

INTERNATIONALISING THE CURRICULUM

INTERNATIONALISATION AT HOME AND
ENGAGING ACADEMIC STAFF

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Table of Contents

Introduction	3
PART 1: INTERNATIONALISATION AT HOME	7
Chapter 1: Global activists, global workers or home aloners: understanding the challenges of internationalisation at home when creating global citizens	9
Chapter 2: Perceptions of critical thinking: a pilot investigation into the attitudes of home and international students	23
Chapter 3: What does internationalisation mean at a disciplinary level? Some critical reflections on the design and delivery of an international perspectives module involving final year undergraduate Sports Education students	43
Chapter 4: The Benefits and Challenges of Embedding Intercultural Competencies into the Postgraduate Research Provision	53
Case Study 1: Study Abroad Placement Map Project	63
Case Study 2: The Impact of International Volunteering on student participants: International Volunteering at Nottingham Trent University	69
PART II: STAFF ENGAGEMENT	75
Chapter 5: The Opportunities and Challenges of using tools or checklists to assist with Internationalising the Curriculum	77
Chapter 6: Academics' Perspectives on Internationalising the Curriculum A	89
Chapter 7: The use of IoC theories within a public health programme and the creation of a transtheoretical approach to sustain curriculum development	101

Introduction

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This book comprises a series of full articles and short case studies arising from the 1st TILT/NTU Global Internationalising the Curriculum Conference held at Nottingham Trent University in the UK. This was themed around two aspects of internationalising the curriculum (IoC) in Higher Education - internationalisation at home (IaH) and staff engagement. The collected chapters in this book illustrate a range of approaches to both themes from a broad range of disciplines and thus provide a resource for those embarking on or wishing to refine their approaches to IoC.

The first section of the book addresses IaH, which has grown in popularity in recent years as a way to help push the IoC agenda beyond the study abroad student to ensure equality of opportunity for students who cannot for financial, caring, health or other reasons engage in international mobility. Some of the practices associated with IaH, such as learning activities to help students develop intercultural competencies and self-reflexivity, also support deeper engagement and learning for those students who do undertake mobility periods. IaH is, therefore, at the forefront of agendas to ensure equal access for all students to the perceived benefits of internationalised learning, as well as being key to enabling students to develop some of the more critical and ethically-oriented skills associated with IoC. While the authors of the chapters in this section are all engaged directly in initiating activities to support IaH, all are clear of the challenges effective IaH can pose for institutions, teaching and administrative staff, and the students as intended recipients, and thus offer reflections on ways forward that are rooted in practice.

Authors of all four papers are particularly keen to illustrate that while IaH promises equal access to the opportunities of internationalised learning, students are far from a homogenous group that can be engaged through a stable and common set of discourses and practices. In Chapter 1, Harrison advocates a move away from the bold and generic statements common in university strategic statements, which emphasize outputs, such as global citizenship, to focus on starting points and the varied positions and backgrounds from which students engage or refuse the IoC agenda. He offers a typology of students to help clarify some of the different ways student engage with IoC, from those who are more instrumental in their approach, and see clear links between gaining international perspectives and experiences and future career or lifestyle ambitions, to those who are more resistant. In particular, he argues there needs to be more research focused on the group of students he refers to as the 'Home Aloners' who for multiple reasons may be resistive of international engagement and struggle to see its connections to their own futures yet, conversely are the group that may have most to gain from IaH.

In Chapter 2, Standley further explores differentiation between students and how this may impact engagement with IaH, specifically the skills and aptitudes associated with critical thinking. She reports on some original pilot research into student perceptions and attitudes in respect of critical thinking – a key graduate attribute. Focusing on Bioscience, and comparing international and home students, the study indicates little inherent difference on the basis of nationality, which challenges some persistent perceptions regarding the varying abilities of some student to engage in critical thinking on the basis of nationality. While the pilot project does suggest some variation among students worthy of further investigation, Standley concludes that there is insufficient evidence to support differentiation of approach to students in terms of nationality, and instead recommends that a focus for staff should be on providing experience to ensure equality of proficiency.

In the third and fourth chapters, IaH is further contextualised with reference to two distinct circumstances. Hindley takes a disciplinary approach and considers the use of World Cafés in a final year undergraduate Sports Education module, whilst De Winter highlights the importance of modifying approach by degree-level, through an examination of practices designed to engage postgraduate research students in the acquisition of intercultural competence. In contrast to the broad proclamations about IoC found in university strategic plans and policy documents, both papers demonstrate the importance of embedding practice in specific communities. As such, each provides illustration of practices and approaches that can be employed in different contexts, and note the places where strategies have been successful. Both, however, also highlight just how difficult successful IaH approaches are to implement. Hindley, for instance, makes the valuable point that merely adding content to the curriculum is insufficient alone and that continued interrogation of values and attitudes is required. This can be achieved by creating opportunities to employ students' own experiences as learning resources (see for example Newstead and Kirk 2017).

As the papers in both sections of this book attest, effective IoC requires a sustained commitment to change over the longer term. What these papers also do, and where there is certainly scope for further research, is draw attention to the ways in which efforts to internationalise the curriculum can push teaching and learning in new directions (e.g. to a concern about the quality of experience provided to research students as DeWinter shows, or to the potential of new approaches to seminar teaching as highlighted by Hindley). In this respect, IoC can be considered as part of a wider drive to enhance the student-centeredness of teaching and learning.

The two case studies included in this section each provide suggestive insights into possible approaches to actually engaging students in IaH activities. Pierce and Challen (Case Study 1) present the use of an online interactive map to encourage students on year abroad placements to engage with their experience, and to provide interactive information and incentive to subsequent students to participate in mobility activities. Students are assessed on their contributions but the study highlights how students can be engaged through more relevant and appropriate tools, such as are enabled through online communication.

Moving into the extra-curricular arena, Coppins (Case Study 2) considers approaches to encouraging and measuring the impact of international volunteering on students. Of note are his findings that to maximise the benefit of such activities, appropriate pre-travel briefing and provision of time and resource for reflection are essential. In order to consolidate this, efforts to encourage an on-going relationship with the volunteer organisation are key.

The second section of the book turns to examine strategies to engage staff. It is now well-established that staff engagement is key to student engagement, but this can require a significant cultural shift for many academics, who, like the students they teach have varied exposure to, capacity for, and interest in, IoC (Leask and Beelen 2009; Dewey and Duff 2009; Florenthal and Tolstikov-Mast 2012; Friesen 2012). This is particularly acute when time for curriculum development is squeezed by competing pressures and curricula are bursting with value-added content. Time constraints, therefore, are a feature of the landscape that the papers in the section grapple with. Also common, is the tension between 'bottom-up' and 'top-down' initiatives, where successful and sustained implementation of IoC initiatives appears to require the resources and support available from centralised initiatives, yet traction with staff is often only gained through specific and localised 'grass-root' engagement (Kirk *et al.* 2018). The authors in this section also highlight that academic staff may lack confidence in their skills to engage with IoC. As Bartell (2003) suggests, to engage students in developing their own intercultural competences, it helps if staff themselves have confidence with intercultural communication. This suggests investment in IoC is not simply about student projects and initiatives but also staff development.

Gann *et al.* (Chapter 5) explore how best to achieve staff buy-in to IoC through the provision of supportive checklist tools. Integrated into routine course development and review processes, such tools can be used to prompt integration of international learning activities into the curriculum, while reducing additional pressures on staff time. It is clear that such tools, if used in a collaborative discursive environment, can effect meaningful change in staff engagement but need to be used at a sufficiently early stage in course design.

In Chapter 6, Simmons highlights the necessity of investing in staff and presents evidence from Coventry University's project to introduce Online International Learning projects (OIL). The Chapter details the institutional support provided to staff to enable them to develop new ideas and delivery models, which includes provision of new teaching and learning technologies, finding and sustaining the partnerships required, cascading evidence of good practice from early adopters, and recognising effort and engagement through staff appraisals processes. A series of case studies provide illustration of the opportunities available through OIL projects in a variety of disciplines including, performance, creative writing, physiotherapy and computing.

In Chapter 7, Markwell examines the process of developing an internationalised curriculum in Public Health at Oxford Brookes University. Employing multiple models of reflective practice, the Chapter shows that while change is possible, effective IoC, of the sort that can engender deep and meaning shifts in intercultural confidence, requires thoughtful consideration, listening and reflecting. It is of particular importance for staff to listen to and be aware of their own biases. The chapter demonstrates just how complex and comprehensive effective IoC can be. Through the process of reflection, however, Markwell is able to offer a model of change management, which itself draws inspiration from models of intercultural communication, whereby resistances and denials are identified, examined and worked through.

The chapters in this section highlight how challenging effective IoC initiatives can be for academic staff, particularly when change involves a radical reorganisation of the structure and duration of the academic year. Establishing offices to support transition and providing dedicated educational developers, as also described by Simmons, can help substantially. While there remain certain challenges, all of the authors that address staff engagement, highlight how, with proper investment and support, significant transformations can be achieved that not only support IaH at home activities and the employability of students, but also improve recruitment and enhance the skills and competencies of staff members involved.

Collectively, the articles and case studies collected here, illustrate a number of common themes and concerns. They all call for more nuance in how we approach IoC, being mindful of different disciplinary contexts and cultures. They favour a move away from sweeping agendas towards focus on the specificities of practice for different constituencies, which includes understanding how individuals – staff and students – begin their engagement with IoC from very different starting points. This requires institutional investment of time and resources but also a continued reflection and evaluation of practice.

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Part 1: Internationalisation at Home

Chapter 1: Global activists, global workers or home aloners: understanding the challenges of internationalisation at home when creating global citizens

Neil Harrison¹

Introduction

Universities in the UK and other developed nations have increasingly positioned themselves in a global (and globalised) context over recent years. The most obvious manifestation of this trend is in terms of student recruitment, with a rapid increase in the number of international students and the range of countries from which students are drawn (UNESCO 2017). The reasons for students to study in another country are legion, but often include a desire to improve their preparedness for graduate careers through the accumulation of skills and knowledge which have international currency and which will enable them to secure employment with major global employers, whether in the private, public or third sector. However, the substantial majority of students (at undergraduate level, at least) are not internationally-mobile, choosing to study in their home countries.

Nevertheless, universities have increasingly sought to internationalise their business alongside these shifts in the student body. At its most basic level, this has seen a growth in programmes with an international flavour (e.g. Knight 2004) and efforts to make campuses more inclusive and welcoming spaces (e.g. Killick 2012). However, more significant efforts are also now common, with new forms of curricula and pedagogy emerging to respond to both the movement of students and a global labour market for graduates (e.g. Leask 2015).

Indeed, universities have increasingly reflected their global identity and positioning in the public statements that they make about their mission and status. In particular – and the focus of this chapter – these statements have increasingly stressed an aim to produce graduates that will make a contribution to the wider world. This is frequently expressed in terms of ‘global citizenship’, although with somewhat conflicting accounts of what this is intended to convey.

In this chapter, I will explore ideas around global citizenship in higher education and ask whether the expectations that universities have for their graduates matches the expectations and motivations held by students – especially those who have not been mobile and have remained in their own country. Grounded in previous studies (Harrison 2012; Harrison and Peacock 2010; Peacock and Harrison 2009), this chapter will form a ‘think piece’ in which I will propose a three-way typology of home students’ attitudes to internationalised universities based on empirical research from several developed nations with large-scale inward recruitment, examine the implications for institutional policy and practice, and suggest a forward research agenda.

Global citizenship and global careers

When Diogenes of Sinope was asked to which Greek city-state he belonged, he answered that he was a ‘citizen of the world’ (*κοσμοπολίτης* = *kosmopolites*), a word that has entered our vocabulary as ‘cosmopolitan’. As a founder of the Cynic school of philosophy, with its focus on exposing the frailties and conceits of power, his intention was to draw attention to the pervasive insularity of ancient Greece and express his desire for a wider perspective that stressed the unity

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of human concerns. While the common meaning of 'cosmopolitan' in contemporary English has accrued hints of social distinction or even privilege and dilettantism (Caruana 2014; Clifford and Montgomery 2014), at the core remains the idea of an expansive worldview, a willingness to traverse traditional cultural barriers and an engagement with affairs beyond one's own immediate social setting.

Perhaps due to these shifts in meaning, the term 'global citizen' has emerged in recent years as an alternative to 'cosmopolitan'. It has been co-opted by governments, super-governmental bodies and other organisations (including, as we shall shortly see, universities) to encapsulate ideas that Diogenes would recognise, but often also with an overlaid moral positioning around making a positive contribution to global society. For example, Oxfam (2015: 5) define a global citizen as someone who can 'participate fully in a globalised society and economy, and [work] to secure a more just, secure and sustainable world than the one they have inherited'.

However, global citizenship remains slippery, with multiple (and often contradictory) definitions and understandings. Space precludes a full exploration of the myriad presentations or understandings of global citizenship, but Oxley and Morris (2013) provide a useful summary and synthesis, concluding that there are effectively two main categories: cosmopolitan (focused on the political, economic, moral and cultural) and advocacy (focused on the social, critical, environmental and spiritual). It is also important to note that the very idea of global citizenship is subject to contestation, both from those who seek to defend the primacy of the national state from a nationalistic or xenophobic perspective – e.g. UK prime minister's speech to the Conservative Party Conference where she asserted that, 'If you believe you are a citizen of the world, you are a citizen of nowhere. You don't understand what citizenship means' (May 2016). It is also contested by those who see global citizenship as a neo-imperialist manifestation within globalisation and an attempt to reassert hegemonic 'western' values (Clifford and Montgomery 2014; Oxley and Morris 2013).

Turning specifically to higher education, Clifford and Montgomery (2014, p.28) note that 'universities are beginning to include the term global citizen in their policy documents [but] the extent to which this might influence the goals and curricula of higher education is yet to be realised'. Morais and Ogden (2011: 445) assert that it is 'a widely used concept that seems to be universally understood, but is rarely conceptually or operationally defined.' Furthermore, Lilley, Barker and Harris (2015, p.957) argue that 'while the "idea" of educating global citizens appears in university discourse, there is limited evidence demonstrating how the "idea" of the global citizen translates into practice'. Lacking a clear conceptualisation or pathway for implementation, global citizenship currently has an uncertain role within discussions of the purpose of higher education. It has historically been associated mainly with the 'study abroad' opportunities that are integrated into some programmes and undertaken by a minority of students (e.g. Tarrant 2010), rather than part of the mainstream student experience, although this is changing to take in other forms of curriculum development (e.g. Clifford and Montgomery 2013). Similarly, it is associated with discussions about universities' role in contributing to the public good (e.g. Marginson 2011), but generally without a clear connecting thread to practice.

In an attempt to remedy this lack of conceptualisation, Lilley, Barker and Harris (2015: 967) draw on their sample of higher education experts from Europe and Australia, who suggest that for graduates to be global citizens they should have 'the capacity to think transformatively, imagine other possibilities and perspectives, question assumptions reflexively, think as the "other" and walk in their shoes, and engage in critical and ethical thinking', providing mainly a cognitive and meta-cognitive basis for global citizenship. Gacel-Ávila (2005) promotes a more moral basis for global citizenship in higher education, stressing the role of education in forging solidarity between nations. Based on a review of the literature and empirical analysis, Morais and Ogden (2011) propose a three-component model of global citizenship for use in higher education: social responsibility (a concern for others outside the home nation/culture), global competence (the

skills to be able to interact effectively with people from other cultures) and global civic engagement (a willingness to act individually or through organisations). The first is congruent with Lilley, Barker and Harris's (2015) findings, while there is an extensive literature that attempts to codify the competence element of intercultural interaction (e.g. Deardorff 2006; Earley and Ang 2003; Hammer, Bennett and Wiseman 2003). However, there has been little attention given to the motivational element of global citizenship and this will be a key element in the latter half of this chapter.

Before moving on to explore what a sample of universities say about global citizenship, a quick contextual diversion is needed. There are at least two ways of conceptualising the idea of global careers. The first, explored, for example, by Brown, Lauder and Ashton (2011), refers to elite occupations in multinational organisations which are highly sought-after and able to draw applicants on a global scale because they are lucrative, respected and offer opportunities for living abroad and the other trappings of a stereotypical 'high-flying' career. However, a broader conceptualisation will be used in the remainder of this chapter. This sees global graduate careers as those that have been touched by the wider processes of globalisation, international mobility and technological advance. In this instance, a global career might be one which involves regular interaction with people from other nations, either through travel or technology, as well as with people in your one's own nation with a different cultural heritage. There are, of course, graduate jobs which require little or no travel, international communication or engagement with cultural diversity, but the numbers are clearly declining.

