they have contributed to an ethnically diverse project team and what their role in that team's success was. (Cited in Ripmeester, 2014, p. 24)

THE VALUE OF INTERNATIONAL COMPETENCIES

The companies we interviewed all considered international educational experience an asset, but certainly not a requirement. Rosemary Clunie, IBM recruitment manager for the UK, stated clearly that it is not a necessity, certainly not at undergraduate level, but "It is a differentiator that makes you stand out from the crowd. You are perceived as a more rounded person." Kaleen Robinson (AON Hewitt) agrees. "If you are comparing apples with apples, you go for the one with the global experience." Anna Jezowska, Human Resources Management advisor for Croon in Poland, supports this view:

> It is an asset. Such candidates are mainly very open minded and ready to travel – which is very useful for an organization with branches in different countries. It will always be an advantage.

Nicole Bueters, Head of Talent Acquisition with Philips is less outspoken, but does agree with the general principle:

> We are definitely keen to meet such candidates during our campus recruitment, we consider it an asset, not because of the international experience as such, but because such candidates fit our overall profile better. We are keen to recruit recent graduates able to work in an ever-changing environment, who strive for innovation and can handle change, because that will be the environment they will be working in. Our world is on the move and we need people who can handle constant change. Studying abroad proofs you have the capability of stepping outside of your comfort zone.

HOW PREPARED DO STUDENTS FEEL FOR THE GLOBAL WORLD OF WORK?

Gradually, higher education institutions are becoming more aware of the skills a study abroad experience can bring and global employers believe it is an added bonus. So what is it that we are still lacking? Pollock (2014) mentions this explicitly. This and further surprising facts can be seen in Figure 2:

> A staggering fact landed on my desk this morning. In the form of an infographic presented by my colleague, it read '79% of graduates need help in finding employment.'

Students feel ill-prepared for the world of work upon graduation, for the simple reason they fail to understand what is needed to 'sell' their experiences and skills to employers and make the next step after graduation to the world of work. Hudzik (2012) points out that higher education cannot afford to 'ignore internationalization.' Particularly as international students have changed the higher education landscape in such a way that we need to understand their needs and one of their clearly voiced needs is intensifying the link between higher education and the world of work.

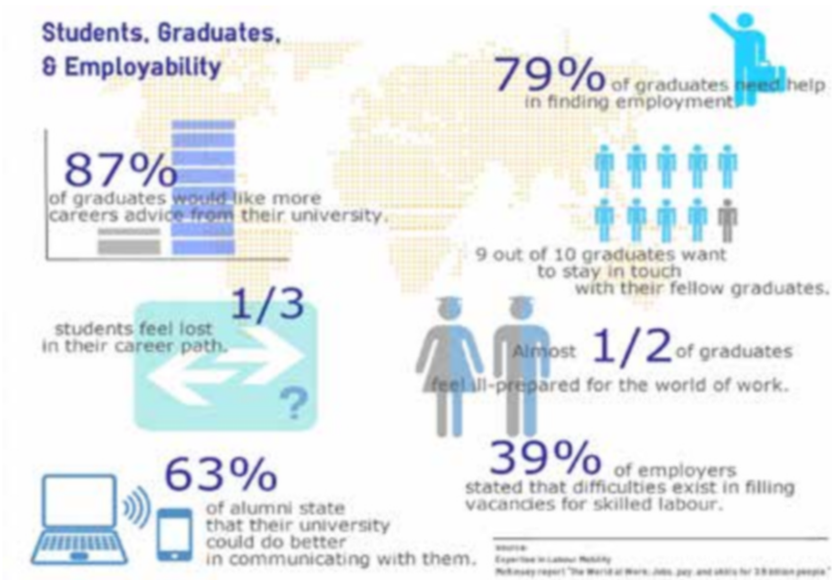

Figure 2. Students, graduates and employability
Source: Pollock (2014)

EMPLOYABILITY IS THE NEW BLACK

A series of blog posts on the theme of employability for the European Association for International Education (EAIE, 2014) are backed up by the GATE report (Ripmeester & Pollock, 2013). The report argues that higher education institutions should stop simply paying lip service to employability since opportunities for a career upon graduation, employability and job prospects matter more than ever in study choice and study appreciation of students, especially for international students. Today, students want to understand what even their 'local' academic learning will bring them in the global workplace. They want to understand their employability and the value of their degree in the global labour market, and they look to their higher education institution to provide them with insight. It is about the skills that will get students hired after graduation. In one word, it is about employability (Ripmeester, 2015).

For many higher education institutions, this is a relatively new area. They have been knowledge and education providers, sometimes for centuries, and now they are *suddenly* confronted with a generation of students that consider employability a standard condition of a successful higher education degree (CareerProfessor, 2015). In this manner, it is not surprising that some people have referred to 'employability as the new black'.

Both students and employers mention that the link between higher education and the world of work could be stronger, but all employers interviewed for the study (Ripmeester, 2014) felt it was the higher education sector that should remain in the driving seat. Or as David Hulsenbek from Accenture said,

> Whereas it should remain the higher education institution in charge of the education, we do feel the higher education sector should be more aware of what the labour market wants.

REFERENCES

CareerProfessor.works infographic Students, Graduates & Employability. Retrieved from http://www.careerprofessor.works/employability/ (Accessed July 2015).

Custer, S. (2014). I-graduate's iMPACT measures effect of outbound study, 11 July 2014, *The PIE News*. Retrieved from http://thepienews.com/news/i-graduates-impact-measures-effect-of-outbound-study/ (Accessed July 2015).

EAIE (European Association for International Education). *Employability is the new black* [Blog series]. Retrieved from http://www.eaie.org/blog/employability-are-you-doing-enough-for-your-students/ (Accessed July 2015).

European Commission. (2014). *The Erasmus impact study: Effects of mobility on the skills and employability of students and the internationalisation of higher education institutions*. European Commission: Education and Culture. Retrieved from http://ec.europa.eu/education/library/study/2014/erasmus-impact_en.pdf (Accessed July 2015).

Hudzik, J. (2012). *A few propositions for discussion on higher education internationalization*. EAIE Annual Conference Dublin, 2012.

Janson, K., Schomburg, H., & Teichler, U. (2009). *The professional value of ERASMUS mobility: The impact of international experience on former students' and on teachers' careers*. Lemmens (ACA Papers on International Cooperation in Education).

Jones, E. (2013). Internationalization and employability: The role of intercultural experiences in the development of transferable skills. *Public Money & Management*, *33*(2), 95–104. Retrieved from http://www.tandfonline.com/doi/abs/10.1080/09540962.2013.763416#.U8T121Z5gds (Accessed July 2015).

Jones, E. (2014). Graduate employability and internationalization of the curriculum at home. *International Higher Education, 78,* 6–8. Retrieved from http://ejournals.bc.edu/ojs/index.php/ihe/article/view/5799/5169 (Accessed July 2015).

Pollock, A. (2014). Student employability is a necessity, not a choice. *Labour Mobility Blog.* Retrieved from http://www.labourmobility.com/student-employability-necessity-choice/ (Accessed July 2015).

Potts, D., & Molony, J. (2013) Employer perspectives on international education and recruitment: Findings from a new global study. *EAIE handbook* (15th supplement, II-2013). Retrieved from http://www.handbook-internationalisation.com/%20index.php?option=com_docman&task=doc_details&gid=169 (Accessed July 2015).

Ripmeester, N. (2014). International businesses: Consumers of global talent? *EAIE handbook* (17th supplement, I-2014). Retrieved from http://www.handbook-internationalisation.com/index.php?option=com_docman&task=doc_details&gid=192 (Accessed July 2015).

Ripmeester, N. (2015). The value of global experience. *Labour Mobility Blog*. Retrieved from http://www.labourmobility.com/the-value-of-global-experience/ (Accessed July 2015).

Ripmeester, N., & Pollock, A. (2013). Willkommen in Deutschland – Wie internationale Studierende den Hochschulstandort Deutschland wahrnehmen. *GATE publication Schriftenreihe.* ISBN: 978-3-7639-5317-2, December 2013. Retrieved from http://www.gate-germany.de/angebote/expertenwissen/schriftenreihe-hochschulmarketing.html (Accessed July 2015).

Nannette Ripmeester
Director, Expertise in Labour Mobility
Rotterdam, The Netherlands

ERIK JAN KOSTELIJK AND MAARTEN REGOUIN

18. ASSESSING THE ADDED VALUE OF GLOBAL MOBILITY VERSUS LOCAL EXPERIENCE

A Case Study

INTRODUCTION

Although the data for this study were collected some time ago, the recent publication of the Erasmus Impact Study (European Commission, 2014) has made it worthwhile reflecting on results from this research to add to the body of knowledge on the impact of study abroad on the development of a young individual (see also Brandenburg et al, this volume).

It was designed as a comparative study by the Hanze University of Applied Science (UAS). The benefits of a study period or internship abroad were compared with undertaking the same activities in the student's home university or home country. The aim was to test these benefits through four categories of factors:

1. (English) language proficiency
2. Personal development
3. Professional development
4. Development of a multicultural personality

Two types of activities were investigated, study abroad and internship, both with an average length of one semester. The activities were evaluated empirically, by means of a survey distributed in the Spring semester of 2007. To measure the benefits of a study abroad period, respondents were approached twice: before the beginning of the semester (for the test group, this implies before going abroad), and at the end of the semester (test group: after returning home). Two groups of students were created:

- A test group: students that went abroad for study or internship.
- A control group: students that did not go abroad but, instead, stayed "at home" either to study at their home university or to do an internship in The Netherlands.

In total, 2878 students were approached: 714 students in the test group and 1870 students in the control group. The response in the test group varied from 40.8% in the pre-test to 34.0% in the post-test. The response in the control group was somewhat lower than in the test group (22.1% pre-test and 15.1% post-test).

E. Jones et al. (Eds.), Global and Local Internationalization, 129–138.

MOTIVATIONS TO GO ABROAD

Students were asked for their motivation to go abroad. A number of multiple-choice options were presented, out of which they could pick a maximum of three reasons. The outcomes can be found in Table 1. The table highlights the importance of the four dominant motives:

- personal development;
- professional development;
- travel and experience;
- to get in touch with other cultures.

Table 1. Motivations for doing a study or internship abroad

Motive	*Test group (%)*
Because it is important for my personal development	84.7
Because it is important for my professional development	62.8
Because I like to travel and experience new things	61.2
Because I like to get in touch with other cultures	55.0
Because I want to learn the language of my host country	26.0
Because I want to meet other students	14.5
Because it is a mandatory element in my study	5.4
Because internships abroad have the reputation to be easy	2.1
Other	7.9

The motive of learning another language is of lesser importance, according to our study. This result is at variance with the Erasmus Impact Study, which reported the opportunity to learn or improve another language as one of the most important motives. An explanation of this difference can be found in the specific composition of internship abroad destinations of the Hanze UAS, comprising mainly Dutch-speaking countries. Another possible explanation is that Dutch students, compared to students in many other European countries, are generally already quite fluent in English, and consequently, might feel less of a need to further develop their (English) language skills.

ENGLISH LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY

In the Erasmus Impact Study, students who went abroad reported an increase in their foreign language skills. Measurement was in terms of perception: students were asked to assess their language skills from their own perspective. In this study, language proficiency was measured by self-assessment based on language proficiency statements from the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment (CoE, 2001). The framework outlines six levels of language proficiency through which language competence can be assessed: A1, A2, B1, B2, C1, and C2. Level A represents the skills of a basic user, level B the independent user, and level C the proficient user.

The internationalization policy of Hanze UAS had specified as a guideline that a student studying in an internationalized program should be acting on at least B2 level, defined in the ELP as:

> Can understand the main ideas of complex text on both concrete and abstract topics, including technical discussions in his/her field of specialisation. Can interact with a degree of fluency and spontaneity that makes regular interaction with native speakers quite possible without strain for either party. Can produce clear, detailed text on a wide range of subjects and explain a viewpoint on a topical issue giving the advantages and disadvantages of various options.

We used self-assessment to assess the student's language proficiency. A language test might have offered a better assessment of language abilities, but this was beyond the purpose of this study. Self-assessment was executed by answering ten statements (from ELP) with regard to the student's language abilities. Language proficiency could be considered as being at B2 level with eight or more affirmative answers. Table 2 indicates a difference in language proficiency between the groups. Students who are going to study abroad have a clearly higher English proficiency than students doing an internship abroad or the students that stay "at home". Differences are most likely related to differences in the three samples: study abroad is an obligatory element of most programs that were taught in English, hence, the student population has been studying in English already for a couple of years, whereas an internship abroad is also optional in the programs delivered through Dutch.

Table 2. Language proficiency at B2 level

	Pre-test (%)	*Post-test (%)*
Test group – study abroad	90.7	89.2
Test group – internship abroad	62.3	67.9
Control group	48.7	53.0

The comparison between pre-test and post-test shows does not show a convincing change in language proficiency. Only limited progress in language proficiency was reported in the internship abroad group, which as indicated before consisted of students that mainly went to Dutch-speaking destinations. But the control group, the group that stayed "at home", also reported a limited progress during the same period.

And in the study abroad group, the level of English for most students was already at B2 level before going abroad, and no change was reported here.

Because the outcomes with respect to language proficiency were not conclusive, we decided to deliver an additional test. The same set of statements regarding English language proficiency were given to a group of exchange students: students coming from other countries to do their study abroad period at Hanze UAS. This group received the pre-test before arrival in the Netherlands (n=94, 64.1%), and the post-test after departure (n=89, 82.0%). The results showed that this group saw an increase in language proficiency. A number of reasons could be advanced for the observed differences between the incoming exchange students and the local Hanze UAS students:

a. The level of English language skills of the local Hanze UAS students was already quite high before departure;
b. A significant proportion of Hanze UAS studied abroad in Dutch-speaking destinations, where presumably not a lot of English was used;
c. Incoming exchange students were not only subjected to a good level of English at Hanze UAS, but also used this in social settings outside the class room when interacting with others.

PERSONAL DEVELOPMENT

Personal development was measured by means of self-perception: students were asked to rate their personal development during their stay abroad by answering to a number of statements. The results in Table 3 present a high degree of personal development.

Table 3. Influence of a stay abroad on personal development

Percentage of students that agreed or completely agreed with the following statements	*Study abroad (%)*	*Internship abroad (%)*
My stay abroad was important for my personal development	98.4	96.1
I have gained better insight in my own capabilities and limitations	86.1	86.6
I have experienced many new things during my stay abroad	93.8	91.6

These results are important, also because personal development was for many students the main reason to go abroad (see Table 1). Judging from the reported results, the study or internship abroad was according to expectations, with most students evaluating positively the effect of their period abroad on their personal development.

An additional aspect measured was that sometimes students choose not to go abroad because they fear missing their relatives or friends. The results of the research showed that this threshold is a matter of expectations: 66% of the students expected to miss their family or friends, whereas upon returning only 40% indicated that they really had missed them.

PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

Self-perception was also used to measure professional development. The results in Table 4 illustrate that the impact of the experience abroad on professional development was rather limited. Indeed, the response to 'Contents wise, I learnt a lot during my study abroad', was that 26.6% of the respondents totally disagreed, or agreed, 25% were neutral and 48.4% agreed or totally agreed with the statement.

Table 4. Influence of study abroad, internship abroad, or internship "at home" on professional development

	Test group		*Control group*
Percentage of students that agreed or completely agreed to the following statements	*Study abroad (%)*	*Internship abroad (%)*	*Internship (%)*
Contents wise, I learnt a lot during my study / internship (abroad)	48.4	65.1	81.6
My study / internship (abroad) was a good preparation to working in the professional environment related to my field of studies	56.3	79.6	81.,8

With respect to the learning experience of the internship, results indicated that doing this in the home country offered a better learning experience than taking an internship abroad. This could be the result of several factors of that generally relate to the level of work performed by interns commensurate with their program (less operational work at home and more 'managerial' challenges) or to the level of supervision of the internship period at home compared to abroad. To elucidate the precise impact of these factors, further work would be required.

CULTURAL AND SOCIAL EXPERIENCE

Table 5 illustrates that going abroad has positive consequences for network development: more than 80% of the students reported an extension of their network.

However, the extent to which students connected with their host country seems more limited: only around 50% of the students had the feeling to be really "submerged" in their host country. In particular, studying abroad seemed to offer fewer opportunities to meet people from the host country. The existence of

Table 5. Study or internship abroad as a cultural or social experience

Percentage of students that agreed or completely agreed to the following statements	*Study abroad (%)*	*Internship abroad (%)*
I have been submerged in the culture of my host country	50.8	51.3
I extended my network	84.2	84.4
I met a lot of people with the nationality of my host country	61.6	75.5

an international bubble also becomes clear from Figure 1, more than 60% of the students who studied abroad connected more with other international students than with local students. This observation underpins what has been found elsewhere, like for example in the UK (Pritchard & Skinner, 2002), the US (Trice, 2004) and Australia (Smart et al., 2000). This figure also illustrates that an internship abroad seemed to offer more opportunities to mix with locals than a study abroad. This would seem to be a logical consequence of having to work together with locally employed colleagues.

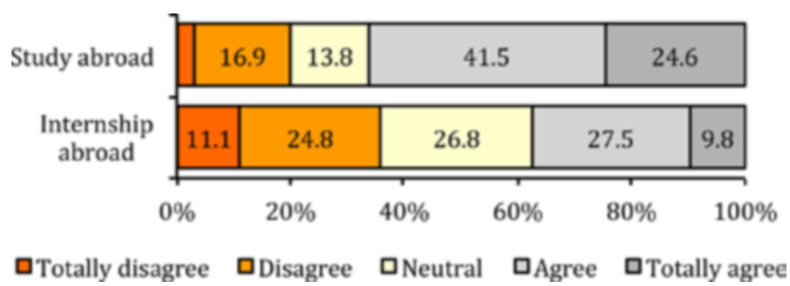

Figure 1. I have been more in touch with international students than with local students

EFFECT OF GOING ABROAD ON MULTICULTURAL EFFECTIVENESS

A person's multicultural effectiveness is related to personality and whether a student has the capabilities to perform effectively in a foreign context depends, at least partly, on this. The dominant approach in personality research is a trait approach. There is a broad consensus in literature that personality traits can be classified according to five basic factors (Costa & McCrae, 1992; Goldberg, 1981), which are popularly referred to as the Big Five: openness, conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness, and neuroticism. There is a crucial difference between conceptualizations of competences and personality traits. Competences can be learned; however, personality traits are enduring dispositions (Berry, Poortinga, Breugelmans, Chasiotis, & Sam, 2011), and therefore, less easily changed.

In the Erasmus Impact Study (European Commission, 2014), six personality traits were tested: tolerance of ambiguity, curiosity, confidence, serenity, decisiveness, and vigour. In this study, we used a set of traits related to the multicultural effectiveness of the students, by using the Multicultural Personality Questionnaire (van Oudenhoven & van der Zee, 2002). This instrument is derived from the "Big Five" in personality theory. It measures multicultural effectiveness by using the following trait dimensions as indicator:

Cultural empathy, defined as the capacity to clearly project an interest in others, as well as to obtain and to reflect a reasonably complete and accurate sense of another's thoughts, feelings, and/or experiences.

Open-mindedness: an open and unprejudiced attitude toward outgroup members and toward different cultural norms and values.

Emotional stability: the tendency to show strong emotional reactions under stressful circumstances.

Flexibility: the ability to switch easily from one behavioral strategy to another when the familiar ways of handling things do not work out in a new cultural environment

Social initiative: the tendency to approach social situations in an active way and to show initiatives.

In the Multicultural Personality Questionnaire, each of these dimensions is operationalized with around 15 Likert-scaled statements. The rating for each trait is determined by taking the average of the ratings of the statements related to the dimension. In this study these statements were used to assess the student's multicultural effectiveness. This resulted in a five-dimensional profile of the multicultural effectiveness of each student in the test. From this profile in Figure 2, it can be seen that on average, hardly any difference was found between the multicultural effectiveness of students before going abroad and after returning.

The multicultural effectiveness of the students does not seem to change by studying or doing an internship abroad. This finding might sound surprising from a competency point of view, as one would expect competences to improve by learning experiences. However, it is in line with the personality point of view: personality traits are relatively enduring dispositions. Psychological research has shown that personality traits show little evidence of change even for people who experience major changes in their lives (McCrae & Costa, 1994). It should be pointed out, that these results were based on averages. It is possible that in individual cases there might have been progress, or a decline, in multicultural effectiveness. The level of aggregation did not allow further investigation of possible individual changes or their causes.

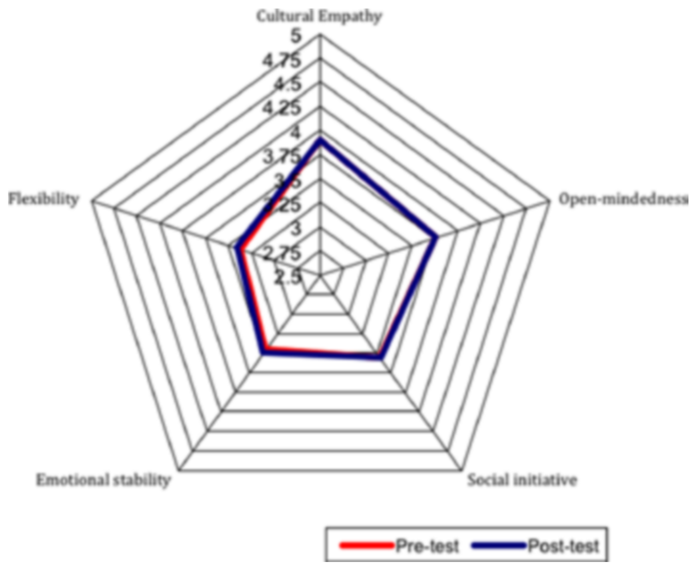

Figure 2. Multicultural effectiveness before and after going abroad

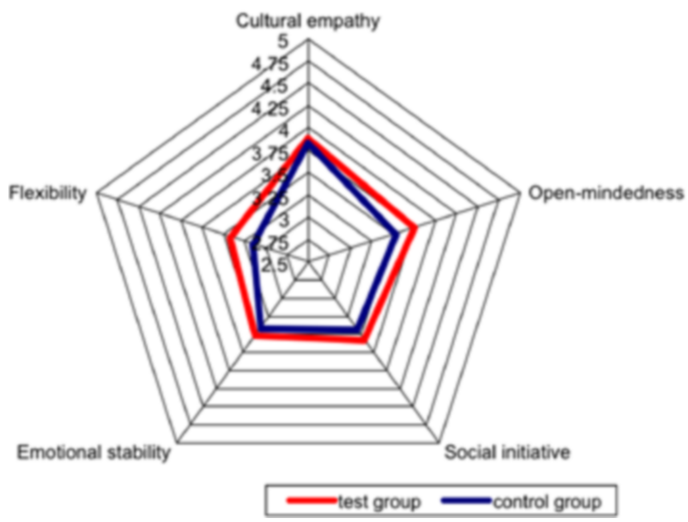

Figure 3. Multicultural effectiveness: Going abroad versus staying at home before departure

Figure 3 shows the difference between the control and test groups, before going abroad. On average students in the test group possessed a consistently higher rating on the multicultural effectiveness dimensions. Thus, it seems that multicultural effectiveness served as a selection mechanism: students with a higher multicultural effectiveness seemed more attracted to study abroad or an internship abroad. This outcome is in agreement with outcomes of the Erasmus Impact Study showing that mobile students have higher values on relevant personality traits even before going abroad.

CONCLUSIONS

This paper describes the results of an institute-specific assessment of the added value of student mobility. In this study, the learning experience of mobile students was compared with non-mobile students. The study illustrated that the abroad experience presented a significant personal and social learning experience. The professional development however, seemed more limited. Students learn abroad, but the professional learning experience was not found to be more effective than what they would have learnt during the same period at home. If improved employability would be a matter of only developing the student's specific professional knowledge and skills, it could cast some doubt on the value of going abroad.

Given that employability is not just related to profession-specific knowledge and skills, but also increasingly to transversal skills (Hart Research Associates, 2013), this study aligns itself with the Erasmus Impact Study in emphasizing the development of transversal skills. The critical nature of these skills for employability and their relationship with a number of personality traits related to multicultural effectiveness give sufficient support for further development of study abroad. In particular, the observation that the students who study abroad possess a higher level of multicultural effectiveness prior to going warrants further examination of the barriers of personal disposition to international study.

This study showed that the personality traits related to multicultural effectiveness were not enhanced during the study or internship abroad. Whilst this might argue against studying abroad, it should be noted that psychological research has shown personality traits to be generally rather stable and subject only to slow change. Presumably the period of study was insufficient to demonstrate any variation in this respect. This finding, however, does not imply that mobility does not impact the student's multicultural effectiveness: students need to learn to use the assets their personality gives them. A student with high scores on the relevant personality traits might have the potential to be multiculturally effective, but this potential has to be activated. This point was not explored in the present study, and offers an interesting perspective for further research.

REFERENCES

Berry, J. W., Poortinga, Y. P., Breugelmans, S. M., Chasiotis, A., & Sam, D. L. (2011). *Cross-cultural psychology: Research and applications* (3rd ed.). Cambridge, NY: Cambridge University Press.

CoE (Council of Europe). (2001). *Common European framework of reference for languages: Learning, teaching, assessment* (CEFR). Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press. Retrieved from http://www.coe.int/t/dg4/linguistic/CADRE1_EN.asp (Accessed July 2015).

Costa, P., & McCrae, R. (1992). *Revised NEO personality inventory (NEOPI-R) and NEO five-factor inventory (NEO-FFI) professional manual*. Odessa, FL: Psychological Assessment Resources.

European Commission. (2014). *The Erasmus impact study: Effects of mobility on the skills and employability of students and the internationalisation of higher education institutions*. European Commission: Education and Culture. Retrieved from http://ec.europa.eu/education/library/study/2014/erasmus-impact_en.pdf (Accessed July 2015).

Goldberg, L. (1981). Language and individual differences: The search for universals in personality lexicons. In L. Wheeler (Ed.), *Review of personality and social psychology* (pp. 141–165). Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.

Hart Research Associates. (2013). *It takes more than a major: Employer priorities for college learning and student success*. Washington, DC: AAC&U. Retrieved from http://www.aacu.org/sites/default/files/files/LEAP/2013_EmployerSurvey.pdf (Accessed July 2015).

McCrae, R. R., & Costa, P. T. (1994). The stability of personality: Observations and evaluations. *Current Directions in Psychological Science, 3*(6), 173–175.

Pritchard, R. M. O., & Skinner, B. (2002). Cross-cultural partnerships between home and international students. *Journal of Studies in International Education, 6*, 323–353.

Trice, A. G. (2004). Mixing it up: International graduate students' social interactions with American students *Journal of College Student Development, 45*(6), 671–687.

Van Oudenhoven, J. P., & Van der Zee, K. I. (2002). Predicting multicultural effectiveness of international students: The multicultural personality questionnaire. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, *26*, 679–694.

Erik Kostelijk
Project Leader, Research
Amsterdam University of Applied Science
The Netherlands

Maarten Regouin
Former Professor, Internationalization and International Professional
Hanze University of Applied Sciences, Groningen
The Netherlands

PART SIX

REGIONAL AND NATIONAL CASES OF LOCAL AND GLOBAL INTERNATIONALIZATION

JOCELYNE GACEL-ÁVILA AND FRANCISCO MARMOLEJO

19. INTERNATIONALIZATION OF TERTIARY EDUCATION IN LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN

Latest Progress and Challenges Ahead

INTRODUCTION

Internationalization is not in end in itself and its main benefit is to contribute to the transformation and improvement of tertiary education systems, in terms of quality, relevance and competitiveness. Internationalization strategies are key to educating graduates with the intercultural and cognitive skills needed by global society; to update educational offerings and increase the relevance and quality of research and innovation capacity, among other things. In this respect, it is important to assess the progress made on matters related to the internationalization of tertiary education during recent years in Latin America and the Caribbean, to evaluate its impact on tertiary education, and to review whether it is helping the region to make the transformation the sector urgently needs.