Global citizenship in university strategy documents

The term 'global citizenship' is becoming ubiquitous in the lexicon of university strategy documents in the UK. Drawing examples² from the four universities in the cities of Bristol and Nottingham, we find that there is a remarkable convergence of strategic vision in this area, with all four using the term and in very similar ways.

For example, Nottingham Trent University (2016, n.p.) makes a clear connection between citizenship and curriculum, stating that:

As an international University, we nurture global citizenship [...] We will further promote internationalisation in the curriculum and enhance opportunities for our students to acquire the international perspective needed to succeed in the global community.

The University of Bristol (2016: 10) similarly makes a link between citizenship and what is taught to students, in this instance as one of three 'pathways':

[We] assist our students in developing the knowledge, skills, adaptability and resilience they need to thrive in a society that is changing more rapidly than ever before [...] through three personal and professional development pathways: Innovation and Enterprise, Sustainable Futures and Global Citizenship.

In this example, global citizenship is also related to attributes (adaptability and resilience) which are perhaps not generally seen as the primary concern of university curricula. It is notable, also, that global citizenship is placed alongside sustainability and enterprise as two features which the University feels are essential for their graduates in a changing world.

The University of the West of England (2016: 5) sites their specific involvement with global citizenship within a section about extra-curricular learning and development, by providing

² Chosen somewhat arbitrarily as they are my home city and the city where the paper that forms the basis of this chapter was first delivered. However, an informal wider survey readily demonstrates that these are not atypical examples.

opportunities for students ‘to develop as global citizens and make a positive difference to society’, although related statements are also found in the section on employability:

Our graduates are [...] primed to play their part in developing a sustainable global society and knowledge economy.

Finally, the University of Nottingham (2016: 6) makes perhaps the boldest statement, asserting that global citizenship is an inevitable consequence of graduation:

Nottingham graduates from all of our campuses emerge as global citizens, highly sought after due to their blend of knowledge and skills, and a strong sense of entrepreneurship, community and social responsibility.

This is to be achieved, *inter alia*, by ‘offering an outstanding, broad-based, international education’ with the aim of ‘developing skilled, reflective global citizens and leaders’ (*ibid.*: 5).

Needless to say, there is more to the activities of a university than what is placed in broad-sweep strategy documents. Similarly, these documents were not written for detailed scrutiny by an academic audience. However, they do shed light on the dominant discourse around global citizenship and what is shared between universities and what differences in conception or emphasis might exist.

Firstly, and as noted above, the term ‘global citizenship’ itself is pervasive. In keeping with their status as high-level vision statements, none of the strategy documents examined above provide a definition for global citizenship and it is used as if it is a term that is in common use, with an established meaning that will be readily apparent to the reader. Given the lack of a formal definition or common understanding, its meaning is effectively left to the reader to determine by inference from the concepts with which it is associated.

As such, there are shared themes from the examples provided. Global citizenship is clearly positioned in relation to future employment within a graduate labour market which needs people with certain knowledge, skills and dispositions. The latter might include an ‘international perspective’, ‘adaptability and resilience’ and a desire to exercise ‘social responsibility’ and make a ‘positive difference’. In two cases, global citizenship is mentioned in close proximity to either entrepreneurialism/innovation or to sustainability, suggesting that they are related, but distinct, ideas.

Secondly, there are nuances of difference within the examples. For Nottingham Trent University, global citizenship is closely aligned to their strategy of internationalising their curriculum, while the University of Nottingham asserts that it results from their already-international offer. In contrast, the University of the West of England positions global citizenship more within a discourse of co-curricular learning from wider student experiences. In three of the four examples, global citizenship is a process in which the university engages the student by nurturing, developing and priming, but the University of Nottingham presents it as an inexorable outcome and defining feature of their graduates.

From the brief analysis of these examples, it is evident that universities view global citizenship as an important element of what they are embodying within their graduates, even if they have slightly differing projections about how this occurs. The strong linkage to employability recognises the reality of a globalised graduate labour market with a growing mobility of skilled workers, but there is also a thread in the discourse about inculcating ethical values around diversity, sustainability, social responsibility and positive impacts on communities. These values are more overtly ‘political’ than the less-specific statements about knowledge and skills, and therefore potentially more contestable. This is particularly the case as global citizenship is presented as a process of ‘becoming’, with the university in question providing formative experiences, curricular

or extra-curricular, which are intended to mould students into graduates that meet a template for global employability through citizenship.

Differing starting points

The previous section lays out what universities expect to achieve with respect to global citizenship and, to some extent, the pathways towards achieving this. The focus is primarily institutional – global citizenship is a graduate outcome associated with the university experience (either curricular or co-curricular), not an individualised process of change for each student. It is this idea that is key to this chapter – that while the desired outcome is an absolute (graduates as global citizens, with the concomitant knowledge, skills, dispositions and values), there is little attention given to students' starting points. The question that the remainder of the chapter grapples with is the extent to which students are willing participants in the moulding and becoming valorised by universities. It examines whether they share the values and motivations associated with global citizenship and then explores the implications for policy and practice.

Drawing on evidence from my previous empirical studies (Peacock and Harrison 2009; Harrison and Peacock 2010; Harrison 2012) and work from outside of the UK (e.g. Colvin, Volet and Fozdar 2014 [Australia]; Dunne 2013 [Ireland]; Jon 2013 [Korea]), I am proposing a new typology for student attitudes to global citizenship. The three types presented are not intended to be rigid, deterministic, mutually exclusive or fixed in time. They are intended to provide insight by contrasting broad collections of individuals and illustrating how their motivations interact with universities' normative intentions towards global citizenship and the evolving graduate labour market. While it draws on data from previous studies, the validity of the typology (and its relationship with demographic and other factors) would clearly benefit from focused empirical investigation in due course. The three types are:

- *Global Activist* – These individuals come closest to being in step with universities' conceptions of global citizenship. They are anticipating a career path which engages in some way with major global issues such as poverty, climate change or human rights. They may or may not anticipate this involving international mobility within their career, but the focus of their career goals will be about making a positive difference. They are likely to have an interest in diversity and a specific motivation to work with those from other cultures in co-operative ways in providing solutions or otherwise enriching wider society. As such, their engagement with culture is likely to be deep and more critical, especially with respect to power relations and concepts of fairness. The experiences they value at university are more likely to be transformational ones that broaden their perspectives and that articulate with ideas around the public good of higher education.
- *Global Worker* – These individuals have considered the likely nature of their future career and have come to understand that it is likely to have an international or intercultural element. Many will expect to be internationally-mobile in their career, either permanently living in another country or making frequent visits. Even those not anticipating mobility will anticipate having to interact with people in other countries (e.g. as collaborators, customers or suppliers) or with people from different cultural heritages in their own country. However, this is seen as ancillary to their motivation towards their career rather than something inherently motivating. Accordingly, their engagement with culture and diversity is likely to be uncritical and instrumental, privileging knowledge acquisition and skills development within their university experience. Competence in intercultural relations is seen as a transferable skill to be developed, while speaking English is considered an advantage. Their understanding of higher education is most

closely aligned with the idea of a private good providing them with advantages to enable them to secure employment and achieve rapid promotion.

- *Home Aloner* – These individuals contrast with the other two groups in that they do not anticipate a global career, as in the meaning explored above. They either believe (perhaps wrongly) that their role will not require international or intercultural interaction or, if it does, that their work will not require any particular knowledge, skills or dispositions. They are not generally engaged in global issues and potentially view themselves as ‘cultureless’, with either passive or even negative views around diversity and an essentialist concept of cultural difference; they may have an ethnocentric outlook which may in part define their desire not to seek a global career. While they have an interest in their employability and higher education’s contribution to their lives as a private good, their conceptualisation of it is more limited than that of their university.

It is important to stress that the *Home Aloner* grouping is not intended to be a deficit definition – it may be realistic with respect to the career they anticipate or simply a transient result of early life experiences that have not exposed the individual to global issues or cultural diversity. For example, the group overlaps with the *Global Workers* in a concern for their career and in viewing higher education as a ‘private good’ that offers them career advantages – the contrast is in the role of global citizenship in providing this. The proposed typology is summarised in the table below.

Global Activist	Global Worker	Home Aloner
Potentially mobile for career	Potentially mobile for career	Not anticipating career mobility
Anticipates working with people from other cultures	Anticipates working with people from other cultures	Anticipates working with people from own culture
Positive about diversity	Positive/neutral about diversity	Neutral/negative about diversity
Active and critical engagement with culture	Instrumental engagement with culture	Limited/no engagement with culture
Fluid, complex and contingent concept of culture	Concept of culture stresses similarities and universalism	Essentialist concept of culture and strong cultural boundaries
Seeks deep and sensitive cultural understanding	Seeks skills-based intercultural competence	Does not seek cultural understanding or skills
Motivated by impact on others	Motivated by future career	Motivated by future career
Interest in global affairs and global problems	Interest in global affairs, especially around future career	Little interest in global affairs
Higher education primarily as a public good	Higher education primarily as a private good	Higher education primarily as a private good
Full alignment with university strategy on global citizenship	Partial alignment with university strategy on global citizenship	Misalignment with (or hostility towards) university strategy

As well as empirical work to assess the validity of the typology, it would be useful to understand what factors might contribute to predisposing individual students in one grouping or another. There are some clues from work done in the field previously. For example, Harrison (2012) found that growing up in a multicultural community increased the likelihood that a student would have positive attitudes towards diversity; Ward (2006) argues that the same holds for those with a mixed cultural heritage. There is also strong evidence that men tend to be more ethnocentric (Hooghe *et al.* 2006; Harrison 2012) and that women and students from higher socio-economic groups are more likely to seek international experiences (Soria and Troisi 2014). Personality may also have a part to play, with Harrison (2012) stressing openness and agreeableness and Dunne (2013) focusing on curiosity. Clearly such trends are not deterministic, but they may provide some clues for practice.

Also, as noted above, these types are not presented as fixed over time. Given the three or four years that most students spend in higher education, there is ample opportunity for an individual to move between groups as a result of their experiences and associated changes in their values or skills. Indeed, as we have seen, universities anticipate that students' experiences will cause change, either through an internationalised curriculum, extra-curricular activities or other unspecified tacit processes within higher education. For a small minority, this will include international mobility (e.g. through an Erasmus exchange or similar), but the students voluntarily seeking such opportunities are likely to be those entering university as *Global Activists* or *Global Workers*. For the majority, it is university experiences in the home country that will mould whether or not students become the global citizens that universities intend.

Internationalisation at home

The concept of 'internationalisation at home' (IaH) has its origins in a position paper produced by the European Association for International Education in 2000 (Crowther *et al.* 2000). Bold and optimistic in its positioning, the paper asserts that universities can and should seek to provide home students (i.e. those not internationally-mobile) with an experience that is inherently international in flavour. It is envisaged that this can be achieved through a positive use of international students as a teaching resource, a rethought curriculum drawing on diverse real-world examples and theoretical perspectives, and pedagogies that promote respectful interaction and co-operation between students, potentially including those in other countries through the use of emerging technologies. The aim of IaH was to enable home students to acquire the benefits gained by their mobile peers including the ability to appreciate multiple viewpoints, improved intercultural interaction skills and an increased capacity for critical thinking (Knight 2004; Teekens 2006).

Progress on some of these elements has been strong over the last decade in several countries including the UK, with, for example, many universities dedicating resources to internationalising their curricula and pedagogic approaches across a wide range of disciplines (e.g. Clifford and Montgomery 2013; Jones and Brown 2007; Leask 2015).

However, there is significant evidence from a range of countries that recruit large numbers of international students that many home students are not entirely comfortable with the internationalised university (see Harrison 2015 for a review of the literature). Remarkably, the stories told by home students are broadly consistent across national contexts, suggesting that the phenomenon is widespread and not confined solely to the UK.

For example, many home students express concerns that international students will jeopardise their ability to secure high marks (e.g. Harrison and Peacock 2010; Kimmel and Volet 2012; Strauss, U-Mackey and Crothers 2014) by disproportionately occupying staff time or by being 'risky' groupwork partners, as their approaches are different and language barriers cause

misunderstanding and a greater need for process time. Home students also report difficulties rooted in differences in pedagogic expectations with respect to speaking in class, willingness to challenge, criticality and deference, with the net result that home students tend to prefer to work in monocultural groups (Rienties, Alcott and Jindal-Snape 2014; Hou and McDowell 2014).

More generally, home students generally report that their interactions with international students are a source of anxiety (e.g. Ujitani and Volet 2008; Dunne 2013; Hou and McDowell 2014; Mak, Brown and Wadey 2014). There is a fear of causing offence (or being offended) through cultural and language misunderstandings. Interactions are seen as needing a form of effort and mindfulness which are at odds with general expectations of an easy-going university experience (Peacock and Harrison 2009). The net result is that home students tend to avoid both academic and social encounters with international students, which is reflected both in their own accounts and in analysis of friendship groups (Rientes and Nolan 2014).

These phenomena have been theorised in several ways. Harrison and Peacock (2010) argue that they are consistent with *integrated threat theory* (Stephan and Stephan 2000), which argues for four distinct forms of threat that are perceived by social groups when they interact: realistic threats (to wellbeing – i.e. academic outcomes), symbolic threats (to beliefs or social norms), intergroup anxiety (about misunderstandings and offence) and negative stereotyping (where supposed group attributes are inferred to all individuals). Colvin, Fozdar and Volet (2014) suggest that the global hegemonic status of the English language leads to a form of ethnocentrism that works against intercultural interactions in Anglophone countries. Ward *et al.* (2015) found that difficulties increased rapidly once a certain proportion of international students were present, either threatening the dominance of home students or leading staff to make changes to the curriculum or pedagogy that home students found alienating. Clifford and Montgomery (2014: 42) concur, arguing that ‘a transformative education can be frightening for students as it asks them to take risks, move out of their comfort zones and be open to personal change’, while Clifford (2009) notes that staff report active resistance from home students to internationalised curricula.

Therefore, while the mission statements from universities extol the virtues of equipping graduates for a global world, it is far from clear that all (or even most) students share the same expectations, motivations or attitudes. Rather than seizing opportunities to gain learning experiences with value for their future employability, many home students across a range of countries avoid them and express misgivings about what internationalisation means ‘on the ground’. To be clear: this is not to argue that home students necessarily hold prejudiced views, but that the awkwardness, uncertainty and risks of interaction outweigh the perceived benefits (which, of course, may be significantly higher than perceived by the student). Nevertheless, a minority do choose to seek out intercultural interactions and experiences; what Peacock and Harrison (2010) call ‘informed cosmopolitans’ and Colvin and Volet (2014) call ‘cultural travellers’.

Implications

Thus far in this chapter, I have argued that students enter higher education with varying values, competencies and motivations with regard to the global labour market and the role of cultural diversity in their future working lives – this is broadly congruent with Morais and Ogden’s (2011) model. I have also presented empirical data that suggest that many home students choose to absent themselves from the very experiences that could prove transformational and that there are differences to the extent to which students are comfortable engaging in such activities.

In this final section, I will bring these two arguments together by suggesting that the students that shun or resist intercultural experiences in the classroom or through extra-curricular activities are most likely to fall into the *Home Aloner* group proposed earlier. Once again, this will require

empirical investigation in due course, but this seems a reasonable hypothesis to deduce from the preceding arguments. If this is the case, then, in contrast to the assertions made in the university strategy documents examined earlier, which largely portray global citizenship as an inexorable feature of the student experience, there is a very definite two-track route to global citizenship – a fast lane for *Global Activists* and perhaps the *Global Workers*, but a slow lane for *Home Aloners* who not only enter higher education with a lower desire to become a global citizen, but also eschew the student experiences that might transform their perspectives. This would appear to make the university assertions somewhat partial, if not hollow. As Lilley, Barker and Harris (2015: 969) conclude, “universities often claim to educate global citizens, yet there is little evidence of this occurring.”

I therefore argue that there is a need for something of a rethink both in terms of policy and practice. At the policy level, universities need to better understand global citizenship if they are to commit themselves to it as a desirable outcome on which they are willing to be judged. Currently, it is conceptualised as a threshold outcome for students (something that one ‘becomes’) that can be achieved through a readily-transmittable portfolio of knowledge and skills (whether formally or informally). Following Morais and Ogden (2011), I have argued that the second element is only a partial picture – one that ignores the underpinning values associated with global citizenship and the agency and volition that motivates individual students to engage with transformational opportunities.

In particular, global citizenship is not a value-neutral position and this leaves it open to contestation (at least initially) by some students (Clifford 2009). Lilley, Barker and Harris’s (2015) experts contend that universities should not delve too deeply into the values of students, but it is hard to see how global citizens can be ‘made’ otherwise – global citizenship, at least as generally discussed, is fundamentally normative. I have argued that *Home Aloners* and even some *Global Workers* will see the moral positioning of global citizenship as either irrelevant to their future lives or as inimical to their own values. Returning to Marginson’s (2011) arguments around public goods, maybe this is a nettle that universities need to grasp to retain their future relevance in answering ‘common human problems’.

There is an additional strategic challenge here in the era of the National Student Survey and the Teaching Excellence Framework (in the UK context), where students’ opinions about their education feed directly into both league tables and funding formulae. As discussed above, providing curricula and pedagogies which are challenging enough to be transformative (e.g. through multicultural groupwork) may not sit well and lead to disaffection, resistance and poor satisfaction scores. I am not, of course, arguing that universities should abandon their efforts to support global citizenship through internationalisation at home, but more that there needs to be a stronger understanding of students’ varying starting points.

This leads nicely into the implications for practice. One criticism that can be levelled at the literature to date around internationalisation at home is that it is mainly concerned with programmes that have an obvious global, international or intercultural foundation; programmes that students will have chosen, in part, due to their interest and openness towards these themes and topics, probably with a global career in mind. These are arguably ‘easy wins’ with respect to global citizenship. Turning attention to other programmes and disciplines is likely to require a different approach – one that respects that some students will have further to travel and that some may not wish to travel at all. I conclude my argument, therefore, with an encouragement towards further research around how to engage the *Home Aloners* with global citizenship – if they indeed exist as a valid grouping. To make progress, we need to have a clear theory of change in place to understand how those most distant and resistant to values underpinning global citizenship might be encouraged to begin, and even enjoy, the journey.

Conclusion

In this chapter, I have argued that while there is a degree of uniformity in the ways in which universities lay out their intentions to produce graduates who are also global citizens, this would appear to be at odds with the motivations of a significant proportion of their students – at least at the point of entry. I have argued that home students tend to shun the very experiences that could help them to develop the values, skills and motivations that the universities (and, by inference, graduate employers) wish them to acquire. Furthermore, it is likely that the very students who would benefit most (at least from the university's perspective) are those most likely to distance themselves from those experiences.

As the basis for future research, I have proposed a three-way typology of student approaches to global citizenship: *Global Activists* who are aligned with the university strategy, *Global Workers* who take an instrumental approach, and *Home Aloners* who are neutral or hostile to university efforts as they are motivated towards a career in which they believe that global affairs and diversity are not important features. In particular, it would be informative to understand which students might comprise the *Home Aloners* group and to develop a theory of change concerning how teaching might positively and transformatively engage them in the values, skills and motivations which comprise global citizenship as an outcome of higher education. Finally, I have argued that universities need to give careful thought to their public commitments towards the slippery concept of global citizenship.

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Chapter 2: Perceptions of critical thinking: a pilot investigation into the attitudes of home and international students

Henrietta J. Standley¹

Introduction

While going abroad to study is not a new phenomenon, the number of students choosing to do so has increased dramatically over the past few decades (British Council 2012). There has also been a diversification in the directions of travel, with countries that have historically seen a predominantly outward flow of students now emerging as destinations in their own right (World Education Services 2007). Thus, universities in traditional destination countries such as the United Kingdom need to adapt to increasing globalisation of the higher education (HE) environment in order to remain competitive (Bohm et al., 2004). Many UK universities are focusing on internationalisation as a component of their strategic plans, one aim usually being to increase recruitment of international students. According to the Higher Education Statistics Agency (HESA), 19% of students at HE providers were from outside the UK in 2014-15 (HESA 2016). Adding to their number are those students in the UK for a short-term study or research placement as part of their degree programme overseas. Research such as that conducted for the Erasmus Impact Study has clearly demonstrated that students benefit from international experience, in particular by enhancing traits linked to employability (European Commission 2014). Targets such as that of the European Higher Education Area (EHEA), “by 2020 20% of students across the EHEA [will] have an international mobility experience as part of their studies”, promote universities in encouraging their students to engage with international opportunities (UK HE International Unit 2013).

The drive to increase the proportion of students who are completing their entire degree abroad, together with the increasing popularity of short term international opportunities such as those under the auspices of Erasmus+, mean that the student body is becoming increasingly diverse. Both driving and responding to the internationalisation of the student body, universities are promoting internationalisation of their curricula, although there are relatively few institutions that have addressed this on an institution-wide basis (Jones and Killick 2013). An internationalised curriculum should give students a broad, global perspective on their discipline, and should be inclusive for all students, whether home or international (HEA 2014a; HEA 2014b). A diverse student cohort can bring many advantages (Fortuijn 2002), but designing inclusive learning activities can be challenging, as staff must be mindful of an unpredictable array of prior educational experiences, English language proficiencies, and learning strategies (discussed in Kelly and Moogan 2012). This is perhaps particularly acute when considering how to facilitate development of higher-order cognitive skills such as critical thinking.

The ability to think critically is a core graduate attribute, and features in the Student Employability Profiles and Subject Benchmark Statements across all disciplines (HEA 2007; QAA 2015). The advanced academic skills of Bloom’s taxonomy – analysis, synthesis and evaluation – all require students to demonstrate higher-order, critical thinking, and therefore authentic ‘graduateness’ cannot be achieved without developing critical thinking skills (Bloom 1956; Bissell and Lemons 2006). Students do not automatically acquire the ability to think critically, and need to be explicitly taught how to analyse and evaluate information (e.g. Egege and Kutieleh 2004). One challenge in

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teaching critical thinking is for students to understand what it is and why it is beneficial to their development, beyond the straightforward incentive of higher marks where critical acumen features on assessment criteria. Providing students with a definition of critical thinking is not in itself particularly helpful, and is likely to be less effective than students developing their understanding through actually practising the technique.

Even with a group of learners who share a common prior educational experience, the teaching and assessment of critical thinking skills present challenges to staff, and these challenges are likely to be exacerbated the greater the diversity of the student group. The perception that students from certain educational backgrounds (primarily from Confucian Heritage Cultures such as China) are unwilling to take a critical approach, as their prior education has emphasised rote learning, persists despite evidence that this is not in fact the case (e.g. Kember 2000; Huang 2008; Biggs 2003). Rather than these students lacking critical thinking ability, these students may have a different concept of what it means to think critically, that (at least initially) places them at a disadvantage in a Western education system (Egege and Kutieleh 2004; Valiente 2008).

Here I present a pilot study into students' perceptions of critical thinking, with data acquired from polling diverse home and international students studying various programmes in the Cardiff University School of Biosciences. The number of participants is small (67), so conclusions are tentative and any generalisations must be treated with caution. Previous investigators have researched critical thinking in relation to international students, and published studies (discussed below) provided inspiration during the questionnaire design phase. Previous studies have tended to concentrate on Asian students (e.g. Kember 2000; Huang 2008). Although China followed by India are the largest senders of international students to the UK (HESA 2016), there are very few such students enrolled on the particular programmes that I teach. Instead, the majority of non-UK domiciled students are from Europe, the USA, and the Persian Gulf (Table 1). Established critical thinking skills tests are available, such as the Cornell Critical Thinking Test Level Z (Ennis and Millman 2005). However, these tests are not discipline-specific, and I was particularly motivated to investigate *perceptions* of critical thinking (as opposed to critical thinking ability *per se*) among the students I encounter in my teaching, and in a context relevant to biosciences.

The aims of the pilot study were (1) to discern if there are any differences in perceptions of critical thinking between home and international students, and (2) to act as a limited trial run of my questionnaire. The preliminary findings of the pilot will be used to inform planning of a larger scale investigation, with the long-term aim of improving how critical thinking skills are taught to a diverse multicultural cohort. Ultimately, such skills should be taught in ways that are inclusive for students of all backgrounds, as part of an internationalised curriculum.

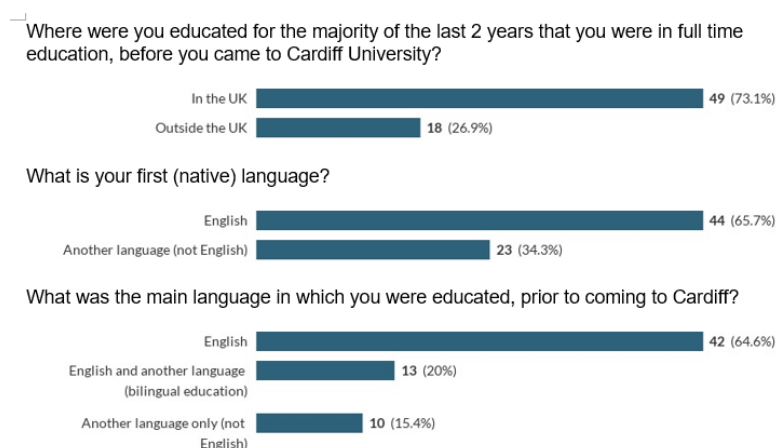
Study Design and Rationale

The pilot study consisted of an online questionnaire. The questions were designed to collect the following information:

Section 1 asked participants to provide information about themselves and their educational background. This included current course of study (Table 1), where the student was educated in the two years prior to attending Cardiff University, first (native) language, and language of education (Fig. 1). This information would enable the remaining data to be split and examined for differences in responses between groups of students. Complexity was minimised, for example the options for place of education were 'in the UK' and 'outside the UK', and those for native language were simply 'English' or 'another language (not English)'. As the total number of participants was likely to be very small, it would be counterproductive to include many sub-categories. Participants were not explicitly scored for 'home' or 'international' status, as it was predicted that language and location of education would be more important influences on

perceptions of critical thinking. Neither ‘home’ nor ‘international’ describe homogeneous groups, and indeed a home student may have been educated through the medium of Welsh, or an international student may have been educated in English.

Fig. 1 Participants’ location of education, native language, and language of education. The bars show participants’ responses to three questions in Section 1 of the questionnaire. Students representing all categories participated, although some categories are under-represented compared to others. In total there were 67 participants.



Section 2 asked participants to rate various factors in terms of importance for critical evaluation of a research report. Participants were provided with 14 phrases written for this pilot study (e.g. ‘whether the authors’ conclusions are justified based on the results shown’). Participants were asked to indicate the importance of checking each of the 14 points, as if they were critically evaluating a research report, rating each statement from ‘very important’ to ‘not important at all’. This was intended to ascertain whether respondents understood the meaning of critical analysis, as applied to reviewing a scientific paper, an activity they will do extensively during their degree and an attribute of a graduate scientist.

Section 3 asked participants to discriminate between comments related or not related to critical thinking. Participants were provided with 14 comments of the type they might receive as feedback on a piece of assessed work. For consistency, all the comments were phrased as questions (e.g. ‘what conclusion can you draw?’). Participants were asked to rate each as ‘related to critical thinking’ or ‘not related to critical thinking’. This was also intended to ascertain whether respondents understood the meaning of critical analysis, through imagining a situation that should be familiar to all of them – reading staff comments on their work.

Section 4 asked participants to self-assess their critical thinking skills. Participants were presented with five incomplete statements, and asked to select the completing phrase that they felt best described themselves, from a list of four options. The options represented ‘beginning’, ‘developing’, ‘competent’ and ‘accomplished’ critical thinking abilities (but were not labelled as such, and were presented in a different order for each question). The questions were adapted from *Measuring My Critical Thinking* (Valencia Community College 2005).

Section 5 asked participants to self-assess their approach to learning and studying. Participants were presented with 20 statements (e.g. ‘I try to make sense of things by linking them to what I already know’) and asked to rate each on a scale from ‘agree strongly’ to ‘disagree strongly’. Some

questions in this section were taken or adapted from the *Learning and Studying Questionnaire* and the *Experiences of Teaching and Learning Questionnaire* (Hounsell *et al.* 2005). Sections 5 and 6 were intended to gauge whether there are differences in students' self-assessment of their general approach to learning. It might be anticipated that students with more sophisticated approaches to learning in general might also be (or believe themselves to be) more accomplished critical thinkers.

Section 6 asked participants to indicate their preferred approach for a critical thinking exercise.

Participants were presented with five options for an approach towards critically evaluating a research paper (e.g. 'a facilitator aiding class discussion of the report') and asked to rate whether they thought each was a good approach, on a scale from 'agree strongly' to 'disagree strongly'. This was intended to determine whether students favoured a particular type of classroom activity, and whether home and international students differed in their preference for individual or group, and self-directed or guided, activities.

Ethical approval

Ethical approval was granted by the Cardiff University School of Biosciences Ethics Committee. Participation was optional and non-incentivised, and students completed the questionnaire anonymously. Each participant's complete responses could be viewed individually, however responses could not be traced back to an identifiable individual.

Participants

The students invited to participate were enrolled on a variety of courses at Cardiff University, but were all taking at least one undergraduate module in the School of Biosciences. The students were from a variety of UK, EU, and international backgrounds (Table 1).

Table 1. The students invited to participate, and the number of respondents from each course. Breakdown by course masks considerable additional complexity, as some home students are from non-English speaking or bilingual backgrounds, whereas some international students have English as their first language.

Course	CQFW Level	Student population	Number of respondents (% of total)
Preliminary Year in Science	3 (foundation year for degrees in Biosciences)	Predominantly UK-domiciled, some from elsewhere in the EU	8 (11.9%)
International Foundation Programme in Health and Life Sciences	3 (foundation year for degrees in Biosciences or health-related disciplines)	Predominantly from the Persian Gulf states, including Kuwait, Oman, Qatar, Saudi Arabia and the United Arab Emirates	5 (7.9%)
Erasmus+	5 and/or 6 (various modules)	Exclusively from the EU, outside the UK	8 (11.9%)
Study Abroad	5 and/or 6 (various modules)	Predominantly from the US and Australia	2 (3%)
Biosciences	5 (second year of degree, enrolled on a Year 2 module led by the study author)	Predominantly UK-domiciled, some from elsewhere in the EU, some from outside the EU. Some had previously completed the Preliminary Year or International Foundation Year.	44 (65.7%)

Participants were studying at either Credit and Qualifications Framework for Wales (CQFW) Level 3 or at Levels 5 and/or 6, and were known to the study author through teaching and/or course administration. I am therefore an insider-researcher, and acknowledge that this may have influenced the results (see Study Limitations). The invitation to participate was emailed to 232 students, of whom 67 (28%) completed the online questionnaire.

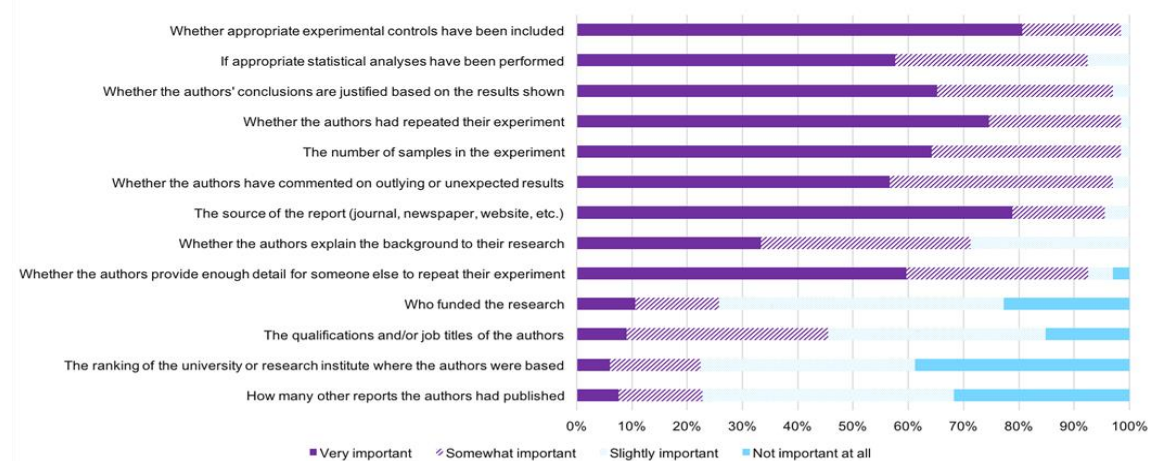
Results

Participants' responses were initially considered as a single group, and then the information from section 1 was used to split the responses in sections 2 to 6 by location of education, by native language, and by language of education. The three different split datasets were compared, to determine whether any differences were revealed when (for example) students educated in the UK were compared with students educated outside the UK. As shown in Fig.1, the largest subpopulation within the participants is students educated in the UK, whose native language and language of education are both English. These students remain together in all three split datasets. Therefore, any differences between the three sets were predicted to be subtle, but this three-split approach was envisaged to have the highest likelihood of revealing differences, compared with a simple home versus international split.