BACKGROUND CONTEXT FOR INTERNATIONALIZATION

The Latin America and Caribbean region is still struggling to implement the necessary reforms to resolve insufficient access, enhance equity, quality and relevance in tertiary education. Regional average tertiary enrolment is around 38%, (UNESCO-UIS, 2012), largely concentrated (50%) in social sciences, business and law; and the quality of education is affected by a traditional rigid teacher-centered curricular model inadequate for developing sophisticated cognitive skills, generic and professional competencies, as well as learning autonomy throughout life.

Tertiary education in Latin America and the Caribbean is still in a slow process of transitioning towards a larger full-time faculty with postgraduate studies (70% have a BA degree, 26% Master's and 4% PhD). As for research capacity, the region produces 7% of the world's scientific publications output and less than 1% of the world registered patents (CINDA, 2010). Finally, the capacity to respond to global demands can be measured by several indices such as the Global Competitiveness Report 2013–2014, where Chile ranks 34th, Mexico 55th, Brazil 56th, Peru 61st, and Argentina 104th (World Economic Forum, 2013). Similarly, in the Economy of Knowledge Index, Latin American countries got an average score of 5.21 out of

E. Jones et al. (Eds.), Global and Local Internationalization, 141–148.

10, with the exception of 7.09 for Chile. These figures show trends that the Latin America and Caribbean region needs to reverse.

THE PROCESS OF INTERNATIONALIZATION IN LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN: BALANCE, PROGRESS AND CHALLENGES

As the internationalization of tertiary education is acquiring more importance in the planning of educational strategies, it is highly relevant to get objective and comparative data on what really happens in this area. Nevertheless, data is scarce in the region, which is a first sign of limited planning. On this occasion our paper presents an analysis of the 4th Global Internationalization Survey carried out by the International Association of Universities (IAU) in 2013 (Egron-Polak & Hudson, 2014) and complemented by data from UNESCO, OECD and the World Bank, amongst others. When relevant, a comparative analysis with the previous IAU surveys conducted in 2005 and 2010 is included.

External Drivers and Governmental Support

According to the IAU (Egron-Polak & Hudson, 2014, p. 58), new trends are emerging in the Latin America and Caribbean region in respect of external drivers and governmental support. Government policies are now ranked as the first driver ahead of business and industry demand in tune with global trends; also a rise in government funding is reported. Both elements definitively suggest a new trend and an increased interest of regional governments to foster the tertiary education internationalization process. This is a noticeable change in relation to the previous survey (Egron-Polak & Hudson, 2010), where governmental funding in Latin America and the Caribbean was reported to be the lowest of all regions; and where demand by the private sector was ranked as the first driver, evidencing how weakly government support and interest were perceived, since collaboration between industry and higher education in the region is notably low. A new element is that the International rankings influence is acknowledged among the top three drivers of internationalization, as the region has traditionally had a tendency to ignore this phenomenon.

Benefits of Internationalization

The main benefit of internationalization for the Latin America and Caribbean region is reported as increased international networking by faculty/researchers (Egron-Polak & Hudson, 2014, p. 53), being the only region in the world where this benefit receives first place. The second and third benefits are improved quality of teaching and learning and increased international awareness of students. The first choice suggests an interest in using internationalization for the consolidation of regional research and innovation capacity; a situation also made obvious by the implementation of large-scale national programmes to study postgraduate degrees abroad in several Latin America and Caribbean countries.

Risks of Internationalization

As far as risks are concerned, the 4th Global Survey makes a distinction between the risks for institutions and societies. For institutions, international opportunities accessible only to students with financial resources was ranked first, followed by difficulty in regulating locally the quality of foreign programmes offered. In the case of society, the main risk selected was unequal sharing of benefits of internationalization and growing gaps among HEIs within a country (Egron-Polak & Hudson, 2014, pp. 62–64). Both responses suggest that survey participants from the Latin America and Caribbean region feel at a disadvantage in the process of internationalization and in the global context. To evidence the change in trend: in the IAU 2010 Survey, brain drain was ranked as the principal risk (Egron-Polak & Hudson, 2010); while the loss of cultural iden*tity* was seen as the principal threat in 2005.

Internal and External Obstacles to Internationalization

In the case of internal and external obstacles, the 4th (2014) Global Survey shows similar trends to the 3rd (2010) one and, generally speaking, Latin America and the Caribbean follows the global trend: insufficient financial resources and limited public funding for internationalization being identified as the main barriers. Nevertheless, as external obstacles, the language barrier is ranked higher in the region, which is also consistent with other regional reports.

Internationalization Activities

The leading activities of internationalization are outgoing mobility opportunities for students, followed by international research collaboration in line with the global average and consistent with the regional increase in student mobility. Nevertheless, other sources report Latin America and the Caribbean as the region of the developing world with the lowest number of students abroad (6.1%), behind Africa (11.6%) and Asia (52.7%) (OECD, 2013) and of international students (1.8%); as well as the world's lowest outbound mobility ratio (0.9%) (UNESCO-UIS, 2012).

Regional Priorities for Partnerships

Regarding regional priorities for partnerships, survey participants from Latin America and the Caribbean ranked as their first choice both Europe and North America; second, the Latin America and Caribbean region itself and third, Asia. The region was chosen as second in importance by North American participants, but was not among the top three priorities of Europeans. Just as in the 2010 IAU

Global Survey, Latin America and the Caribbean was not chosen as a first priority for partnerships by any region, including itself, in the 2014 survey. This might be a consequence of deficient strategies to enhance international visibility and attract international students, which in the end might suggest a lack of confidence in the quality of regional tertiary education institutions or deficient organizational structures at institutional level.

Faculty Mobility

The 4th Global Survey also evidences an increase in mobility of faculty. Nevertheless, one has to point out that mobility schemes have a limited impact as they mainly benefit the minority of scholars: an elite hired on a full time basis in traditional large research universities. The large majority of faculty (hired on limited hours contracts or part-time) in most private institutions or small public universities are not eligible for these programmes, making them therefore unable to improve their international profile and to actively participate in the process of internationalization.

Internationalization of the Curriculum

According to the survey, Language learning is reported to be the most important strategy for internationalization of the curriculum in Latin America and the Caribbean. Interestingly, this is higher than the world average (Egron-Polak & Hudson, 2014, p. 101), providing further evidence of the deficient level of proficiency in foreign languages in the region as noted above. Additionally, Latin America and the Caribbean is the least advanced region in the number of joint and double degree programs; a modality in full growth around the world (Kuder, Lemmens, & Obst, 2013; Gacel-Ávila, 2013, 2009; IAU, 2010) with 29% of Joint degrees and 34% for Double degrees in contrast to the world average of 41% and 44% respectively.

Noteworthy is an unsystematic use of the experience acquired by faculty educated abroad; few international faculty; a limited number of online programs and weak strategies for recruiting international students and scholars on both national and regional levels (de Wit, Jaramillo, Gacel-Ávila, & Knight, 2005; Brunner & Ferrada, 2011; Gacel-Ávila, 2012). Consequently, the Latin America and Caribbean region is missing the opportunity to internationalize its traditional curricular model and offer, as well as its innovation capacity.

Internationalization Policies and Management

Latin America and the Caribbean is the region reporting the smallest percentage of participating institutions having internationalization policies in place (47% in contrast with the world average of 53 %); and the highest percentage of institutions currently preparing internationalization policies/strategies (28% against a world average of 22%). Both data suggest on the one hand a lesser importance of these strategies in tertiary education institutions compared with other regions, and on the other, that there is increased awareness of it, as organizational structures for internationalization are being created, which is after all an encouraging trend.

As for the management of internationalization, several reports mention Latin America and the Caribbean to be the region with the least institutionalized and professionalized international offices considering that only 40% of staff have the rank of Vice-Rector, Vice-President or Chancellor in contrast with a world average of 60% (Egron-Polak & Hudson, 2010, p. 103). Additionally, university rectors largely underestimate the importance of recruiting senior staff able to combine academic leadership and managerial skills, and with a deep knowledge of trends, networks, and programs at global level. A situation worsened by constant staff turnover in every change of administration, which occurs every 4 years on average in public tertiary education institutions.

A recent report produced by the European Union on international cooperation with Latin America and the Caribbean recently emphasized: "European universities report their concern about the high level of instability and lack of professional staff in the international office of their counterparts in Mexico" (ECORYS, 2011, p. 12). This situation disrupts the accumulation of experience and talent, diminishes the institutional potential and international visibility and, ultimately, limits the viability of internationalization strategies.

Regional Integration

On the issue of regional integration, as indicated by de Wit (2014) we agree that it has to be fostered in a more decisive way. The Bologna Process has been considered an innovative achievement and a possible model for regional integration, which could result in fostering a reform process for the tertiary education sector in Latin America and the Caribbean. Nevertheless, after years of debate among specialists (Malo, 2005; Brunner, 2009; Gacel-Ávila, 2010), the conclusions are that there are several organizational, cultural, and functional obstacles for implementing such a model in the region.

Amongst other barriers, is the high proportion (50%) of private institutions; the proliferation of institutions of all types with a high degree of both vertical and horizontal differentiation; a predominance of emblematic macro national universities; large quality, infrastructure and financial gaps among institutions and countries; and above all, the absence of a political will to establish intraregional agreements, policies and supra-structures to foster such a process. Other obstacles are low faculty professionalization, limited resources to train professors in new pedagogies, etc.

Thus, probably with the exception of the Tuning Latin America project, a great majority of initiatives for regional integration have been for the most part rhetorical or limited to a reduced recognition of degrees and credits, without attempting to address the need for deep reforms.

CONCLUSIONS

As a conclusion, it can be said that internationalization in Latin America and the Caribbean is showing positive trends, evidencing progress during recent years. Advances have been achieved in mobility schemes, especially for students. Large-scale scholarship programs for postgraduate studies abroad and international networking for faculty and researchers are top priorities to raise levels of knowledge production, innovation capacity and competitiveness. Language learning after being reported as one of the main barriers to internationalization has consequently become a top priority for activities in the internationalization of the curriculum. Governments have raised support and funding, and tertiary education institutions are improving or creating their organizational structures for internationalization.

Nevertheless, comparing it with other world regions, which is inevitable when talking about tertiary education internationalization and globalization, efforts should be enhanced. Compared with other developing regions, like Asia or even Africa, Latin America and the Caribbean is lagging behind in terms of student mobility, internationalization of the curriculum, organizational structures and in the professionalization of staff. In other words, it is not enough that the region follows worldwide trends; efforts should be doubled in order to stay in tune with developments in other regions of the world.

Furthermore, a closer look at the kind of activities carried out by institutions reveals that their main efforts are focused on individual strategies (mobility schemes) instead of systematic strategies (curriculum and research), suggesting a traditional notion of international cooperation mainly based on the physical mobility of individuals. These types of activities, without denying their positive and transformative value for individuals, are nevertheless not able to make systematic transformations at the sector and institutional level.

Political culture both at institutional and sector level privileges short term planning and actions, when internationalization is definitively a medium and long-term strategy. Thus, the potential of internationalization to contribute to transformation and improvement in terms of curriculum, knowledge production and innovation capacity, as well as quality and relevance is largely limited.

To sum up, the Latin America and Caribbean region requires the implementation of transversal, comprehensive, and systematic strategies of internationalisation in order to help in transforming the tertiary education sector. Comprehensive internationalization (Hudzik, 2011) must be the point of departure, the horizon, and the general orientation for all international activities. In this respect, tertiary education institutions in Latin America and the Caribbean need to institutionalize organizational structures, to professionalize the process management and international office staff in order to increase viability, benefits and outcomes; to define objectives and policies for the medium and long term; and to establish international alliances with an adequate selection of partners under the criteria of mutual commitment and complementary benefits in the framework of concrete action plans.

The main challenges ahead are to enhance integration at a regional level; to foster the international visibility of regional tertiary education systems; to establish a regional system for recognition of qualifications and degrees as well as one for quality assurance; and, in general, to consolidate tertiary education systems in terms of quality, relevance, curricular updating and faculty professionalization.

REFERENCES

Brunner, J. J. (2009). The Bologna process from a Latin American perspective. *Journal of Studies in International Education* (OnlineFirst), *13*(4), 417–438. Retrieved from http://jsi.sagepub.com/cgi/rapidpdf/102831538329805v1

Brunner, J. J., & Ferrada, R. (Eds.). (2011). Educación Superior en Iberoamerica. *Informe 2011.* Santiago de Chile, Chile: CINDA.

CINDA. (2010). *El rol de las universidades en el desarrollo científico y tecnológico.* CINDA.

de Wit, H. (2014). Latin America must build on intra-regional cooperation. *University World News.* Retrieved from http://www.universityworldnews.com/article.php?story=20140619121906637 (Accessed July 2015).

de Wit, H., Jaramillo, C., Gacel-Ávila, J., & Knight, J. (Eds.). (2005). *Higher education in Latin America: The international dimension.* Washington, DC: The World Bank.

ECORYS, CHEPS, ESMU. (2011). *Reporte Final: Estudio comparativo entre la UE y México sobre los retos creados como consecuencia de la internacionalización de la educación superior y las herramientas de transparencia desarrolladas por ambos para facilitar la movilidad y la cooperación*. Contrato Marco de Servicio No. EAC/02/10, 18 de Octubre del 2011. 30 de Septiembre de 2012.

Egron-Polak, E., & Hudson, R. (2010). *IAU 3rd global survey.* Paris, France: International Association of Universities (IAU).

Egron-Polak, E., & Hudson, R. (2014). *IAU 4th global survey*. Paris, France: International Association of Universities (IAU).

Gacel-Ávila, J. (2010). Factibilidad del Proceso de Bolonia en América Latina. In S. F. López & D. Rivarola (Eds.), *La Universidad ante los desafíos del siglo XXI*. Asunción, Paraguay: Revista Paraguaya de Sociología.

Gacel-Ávila, J. (2012). Comprehensive internationalisation in Latin America. *Higher Education Policy*, *25*, 1–18.

Hudzik, J. (2011). *Comprehensive internationalization*. Washington, DC: NAFSA Association of International Educators.