Students show a good understanding of the important considerations for critical evaluation of a scientific research report

Participants were asked to rate various factors in terms of importance for critical evaluation, as if they were reading a scientific report. The majority of respondents were in agreement with each other, and aligned to the author's predictions for each statement (Fig. 2).

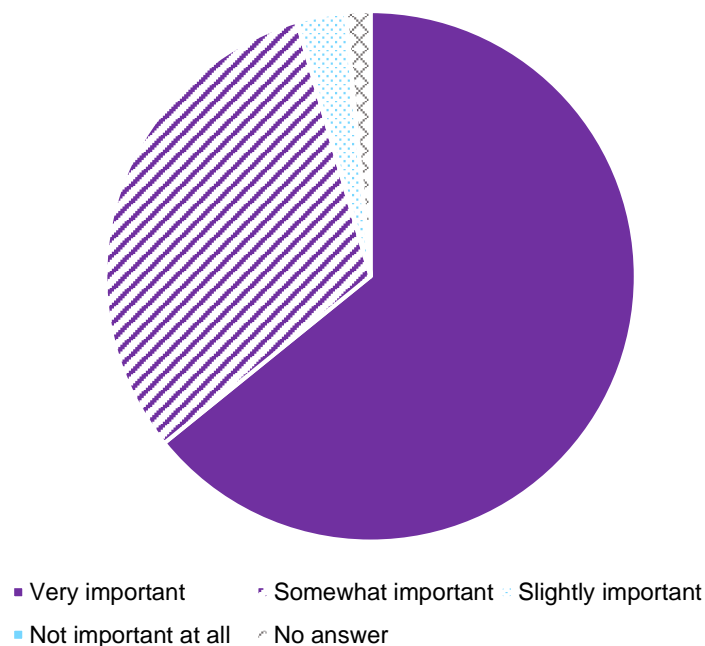
Fig. 2 The majority of participants are in agreement as to the important aspects of critically evaluating a scientific report. If the 'very' and 'somewhat' responses are considered together, and 'slightly' and the 'not at all' responses combined similarly, then at least 75% of the participants are in agreement for every statement except 'the qualifications and job titles of the authors'. The statements have been reordered from the questionnaire to highlight this observation, with the ten statements that the majority of respondents agreed were 'very/somewhat important' listed first, followed by the four statements that the majority of respondents agreed were 'slightly important/not important at all.' The bars show the combined responses from all 67 participants.



Splitting the data by location of education, by native language, and by language of education did not reveal any substantial differences in the participants' responses. The data were additionally split by level of education to determine whether the stage of academic progression was more important than the originally intended factors. Fig. 3 shows the data for two statements split in this way, firstly one that was anticipated to be 'very important' for critical evaluation, 'whether the authors' conclusions are justified based on the results shown' (Fig. 3A), and one anticipated to be less important, 'the ranking of the university or research institute where the authors were based' (Fig. 3B). The pie charts show the distribution of all the responses to these statements, and the histograms show the responses split by location of education, native language, and level of education. No obvious differences are apparent, especially if the 'very' and 'somewhat' responses are considered together, and 'slightly' and the 'not at all' responses combined similarly. The responses indicate that home and international students have a good understanding of what constitutes critical evaluation of a scientific research paper. This does not necessarily mean that they would be proficient in applying their understanding to evaluate a paper, but is encouraging despite the limitations of the study.

Fig. 3 Home and international participants are largely in agreement as to the important aspects of critically evaluating a scientific report. (A) shows responses to 'whether the authors' conclusions are justified based on the results shown'. (B) shows responses to 'the ranking of the university or research institute where the authors were based'. In both (A) and (B) the pie chart shows all 67 responses, and the histograms show the effects of splitting the responses by location of education (top right), native language (bottom left) and level of education (bottom right), on a percentage scale. The number and percentage of participants in each grouping is shown underneath the histograms (e.g. 18 participants were educated outside the UK, which is 27% of the total). No dramatic differences are seen in any of the splits, especially if the 'very' and 'somewhat' responses are considered together, and 'slightly' and the 'not at all' responses combined similarly.

Fig.3(A)



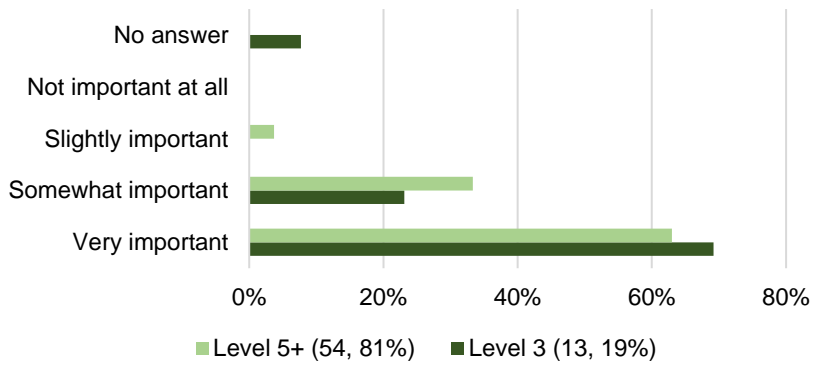
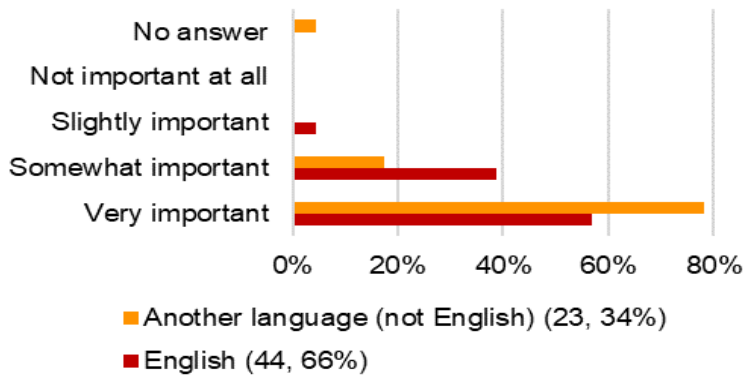
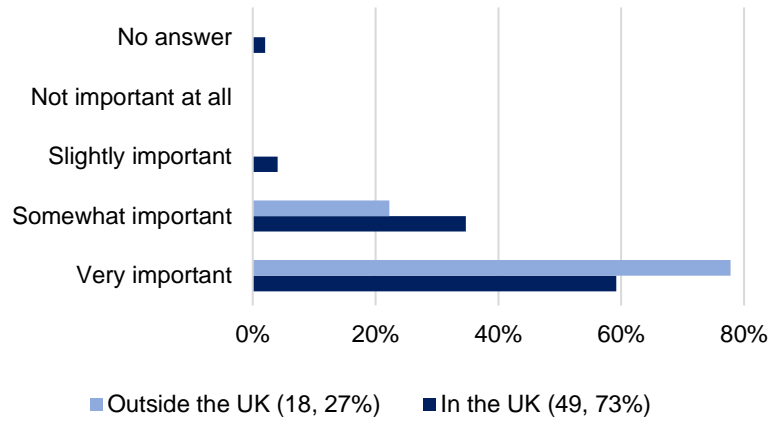
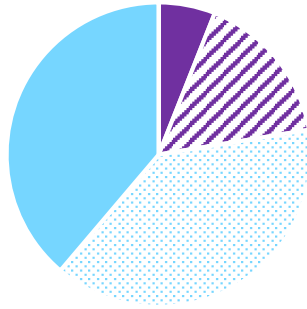
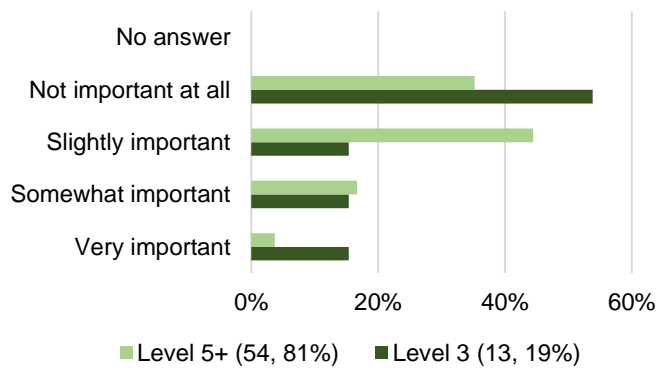
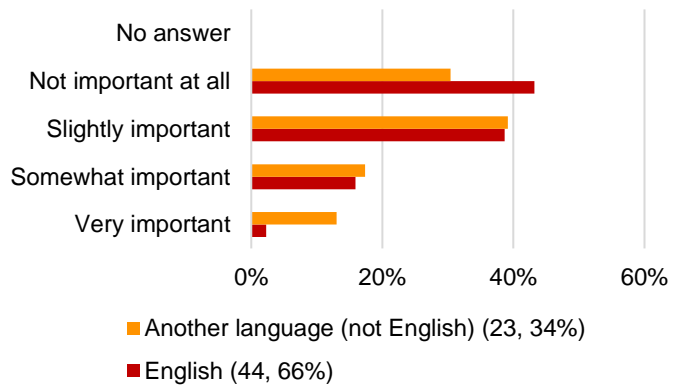
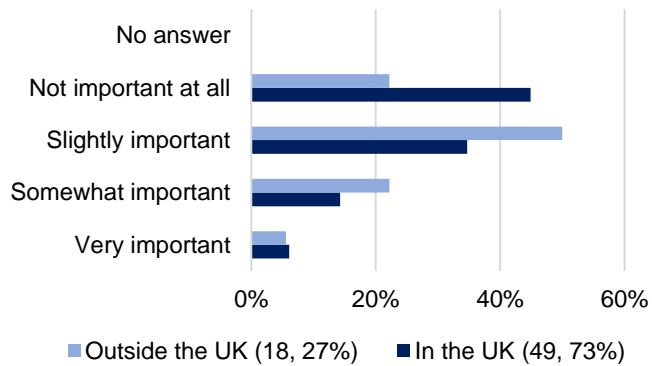


Fig.3(B)



- Very important
- ▨ Somewhat important
- ▧ Slightly important
- Not important at all
- × No answer



Students can discriminate effectively between what does and does not constitute critical thinking

The second scenario presented to participants was to discriminate between questions that relate to critical thinking ability and those that do not, as if they were reading feedback comments on an assignment. For eight of the 14 comments, over 90% of the respondents were in agreement (Fig. 4A). This is consistent with the data from the previous exercise, and indicates that the students understand the nature of critical thinking. It would not be informative to split these responses by native language or other considerations. For the remaining six comments, there was more disagreement between the students, although for all but one comment there was still a majority view of over 65% (Fig. 4B). In most cases the participants' responses matched the author's viewpoint, although 'What was the source (citation) for this figure/image' gained more 'related to critical thinking' responses than predicted. Participants may have interpreted this question as relating to the *quality* of the source, rather than simply the presence or absence of a citation.

Fig. 4 The majority of participants are in agreement when discriminating between feedback comments that relate to critical thinking and those that do not. (A) More than 90% of participants agreed that six questions were related to critical thinking and four questions were not related to critical thinking. (B) The majorities were less pronounced for the remaining six questions. Students were most divided on 'How confident are you in your conclusion?'

Fig. 4 (A)

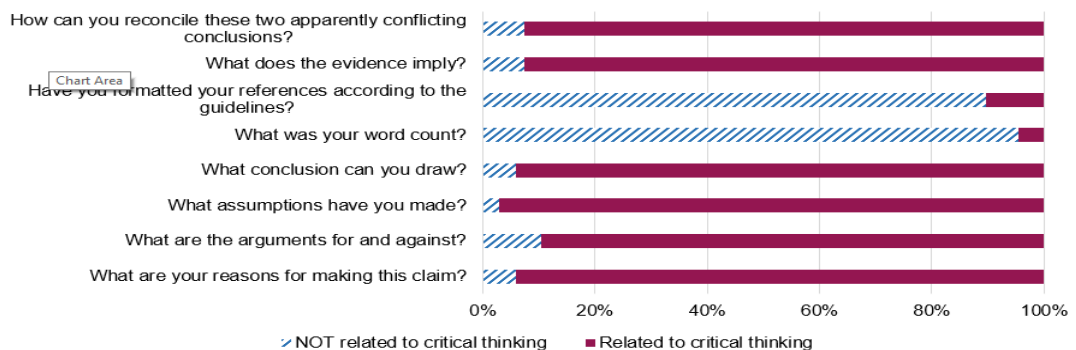
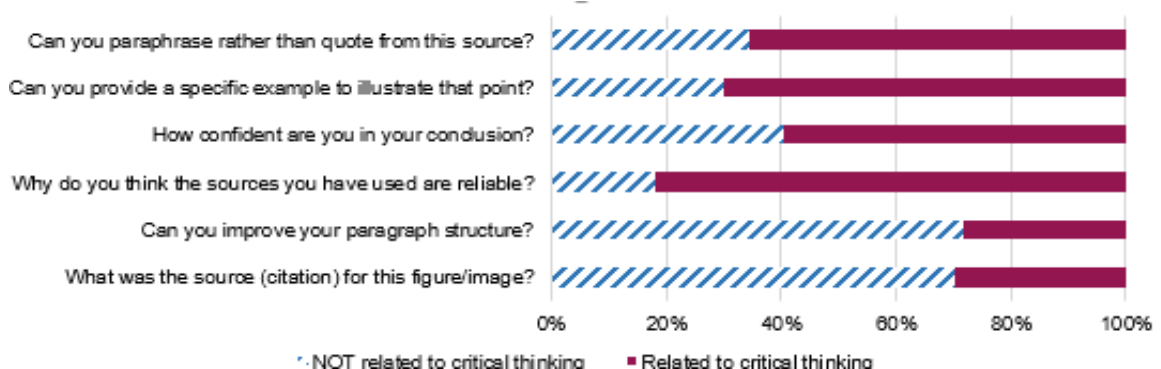


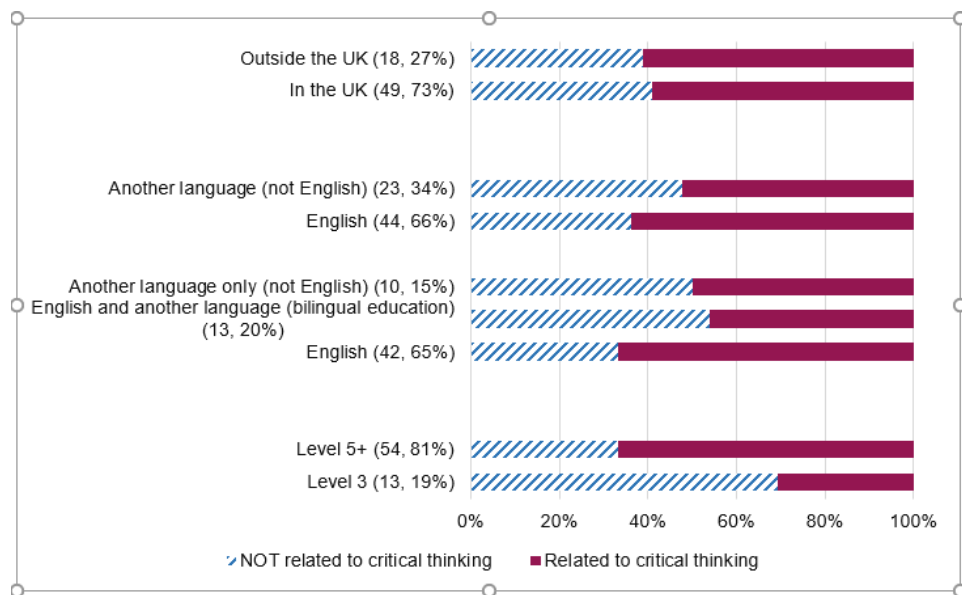
Fig. 4(B)



59.7% of participants thought 'How confident are you in your conclusion?' was related to critical thinking, while 40.3% thought it was not related to critical thinking (Fig. 4B). This came closest to

a 50:50 split, and so the responses were split by location of education, by native language, by language of education, and also by CQFW educational level (Fig. 5). The greatest difference was observed when the responses were split by level. Only a minority of foundation L3 students (30%) thought ‘How confident are you in your conclusion?’ related to critical thinking, which rose to 67% among the L5/6 students. This is perhaps not unexpected, as the L5/6 students are likely to have a more sophisticated understanding of a conclusion as involving *synthesis* of ideas rather than a simple summary. This observation is interesting because it indicates that educational level is more important than location and language of prior educational experience.