Kent, R. (Ed.). (2002). *Los temas crjíticos de la educación superior en América Latina en los años noventa*. México, DF: Fondo de Cultura Económica.

Knight, J., & de Wit, H. (1995). Strategies for internationalisation of higher education: Historical and coceptual perspectives. In H. de Wit (Ed.), *Strategies for internationalisation of higher education: A comparative study of Australia, Canada, Europe and the United States of America.* Amsterdam, The Netherlands: EAIE.

Kuder, M., Lemmens, N., & Obst, D. (Eds.). (2013). *Global perspectives on international joint and double degree programs*. New York, NY: IIE-DAAD.

Malo, S. (2005). El Proceso de Bolonia y la educación superior en América Latina. *Foreign Affairse en Español*, *5*(2), 22–35.

OECD. (2008). *OECD reviews of tertiary education, Mexico*. Paris, Francia: OECD.

OECD. (2013). *Education at a glance 2013: OECD indicators*. Paris, Francia: OECD Publishing.

OECD-The World Bank. (2009). *Tertiary education in Chile*. Paris, Francia: OECD Publishing.

OECD-The World Bank. (2012). *Reviews for national policies for education: Tertiary education in Colombia 2012*. Paris, Francia: OECD Publishing.

UNESCO-UIS. (2012). *Global education digest 2012*. Montreal, QC: UNESCO.

World Economic Forum. (2013). *Global competitiviness report 2013–2014*. WEF.

Jocelyne Gacel-Ávila
University of Guadalajara
Mexico

Francisco Marmolejo
Higher Education Coordinator
World Bank
USA

ADINDA VAN GAALEN AND RENATE GIELESEN

20. INTERNATIONALISATION AT HOME

Dutch Higher Education Policies[1]

CONTEXT

The internationalisation of higher education is a key priority for the Dutch Ministry of Education, Culture and Science. Its aim is that all students in the Netherlands will have obtained international and intercultural competences upon graduation. As it is expected that, even in the near future, not all students will go abroad during their studies, this article discusses how internationalisation at home (IaH) can be stimulated based on the results of a study of 54 Dutch Higher Education institutions (van Gaalen, Hobbes, Roodenburg, & Gielesen, 2014). No less than 91% of Dutch institutions participating in the study have an internationalisation policy at the central level. Some institutions include the policy in their institutional plan, but close to 76% of all Dutch HE institutions have a specific internationalisation plan or are currently working to develop one. This is comparable to the global average of 75% in the IAU 4th Global Survey (Egron-Polak & Hudson, 2014).

INTERNATIONAL AND INTERCULTURAL COMPETENCIES

International and/or intercultural competencies of students are mentioned in many of the institutional strategy documents as the main goal of internationalisation (van Gaalen et al., 2014) Institutions tend to describe these competencies in general terms, specifying that further elaboration is to take place at program level. Most institutions opt for a program-specific approach of international and intercultural competences and are cautious when it comes to the implementation of a centralised institutional policy. Several policy plans explicitly mention that the context of a study program is essential in determining the relevant international and intercultural competences.

Van Gaalen et al. (2014) notice that institutions which do formulate competencies do not often distinguish between international and intercultural competencies. Examples of such competencies include 1) an attentive and inquisitive attitude; 2) intercultural effectiveness and communication; 3) knowledge of foreign languages; 4) flexibility and the ability to apply knowledge, and 5) innovation according to international standards. This serves to demonstrate that, in addition to international and intercultural outcomes, internationalisation can yield general learning outcomes

E. Jones et al. (Eds.), Global and Local Internationalization, 149–154.

such as professional knowledge and transferable (also called transversal) skills. The Erasmus Impact study (European Commission, 2014) found that 92% of employers are looking for such transversal skills.

INTERNATIONALISATION IN THE HOME COUNTRY

These competences cannot be achieved by all students through mobility alone. Between 2003 and 2013 a stable average of 22,6% of Dutch graduates have been internationally mobile within their study program (Nuffic, forthcoming), as opposed to 77,4% who stayed at home. In consultation with the Ministry, and based on the definition by Beelen and Leask (2010), internationalisation at home for this study has been interpreted as ‘all activities within the formal curriculum which take place in the home country or are short study trips abroad accompanied by staff of the home institution’. As Beelen and Jones (2015) point out these study trips only contribute to IaH if integrated into other curriculum activity. Internationalisation at home can potentially reach all students when structurally implemented in the curriculum.

The IAU 4th Global Survey (E. Egron-Polak & R. Hudson, 2014) shows that globally 14% of the participating institutions consider internationalisation of the curriculum as the single most important internationalisation activity. One of the main reasons could be that it brings internationalisation to the core of education.

According to van Gaalen et al. (2014) Institutional policy plans of Dutch HE institutions mention many types of internationalisation at home, such as inviting foreign lecturers, participating in international projects, offering intercultural skills modules and tailoring components of the study program to include different intercultural perspectives on a specific topic (Nuffic, 2012). Beelen and Jones (2015) also provide a detailed list of internationalisation at home activities. In general, Dutch institutions do not regard internationalisation at home as a literal alternative to mobility, but are inclined to view the two as complementary.

Yet this relationship between the two sides of the internationalisation coin is not reflected in policy documents (van Gaalen et al., 2014). In fact, few institutions formulate a coherent and detailed internationalisation at home strategy or deploy monitoring tools. In addition, a lack of time or financial resources is an obstacle for implementation in many institutions. However, these are by no means the only reasons for the modest level of internationalisation at home in some Dutch Higher education institutions.

STAFF DEVELOPMENT

Although internationalisation at home is one of the key elements of the internationalisation agenda, implementation is challenged by a lack of attention to training of staff in this specific field. Preparation of teaching staff seems to be key in the success of internationalisation strategies as teachers are essential for developing and carrying out curriculum changes. One of the most eye-catching results of the Dutch study by van Gaalen et al. (2014) reveals, however, that international institutional strategies devote little attention to the development of competencies of lecturers and staff to prepare them for the implementation of the various forms of internationalisation at home. Both Hanze University of Applied Sciences, (see van der Poel, this volume), and Avans University of Applied Sciences (van Melle & Muffels, 2015) have set up an intercultural learning lab for their teaching staff to support teachers reporting stress, from failing communication strategies when dealing with students from different cultural and linguistic backgrounds.

Incorporating internationalisation at home as a standard component of lecturer professionalisation programs such as the Basic Teaching Qualification (BKO) in the Netherlands can open teachers' minds to the possibilities internationalisation offers them. Some institutions have already taken this idea a little further and developed a voluntary extra module in the BKO framework. Hanze University of Applied Sciences, for instance, has designed a development track for its teaching staff (Van der Werf & Troia, 2014). This track offers teachers assignments and tutoring to develop six competences needed in internationalising education. The choice of assignments is based on an intake interview which addresses individual needs and wishes of the participant and the future role that s/he will have in his/her team.

CONSCIOUS EFFORTS

In general, it seems that the concept of the international classroom in Dutch higher education institutions is aimed mainly at talented students from abroad. In some instances, it is almost seen as a side effect that Dutch students could increase their international and intercultural competences in an international classroom. And it is often assumed, even by those institutions which consider intercultural competence development as important, that simple exposure is sufficient to develop these competencies (van Gaalen et al., 2014).

However, higher levels of internationally and interculturally competent graduates may be achieved if institutions consciously create situations that facilitate intercultural collaboration and guide students through the process of intercultural learning. Such measures can help institutions to make optimal use of the international classroom's added value including the knowledge of international students.

Other activities which seem to offer great potential to develop international and intercultural competences in students and yet are mentioned only rarely in policy documents according to van Gaalen et al. (2014) are virtual mobility and development cooperation projects. Virtual mobility projects have been developed over the past five to ten years in many Dutch institutions, such as Tilburg University, Amsterdam University of Applied Sciences, Radboud University etc.

Yet this is not reflected in the attention this activity is given in institutional plans. Dutch institutions participating in development cooperation projects such as the University of Groningen, VU University Amsterdam and Fontys University of Applied Sciences are rather modest in referring to them in terms of sources for building competences of Dutch students.

INSTITUTIONAL AND NATIONAL POLICIES

Most Dutch higher education institutions specifically mention the importance of international and intercultural competencies for their students in their institutional strategies. In addition, Internationalisation at Home receives a fair amount of attention in these documents (van Gaalen et al., 2014). However, the concept will benefit from greater clarity and possibly an institutional framework. Institutional policies could for instance include a provision specifying that all study programs must incorporate relevant international and intercultural competencies. An example of such a provision comes from the policy plan of Utrecht University: "…also students who are not mobile need to acquire competencies required for a professional in an international environment. Internationalisation with focus on developing multicultural competencies is a quality feature of all our undergraduate programs."

In Australia and the UK this would be called specifying international and intercultural competences as graduate attributes. The appropriate method of testing these competencies should then also be specified in institutional policies. In addition, policies can be further elaborated by a clear definition of terms such as *curricular internationalisation*, *internationally oriented curricula* and *international classroom*.

The Dutch government is interested in increasing the number and impact of internationalisation at home activities in higher education. In a society where HE Institutions have a high level of autonomy, as is the case in the Netherlands, national internationalisation policies need not only reflect national economic objectives but first and foremost the core tasks of higher education institutions in order to be effective.

Any national framework for internationalisation at home might include direction, means and methods but more importantly should go hand in hand with sufficient freedom. This allows study programs to experiment and discover which forms of internationalisation (at home) suit their specific program profile.

The focus on students' international and intercultural competencies can be intensified by the Dutch government by encouraging study programs and institutions to apply for a Certificate for Quality in Internationalisation of the European Consortium for Accreditation in higher education. This certificate replaces the BKI certificate of the Dutch-Flemish Accreditation Organisation (NVAO). Core to the evaluation framework for the certificate are the international and intercultural learning outcomes as defined by the program itself. The advantage of this model is that it supports and even stimulates program-specific internationalisation. This allows for an optimal value adding of internationalisation for the unique features of a program, while still using a framework which can be applied to all programs.

CONCLUSION

The main point made in this article is that almost all Dutch HE institutions pay attention to aspects of internationalisation at home in their strategies. However, in general, they do not have an internationalisation at home strategy or deploy monitoring tools. Still, a wide range of activities are mentioned, mostly aimed at increasing the international and intercultural competences of students. In addition quality assurance tools are being developed. Assessment of intercultural competences is however, is rarely mentioned in policy documents. The professional development of staff in this area has only just started to become an item on the HE internationalisation agenda.

NOTE

[1] An earlier version of this chapter appeared as an essay: Van Gaalen, A. and R. Gielesen (2014). Internationalizing Students in the Home Country—Dutch Policies. In *International Higher Education. Number 78. Special issue 2014.* Boston, MA: The Boston College Center for International Higher Education.

REFERENCES

Beelen, J., & Jones, E. (2015). Redefining internationalisation at home. In A. Curaj, L. Matei, R. Pricopie, J. Salmi, & P. Scott (Eds.), *The European higher education area: Between critical reflections and future policies.* Springer International.

Egron-Polak, E., & Hudson, R. (2014). *Internationalisation of higher education: Growing expectations, fundamental values (IAU 4th Global Survey)*. Paris, France: International Association of Universities.

European Commission. (2014). *Erasmus impact study: Effects of mobility on the skills and employability of students and the internationalisation of higher education institutions*. Brussels, Europe: European Commission.

Leask, B., & Beelen, J. (2010). *Enhancing the engagement of academic staff in international education in Europe and Australia: Background Paper 2*. Paper prepared for the IEAA-EAIE Symposium: Advancing Australia-Europe Engagement. Hawthorn, Australia: International Education Association of Australia (IEAA).

Nuffic. (2012). *MINT webtool questionnaire – Programme part*. The Hague, The Netherlands: Nuffic. Retrieved from www.nuffic.nl/mint (Accessed July 2015).

Nuffic. (forthcoming). *Internationalisering in beeld 2014–15*. The Hague, The Netherlands: EP-Nuffic.

van der Poel, M. (2014). *Professional development of teaching staff for the international higher education environment*. Herzogenrath, Germany: Shaker Verlag.

van der Werf, E., & Troia, M. (2014). *The advanced qualification for internationalisation (AQI)*. Groningen: Hanze University of Applied Sciences. Retrieved from https://www.hanze.nl/eng/organisation/international-affairs/professional-development-for-internationalisation (Accessed July 2015).

van Gaalen, A., Hobbes, H. J., Roodenburg, S., & Gielesen, R. (2014). *Studenten internationaliseren in eigen land*. The Hague, The Netherlands: Nuffic.

van Melle, J., & Muffels, K. (2015). Intercultural learning lab. *Internationalisation at home seminar.* Utrecht, 5 February, 2015. Retrieved from https://www.nuffic.nl/bibliotheek/intercultural-learning-lab.pdf (Accessed July 2015).

Adinda van Gaalen
Senior Policy Officer/Researcher
Nuffic, Netherlands Organisation for International
Cooperation in Higher Education
The Netherlands

Renate Gielesen
Senior Project Manager
Nuffic, Netherlands Organisation for International
Cooperation in Higher Education
The Netherlands

EDILIO MAZZOLENI AND ROBERT COELEN

21. ITALIAN HIGHER EDUCATION REFORM

Great Potential for Internationalisation but Issues in Implementation

INTRODUCTION

In 2010, Italy's higher education system was subjected to a reform agenda, which was intended to address major systemic problems that impacted on the quality of research and teaching. At issue is whether Italy, as a result of the Reform is, or will become, a significant international player in global higher education. This paper will describe the most recent developments in several indicators of higher education system health, the nature of some of the apparent systemic problems, and important elements of the reform agenda designed to address these issues. The paper then concludes by addressing the key question of Italy's future role in international higher education.

To examine relevant aspects of system health, this paper considers three indicators that are taken as a proxy for the attractiveness of higher education. International students make considerable sacrifices to study in a foreign country. The more attractive a particular country (or institution) is to them, the more likely they are to select it as their place of study. The intimate relationship between PhD programs and research provide a second indicator of system health. Success in attracting talented international PhD students and international researchers is therefore another good measure. A related, but slightly different indicator is the ability of higher education researchers and PhD students to create good research output. In this paper it will be the third indicator that will be considered.

INDICATOR 1: INTERNATIONAL STUDENTS

The following data demonstrate how Italian universities are positioned amongst other EU universities in respect of attracting international students. In the first 12 years of this century the proportion of foreign student enrolments increased from 1.5% to 4% (OECD, 2014). This is only about one half of the OECD average (8%) and better than that of Spain (3%), but less than Portugal (5%), but much less than Switzerland (at 16%), and France (12%).

OECD data show that from 2000 to 2010 the number of foreign students in tertiary education in Italy rose from 24,929 to 69,905 280% increase). Spain, starting

E. Jones et al. (Eds.), Global and Local Internationalization, 155–161.

from more or less the same base (25,502) grew nearly four-fold in the same period; Switzerland and France were at about the OECD average (200%).

Italy's market share according to the OECD (2012) rose in the first decade from 1.2% to 1.7%, a growth of market share of 41%. In the same time the OECD grew its market share (of the total global mobility) by 4%. Spain almost doubled (95%) its share of the market, whilst the UK increased its market share by 21%. In terms of absolute numbers at the end of the first decade of the 21st century, Italy (69,905) and Spain (98,611), remain well behind the UK (534,555), Germany (263,971) and France (259,935).

Thus in conclusion, Italy is performing better than the OECD average in terms of growing its market share of international students, but the percentage of foreign students lags behind the OECD average by a factor of two.

INDICATOR 2: INTERNATIONAL PHD STUDENTS AND RESEARCHERS

The attractiveness of Italy's research efforts as evidenced by the trends in participation of foreign PhD students seems to have waned in the first decade of this century. The decision of a foreign student to attend a university to read for a PhD depends to a significant extent on the perceived quality of research. The percentage of international PhD students in all research sectors dropped from 7,7% (of total enrolments) in 2002/03 to 2,8% in 2008/09 (see Figure 1). Gagliarducci et al. (2005) questioned the quality of Italian universities and their ability to attract international professional researchers or even PhD students from other countries within the same sector.

Not only was the participation in PhD studies by international students in decline, data from the European Commission (2003) showed that, in the decade preceding the current century, Italy had the lowest number of Science and Technology researchers per 1000 labour force (2.78) of all countries in the comparison after Portugal (3.11), Greece (3.32) and Spain (3.77). The same report showed that in 2000 Italy also had the lowest proportion of PhD graduations of the population in the age group of 25–34. Italy produced 0.16 graduates/1000 in that year, compared to Spain (0.33), Portugal (0.39), EU-15 (0.56), and France (0.65).

Thus, in terms of market share of countries compared by the European Commission (2003), Italy not only occupied the last position, but also it experienced further decline of international PhD student participation in the first decade of the 21st century. This followed an overall decline of the proportion of Science and Technology researchers in the 1990s.

INDICATOR 3: RESEARCH PRODUCTION

The general decline in researchers in the last century and the reduction in participation of foreign PhD students combined with the low proportion of researchers all lead to a low research output. If the decline in foreign PhD student participation can be seen as

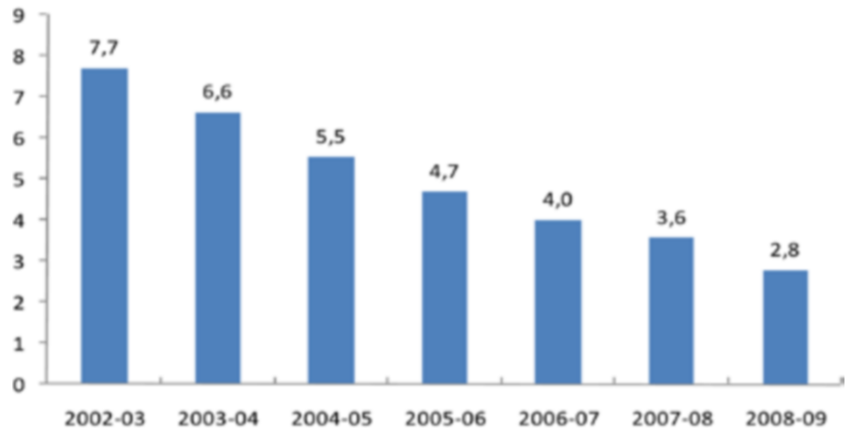

Figure 1. Percentage of international PhD students enrolled (of total PhD enrolments) in Italian universities from 2002/3 to 2008/9 (Source: Ministero dell'Istruzione dell'Università e della Ricerca – MIUR 2010)

a low level of confidence in the quality of research, than the data of the various global rankings say something more about the research output. Important factors in these rankings are the citations and total published research output. Italy did not place a single institution in the first 100 universities and fewer than other EU countries in the top 200, with two universities in the World University Ranking (WUR) and four in the Shanghai (ARWU), against Germany (12 and 14 respectively), France (1 and 7).

Between 1997 and 2001, Italy contributed to only 4.3% of the top 1% of highly cited publications, compared to 12.8% for the UK, 10.4% for Germany and 6.9% for France (Buzzetti and Gioia 2007). It is not surprising that the total research output of Italy is low, given the low numbers of researchers per capita. The ranking data seem to suggest that also the quality of the research output is less than optimal.

This paper puts forward a number of systemic issues that may be important factors to explain the observed performance. These issues relate to incentives for research output, funding structures, services, as well as operational governance and access to higher education.

SYSTEMIC PROBLEM 1: LACK OF INCENTIVES FOR RESEARCH OUTPUT

In the Italian higher education system, salaries for professors are based on seniority and the passing of the "concorso" (a national selection). There are three levels in Italian academia. Within each level, research output does not contribute to determining one's salary or promotion. The entry point into an academic career is the passing of the "concorso". The way the "concorso" is established reinforces a strong localism (an academic tends to be assigned a position in a university in the same region he/she is from), and "familism" – having a high percentage of academics from the same family is pervasive in Italian academia (Bonaventura, 2011). As such the system is counterproductive in making Italy competitive in the global research arena.

SYSTEMIC PROBLEM 2: FUNDING DISTRIBUTION DOES NOT RESULT IN HIGH RESEARCH OUTPUT

In terms of the proportion of expenditure on research and development (Gross Expenditure on Research and Development – GERD) Italy ranks 8th out of 10 countries in an OECD comparison. On a per capita basis however, either general university funding per academic (GUF) or expenditure on higher education research and development per academic researcher (HERD), Italy ranks highest or second highest respectively. The public purse spends the equivalent of USD$140,000 per academic and the expenditure on research and development at Italian universities is USD$180,000 per researcher. Whilst media reports in Italy frequently describe underfunding of research, the facts demonstrate that this is not the case. The level of funding therefore should not be in the way of Italy developing a competitive university research sector. Thus, the conclusion is that issues with the distribution or actual use of the funds may explain the poor performance

Table 1. Expenditure on research and development in Italy. Source: OECD, Main science and technology indicators database. Definitions: Column 2: HERD in millions of US dollars, PPP adjusted, 1999 / full time equivalent academic researchers; Column 3: GUF in millions of US dollars, PPP, 1999 / full time equivalent academic researchers

	GERD (Gross expenditure on Research and Development) / GDP 2002	*HERD (Higher Education Research & Development Spending / Academic Researcher*	*GUF (General University Funds) / Academic researcher*
	1	*2*	*3*
USA	2.73	0.25	
Germany	2.51	0.12	0.09
UK	1.86	0.10	0.04
France	2.23	0.10	0.05
Italy	1.11	0.18	0.14
Spain	0.95	0.06	0.03
Portugal	0.85	0.06	0.04
Denmark	2.4	0.11	0.07
The Netherlands	1.88	0.17	0.12
Canada	2.03	0.13	0.04

SYSTEMIC PROBLEM 3: POOR EDUCATIONAL SERVICES

As shown above under Indicator 1, Italy performs well below the OECD average in terms of participation of international students in Italian university programs. This seems paradoxical when compared to the fifth position Italy assumes in terms of export of educational services (WTO, 2010). The definition of educational services explains this apparent paradox. Education services encompass those activities that support educational processes, or a system, however excluding "instructional activities" *per se*. Examination of the provision of educational services shows that a significant proportion of the supply of these services is actually carried out by foreign branch campuses of, amongst others, higher education institutions from the USA (41 operations throughout Italy). These are bringing the bulk of some 30,500 students each year for study abroad from the associated home campuses.

Thus, whilst Italy is a major exporter of educational services, Italian universities do not deliver them. The education offered by Italian universities, even for non-degree participants does not amount to services of which foreign students wish to avail themselves, despite the fact that Italy is a major pull factor in the establishment of operations by foreign universities. Italian universities seem unable to provide what is required.

THE NEW REFORM

Battini (2011) stated that Italian universities have had to cope with globalisation with a governance structure designed in 1933. It has only seen some minor adjustments over the years. Italy's higher education experienced further changes in 1999, as it became one of the first countries to adopt all the prescriptions set by the Bologna 14 Declaration. The top down approach imposed by the government to reform the universities (Ministerial decrees 509/1999) challenged the system, as it focused more on institutional reorganisation rather than on the quality of programs and services (Ballarino & Perotti, 2011). Nonetheless, this ground-breaking piece of legislation in 2010 was expected to address the major flaws within the existing Italian higher education system.

The 2010 Reform is intended to restructure the governance of universities in order to change its self-referential tendency and avoid the risk of consensus-based decisions that benefit specific stakeholders. The Reform therefore includes rectors, selected from any university, for a single six-year term, instead of having been chosen from within. The roles of rectors and the committees they chair (Board and Senate) have also undergone significant change (Battini, 2011). Evaluation Committees (Nucleo di Valutazione – with mainly external professionals) reports on, and advises, Italian universities. They are the university's link with ANVUR – National Agency for the Evaluation of Universities and Research Institutes. This agency establishes standards of evaluation of teaching, research, and other services provided by universities.

Other aspects reshaped include the recruitment of academics, now subject to research productivity, a research assessment exercise that includes international expertise, and a set of criteria to measure and report publicly on the adequacy of university infrastructure to host and teach students. This may contribute to the development of new and improved services for students.

CONCLUSION

The main objective of the Reform is to solve the systemic problems of Italian higher education; and to some extent it successfully addresses the key issues. At the same time though, it seems that this Reform does not take into account the existing interconnections between higher education systems and does not respond appropriately or directly to the challenges of globalisation.

This persistent obstacle might be the result of a compromise between the government and academia. The latter could feel threatened by significant new competition, and feel the necessity for a defensive response. Yet, should individual universities act autonomously, since they will be responsible for their internal organisation, and set their own agenda, they could define an incentive scheme that could impact two different areas. First, individual institutions would have the opportunity to evaluate their research output, and compete with each other for public, and also private, funding. They could distribute research funds according to output. Secondly, they could use incentives, by way of remuneration or again by competition, to encourage the development of market-driven academic programs and services. Although the impact of these incentives will be primarily felt at the local/national level, they also represent a means for the system, and its stakeholders, to come to be in a position to compete at the international level.

These various opportunities signal, given the Reform framework, a simple shift of responsibility from Government to individual institutions. Universities are now accountable for their overall performance to different stakeholders: the State, for public funding allocation; the private sector, for various types of collaboration; and students, for the quality of teaching and services. This characterises a major positive change compared to the previous system, but it has its limitations. In fact, the risk might be that the autonomous universities will not rise to the occasion or fail in their attempt to adjust to the new context as allowed by the new legislation.

It might be premature to judge the Reform negatively, since it has not been fully implemented. It is difficult to fully appreciate its possible impact on the extent to which universities might become internationally competitive. The Reform's main objective would be to solve the Italian HE problems primarily at the national level, but it may also have contributed to building the foundation for a more competitive Italian academe. By establishing a solid governance structure, individual institutions now have the means to define a clear agenda with the instruments and power to take on international competition. Ultimately, success or failure of the Reform will rest with the academics who, until now, have collectively demonstrated great resistance to change. Together they now hold the power to enable Italian higher education to become competitive in the global higher education arena and for Italy to develop as a strong knowledge economy.

REFERENCES

Ballarino, G., & Perotti, L. (2011). Italy: Gradual changes and an uncertain autonomy. In M. Regini (Ed.), *European universities and the challenge of the market: A comparative Analysis*. Northampton, England: Edward Elgar.

Battini, S. (2011). La nuova governance delle università. *Rivista trimestrale di diritto pubblico*, 2, 359–379.

Bonaventura, L. (2011). The role of frictions on Italian academic recruitment system. *DEMQ Working Paper Series 2011/1*. Catania, Italy: Università di Catania.

Buzzetti, G., & Gioia, I. M. (2007). I numeri della ricerca scientifica in Italia. In T. Maccacaro (Ed.), *La ricerca tradita: Analisi di una crisi e pro-spettive di rilancio* (pp. 11–36). Milan, Italy: Garzanti.

European Commission. (2003). *Third European report on science and technology indicators*. Directorate-General for Research, Brussels, Belgium.

Gagliarducci, S., Ichino, A., Peri, G., & Perotti, R. (2005). Lo splendido isolamento delle università italiana. *Oltre il decline*. Bologna, Italy: Il Mulino.

OECD. (2012). *Education at a glance 2012: OECD Indicators*. Paris, France: OECD Publishing.

OECD. (2014). *Education at a glance 2014: OECD Indicators*. Paris, France: OECD Publishing.

WTO. (2010). *Education services – Background note by secretariat*. Geneva, Switzerland: WTO Secretariat.

Edilio Mazzoleni
Director, UCSC International
Università Cattolica del Sacro Cuore, Milan, Italy

Robert Coelen
Professor of Internationalisation of Higher Education
Stenden University of Applied Sciences, The Netherlands

ADRIANA PÉREZ-ENCINAS

22. CONSOLIDATING ERASMUS MOBILITY IN SPAIN DURING THE ECONOMIC CRISIS

INTRODUCTION

The Erasmus+ program of the European Commission 2014–2020, which includes education and training as well as youth and sport activities, is motivating thousands of European students to undertake part of their studies abroad. It has received a significant budget increase of 40% more than under the previous Erasmus program, which over the past 25 years had enabled more than 3 million students to study abroad as part of their home degree. The crisis in Spain is leading thousands of university students to decide to carve out a better future for themselves by undertaking internships, part of their studies or their whole degree in other European countries, or even other continents. Despite the fact that the length of the Erasmus grant has been reduced to one semester and that many families cannot easily afford this economic burden, Erasmus mobility is being consolidated as part of the Spanish university curriculum.