Fig. 5 Splitting the responses for ‘How confident are you in your conclusion?’ reveals difference of opinion corresponds more closely to stage of education than to other attributes. The effects of splitting the responses by (A) location of education, (B) native language, (C) language of education, and (D) level of education are shown in the stacked bars. The greatest difference is observed when the responses are split by educational level, with the majority of foundation L3 students (70%) believing this comment was not related to critical thinking, in contrast to the majority of L5/6 students (67%) who believe it is related to critical thinking.

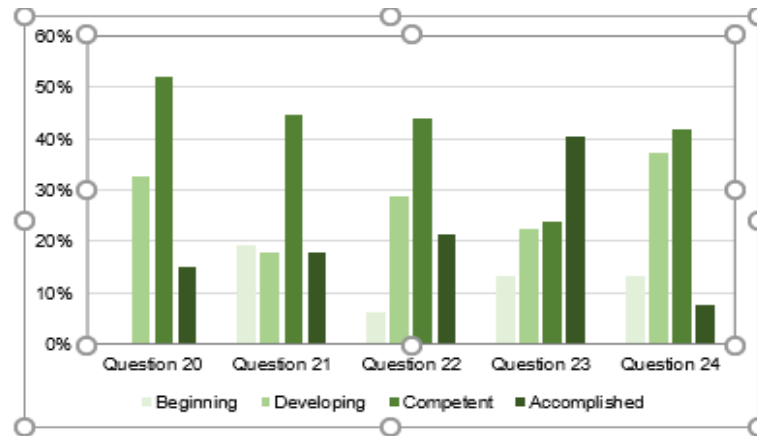


Inconsistencies were evident in participants’ approaches to learning and studying, despite many participants rating themselves as ‘competent’ critical thinkers

Participants’ self-assessment of their critical thinking, and their general approach to learning and studying, were also captured by the questionnaire. To gauge critical thinking, participants were asked to choose the option that best described themselves, from a list of options representing four levels of critical thinking ability, from beginning to accomplished. The most frequently chosen option was that of the ‘competent’ critical thinker (Fig. 6).

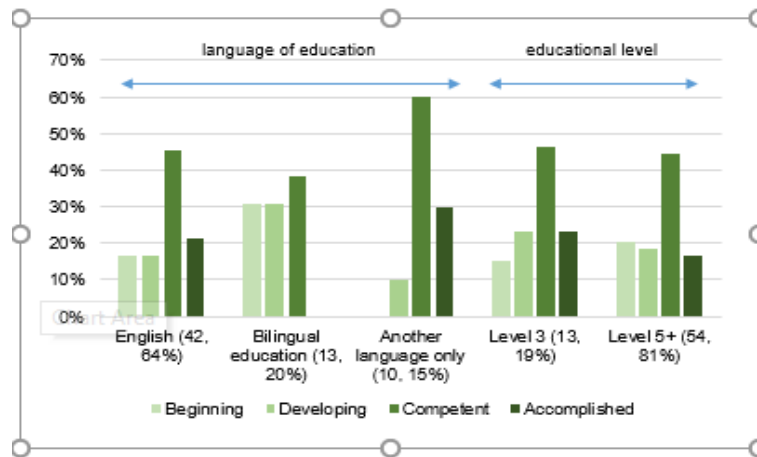
Fig. 6 The largest proportion of participants rated themselves as ‘competent’ critical thinkers. The questions consisted of the following incomplete statements: (Q20) When I analyse information, data (facts and figures) or ideas... (Q21) When I try to apply formulae, procedures, principles, or themes to a new problem, assignment, or situation... (Q22) When I try to think about a subject, problem, or situation from more than one point of view... (Q23) When I need to write a

conclusion to an essay or report... (Q24) When I try to pull ideas together to get the big picture.... Participants selected a phrase to complete each sentence from four options. For four out of five questions, the 'competent' phrase was the most popular choice. This test was adapted from Measuring My Critical Thinking (Valencia Community College 2005).



When the responses were split by language of education, it consistently emerged that the bilingual students rated themselves as less developed critical thinkers than students educated primarily in a single language, whether English or another language (one example shown in Fig. 7). There were fewer bilingual and non-English educated participants compared to those educated in English (Fig. 1), so each individual's responses would have had a larger effect on the results. Nonetheless, it is of note that the bilingual students' responses show a shift away from 'accomplished' and towards 'beginning' (Fig. 7). Further research is needed to determine whether there is a reproducible correlation between bilingual education and reduced confidence in critical thinking and, if so, why this might be the case. In contrast, when the responses are split by educational level the profile of responses is very similar between L3 and L5/L6 students (Fig. 7). This was unexpected, as the L5/L6 students were predicted to rate themselves as more confident critical thinkers than those at L3. However, this test only required participants to select options, not to demonstrate their ability. Participants who rated themselves as competent or accomplished would not necessarily perform to this standard in a critical thinking exercise.

Fig. 7 Participants who had previously received a bilingual education (English and another language) were least confident in their critical thinking skills. The bars show responses to question 21: When I try to apply formulae, procedures, principles, or themes to a new problem, assignment, or situation. The available phrases were: (Beginning) I may find it difficult to think of the right formula or concept to use; (Developing) Usually, I can think of the right formula or concept, but I often have trouble using it correctly; (Competent) I can use the right formula or concept accurately - if the situation or problem is familiar; (Accomplished) I can use formulae or concepts accurately to solve new problems or new situations. Splitting the responses by language of education (left) revealed that none of the bilingual students had chosen the 'accomplished' option. In contrast, splitting the responses by educational level (right) showed a very similar distribution of responses between L3 and L5/L6 students.



In spite of the positive self-ratings on the *Measuring My Critical Thinking* test, some contradictions were evident in the questions that addressed participants' broader approach to learning and studying. For example, 84.5% agreed that they look at evidence carefully and reach their own conclusions about what they are studying (Fig. 8A), which would be consistent with a deep approach to learning and well-developed critical thinking skills. However, 53.7% agreed that they tend to take what they are told at face value and without questioning, which is consistent with an uncritical approach (Fig. 8B). Similarly, 97.1% of participants agreed they try to make sense of new material by linking it to their existing knowledge (Fig. 8C), however 86.6% agreed that they often have to repeatedly learn material that does not make sense to them (Fig. 8D). No pronounced patterns were noted when the responses were split by location of education, by native language, and by language of education (data not shown). Students whose answers showed good understanding of critical thinking (sections 2 and 3) might have been predicted to show a higher self-rating in sections 5 and 6. The reasons for these apparent inconsistencies will need to be addressed in a future study.

Fig. 8 Contradictory responses were evident when participants were asked to self-assess their approaches to learning and studying. The histograms show responses to four questions on a scale from 'agree strongly' to 'disagree strongly'. While the responses to the two questions on the left (A, C) are consistent with critical thinking and a deep approach to studying, the questions on the right (B, D) suggest the opposite. Some questions were taken or adapted from the Learning and Studying Questionnaire and the Experiences of Teaching and Learning Questionnaire (Hounsell et al., 2005).

Fig. 8A

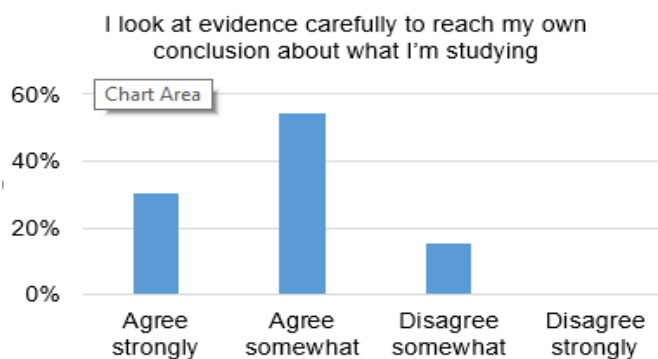


Fig. 8B



Fig.8C

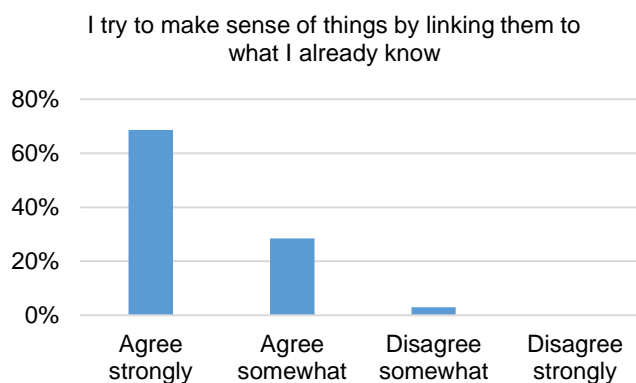
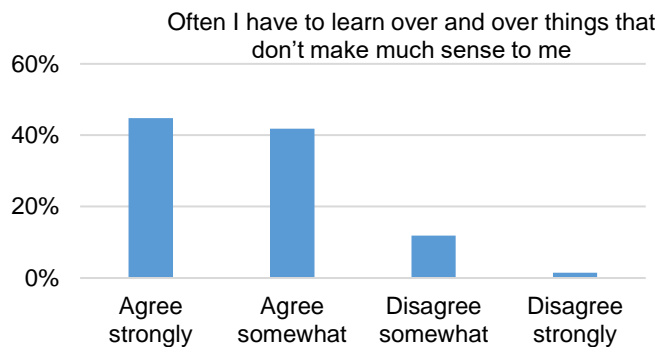


Fig.8D



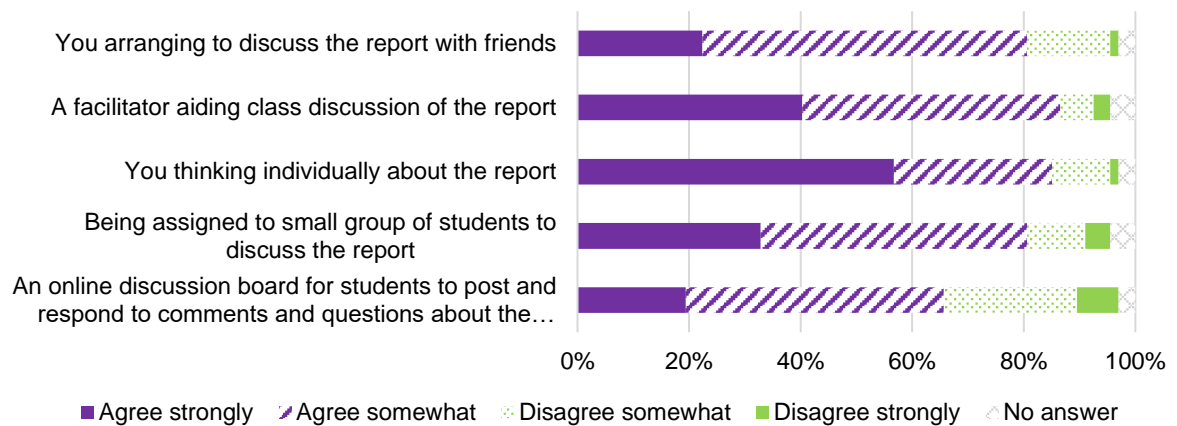
Students generally agree that individual, group, staff-facilitated and self-directed activities would all help them to develop critical evaluation skills

Participants were asked to rate the extent to which they agreed various approaches would be valuable if they were proposing to critically evaluate a scientific research report. Individual and group approaches were suggested, with a variety of self-directed and guided, and online and face-to-face, learning. The aim was to determine whether participants showed a clear preference for one type of activity, although it would not be possible to discern whether participants rated the activities according to whether they would enjoy them rather than to their anticipated educational value. Fig. 9 shows that all the suggested activities were favourably received. Individual reflection received the most positive rating, with 58.5% of students strongly agreeing that this would be a useful approach. However, the majority of students appeared to recognise that working individually would only take them so far, and that group approaches would also be valuable. If

the 'agree strongly' and 'agree somewhat' scores are combined, the most highly-favoured option is 'a facilitator aiding class discussion of the report' at 90.6%. The online discussion board received the lowest percentage of students strongly agreeing that this would be useful (20%).

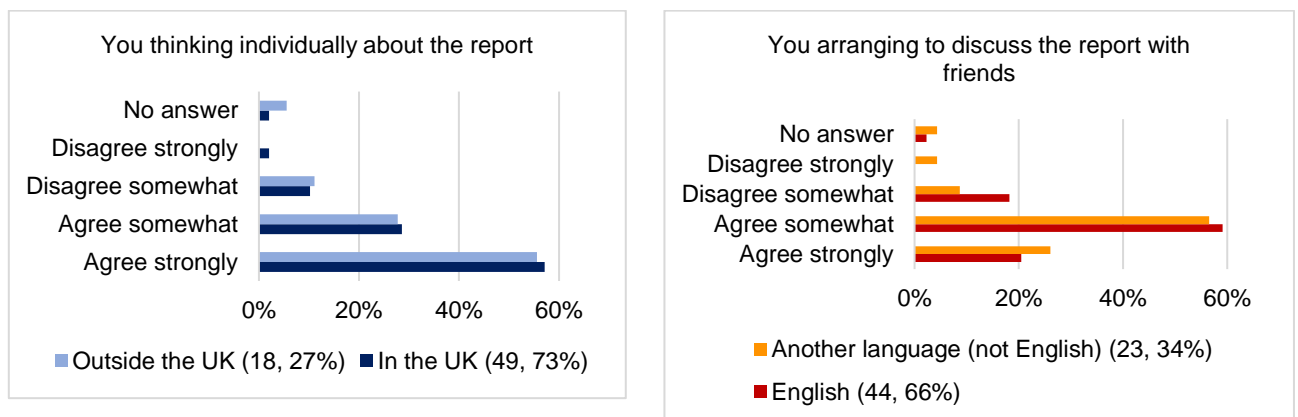
Fig. 9 Students are largely in agreement that a variety of approaches would help them practise their critical thinking skills. The stacked bars show the percentage of participants selecting each of the four categories (agree/disagree strongly/somewhat). Combining the scores for 'agree strongly' and 'agree somewhat', the greatest percentage in favour is for 'a facilitator aiding class discussion of the report' (90.6%). 'You thinking individually about the report' gains the highest 'strongly agree' score (58.5%).