Given such a context, this article explores how interest in the Erasmus program has been consolidated in Spain at a time of severe economic crisis when students see the opportunities it offers through study and internships abroad as a means to enhance their employability skills in a difficult job market. One of the key elements in the Europe 2020 strategy for smart, sustainable and inclusive growth and jobs is Erasmus student mobility, with its core focus on transnational academic cooperation and skills development.

ERASMUS MOBILITY WITHIN THE ACADEMIC CURRICULUM

From the students' perspective, there are four main reasons for taking part in the program during their studies: to enhance their academic program, to find a job after their studies, to improve their foreign language competences and to acquire an international perspective and experience. All of these are related and help young graduates to enter the labor market. A study carried out among 240 outgoing students at the Universidad Autónoma de Madrid (UAM, 2014), with a response rate of 46%, found that 89% of the students surveyed assumed that having taken part in a mobility program would help them find a job in the future.

In many European universities, students are encouraged to complete part of their studies abroad. Under Erasmus, students are exempt from paying fees at the host

E. Jones et al. (Eds.), Global and Local Internationalization, 163–166.

university and the credits they achieve are recognized through a learning agreement signed by the student, the home and the host institutions. The European Commission has set itself a target of 20% mobile students by 2020.

In Spain, as in other countries, Erasmus mobility does not feature as a "compulsory period abroad" in the academic curricula of most higher education institutions. Mobility windows as part of the curriculum are predominantly on a voluntary basis and a student initiative, facilitated by the institution. Two good examples are the case of Ca' Foscari University in Italy where they offer a Bachelor in Economics and Management with two mandatory mobility windows during the period of study. Another example is Turku University that offers a mobility window with loosely prescribed content in a program of Baltic Sea Regional Studies (Examples taken from Ferencz et al., 2013). Nevertheless, many students are keen to apply for a mobility program to enrich their CVs and to develop competences that will distinguish them from others.

ERASMUS MOBILITY AND THE ECONOMIC SITUATION

The latest statistics on Erasmus student mobility (European Commission, 2013a, 2013b) reveal that a new record has been achieved with the program becoming more popular than ever. Moreover this increasing trend in mobility numbers is seen, both for study and internship purposes, as now part of the program. Spain has maintained its leading position as the country that both receives and sends the highest number of Erasmus students. 39,249 Spanish students joined the Erasmus program in the academic year 2012–2013. Although this is 1% less than the previous year, the data confirm that mobility is being consolidated in Spanish higher education institutions and is an implicit but important part of their curricula, notwithstanding the economic crisis.

Spain appears to be a country that attracts international talent to its universities, companies and institutions, as well as a country full of students keen to gain international experience and improve their CVs. The main concern now is not the students' desire to go abroad and explore new horizons but the insufficient budget they receive to cover their living costs in the host country. This means that many Spanish families have to make significant financial efforts to cover the cost of the mobility period in order to invest in their children's future.

Additionally, unemployment is one of the main worries of Spain's youth. The population of Spain is around 47 million inhabitants but more than 24.5% from the labor force are unemployed and 53.2% of under 25's have never worked (Source: Eurostat, n.d.). From this point of view, it is not surprising that students are looking for education and work opportunities abroad that will help them find a job once back in Spain. In this context, it is clear that institutions should adopt more Internationalisation at Home strategies for those students who cannot afford to go abroad, as well as to prepare those same students to gather the necessary employment skills to find a job.

Even though the economy and the employment situation in Spain have not improved in the last few years, Erasmus applications have remained stable or even have grown. In comparison with some other European countries, Italy and France have been going through a similar situation as Spain: mobility applications have grown, as well as the unemployment rate in recent years.

In relation to the recently released Erasmus Impact study (European Commission, 2014b) on the effects of mobility on the skills and employability of students, results show that mobility clearly enhances transversal skills. The study argues that the link between employability and international study experience should be strengthened. This action will increase employability and ultimately contribute to reducing the rate of unemployment among young people.

CONCLUSION

Erasmus mobility has been consolidated as part of the Spanish curriculum despite economic difficulties and unemployment. These are the two key reasons that motivate Spanish students to join the Erasmus program, whose main purpose is seen as a means to improve graduate employability. In other words, Spanish students are aware of the difficult job market and about the need to gain transversal skills, not only through their academic study but also by having an experience abroad, despite the economic crisis.

REFERENCES

European Commission. (2013a). *Erasmus statistics: Facts, figures and trends, 2012–2013*. Brussels, Europe. European Commission: Education and Culture. Retrieved from http://ec.europa.eu/education/library/statistics/ay-12-13/facts-figures_en.pdf (Accessed July 2015).

European Commission. (2013b). *Erasmus statistics: Facts, figures and trends, 2012–2013: Annex I*. Brussels, Europe. European Commission: Education and Culture. Retrieved from http://ec.europa.eu/education/library/statistics/ay-12-13/annex-1_en.pdf (Accessed July 2015).

European Commission. (2014a). *Press release: Another record-breaking year for Erasmus*. Retrieved from http://europa.eu/rapid/press-release_IP-14-821_en.htm (Accessed July 2015).

European Commission. (2014b). *The Erasmus impact study: Effects of mobility on the skills and employability of students and the internationalisation of higher education institutions*. European Commission: Education and Culture. Retrieved from http://ec.europa.eu/education/library/study/2014/erasmus-impact_en.pdf (Accessed July 2015).

Eurostat data. (n.d.). *Unemployment rate by age group, European Commission, 2014* [website]. Retrieved from http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/data/database (Accessed July 2015).

Eurostat data. (n.d.). *Unemployment rate by sex, European commission, 2014* [website]. Retrieved from http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/data/database (Accessed July 2015).

Ferencz, I., Hauschildt, K., & Garam, I. (2013). *Mobility windows: From concept to practice*. ACA papers on International Cooperation in Education, Bonn, Germany.

Statistics for all. (n.d.). *Project developed in 2008 by the French national agency in collaboration with the LLP national agencies* [website]. Retrieved from http://www.statisticsforall.eu/maps-erasmus-students.php (Accessed July 2015).

Universidad Autónoma de Madrid (UAM). (2014). *In-house developed survey on how mobility affects employability*. Oficina de Relaciones Internacionales, Facultad de Ciencias Económicas y Empresariales, Universidad Autónoma de Madrid, Spain.

Adriana Pérez-Encinas
Lecturer and Researcher
Universidad Autónoma de Madrid, Spain

JOS BEELEN, ROBERT COELEN AND ELSPETH JONES

23. EPILOGUE

Final Reflections

At the end of this book, it is time to return to that which prompted it: Hans de Wit's farewell seminar at the Amsterdam University of Applied Sciences. Hans has always resisted formalities and eulogies and insisted on meaningful discussion instead of laudatory exercises. Therefore, when organising the farewell seminar his colleagues realised that the only way to manage a tribute to Hans was utter secrecy. So they surprised him with a small volume with the title: *At Wit's end; Reflections on Hans de Wit in the mad world of international higher education,* in which they could give full voice to their personal feelings about Hans and his many contributions to the internationalisation of higher education. Hans insisted that the present volume should be 'business as usual' and his fellow editors agreed with this, but also felt that some reflections were appropriate here too.

Hans' inaugural lecture as Professor of the Internationalisation of Higher Education took place in June 2011. In the lecture he challenged nine misconceptions about internationalisation, as he notes in his own chapter in this volume. In the same year, he co-authored an essay, with Uwe Brandenburg, entitled *The End of Internationalisation*. The essay questioned whether internationalisation had lost the values and ideals that once characterised it. This helped to spark a debate that was taken up by the International Association of Universities and led to the Global Dialogue in Port Elizabeth, in January 2014.

The ensuing discussion served as a call to examine more closely what we are doing, and most importantly why we are pursuing internationalisation objectives. This call was both timely and urgently needed. Today, the debunking of myths in internationalisation remains as important as challenging assumptions and exposing politically correct statements that serve as a disguise for business oriented motives. In his regular blogs for *University World News*, Hans addresses these fundamental issues, often together with colleagues from the world of higher education internationalisation.

While debates about internationalisation continue, there is no argument about the urgency of ensuring that we prepare our graduates to be as internationally aware, inter-culturally effective, and mindful of the global challenges, as we can help them to be. Bearing in mind the almost mind-boggling global changes of shifting economic power, the advent of middle classes in the emerging economies, job polarisation as a result of technology, the impact of big data, and the ever-increasing speed of knowledge generation, we owe it to our graduates to embed in the curriculum all that is necessary to enable them to participate in their future world.

An issue looming large on the higher education internationalisation agenda is that of the many and varied interpretations of this process that are held variously around the world. For example, if part of the internationalisation process involves student mobility, do both sending and receiving university partners share the same view of learning outcomes? Is more effort required to provide a yield from such an activity that meets the needs of both partners?

Hans de Wit has always understood these different interpretations, having worked in many countries around the globe and on six continents. In each case his approaches have been characterised by taking the regional and local situation as a starting point, examining local needs and possibilities rather than copying and pasting practices from other contexts.

Hans has consistently argued that discussions on internationalisation should focus more and more on the outcomes of activities, rather than on input and participation statistics. While we continue to send more students abroad and recruit international academics to our campuses, it is not enough simply to count how many students or staff are involved. Instead, we need to understand what students are gaining from their international experiences and associated learning outcomes, and how international academics are helping to internationalise the curriculum and offer alternative global perspectives for non-mobile students.

Indeed, one of Hans's regular concerns, and a misconception that he has attacked, is that internationalisation is not synonymous with international mobility. Thus more student or staff mobility does not mean better internationalisation. The vast majority of students do not take part in mobility experiences so internationalisation of the curriculum at home is required, in order that they may achieve similar learning outcomes as their mobile counter-parts. This means aiming for more effective forms of internationalisation through better articulation of student learning outcomes and measurement of their achievement.

We should also focus on getting more out of intercultural experiences which may be available locally, and consider how these can support internationalised learning outcomes. Involving the many stakeholders in and around universities and providing an answer to the questions, "what is in it for me?" and "why should I be involved?" can be a real driver of further development in internationalisation.

In the shift of focus from an exclusively mobility-based form of internationalisation to one where the curriculum at home is assuming more importance, Hans de Wit has consistently advocated that internationalisation needs to benefit all students. His work with the Accreditation Organisation of the Netherlands and Flanders (NVAO) was aimed at designing quality assurance approaches that enable programmes to make those benefits visible. Only then can the claim be substantiated that internationalisation enhances the quality of education.

The actions and efforts of academics and administrators have long been based on an assumed, shared, implicit understanding of internationalisation. This means we may not take the time to question one another on the intended outcomes of a given activity. For example the assumption is made that merely participating in education delivered at an institution abroad is a good thing. Yet good practice and research suggests that additional preparation and follow up needs to take place for both the local and foreign students if they are to gain the most from these experiences. Another example of where understanding is assumed to be shared is in relation to multicultural group work. Research has shown consistently that significant preparation is required to guide multicultural problem-based learning groups, and yet academics may assume that simply connecting students with people from other cultural backgrounds will enhance their intercultural understanding. The evidence suggests that, on the contrary, students may even develop an aversion to working in such teams instead of seeing these moments as important opportunities to gain in inter-cultural effectiveness.

In order to achieve our high aims in internationalisation, more needs to be done, but it must be guided by carefully crafted research. It must be informed by evidence and not gut feeling. It must be based on challenging our assumptions and understanding the needs of our students.

Closer scrutiny of what we do will, of necessity, involve more research to gather the evidence that the internationalisation of higher education makes an important and worthwhile contribution to graduate outcomes. Through his work as a researcher in Amsterdam and Milan, Hans de Wit has extended the foundations for a research-based approach to international education. He will continue to advocate this approach from his role in Boston. His work has caused many to get involved in researching international education, empowering many administrators as well as academics to pursue research. The world of higher education is in urgent need of those researchers in the years to come.

Hans de Wit is the embodiment of both the global citizen at home and the local citizen abroad. It is therefore not a coincidence that he chose the theme ‘Local and Global’ for his farewell seminar. Hans has consistently made the case for a better understanding of internationalisation. It is up to all of us to respond and deliver, both locally and globally.

Jos Beelen
Robert Coelen
Elspeth Jones

ABOUT THE CONTRIBUTORS

EDITORS

Jos Beelen is researcher and consultant on internationalisation of the curriculum at the Amsterdam University of Applied Sciences. He is also Senior Policy Advisor for internationalisation at the School of Economics and Management at that university. In addition, he is chair of the Expert Community, Internationalisation at Home of the European Association for International Education (EAIE). Jos was the editor EAIE's 'toolkit' *Implementing Internationalisation at Home* (2007) and has since written a range of articles on the same topic. He has contributed to workshops, training sessions and conferences across the globe and has acted as consultant at universities in Europe, Asia, Australia, Latin America and South Africa. At those universities, he has worked with both academic and administrative staff on the design and implementation of internationalised curricula. One of the issues he focuses on is developing the skills of academic staff that enable them to assume ownership of curriculum internationalisation

Robert J. Coelen is Professor of Internationalisation of Higher Education at Stenden University of Applied Sciences in the Netherlands. Prior to this he held executive positions in internationalisation at 4 universities on two continents from 1996 to 2014 (James Cook University, The University of Queensland, Leiden University, and at his current institution). He was a member of the Executive Board of the EAIE (2008–2010). In 2006, he founded *Euroscholars*, an undergraduate research study abroad initiative of the League of European Research Universities (LERU). His research interests include the learning outcomes and impact of internationalisation of education. He is a member of the editorial board of the Journal of Studies in International Education.