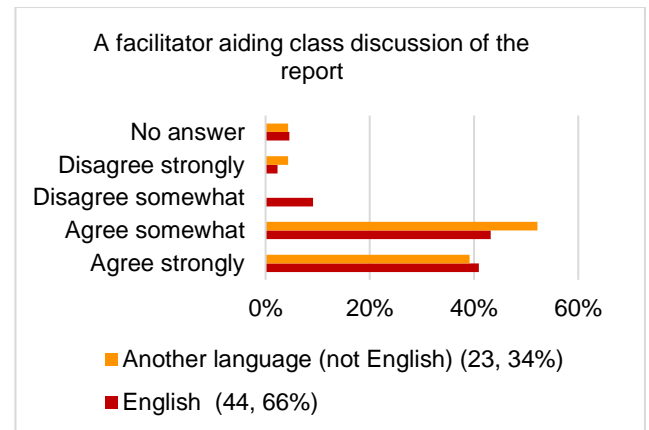
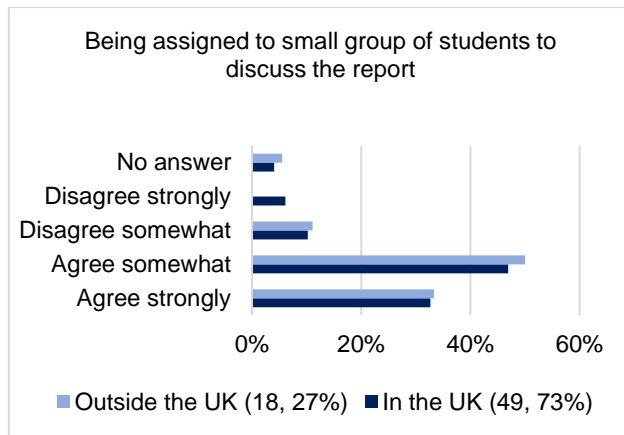
Fig.9



Splitting the data did not reveal any differences in preference between home and international students; the response rates were remarkably similar no matter how the data were split (Fig. 10). A variety of approaches is therefore likely to be well received.

Fig.10 Location of prior education, native language, and language of education have almost no effect on students' perception of different learning activities. Four examples of splitting the overall data are shown. The patterns of rating each activity on the scale from 'agree strongly' to 'disagree strongly' are consistent, no matter how the responses are split.





Study Limitations

As a pilot study, the number of participants is obviously small, and any subdivision of responses along native language or other lines reduces the numbers further (Table 1, Fig. 1). As some students will always segregate together (e.g. native English-speaking students educated in the UK, through the medium of English, will always be in the same group), the differences observed when splitting the data along different lines were anticipated to be small, and combined with the small sample overall it would not be meaningful to attempt any statistical analysis. The rationale for including students at different academic levels and on different programmes was partly to increase the sample size, however this does complicate analysis of the findings. Ideally, several large groups would be sampled and compared, with each group culturally distinct from the others but internally homogeneous. However, this was not feasible with the local student population. As with any optional questionnaire, there exists selection bias in which students choose to participate. In this case, students who lack confidence in their critical thinking skills may simply have not completed the questionnaire, and their responses might well have been different from those who did participate (Bell 2005).

Response bias is another complicating factor, as participants may (consciously or subconsciously) give the answers they believe are correct rather than those that reflect their actual beliefs. Students were informed that the aim of the study was to investigate perceptions of critical thinking, and that the views of international and exchange students were welcome. This knowledge may have influenced results, if some participants responded according to how they felt someone from their background 'should' (stereotypically) respond (discussed in Smith 2006). The questionnaire was in English, which may have placed non-native speakers at a disadvantage. Other unknown personal factors, such as age and experiences outside education, are likely to also influence participants' understanding of critical thinking and may have been responsible for the differences observed between L3 and L5/L6 students (e.g. Fig. 5). Finally, all the students invited to participate were familiar with me through my various academic and administrative roles. This knowledge may have influenced whether students chose to participate, and they may also have responded differently if the same questionnaire was from an objective outsider. This positions me as an insider researcher (Robson 2002). The pilot study must therefore be interpreted in the light of these caveats.

Conclusions

A key aim of this pilot was to establish whether home and international students have different perceptions of critical thinking, drawn from the student population enrolled in a School of Biosciences. Splitting the data in four ways, by location of education, native language, language

of education, and level of education, was anticipated to be the most effective way to reveal any possible differences, and to be of more value than splitting the responses by course or home/international status. Although the sample is small, some interesting observations can be made. Firstly, the students who completed the questionnaire have a good understanding of critical thinking (Fig. 2-5), and in the *Measuring My Critical Thinking* test although the complete range from 'beginning' to 'accomplished' was represented, 'competent' was most frequently chosen (Fig. 6). These findings are encouraging, although it does not necessarily follow that the students would be able to act on their understanding, for example by effectively critically analysing a scientific paper. The questionnaire was a forced choice format, so respondents had only to select a response rather than construct their own. Recognition is a lower-level cognitive skill than crafting one's own response (Ku 2009), which may have led to participants over-estimating their critical thinking skills. The apparently contradictory responses to some of the questions regarding approaches to learning and studying (Fig. 8) also indicate that there is no straightforward relationship between critical thinking and broader academic skills, which was not investigated on an individual level for the pilot study. To have more confidence in students' perceptions of critical thinking, and their critical thinking abilities, it would be useful to include open-ended responses, individual face-to-face interviews, or an authentic critical thinking exercise such as utilised by Addy et al. (2014). Ku (2009) argues that a multi-response format is the most effective method of evaluating critical thinking, and there is also evidence that students gain more from subject-specific tests than from generic ones (Renaud and Murray 2008). These considerations will be addressed in a follow-up study.

The starting point for this pilot was that international and exchange students may have a different perception of critical thinking to that of home students (with no presumption that either group was at a deficit). However, splitting the questionnaire responses revealed no stark differences in perceptions of critical thinking between groups of students that could be clearly linked to origins, native language, or language of education. Other influences, such as the student's educational level, may in fact be more important. This suggests that international students (those who participated) do not require a separate approach towards teaching critical thinking skills. This is in line with current thinking that carefully aligned teaching and assessment will be inclusive for all students, irrespective of home or international status, or indeed of other differences such as part-time status or disability (e.g. Grace and Gravestock 2009). However, subtler differences may not have been revealed by the particular questions asked. Different reasoning or interpretation of the questions could also have led to similar responses. These variations might be uncovered if a different approach was used, such as interviews. It is also of note that the majority of participants were from Western educational backgrounds, even those who had been educated outside the UK in languages other than English. Only 7.9% of participants were from non-Western backgrounds (Table 1), and none of these were from the Confucian Heritage Cultures linked (if largely incorrectly) with non-critical thinking, or from cultures previously reported to have a distinct understanding of critical thinking (e.g. Egege and Kutieleh 2004; Valiente 2008). Coupled with the selection bias, there may indeed have been no substantial differences in perceptions of critical thinking among the pilot study participants. This does not preclude there being challenges in facilitating a mixed international student cohort to develop critical thinking skills.

Although the conclusions from a pilot are necessarily tentative, it is encouraging that the vast majority (92.6%) of students agreed that critical thinking is a necessary life skill, not just for academic study, and that all students appeared amenable to group work and class discussion in acquisition of these skills (Fig. 9 and 10). As discussed elsewhere, being part of a diverse multicultural group is beneficial to student learning (e.g. Fortuijn 2002), but students need support and guidance if they are to interact in a meaningful way and benefit from this diversity (Leask 2009), which in turn means staff need to be engaged in the process (Leask 2013). Ultimately the advantages of a diverse international cohort could be utilised to the benefit of all students in

developing critical thinking skills, as well as in preparing them to enter a globalised employment market.

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Chapter 3: What does internationalisation mean at a disciplinary level? Some critical reflections on the design and delivery of an international perspectives module involving final year undergraduate Sports Education students

David Hindley¹

Introduction

As Dunne (2011) observes, one of the greatest challenges associated with the practical implementation of an intercultural curriculum lies in the ambiguity of terminology. Consequently, a discernible starting point for this paper is to attempt to make sense of what Richardson (2016) pertinently describes 'a confusion of terms'. Internationalisation in the context of higher education (HE) is not a new concept, but is one that has attracted considerable debate and multiple interpretations. A frequently cited working definition was proposed by Knight (2004: 11) who identified the term as "the process of integrating an international, intercultural, or global dimension into the purpose, functions or delivery of post-secondary education". Crucially, how and to what extent this can be operationalised may vary considerably, prompting Leask and Carroll (2011) to appeal for greater reflective practice that encourages discussion and dialogue regarding effective internationalisation interventions. Evidently, there is a need to reflect upon the process of exploring and making explicit the meaning of internationalisation - and the interrelated concept of internationalisation of the curriculum² – particularly at a disciplinary level. As Caruana (2010:30) asserts, "... internationalisation is not a clearly defined, absolute set of 'best practices'" but rather a nuanced construct which is highly context specific. In other words, internationalisation will be manifest in different ways depending upon disciplinary perspectives, whether it is viewed from an academic or administrative stance, from an institutional, faculty or department vantage point or from staff, student, employer and other stakeholder perspectives'. This has not prohibited, however, numerous HE institutions from making increasingly bold statements about the graduate capabilities, global citizenship and intercultural competencies, of their students through internationalisation of the curriculum (Leask and Bridge 2013). Conversely, whilst internationalisation has taken on buzzword status in higher education, Knight (2006) maintains that what this means with regards curriculum content and the pedagogical approaches used is poorly understood, while approaches have been piecemeal and reactive rather than coherent and holistic (Barnett and Coate 2005). Raimo (2013) meanwhile in his review of university strategies discovered that whilst more than half mentioned internationalisation of the curriculum and/or activities to internationalise the student experience at home, there was little evidence of university-wide initiatives to internationalise the domestic student experience, or the curriculum, in a systematic way.

For the purposes of this paper, the 'sister' concept of internationalisation at home (IaH) also requires explanation. Broadly speaking, the term refers to the acquisition of cross-cultural skills, knowledge and attitudes by students who are studying at university campuses in their home country, and is based on the assumption that the vast majority will not be internationally mobile.

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² For the purposes of this paper, internationalisation of the curriculum was defined as 'the incorporation of an intercultural dimension into the content of the curriculum as well as the teaching and learning arrangements and support services of a program of study (Leask 2009:209).

The IaH movement, which has grown in prominence in recent years, can be traced back to a position paper by Crowther et al. (2000). In light of this, the 'international classroom' is considered to be an important strategy, with home and international students, and staff actively involved in interaction (Harrison and Peacock 2010). At this juncture, however, it is worthwhile emphasising that in this specific case study, whilst a small proportion of the undergraduate student population do engage in overseas placement opportunities³, cultural and ethnic diversity is conspicuous by its absence on the combined honours degree.

Internationalisation features prominently in the 2015-2020 Strategic Plan of Nottingham Trent University, where 'Connecting Globally' is identified as one of its five ambitions. This is manifest in a range of approaches, ranging from an aspiration to expand the numbers of international students to stimulate a vibrant multinational learning community, to promoting an internationalised curriculum, which can help students to acquire an international perspective needed to succeed in the global community. To this end, all undergraduate courses are required to integrate comparative international curriculum content, and reform curriculum structures to facilitate greater international mobility. This move towards developing an internationally oriented curriculum at an institutional level, provides the distinctive context for this paper, which seeks to consider and reflect upon the practical implications of this. As Luxon and Peelo (2009: 51) contend, "for internationalisation to have real meaning, teaching and learning must be made explicit and brought to the forefront of the discussion". What are the challenges and opportunities for HEIs, teachers and students of increased student mobility? How can this drive towards internationalising the curriculum shape imaginative and creative approaches to teaching, learning and assessment; course design and delivery, and transcultural and transnational courses and partnerships? An equally important and related question is 'Internationalisation for whom?', underlining the concern to ensure that such developments benefit both home and international students (Davidson 2009).

According to Leask and Bridge (2013: 80), teaching teams are the "primary architects of much of the curriculum" and as such, it is imperative they are actively involved in the process of internationalisation of the curriculum. Moreover, as Luxon and Peelo (2009) discern, increasing numbers of non-UK staff are teaching within the UK as well as academics who have spent time in a different country, bringing with them different cultural experiences. Conversely, it has been argued that many academic staff lack a coherent understanding of what internationalising the curriculum means, or hold a perception that this is not their concern (Knight 2006; Stohl 2007). Therefore, while the term internationalisation is in common use, there is a need to interrogate its specific implications for teaching and learning. As de Haan and Sherry (2012: 25) proclaim: "as academics, we can review the definitions and come to terms with the terminology, we can buy into the significance of internationalisation, and we can place all of this into the context of our subject-specific discipline. We may be engaged and enthusiastic, yet at the same time clueless as to the actual execution. What do I actually do in my classroom and does it make a difference to the student experience?" It is to these crucial, practical questions that we shall now turn.

Internationalising the Sports Education curriculum

The internationalisation of a discipline is undeniably complicated and, as a number of commentators have identified, some disciplines lend themselves to internationalisation more readily than others (Leask and Bridge 2013; Luxon and Peelo 2009). Intriguingly, there is relatively little in the way of guidance at the level of curriculum content (HEA 2014) although this is not to downplay the growing amount of work currently being undertaken. Ostensibly, internationalising

³ In 2014/15 from 209 students enrolled in the second year, 11 undertook their placement overseas (5.26%). In 2015/16 this figure rose from 20 students out of 244 (8.19%). The international destinations were diverse, ranging from Austria, Canada and Sweden to South Africa, Malawi and China.

the curriculum entails noticeably more than the addition of a few international examples, but rather, according to Webb (2005: 111) "is more radical and refers to the integration of a global perspective to curriculum development. This means that content does not arise out of a single cultural base but engages with global plurality in terms of sources of knowledge".

To a greater extent the Sports Education curriculum is both embryotic and multidisciplinary in nature, cutting across a range of perspectives, including the study of sport sociology, sport history, sport economics, sports development, and sport policy, whilst in the context of internationalising the curriculum, Sports Education is an internationally relevant subject area. This is reflected in the burgeoning literature in this field (for example, Routledge has its own 'Sport in the Global Society' series) as well as commentators acknowledging the importance of viewing sport through a global lens: "the march towards global sport has meant that the processes associated with globalisation have placed questions of identity centre stage in terms of explaining the importance of sport to those countries" (Jarvie 2006: 286). Masteralexis and McDonald (1997: 106) identify the need for undergraduate education programmes to recognise sport's movement into an increasingly globalised environment, urging academics and students to view the discipline with a more international focus by "keeping abreast of global sport issues to infuse a more global perspective into their courses". However, as de Haan and Sherry (2012: 29) acknowledge, attempts to internationalise the curriculum most commonly entailed incorporating international examples in lectures, followed by class-based discussions on international issues.

The following case study provides a reflective account of developing and implementing a final year module – International Perspectives in Sport and Physical Education - specifically designed to internationalise an aspect of the Sports Education curriculum. It is worthy of note that although the undergraduate course already contained some international content, our students – like those mentioned in de Haan and Sherry's (2012) study - tended to be nationally focused in their discussions and career aspirations, and often lacked wider international awareness. Thus, the primary objective at the outset was to embed an international perspective and cultural appreciation in a classroom setting, and as a result help make our students more cognisant of broader, global issues. Whilst, as noted previously, the institution had increasingly placed an emphasis on an internationalised curriculum, the teaching team involved had no previous experience of implementing the latter.

Drawing on a review by Black (2004: 7), in which she cites the published guidance from Oxford Brookes University for adding international dimensions to curricula, this included (amongst others) the following: referring to international research; applying theory in an international context; using international material in case studies and other assignments; using small group discussions of international aspects; and requiring the demonstration of international knowledge in assessments. This selective list addresses some of the ways in which the curriculum can be internationalised in relation to staff, students, content of teaching, and attitudes of both staff and students. One recurring theme that can be inferred from the list is the need for teaching staff to be continually developed in international terms (Black 2004).

A textbook edited by Nicholson, Hoyer and Houlihan (2010) provided both a focus and an analytical framework for the *International Perspectives* module. The aforementioned publication gathered contributions from across Europe, South Africa, Asia, Australasia, and North America, with each case study chapter summarising the national structure and culture of sport, an analysis of any identifiable participation patterns and trends, and a discussion on the nature and efficacy of government policy interventions. From a teaching perspective the approach adopted by Nicholson *et al.* (2010) directly informed the structure and content of the lecture programme within the module, as well as providing a vehicle for discussing a range of issues from an international perspective. However, as Black (2004) delineates, although the application of international material or the introduction of a case study focus can develop a certain degree of

internationalisation of the curriculum, the consideration of curriculum content alone is insufficient.

Within the teaching team at NTU, there was a willingness to move the discussion beyond purely the pages of a textbook or policy documents, to increase both academic and student involvement. To this end, and drawing upon the work of Raimond and Halliburton (1995), there was a belief that international teaching staff are necessary to support internationalisation of the curriculum. We were fortunate, therefore, that one of the module tutors is Portuguese, whereas other colleagues could draw upon first-hand experience of conducting research in a number of countries overseas, including North America, Canada, Hong Kong and the Caribbean.