Elspeth Jones is Emerita Professor of the Internationalisation of Higher Education, Leeds Beckett University and Honorary Visiting Fellow, Centre for Higher Education Internationalisation, Università Cattolica del Sacro Cuore, (CHEI) Milan. Her specialisms include personal, professional and employability outcomes from international mobility, strategic leadership, internationalisation of the curriculum at home and abroad, global citizenship and intercultural competence development. She has published widely and is series editor for the Routledge book series, *Internationalization in Higher Education*. Elspeth's recent published research includes employability skills development in transnational education and student learning outcomes from international mobility. She is a member of the Scientific Committee of CHEI, Milan and the Editorial Board of the Journal of Studies in International Education. She is Visiting Professor at several European universities.

Elspeth received the 2014 European Association for International Education's Tony Adams Award for Excellence in Research.

Hans de Wit is Director of the Center for International Higher Education at Boston College, Massachusetts. He was Director of the Centre for Higher Education Internationalisation at the Università Cattolica Sacro Cuore in Milan, Italy, and Professor of Internationalisation of Higher Education at Amsterdam University of Applied Sciences. He is a Research Associate at the Unit for Higher Education Internationalisation in the Developing World, Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University (NMMU), Port Elizabeth, South Africa. He is the founding editor of the *Journal of Studies in International Education* (Association for Studies in International Education/Sage Publishers. He has (co)written several books and articles on international education and is actively involved in assessment and consultancy in international education, for organisations like the European Commission, UNESCO, World Bank, IMHE/OECD, IAU, European Parliament. In 2005–2006, he was a New Century Scholar of the Fulbright Program Higher Education In The 21st Century and a founding member and past President of the European Association for International Education (EAIE).

AUTHOR BIOGRAPHIES

Philip G. Altbach is Research Professor and Founding Director of the Center for International Higher Education in the Lynch School of Education at Boston College. He was the 2004–2006 Distinguished Scholar Leader for the New Century Scholars initiative of the Fulbright program and has been a senior associate of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching. He is author of *Global Perspective on Higher Education, Turmoil and Transition, Student Politics in America*, among other books. He also co-edited *The Road to Academic Excellence,* the *International Handbook of Higher Education*, *World Class Worldwide: Transforming Research Universities in Asia and Latin America* and other books. He is a member of the Russian government's "5–100 University Excellence Commission," and other international committees.

Uwe Brandenburg holds a PhD in Globalisation Studies (Bristol), MscEcon (University of Wales, Swansea) and an M.A. in Islamic Sciences (Münster). He was for eight years Director International at the Humboldt-Universität zu Berlin moving to the CHE in 2006 and CHE Consult in 2007. Since 2013 he is one of two managing partners. He is mainly responsible for international projects, large research projects and services. He is also in charge of the daughter company CHE Consult Prague. Uwe has published widely on the topic of internationalization such as the much debated article with Hans de Wit on the end of internationalization in 2011 in the Boston IHE. He headed the international research consortium which produced the Erasmus Impact Study for the European Commission in 2014 and is currently heading the large-scale research project on the effects of internationalization on nonacademic staff financed by the German Federal Ministry of Education.

Darla K. Deardorff is Executive Director of the Association of International Education Administrators, a national professional organization headquartered at Duke University, where she is a research scholar. Founder of ICC Global, a global research network on intercultural competence, she is on faculty at several universities including Harvard University's Future of Learning Institute, Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University (S. Africa), Meiji University (Japan), and Shanghai International Studies University (China). She has published widely on intercultural and international education topics, including as editor of *The SAGE Handbook of Intercultural Competence* (Sage, 2009), and is regularly invited to speak and consult around the world on these topics. Other recent books include lead editor of *The Sage Handbook of International Higher Education* (Sage, 2012), co-author of *Building Cultural Competence* (Stylus, 2012), and author of *Demystifying Outcomes Assessment for International Educators: A Practical Approach* (Stylus, 2015).

Adinda van Gaalen works as a senior policy officer and researcher at EP-Nuffic, the Dutch organization for internationalising education. She has conducted studies on a range of topics including internationalisation strategies of higher education institutions, internationalisation at home and national internationalisation policies. Adinda has been involved in the development of a number of quality assurance tools for internationalisation of higher education. She is the author of several publications, including the EAIE toolkit on internationalization and quality assurance. Adinda works as an adviser and trainer in short courses and workshops. She is an elected member of the General Council of EAIE. Her work has recently expanded to include internationalisation of secondary education. Adinda previously worked as a policy adviser, head of the international office and teacher at the Amsterdam University of Applied Sciences. She holds a master's degree in Social Sciences from the VU University in Amsterdam.

Jocelyne Gacel-Ávila is Associate Dean in Social Science and Humanities, tenured Professor in the doctoral programme on higher education, and Head of the International Office for 27 years at the University of Guadalajara. She is Researcher of the National Research System of Mexico, General Coordinator of the UNESCO/IESALC Observatory for the Internationalization and Networks in Tertiary Education in Latin America and the Caribbean, and current President of the Mexican Association for International Education. She has been NAFSA Senior Fellow for Internationalization; Vice-President of the OECD Institute for the Management of Higher Education and Vice-President of the Consortium for Higher Education in North America (CONAHEC); Collaborator of the World Bank, International Association of Universities, and the Inter-American Organization for Higher Education. Awarded the 2010 CONAHEC *Award of Distinction* for outstanding contribution to the collaboration in North America; and AMPEI 2006 Award winner for outstanding contribution to the internationalization of Mexican higher education.

Renate E. Gielesen is senior project manager at EP-Nuffic, the Dutch organisation for internationalisation in education. Renate was project manager of the study on internationalisation at home; *Studenten internationaliseren in eigen land*, commissioned by the Dutch Ministry of Education, Culture and Science. She has co-authored the article: *Internationalizing students in the home country – Dutch policies*, published in the journal *International Higher Education* of Boston College. Renate is currently managing a project focused on the creation of an EP-Nuffic Academy for training on internationalisation.

Jeanine Gregersen-Hermans is Pro Vice Chancellor & Vice Principal (International) Glasgow Caledonian University, UK. Jeanine studied Psychology at Radboud University, Nijmegen, and graduated in 1984. Over the years she has published on topics of Marketing of Higher Education, Internationalisation of Higher Education and Intercultural Competence. Since 2006 Jeanine has been a reviewer and member of the editorial advisory board of the Journal of Studies in International Education (JSIE). She served two terms as a member of the General Council of the EAIE (European Association for International Education). Jeanine has been awarded the official status of EAIE senior trainer and has been a member of the Professional Development Committee of the EAIE since 2009.

John K. Hudzik is Professor at Michigan State University and NAFSA Senior Scholar for Internationalization. He is past President and Chair of the Board of Directors of NAFSA, Association of International Educators, as well as past President of the Association of International Education Administrators (AIEA). From 1995 to 2005, he was Dean of International Studies and Programs at Michigan State University. He was Acting University Provost and Vice President for Academic Affairs in 2005 and then Vice President for Global Engagement and Strategic Projects at Michigan State University 2006–2009. He is an international scholar and publishes frequently in judicial and court systems and in international education. He is recipient of a number of awards for his scholarly work in these areas, including AIEA's Charles Klasek Award and EAIE's Trans-Atlantic Leadership Award.

Fiona Hunter is based in Italy, where she works as Research Associate at the Centre for Higher Education Internationalisation (CHEI) at the Università Cattolica del Sacro Cuore in Milan and is also Co-Editor of the Journal of Studies for International Education (JSIE). She is Past President of the European Association for International Education (EAIE) where she is now a member of the newly-formed Knowledge Development Taskforce. She is also a consultant and trainer working with public, private and faith-based higher education institutions around in Europe, the Middle

East, Latin America, Asia and Africa to help them think more strategically about their institution, either for organisational improvement in general or with a specific focus on internationalisation. She holds a Doctor of Business Administration (DBA) in Higher Education Management from the University of Bath in the United Kingdom.

Erik Kostelijk has a background in economics and marketing. He works as project leader research for the Amsterdam University of Applied Science (CAREM) and for the Hanze University of Applied Sciences in Groningen, and as senior lecturer, marketing. He has worked for research agencies such as HanzeConnect and Lexnova, on research projects with clients in profit, non-profit and the governmental sphere. His experience as a trainer includes workshops on topics such as customer relationship management, client-based work processes, marketing, and branding. Erik holds a Master of Science in Economics. In October 2015, he will finish his PhD study entitled "The Value Compass – A New and International Approach to Brand Value Measurement". The Value Compass explains consumer preferences by looking at personal motivations and values. The model was developed in an extensive quantitative study of values in several countries (The Netherlands, Germany, Italy, UK and China).

Betty Leask is an internationally respected Professor, scholar and leader in the internationalisation of higher education, specialising in internationalisation of the curriculum, an area in which she has researched and published extensively since 2001. She is currently Professor of Internationalisation and Pro Vice-Chancellor Teaching and Learning at La Trobe University, Melbourne where she leads curriculum innovation and change across the institution. In 2010 she was awarded a national teaching fellowship on Internationalisation of the Curriculum in Action which engaged academic staff in different disciplines in internationalisation of the curriculum (www.ioc.global). Betty is Editor-in-Chief of the Journal of Studies in International Education and Honorary Visiting Researcher at the Centre for Higher Education Internationalisation, Universita Cattolica del Sacre Cuore in Milan. Her most recent book, Internationalising the Curriculum, was published by Routledge in 2015.

Gregory Light is Director of the Searle Center for Advancing Learning and Teaching and a faculty member in the School of Education and Social Policy at Northwestern University. He completed his PhD in Higher Education at the University of London in the UK, where he was also a member of the Lifelong Learning Group at the Institute of Education. His teaching and research focuses on the theory and practice of learning, teaching and assessment in higher and professional education. He has published over 50 papers and chapters in national and international peer-reviewed publications and given over 100 invited talks, workshops and conference presentations in North & South America, Europe, Africa and Asia. He is the author, with Susanna Calkins, of *Learning and Teaching in Higher Education: The Reflective Professional* (Sage, 2001, 2009) and with Marina Micari, the *Making of Scientists: Six Principles for Effective College Teaching* (Harvard University Press, 2013).

Edilio Mazzoleni is Director of UCSC International – Cooperation, Mobility and Internationalization at Università Cattolica del Sacro Cuore, Italy. He is a member of the Executive Board of the Centre for Higher Education Internationalization at the university. He sits on the Board of ISEP (USA) and the Confucius Institute at Università Cattolica, of which he was formerly Director. Edilio served as International Policy Advisor to the Italian Ministry of Culture from 2012 to 2013. Other previous appointments include Board member of the Spe Salvi Foundation, Board member of the EAIE's Professional Section for International Relations Managers, member of the EAIE Conference Programme Committee and elected member of the ISEP Council of Advisors. He has served as a technical advisor for TEMPUS Tacis and Phare projects and as trainer for the EAIE. Edilio is currently working towards a Doctorate in Business Administration at the University of Bath (UK).

Francisco Marmolejo coordinates the Global Solutions Group on Tertiary Education at the World Bank (WB), serving as the institutional focal point and providing advice and support to tertiary education projects that WB has in more than 60 countries. During 1995–2012, he served as founding Executive Director of the Consortium for North American Higher Education Collaboration (CONAHEC), He has been Assistant Vice President at the University of Arizona, American Council on Education Fellow, and Academic Vice President at the Universidad de las Américas in Mexico. His international education experience has taken him to more than 70 countries around the world, where he has worked with universities, governments and associations, over more than 30 years. He is a graduate of the Autonomous University of San Luis Potosi, Mexico.

Marcel H. van der Poel is a senior lecturer and researcher at the Hanze University of Applied Sciences Groningen in The Netherlands. He is also an independent trainer and consultant in intercultural communication for companies and ngo's. Marcel worked for over 20 years in various managerial positions, of which more than 10 years in East-Africa. Sociologist by training (1988, RUG, Groningen), he earned a second Master of Arts in Intercultural Relations (MAIR, Portland OR, USA) in 2013. He is currently working on his dissertation research on 'fostering intercultural competences'. Marcel is the initiator of the Intercultural Competence Learning Lab, of the Circular Economy Lab, and of the IC Intensive Program: three extra-curricular educational initiatives at Hanze University of Applied Sciences. He is licensed for, and frequent user of the IDI and IRC tests instruments.

Adriana Pérez-Encinas is lecturer and researcher in Business Organizations and Internationalisation of Higher Education at Universidad Autónoma de Madrid

(UAM). She was Head of the International Relations Office in the faculty of Business and Economics at UAM for six years. Adriana has a Masters degree in International Relations with Latin America and a Bachelors degree in Translation and Interpreting. She has been an active member of the Erasmus Student Network (ESN), acting as National Representative, Spain and President of the ESN association at UAM for more than five years. She has contributed to international and national conferences about student mobility and problems of recognition in Erasmus programmes. Adriana is involved in several European projects and is a trainer for the European Association for International Education. Currently she is studying for a PhD on strategies for welcoming international students, with a special focus on the services provided and volunteer associations.

Maarten Regouin studied Sociology of Art and Culture at Utrecht University, The Netherlands. He became Assistant Professor at the same University for Art Sociology. He was the first Director of the Dutch National Association of Art Schools, where he developed a strong interest in internationalisation. He later became Director of the St Joost Academy of Art and Design, and Dean of the Faculty of Arts, Hanze University, Groningen, 18 years in which internationalisation of art education and of higher education in general, became a hot topic. He was a Member of the Executive Board of the European League of Institutes of the Arts and its first Dutch President. The last five years of his career were spent researching on internationalisation and international professional practice, as Professor at the Hanze University. Nowadays he works mainly in Art Schools in India as (retired) Professor, on topics such as internationalisation and international accreditation.

Nannette Ripmeester is founder and director of Expertise in Labour Mobility (ELM), based in Rotterdam. ELM is specialised in customised solutions for international labour mobility. Nannette holds extensive knowledge on what makes graduates internationally employable by working with large corporate clients and higher education institutions across the globe. She regularly advises governments and organisations on how to further increase the connection between recent graduates and their future job opportunities. Nannette also works as Director, Client Services Europe for i-Graduate. She has become heavily involved in the educational gaming app CareerProfessor.works**,** bridging education and the world of work. Her international career began at the European Commission where she was responsible for setting up the EURES database on living and working conditions in the EU Member States. With over 20 years advising employers, universities and governments on graduate mobility, Nannette is one of Europe's leading experts on mobility for study and work.

Jon Rubin is the Founder and Director of the SUNY Center for Collaborative Online International Learning (The COIL Center). Between 2010–2013 he also directed the National Endowment for the Humanities funded: COIL Institute for Globally

Networked Learning in the Humanities, which engaged 47 US and international universities in developing collaborative, networked classrooms. Recently he has led COIL's partnership with the American Council on Education in an awards program for technology supporting Internationalization, and has developed COIL initiatives in Turkey, Mexico and Japan. Prior to becoming director, Jon was Associate Professor of New Media at SUNY Purchase where he developed a Cross-Cultural Video course in which SUNY students co-produced videos with students in Turkey, Mexico, Belarus, and Germany. His films have been shown at the MOMA, and the Whitney Museum in NY and he has received Guggenheim, National Endowment for the Arts, Ford Foundation and Fulbright fellowships. He attended Yale University.

Laura E. Rumbley is Associate Director of the Boston College Center for International Higher Education (CIHE), where she also serves as an Associate Editor of the quarterly newsletter, *International Higher Education*. She was previously Deputy Director of the Academic Cooperation Association (ACA), a Brussels-based think tank focused on issues of internationalization and innovation in European higher education. Laura has authored and co-authored a number of publications, including the foundational document for the 2009 UNESCO World Conference on Higher Education, *Trends in Global Higher Education: Tracking an Academic Revolution*. Laura currently serves as a co-editor of the *Journal of Studies in International Education*. She is co-editor of *International Briefs for Higher Education Leaders*, a series co-published by CIHE and the American Council on Education's Center for Internationalization and Global Engagement, and serves as chair of the Publications Committee of the European Association for International Education (EAIE).

Bernhard Streitwieser is Assistant Professor of International Education at The George Washington University Graduate School of Education and Human Development. His research considers the impact of globalization on the internationalization of higher education and focuses on 1) education abroad and international student exchange, 2) scholar-practitioners in international education, and 3) inequality and international mobility. From 2010–2013 he was a visiting professor and lecturer at Berlin's Humboldt Universität where he conduct a Fulbright and German Academic Exchange Service study on the Erasmus Mobility Programme. From 2002–2010 he was an Associate Director and Senior Researcher at Northwestern University, and from 2006-2008 the Associate Director of the Study Abroad Office. In 2014 he published *Internationalisation of Higher Education and Global Mobility*, for the Oxford Studies in Comparative Education series and currently he is finishing a second co-edited book, *International Higher Education's Scholar-Practitioners: Bridging Research and Practice*, for Symposium Books, March 2016.

Obdulia Taboadela has a PhD in Sociology and is Associate Professor in Sociology at the University of A Coruña (Spain). Her dissertation was about Trade

Unionism in the Spanish transition. She has a postgraduate course in Corporate Social Responsibility by CSR Chair Inditex-University of A Coruña. She has more than 20 years' experience in qualitative analysis; completing many studies for the private sector. She has also taken part in more than twenty public and private financed research projects covering sociological aspects of Spanish and European Society, and she has several publications related to her academic specialization: evolution and changes in labour markets, social aspects of globalization processes, international migration and female work. She is also an associate member of ESOMI (www.esomi.es), an excellence research group on international migration.

Hanneke Teekens is a former director of Nuffic. She has worked in many parts of the world as a teacher and project manager in higher education. Hanneke worked at the University and Hogeschool of Amsterdam and the University of Twente. She brings more than thirty years of experience to the field of internationalization that she now uses as a trainer and adviser with CLIMES, her own consultancy company. Her special interest concerns Internationalization at Home.

Mihaela Vancea is a social science researcher at the Pompeu Fabra University, Barcelona, Spain and Universidad de la Frontera, Temuco, Chile. She graduated in Mathematics and Sociology from the Babes-Bolyai University (Cluj-Napoca, Romania) and obtained her PhD in Political and Social Sciences from the Pompeu Fabra University. She combines teaching in political theory, political science and research methodology at the Pompeu Fabra University with research activities. In May 2015, she started a research stay at the Centre of Scientific Research and Technological Development in Social Sciences and Humanities at the Universidad de la Frontera (Temuco, Chile). Her main areas of research are employability and entrepreneurship of young people, international migration and network society, and public policy analysis. She has published several articles in international peer-reviewed journals such as *Basic Income Studies*, Gender, *Technology and Development*, *Revista Internacional de Sociología*, *Revista de Estudios Sociales*, *Revista Migraciones Internacionale.*

INDEX

GLOBAL PERSPECTIVES ON HIGHER EDUCATION

Volume 1
WOMEN'S UNIVERSITIES AND COLLEGES
An International Handbook
Francesca B. Purcell, Robin Matross Helms, and Laura Rumbley (Eds.)
ISBN 978-90-77874-58-5 hardback
ISBN 978-90-77874-02-8 paperback

Volume 2
PRIVATE HIGHER EDUCATION
A Global Revolution
Philip G. Altbach and D. C. Levy (Eds.)
ISBN 978-90-77874-59-2 hardback
ISBN 978-90-77874-08-0 paperback

Volume 3
FINANCING HIGHER EDUCATION
Cost-Sharing in International perspective
D. Bruce Johnstone
ISBN 978-90-8790-016-8 hardback
ISBN 978-90-8790-015-1 paperback

Volume 4
UNIVERSITY COLLABORATION FOR INNOVATION
Lessons from the Cambridge-MIT Institute
David Good, Suzanne Greenwald, Roy Cox, and Megan Goldman (Eds.)
ISBN 978-90-8790-040-3 hardback
ISBN 978-90-8790-039-7 paperback

Volume 5
HIGHER EDUCATION
A Worldwide Inventory of Centers and Programs
Philip G. Altbach, Leslie A. Bozeman, Natia Janashia, and Laura E. Rumbley
ISBN 978-90-8790-052-6 hardback
ISBN 978-90-8790-049-6 paperback

Volume 6
FUTURE OF THE AMERICAN PUBLIC RESEARCH UNIVERSITY
R. L. Geiger, C. L. Colbeck, R. L. Williams, and C. K. Anderson (Eds.)
ISBN 978-90-8790-048-9 hardback
ISBN 978-90-8790-047-2 paperback

Volume 7
TRADITION AND TRANSITION
The International Imperative in Higher Education
Philip G. Altbach
ISBN 978-90-8790-054-4 hardback
ISBN 978-90-8790-053-3 paperback

Volume 8
THE PROFESSORIATE IN THE AGE OF GLOBALIZATION
Nelly P. Stromquist
ISBN 978-90-8790-084-7 hardback
ISBN 978-90-8790-083-0 paperback

Volume 9
HIGHER EDUCATION SYSTEMS
Conceptual Frameworks, Comparative Perspectives, Empirical Findings
Ulrich Teichler
ISBN 978-90-8790-138-7 hardback
ISBN 978-90-8790-137-0 paperback

Volume 10
HIGHER EDUCATION IN THE NEW CENTURY: GLOBAL CHALLENGES AND INNOVATIVE IDEAS
Philip G. Altbach and Patti McGill Peterson (Eds.)
ISBN 978-90-8790-199-8 hardback
ISBN 978-90-8790-198-1 paperback

Volume 11
THE DYNAMICS OF INTERNATIONAL STUDENT CIRCULATION IN A GLOBAL CONTEXT
Hans de Wit, Pawan Agarwal, Mohsen Elmahdy Said, Molatlhegi T. Sehoole, and Muhammad Sirozi (Eds.)
ISBN 978-90-8790-259-9 hardback
ISBN 978-90-8790-258-2 paperback

Volume 12
UNIVERSITIES AS CENTRES OF RESEARCH AND KNOWLEDGE CREATION: AN ENDANGERED SPECIES?
Hebe Vessuri and Ulrich Teichler (Eds.)
ISBN 978-90-8790-479-1 hardback
ISBN 978-90-8790-478-4 paperback

Volume 13
HIGHER EDUCATION IN TURMOIL: THE CHANGING WORLD OF INTERNATIONALIZATION
Jane Knight
ISBN 978-90-8790-521-7 hardback
ISBN 978-90-8790-520-0 paperback

Volume 14
UNIVERSITY AND DEVELOPMENT IN LATIN AMERICA: SUCCESSFUL EXPERIENCES OF RESEARCH CENTERS
Simon Schwartzman (Ed.)
ISBN 978-90-8790-524-8 hardback
ISBN 978-90-8790-523-1 paperback

Volume 15
BUYING YOUR WAY INTO HEAVEN: EDUCATION AND CORRUPTION IN INTERNATIONAL PERSPECTIVE
Stephen P. Heyneman (Ed.)
ISBN 978-90-8790-728-0 hardback
ISBN 978-90-8790-727-3 paperback

Volume 16
HIGHER EDUCATION AND THE WORLD OF WORK
Ulrich Teichler
ISBN 978-90-8790-755-6 hardback
ISBN 978-90-8790-754-9 paperback

Volume 17
FINANCING ACCESS AND EQUITY IN HIGHER EDUCATION
Jane Knight (Ed.)
ISBN 978-90-8790-767-9 hardback
ISBN 978-90-8790-766-2 paperback

Volume 18
UNIVERSITY RANKINGS, DIVERSITY, AND THE NEW LANDSCAPE OF HIGHER EDUCATION
Barbara M. Kehm and Bjørn Stensaker (Eds.)
ISBN 978-90-8790-815-7 hardback
ISBN 978-90-8790-814-0 paperback

Volume 19
HIGHER EDUCATION IN EAST ASIA: NEOLIBERALISM AND THE PROFESSORIATE
Gregory S. Poole and Ya-chen Chen (Eds.)
ISBN 978-94-6091-127-9 hardback
ISBN 978-94-6091-126-2 paperback

Volume 20
ACCESS AND EQUITY: COMPARATIVE PERSPECTIVES
Heather Eggins (Ed.)
ISBN 978-94-6091-185-9 hardback
ISBN 978-94-6091-184-2 paperback

Volume 21
UNDERSTANDING INEQUALITIES IN AND BY HIGHER EDUCATION
Gaële Goastellec (Ed.)
ISBN 978-94-6091-307-5 hardback
ISBN 978-94-6091-306-8 paperback

Volume 22
TRENDS IN GLOBAL HIGHER EDUCATION: TRACKING AN ACADEMIC REVOLUTION
Philip G. Altbach, Liz Reisberg and Laura E. Rumbley
ISBN 978-94-6091-338-9 hardback
ISBN 978-94-6091-339-6 paperback

Volume 23
PATHS TO A WORLD-CLASS UNIVERSITY: LESSONS FROM PRACTICES AND EXPERIENCES
Nian Cai Liu, Qi Wang and Ying Cheng
ISBN 978-94-6091-354-9 hardback
ISBN 978-94-6091-353-2 paperback

Volume 24
TERTIARY EDUCATION AT A GLANCE: CHINA
Kai Yu, Andrea Lynn Stith, Li Liu and Huizhong Chen
ISBN 978-94-6091-744-8 hardback
ISBN 978-94-6091-745-5 paperback

Volume 25
BUILDING WORLD-CLASS UNIVERSITIES: DIFFERENT APPROACHES TO A SHARED GOAL
Qi Wang, Ying Cheng and Nian Cai Liu
ISBN 978-94-6209-033-0 hardback
ISBN 978-94-6209-032-3 paperback

Volume 26
INTERNATIONALISATION OF AFRICAN HIGHER EDUCATION – TOWARDS ACHIEVING THE MDGS
Chika Sehoole and Jane Knight (Eds.)
ISBN 978-94-6209-309-6 hardback
ISBN 978-94-6209-310-2 paperback

Volume 27
THE INTERNATIONAL IMPERATIVE IN HIGHER EDUCATION
Philip G. Altbach
ISBN 978-94-6209-337-9 hardback
ISBN 978-94-6209-336-2 paperback

Volume 28
GLOBALIZATION AND ITS IMPACTS ON THE QUALITY OF PHD EDUCATION: FORCES AND FORMS IN DOCTORAL EDUCATION WORLDWIDE
Maresi Nerad and Barbara Evans (Eds.)
ISBN 978-94-6209-568-7 hardback
ISBN 978-94-6209-567-0 paperback

Volume 29
USING DATA TO IMPROVE HIGHER EDUCATION: RESEARCH, POLICY AND PRACTICE
Maria Eliophotou Menon, Dawn Geronimo Terkla and Paul Gibbs (Eds.)
ISBN 978-94-6209-793-3 hardback
ISBN 978-94-6209-792-6 paperback

Volume 30
HOW WORLD-CLASS UNIVERSITIES AFFECT GLOBAL HIGHER EDUCATION: INFLUENCES AND RESPONSES
Ying Cheng, Qi Wang and Nian Cai Liu (Eds.)
ISBN 978-94-6209-820-6 hardback
ISBN 978-94-6209-819-0 paperback

Volume 31
GLOBAL OPPORTUNITIES AND CHALLENGES FOR HIGHER EDUCATION LEADERS: BRIEFS ON KEY THEMES
Laura E. Rumbley, Robin Matross Helms, Patti McGill Peterson and Philip G. Altbach (Eds.)
ISBN 978-94-6209-862-6 hardback
ISBN 978-94-6209-861-9 paperback

Volume 32
CRITICAL PERSPECTIVES ON INTERNATIONALISING THE CURRICULUM IN DISCIPLINES: REFLECTIVE NARRATIVE ACCOUNTS FROM BUSINESS, EDUCATION AND HEALTH
Wendy Green and Craig Whitsed (Eds.)
ISBN 978-94-6300-084-0 hardback
ISBN 978-94-6300-083-3 paperback

Volume 33
THE IMPACT OF INTERNATIONALIZATION ON JAPANESE HIGHER EDUCATION: IS JAPANESE EDUCATION REALLY CHANGING?
John Mock, Hiroaki Kawamura and Naeko Naganuma (Eds.)
ISBN 978-94-6300-168-7 hardback
ISBN 978-94-6300-167-0 paperback

Volume 34
GLOBAL AND LOCAL INTERNATIONALIZATION
Elspeth Jones, Robert Coelen, Jos Beelen and Hans de Wit (Eds.)
ISBN 978-94-6300-300-1 hardback
ISBN 978-94-6300-299-8 paperback