To help promote student engagement within the international context, we took as a starting point an assumption that a majority of students employ a strategic approach to studying which is motivated by work that is explicitly linked to achievement, and thus agreed upon a staged model of formative and summative assessment. In short, students were asked to submit a written comparison (3,000 words) of two case study countries, utilising the structure constructed by Nicholson et al. (2010) to frame the analysis. This summative assessment would in turn be informed by their contributions in the series of World Café seminars, where each student would at the beginning of the module be allocated (at random) a specific nation-state to explore as part of their café host role. A specific requirement of this was to prepare a PechaKucha⁴ presentation on their designated country. Finally, to further encourage active engagement in the World Café, students were informed that their contribution to the small group conversations would also inform their final grade. The latter – whilst difficult for the tutor to formally assess - was a conscious attempt to promote both a sense of group identity and collegiality, as well as wishing to counteract any potential attempts by non-engaged students to only attend the World Café when designated host. Our attention will now turn to the World Café methodology, its underpinning principles, and how these were employed in practice to encourage students to reflect upon internationalisation in a sport context.

The World Café model

The World Café is a constructivist style of teaching, where participants engage in a series of small group conversations with the intent of transforming individual understanding into something collective and more valuable (Prewitt 2011). Underpinning this philosophy is the conviction that the best ideas and solutions often occur in relaxed environments (for example, in a coffee shop or whilst waiting for a bus) outside of formal structures (Estacio and Karic 2015). The World Café attempts to recreate this informal setting within a structured conversation that focuses on key questions or trigger statements that are thought provoking and relevant to the participants (Anderson 2015). Whilst this method has been employed in a variety of settings, Estacio and Karic (2015) purport the usefulness of the World Café for facilitating reflections on internationalisation, as it encourages a diversity of perspectives as well as enabling participants from different cultural backgrounds to engage. It is noteworthy however that much of the literature and associated resources champion the café methodology, rather than articulating potential pitfalls and the difficulties of creating a successful experience (Prewitt 2011). What follows is a brief description of how the principles for hosting a World Café were adapted for the purposes of the IPSPE module.

The first principle, according to Brown (2002) is to create hospitable space. This is a characteristic unique to the approach, with the goal of creating a relaxing and inviting environ where participants should feel at ease, and trusting communication is able to thrive. To this end room

⁴ PechaKucha is a presentation style characterised by a carefully planned, automatically timed sequence of twenty 20-second slides (or 20 x 20). Described as ‘the art of concise presentations’, PechaKuchas are short (6:40), visually rich, story-based presentations (Lucas and Rawlins 2015).

layout and décor were considered important, with circular tables adorned with plastic wine glasses, candles, and disposable paper tablecloths. Whilst this contributed to the informality and café-like atmosphere, participants were encouraged to write, doodle and draw on the table cloths (as well as on sticky notes that were provided) to capture important conversation points, as well as recording their own thoughts and ideas, which could be shared by everyone. Some students extended the café methodology to bringing in refreshments - typically food and drink commonly thought to be national delicacies - that were shared during the group discussions, as well as decorating their designated table with cultural symbols such as the national flag and iconic scenes.

The second principle, 'explore questions that matter', stresses the need for the conversations to be framed around issues that are of interest and relevance to the participants. This places a significant responsibility on the café hosts, needing to carefully craft a range of meaningful trigger questions or statements that are able to provoke discussion, challenge assumptions, and help to generate a collection of ideas. In order to help support and facilitate this, one of the *International Perspectives* module team would meet with the designated hosts in a small group tutorial a week prior to the session to share ideas, as well as reflect upon the previous week's World Café to discuss what worked and what did not. As Prewitt (2011: 191) observes "the work of hosting a café is similar to preparing for a successful seminar. The most crucial efforts are invisible to the guests since they are performed before the participants arrive". Thus, failure to invest sufficient time, detail and energy into formulating the questions may produce, as Prewitt (2011: 196) observes, "a lacklustre and disappointing experience".

'Encourage each person's contribution' is the third principle. Here it is worth noting that under different circumstances – for example, a 'traditional' discussion-based seminar that is predicated on all learners having read a preparatory article – some participants may not feel comfortable or well-equipped to engage in dialogue. However, because the World Café methodology is focused on listening, exploring and sharing a diversity of perspectives, participants are able to voice their opinions in a safe forum where all views are valued (Estacio and Karic 2015). It is worth remembering that not all learners contribute in a way that may be considered by others to be meaningful (Prewitt 2011). That said, it was the author's experience that those who usually held back in seminars were more engaged. Predictably however, there were occasions when the café was unsuccessful in cultivating an atmosphere of dialogue, and the hosts' questions failed to engage participants in focused conversation. This would often result in the café host endeavouring to improvise and generate new questions or statements to reinvigorate the discussion.

The fourth and fifth principles are linked directly to those of dialogue. Participants are encouraged to 'connect diverse people and ideas' as well as 'listen together for patterns, insights and deeper questions'. As group exchanges evolve during the World Café, collective patterns of meaning and reflection also emerge. At the end of each round of discussion, it is the role of the café hosts to engage in what Brown (2002) describes as "conversation of the whole". This provides the whole group with an opportunity to discover deeper themes or questions, which in turn underwrites the value of collaborative learning.

The final principle, 'make collective knowledge visible' exhibits the creative methods employed to encourage participants to note down ideas, doodle and draw as an added component of the group conversations. In addition, at the end of each World Café each café host was tasked with giving a short presentation in an attempt to summarise the main issues that emerged from the small group conversations.

Reflecting the work of Prewitt (2011), whilst remaining an advocate of the World Café methodology and recognising its usefulness for reflecting upon internationalisation, the author has learned from observation, and trial and error, that successfully applying the principles in practice can be more challenging than it would on the surface appear.

Concluding reflections

Amid all the ambiguity of terminology outlined at the beginning of the paper, one certainty is that designing, implementing and assessing an internationalised curriculum represents a significant challenge (Dunne 2011). From an academic perspective, and with no prior experiences to draw upon, this attempt at internationalising the curriculum practically proved to be a challenge, and a particularly time-consuming one. As noted, in the absence of an institutional process or what Knight (1996) terms an 'infusion' approach to internationalisation, we developed a classroom-level intervention. This model could, conceivably, be adapted and applied to other disciplines. The student feedback collected at the end of the module meanwhile, appears to demonstrate a greater appreciation of international sport-related issues, as well as enjoyment of the World Café method. This is evidenced by the following representative quotations:

I found the World Café approach refreshing, interesting and fun. It was great to be able to interact more with peers through the round table discussions.

The restructuring of the seminars was particularly beneficial to my academic development, working to my strengths in discussions, and allowing myself to articulate various concepts.

I really enjoyed the World Café seminars. I think they're interesting and interactive. It's a great way to learn about different cultures.

I really value being more globally aware of sport and different countries' approaches to sport.

In general, the student feedback was positive, believing the World Café to be an effective method for enabling reflections on internationalisation in relation to sport. By facilitating discussions in an informal and inviting environment, this method can encourage contributions from students that typically are less engaged in a more traditional academic seminar. As presented above, students were able to contribute in a variety of ways, such as through the round-table discussions, drawing on the table cloths and using the sticky notes that were provided. The World Café recognises that not all participants feel comfortable speaking openly in front of their peers (Estacio and Karic 2015); as such, generating collective insights in multiple ways can enable participants to engage with the international issues in a manner in which they feel most comfortable.

As eluded to earlier, the World Café method is not without its challenges. Some students in their written feedback noted a degree of repetition towards the closing stages of the module. Moreover, the success of the World Café as a collective learning experience places a significant amount of responsibility on the café hosts, and a failure to adequately prepare questions or trigger statements that help participants explore new ideas and challenge their own assumptions, can instead lead to conversations going off-topic. As Prewitt (2011: 198) asserts "if the generative questions are wrong, the sponsor risks losing what little control a host has over the group dialogue process".

On reflection and when probed, the teaching team also noted an uneasiness with some of the approaches that were being employed in the World Café. To what extent does the module really develop students' awareness of international and intercultural issues that we were seeking to foster? For example, was there a danger that by using national symbols, and bringing along delicacies, our students were merely perpetuating crude, reductionist, cultural stereotypes? Furthermore, the term 'culture' itself is elusive and not unproblematic. As Davidson (2009: 1) questions "when considering culture and how it should be defined, who is it that decides the rules of any culture, and who legitimately represents a culture?".

A number of students experienced frustration, bemoaning the lack of robust data on mass physical activity for their chosen nation, acknowledging that the definitions of participation and even of sport can vary, and were changed by researchers and politicians alike so that little longitudinal or comparable data was available. Similarly, the quality and quantity of available research and academic literature on individual nation's sporting structures and cultures varied considerably. This in itself, from a tutor perspective, proved to be a valuable experience, which the students were encouraged to reflect upon within their summative assignment. Nevertheless, these experiences have prompted the teaching team to consider recording 'guest lectures' by international members of staff, which will focus on the specific aspects of the case study framework identified by Nicholson *et al.* (2010). These will also be beneficial should any future changes to the teaching team result in having no international members.

It should also be noted that the feedback obtained from the External Examiner has been hugely positive, commending the teaching team on their attempts to help provide students with greater intercultural awareness. He remarked:

...international comparisons can be quite tricky as they are often engaging in sporting cultures that are unfamiliar to the student. But the merit that comes through the essays is that this pushes them out of their comfort zone and genuinely teaches something that they would not be familiar with, meaning that knowledge has been expanded. In a globalised world, this knowledge can be very useful in the workplace.

In summary, the results of this case study emphasise that there are potential benefits to classroom-level intervention in an attempt to internationalise the curriculum. The illustrative example provided has identified positive student feedback, and we would certainly conclude that there was no evidence of any negative effects to the learning experience of these final year students. However, in accordance with Black (2004), this example has highlighted that internationalisation of a course can occur to a certain extent through embedding international teaching materials and developing international case studies, but the consideration of curriculum content alone is inadequate to truly facilitate international awareness contemporaneously with the characteristics required of a globally aware graduate.

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Chapter 4: The Benefits and Challenges of Embedding Intercultural Competencies into the Postgraduate Research Provision

Alun DeWinter ¹

Introduction

Internationalisation plays a significant role in the contemporary Higher Education (HE) landscape. Although the term 'internationalisation' presents a number of issues due to the lack of a single specific definition, it is generally accepted that activities, such as international mobility, gaining skills in intercultural competence and developing global citizenship, should be included as part of institutional agendas. Internationalisation activities are increasingly expected from Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) and provide a multitude of benefits to students - not only throughout their time in education, but through to employment and longer-term careers (HEA 2016). International activity has been increasingly normalised in Undergraduate and Postgraduate Taught programmes, with institutional agendas seeing the embedding of intercultural competencies within the classroom, through extra-curricular activities and years abroad. Similarly, we can see an increasing focus on internationalisation within academic research, with international collaboration being significantly boosted through pan-state initiatives such as HORIZON 2020. However, the internationalisation of Postgraduate Research (PGR) programmes remains an area that is under researched and under emphasised, both in literature and in practice. This is compounded by the continued use of generalised terms, such as 'internationalisation' and 'intercultural competences' compound these issues, creating an unclear picture of what form internationalisation could and should take at the PGR level of study. Drawing from existing literature and a case study of Coventry University's experience of operating the 'Global Researchers Programme' (GRP) since 2015, this chapter explores the nature of embedding intercultural competencies into the PGR provision as well as its benefits and the challenges. As part of its current corporate plan, Coventry University adopted a comprehensive internationalisation strategy, which reinforces the university's aspiration to be a truly global university through the expansion of facilities and partnerships overseas whilst offering a wide-ranging menu of international activities to all students (Coventry University Online 2016).

Clarifying Interculturalism in the wider context of internationalisation

Internationalisation is a key consideration for HEIs in the United Kingdom. With Britain holding the mantle of being the second most popular destination for international students in the world, there has been a staggering sector-wide increase in the number of overseas students over the past decade, with numbers rising by 63% between 2003 and 2013 (Universities UK 2016). Operating in such a globalised environment, it is therefore logical that most universities in the United Kingdom have developed specific internationalisation agendas and adjusted corporate plans to coincide with Higher Education's shift towards producing global graduates in a globalised world.

Internationalisation is a multi-faceted concept that has become commonplace within the parlance of the higher education landscape. Internationalisation takes on many forms and so can be interpreted in a multitude of ways; some argue that the term is simply a buzzword, used as an

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insubstantial attempt to add value to the educational experience and that the benefits are not fully comprehended by students or even staff (Jurgens and Robbins-O'Connell 2008). Indeed, the term 'internationalisation' is problematic in that it has no single definition and instead covers a multitude of different activities, ranging from business development and business operation to student-focussed activity and the embedding of interculturalism into the curriculum. This chapter primarily focuses on the concept of internationalisation in the form of student gain through intercultural educational, global citizenship and up-skilling through mobility and other enhancement activities.

A significant part of the wider international education agenda is driven by profit, achieved through a growth in student numbers and increased teaching activity. Stier (2006: 4) refers to this as an *instrumentalist* approach, which sees internationalisation a commodity or as a tool for income generation. As part of this, overseas student numbers, student mobility and the development of intercultural competences are pursued in 'money-generating contexts' and not always with the needs of the learner in mind. Although this can form part of a rounded and sustainable approach, we have seen at least one high-profile failure in relation to using internationalisation (in its widest sense) as an instrument for profit, with the University of Central Lancashire suffering a multi-million pound loss on its overseas campus in Sri Lanka and United Nations concerns over the location of a campus in Cyprus (Morgan 2014). This is an extreme example, but serves as a warning as to the pitfalls of an aggressively money-driven internationalisation agenda.

On the other hand, an *educationalist* approach to internationalisation places "personal or societal value of learning itself", thereby putting the learner before profit (Stier 2006: 5). This is preferable in terms of adding real value to a student's experience and the Higher Education Academy (HEA 2014: 2) notes that one of the key purposes of internationalisation is the enhancement of education - "Preparing 21st century graduates to live in and contribute responsibly to a globally interconnected society". Stier (2006), however, warns against using internationalisation as a 'wonder cure' to create 'self-righteous' educators and graduates – internationalisation efforts must, therefore, be tied to 'reality' (in terms of employability and practical applications) and be financially sustainable, supported by an end goal (*ibid*). With this in mind, a balanced approach to internationalisation appears to be preferable - one that is based in practical educational learning but also provides the sustainable infrastructure and finances to support internationalisation. Although the premise and context of this chapter is largely from an educationalist perspective, therefore, it does not outright discount the more pragmatic instrumentalist view – it is certainly not sustainable nor feasible to run international activity without a budget nor a stable means to run intercultural related experiences.

As with internationalisation in general, the approach to embedding internationalisation into the curriculum (IoC) can also take on a number of different guises. On the most basic level, the presence of international students in the classroom creates a rudimentary foundation for IoC, but only at the level of multicultural engagement as opposed to deeper an intercultural understanding. This differentiation is important as a multicultural classroom with a diverse student body alone is not sufficient, but does help to familiarise students with one of the fundamental tenets of IoC - the fostering of familiarity, co-operation and globally outward looking behaviours in students (Spiteri 2016: 136). Interculturalism and intercultural competences arguably go further through the fostering and deepening of cultural understanding, cultural dialogue and the nurturing of mutual understanding between different peoples in order to build relationships of trust and to reduce stereotypes and prejudice (Ewington *et al.* 2009). Intercultural competences focus on interaction and reflection and, as such, can be linked to the development of advanced cognitive skills, including the ability to understand different perspectives and to adjust perceptions accordingly (Breuning 2007). Going beyond this, the interculturalist approach should always aim to instil a broad willingness to work with a diverse range of people in a global context through a

strengthening of emotional intelligence and an increased empathy for others (Alred, Byram and Flemming 2006).

Intercultural competences and wider notions of global citizenship provide students with skillsets that go far beyond the classroom. Through the before-mentioned promotion of equality, tolerance and adaptability and a commitment to social responsibility, individuals who develop intercultural competences are also empowered to challenge stereotypes and have a strengthened ability to detect and deal with misinformation, propaganda and spin (Oxfam 2013). Such skills and competences are desirable across the job market, regardless of whether or not a student has obtained a bachelors, masters or research degree. It is therefore reasonable to relate the intercultural skillset with the other major trend in higher education – employability. Jones (2013) argues that intercultural competences are inextricably linked to employability and that HEIs in general have ignored the former for too long, with universities instead opting for global reach as opposed to instilling international skillsets into the student population. This again links us back to the notion that universities need to balance an instrumentalist approach to internationalisation with an educationalist approach through the embedding of crucial intercultural competences into the student population through internationalisation of the curriculum.

Having defined internationalisation in the form of intercultural competences and associated higher reasoning skills, we will now move on to explore how these might be embedded into student facing activity at the PGR level and the challenges that this poses to providers of Higher Education.

Embedding Intercultural Competences

If we accept that embedding intercultural competences into the curriculum is useful in the HE landscape, the focus falls onto how this might be achieved. A significant amount of literature exists on this topic, with prominent authors such as Leask and Deardorff suggesting that the concepts of intercultural learning, global awareness and global citizenship need to be embedded into taught curricula (Deardorff 2006). Deardorff (2011) goes further and argues that intercultural competencies are critical to a student's future attainment in a global world. Such competences are generally measured in a pragmatic fashion, normally associated with measurable outputs such as degree and employment outcome (Grudzinski-Hall *et al.* 2007).

Despite widespread study on interculturalism, embedding such competencies undeniably presents a challenge to universities and other HE providers. Students are already stretched with balancing other 'added extras' such as employability into their study and assessments are already overcrowded with a wide range of criteria. Similarly, for staff, embedding intercultural competences into curricula and assessments is not always easy and requires transformative change at an institutional level. Higher education institutions require trained and motivated staff to deliver internationalisation of the curriculum and facilitating this requires leadership, resources and a supportive institutional culture. Although it will ultimately fall upon student-facing staff to implement such activities, academic staff are pressed for time and resources and have wider issues such as the Research Excellence Framework (REF) and the Teaching Excellence Framework (TEF) to consider, before the inclusion of intercultural competences into their teaching. This position is worsened by the fact that students often view 'soft skills' as unnecessary and therefore fail to recognise the role added extras such as Intercultural Competences (ICC) can play in their future careers (Chalmers and Partridge 2012).

Coventry University has adopted a whole-institutional approach to internationalisation of the curriculum, aspiring to be a 'dynamic, global, enterprising university'. The University's international targets are far-reaching, aiming to offer all students some form of international experience by 2021 and for at least 80% of staff to be internationally engaged across the same

time period. Internationalisation may take the form of physical mobility through field trips or years abroad or may take place at home in the form of cultural workshops or learning a language. Every taught course has an international element that requires students to acquire intercultural skills, global issues or to engage with Online International Learning (OIL) in partnership with other universities across the globe.

In order to achieve these goals, Coventry University established a centralised Centre for Global Engagement (CGE) to co-ordinate activity and collate university data. Supporting the managerial top-down approach to embedding intercultural competences, the CGE brought together several different initiatives from across the university, including Linguae Mundi (language courses), Culturae Mundi (cultural activities), Erasmus mobility, international field trips, UK Work Experience and the Global Leaders Programme. This centralised offering supported a coherent, bottom-up approach by working with staff members to enhance curricula across the campus whilst offering a variety of added extras to students. This approach has helped to shine a spotlight on international mobility and intercultural education at the institution, with the Higher Education Statistics Agency data showing that Coventry University was the top overall provider for overseas student mobility in 2014/15 (HESA, cited in Coventry University 2016).

The CGE also helps to develop a second key element of this type of internationalisation: Progress and Reflection. Most academic research agrees that international mobility and the activities and workshops on intercultural competences are insufficient unless there is an intrinsic element of growth/progression and reflection to allow students to associate their knowledge and experiences with gains in practical learning. A reflective element also helps students link intercultural competences with notions of personal growth and enrichment (Breuning 2007).

Based upon the work of Deardorff (2006), Coventry University created its own model of progression that allows first year students to start at a basic level of intercultural awareness, through embedded activities, before moving on to more in-depth and advanced specialised activities in their final year (see Figure 1).



Figure 1. Intercultural Competency Wheel (CGE, 2014)

Through such a progression model, students can see the relevance and value of these activities and the importance of internationalisation can be embedded alongside study through the integration of subject learning and intercultural competences. This model, however, is

intrinsically tied to the notion of a set curriculum and students operating within the boundaries of a taught curriculum. This is all very well, but the language and assumptions associated with intercultural competences and ‘internationalisation of the curriculum’ can, inadvertently, exclude PGR students who do not universally follow a set taught programme.

The Postgraduate Research Student Identity Crisis

Postgraduate Research (PGR) students occupy an unusual space in the UK Higher Education landscape. There are far fewer students pursuing a PhD in comparison to taught degrees and the PhD qualification is far less regulated in comparison to taught courses. Even fewer students take up a masters by research (MRES) qualification. The latest available information from the Higher Education Funding Council for England shows that PGR student numbers consistently make up approximately a third of the postgraduate taught student numbers in England and Northern Ireland (HEFCE 2015). HEFCE also reports an overall decline in general postgraduate student numbers since 2010, but a concurrent increase in overseas postgraduate student numbers (HEFCE 2015). On a fundamental level, the available data shows that the nature of PGR is changing within the UK and it is necessary for universities to adapt in order to provide high-quality provisions for these students.

PGR students also have somewhat of an identity crisis in the UK, with institutions mostly considering people undertaking a research degree as students as opposed to being classified as staff, something which differs in comparison to European HEIs (Brown 2004). This presents a dilemma for institutions who are embedding internationalisation – PGR students need to have appropriately tailored activities for their level of study and it would not be realistic to adopt a ‘one size fits all’ approach in an attempt to cover undergraduate, postgraduate taught and postgraduate research students. However, while not classified as members of staff, many students will not be able to access the professional development opportunities as career researchers or lecturers. Compounding these issues, PGR students do not follow a specific curriculum and the journey from start to completion can vary wildly from student to student. Despite the increasing prevalence of more directed PhD study through doctoral training routes within the sector, the subjective and individualistic nature of undertaking a research degree perhaps goes a long way to explain why there are so few explicit projects and initiatives for the internationalisation of PGR study.

A further factor, is that PGR qualifications are traditionally perceived as mechanisms to start an academic career as a researcher or lecturer. Times have changed and the model of the traditional PhD is less relevant in a globalised era of austerity, tightened budgets and fewer stable academic positions in universities. Taylor (2011) calls for the whole system to be reconceived, needing “radical reforming” or shutting down completely. Arguing that curricular and institution change are needed to reform PGR programmes, Taylor calls for the embedding of cross-disciplinary skills and wider concepts of global citizenship to be adopted (*ibid*).

With the above in mind, it is strongly recommended that institutions review their approach to internationalisation and embedding intercultural competences into the curriculum in order to fully appeal to and adequately support PGR students. If we take the example of the wheel of progression (Figure 1), there are certainly elements that can be carried across from taught programmes to the arena of research qualifications, albeit with adjustments. As previously discussed, PGR students have radically different needs to undergraduate and postgraduate taught students and often do not want to have their research ‘interfered’ with in the face of undertaking a significant piece of research, often with tight turnaround times. The structure of research qualifications also does not easily lend itself to activities such as years abroad, unless students can find a suitable and relevant research project to work on that might contribute to their own thesis. Research students often wish to distance themselves from undergraduates after having already

completed their own bachelor degrees. HEIs must therefore use caution when designing activities and events for the internationalisation of the PGR provision, else they risk alienating students who would be the target of such initiatives.

How then, should internationalisation be approached and intercultural competences be embedded at PGR level? While there is as yet a lack of research on this topic, there are a few pragmatic approaches that might be taken. As with the wider internationalisation of the curriculum, it is necessary to achieve buy-in from the student population. This might be achieved in a number of different ways, but a 'reward' element is likely to attract student interest. Although field trips and short experiences may not be relevant to PGR students, the ability to present at a conference in another country might – so a reframing of the 'usual' international activity is required. Similarly, with concepts such as Online International Learning (OIL), reframing the activity to focus on sharing research and virtual discussions on different approaches to research methodologies will appeal more to research students than the notion of working together on a collaborative piece of coursework.

Again, there are very few examples of institutional internationalisation initiatives for postgraduate research students, which makes it difficult to draw from research or to present a convincing evidence-based set of results. That being said, Coventry University has had some recent experiences in adopting an institution approach in the form of the Global Researchers Programme.

Experiences of The Global Researchers Programme

Coventry University's Centre for Global Engagement formally launched the Global Researchers Programme in September 2015. Designed to support PhD and MRES students from all the University's areas of research expertise to take their research abroad and to foster international collaboration. The GRP utilises a combination of online experiences, intercultural learning activities and support with international mobility to achieve internationalisation at PGR level. The 'curricular' (campus-based) activities include workshops, a tailored professorial talk scheme, and virtual interactions (webinars) in which students can present their research to an overseas audience and engage in academic discussion and debate (Global Researchers Programme Online 2015). Unlike other 'extra-curricular' programmes on offer through the CGE, the GRP was created to be a fully customisable programme, at no extra cost to the student and with no formal attendance requirements.

During the pilot year (academic year 2015/16), students selected the activities and sessions that appealed to them from the 'menu' and were also able to apply for up to two mobility grants per year – once for an overseas conference and once for overseas research mobility. The mobility grants on offer were up to £600 for a conference and up to £1500 for longer term mobility, dependent on location and duration. A range of activities were on offer, including sessions on cross-cultural attitudes to education and research, guest speakers and talks from the Coventry University Professoriate. With the exception of the mobility funding, the activities were designed to achieve internationalisation at home through the development of research-focussed intercultural competences and skills. Without a set budget for the programme, the activities were designed to be high impact but low cost, the mobility funding was sourced from a centralised 'pot' available to the CGE. The 'showcase' example of GRP activity is the webinar scheme, which uses freely available resources and web-cameras.

Initial projections expected to see between 8-10% of Coventry university's PGR population accessing the grant funding and that a cumulative total of at least 66% of PGR students would attend the activities on offer. The end-of-year figures saw 13% of the total registered PGR students accessing grants and a cumulative total of 148% of the PGR students attending activities;

beating the targets and securing the ability to extend the GPR for the 2016-17 academic year (CGE 2016). The GRP's average event attendance was approximately 10 students but some activities saw upwards of 60 students attending, while others received just 2. Registration records also revealed that a smaller percentage of the population were consistently attending and some of the academic disciplines saw little to no attendances at all. Strikingly, the overwhelming majority of students who received grant funding for overseas conferences or international research mobility did not attend any of the internationalisation activities or workshops. Although these students engaged in the reflective elements required as part of the funding agreements for the grants, they did not engage with intercultural competences through the workshops and activities. Thus, although the appealing element of 'free money' has been successful, the actual impact of the intercultural competency gain may not be as strong as intended.

Working with partner institutions also poses a logistical challenge to the embedding of IoC into Coventry's PGR activity. Most of the overseas partner institutions were highly enthusiastic about engaging in virtual activities in order to achieve internationalisation at home, but the planning and logistic phases made implementation a drawn-out process. Differences in public holidays, term dates, time differences and staff availability all had to be taken into account resulting in a very constricted period of time to allow for activities such as webinars to take place. One example of this can be seen in the highly successful webinar and virtual research discussion that took place with Deakin University, Australia, in Autumn 2016. Due to local differences in time, Coventry participants were required to be present very early in the morning and the Deakin participants late in the evening. Although such issues are by no means insurmountable, advertising the session and motivating PGR students to attend an out-of-working-hours session can be a hard sell. Indeed, despite the resounding success of the preliminary webinar, the total number of participants came in at under ten people. There are, however, plans to continue this series of virtual interactions in the future, but further work will need to be done to encourage students to attend.

Similarly, another cross-institutional activity with an overseas partner took upwards of ten months of planning to ensure that a webinar could go ahead due to some previously unexpected differences in academic year structures, religious holidays and student attendance patterns. Such issues mean that time scales of delivery are expanded and often require explanation to university senior management, who often want things to happen with a rapid turnaround time. This is perhaps further evidence of the balance that needs to be struck between an instrumentalist and the educationalist approach as explored earlier in the chapter.

A long-running virtual seminar series was implemented with an institution in the Middle East, running throughout most of the 2015/16 academic year. Although this series has been the strongest example yet of GRP internationalisation activity being embedded as a regular fixture, it was necessary to foster interest on both sides and the 'buy-in' was achieved through the efforts of one academic lead, who undertook mobility to the partner institution to help to set up the series and to garner interest with staff. Without the efforts of this individual, this activity may not have come into fruition, highlighting further that without buy in from staff and students, it is extremely challenging to realise internationalisation at home. This particular activity also highlighted another challenge: technology. Not all regions permit or support certain types of software and internet quality and signal strength can vary significantly between countries. Microsoft's Skype, for example, is barred in certain countries, as are other similar Voice over Internet Protocols (VoIP). Software and other internet-connectivity issues are also an element that must be taken into consideration when attempting virtual activities with overseas institutions and such issues are easily overlooked in the activity planning stages.

As a result of the pilot and a reflection of the year's activities, the GRP underwent a review and amendments were implemented for the 2016-17 academic year. The first change was a stipulation that all students receiving grants must attend at least one of the skills workshops on intercultural competences. This was adjusted in order to encourage students to further reflect on

their experiences in a deeper and more meaningful way than the pilot year. International mobility was also tied into the newly launched 'experience credit' that students can use towards their overall credit count, which must be met in order to progress through the early stages of the research degree process. This offers students further incentive to undertake international activities as it encourages them to link what they are doing to their research and qualifications. A final major change was the introduction of PGR mentors for new students. These students are trained to assist newly arrived students in getting oriented at the university and have undertaken intercultural skills training to help incoming students' understanding of the systems here in the UK. It is hoped that these mentors will be ambassadors for the added extra provisions for PGR students and will help to encourage incoming research students to engage in the activities that are on offer. Although the results of these amendments are yet to be seen due to the infancy of the reviewed programme, it is hoped that the GRP's current incarnation will lead to a stronger 'added value' of intercultural competences for research students at Coventry University.

Conclusions, Limitations and Recommendations

The role of Higher Education has dramatically changed over the last decade. It is no longer sufficient for institutions to offer academic qualifications alone and there has been a marked shift towards offering students wider added value alongside their study. We can also see a greater emphasis on and recognition of the role HEIs should play in terms of global citizenship, sustainable development and producing graduates with relevant employability skills so that students have the necessary attributes to fit the needs of an increasingly globalised job market.

Much of the research and activities on offer with regards to adding value in terms of internationalisation focus exclusively on taught programmes and often fail to consider the nuances and needs of research students – individuals who are caught in the chasm between classroom-based education and being a career researcher. Internationalisation remains a challenge for UK HEIs, but if implemented with a clear institutional plan, it can offer many rewards to institutions and students alike. Evidence clearly shows that the internationalisation of taught curricula offers clear benefits to students during their education and beyond. Postgraduate Research provision must therefore not be ignored and more work needs to be done to ensure that PGR students enjoy the same range of added value as undergraduate and postgraduate taught students, not least as the skills and career paths of research students will inevitably vary dramatically from those of taught students.

There is currently little evidence to show that UK HEIs are embracing and facilitating the development of intercultural competencies in PGR students at an institutional level. It is important, therefore, as part of the internationalisation agenda, that institutions begin to examine, accommodate and reflect upon what it means to support the development of intercultural competencies among postgraduate research students. Consideration must also be given to how to make PGR students understand the benefits of intercultural education and internationalisation so that these activities are not seen as a 'waste of time' or an impediment to their research degrees. This also needs to be balanced with embedded reflective work; it is not simply enough to offer 'value added' activities on their own. This again will be challenging as there is little standardisation of the PGR provision between institutions, and even less in terms of standardisation of internationalisation of the curriculum across the HE landscape.

Although Coventry University's Global Researchers Programme has enjoyed some success, it still in its infancy and, despite a positive start, further work needs to be done to ensure that it is adequately supporting all of the research student population across all areas of research. It is also very difficult to undertake evidence-based research with regards to the impact of the GRP in just one year of operation. It is evident that further research needs to be undertaken with regards to the internationalisation of research student provisions. With Universities UK commencing on a

focus group series and research into attitudes of PGR students towards internationalisation and barriers to mobility, it will be interesting to see what this research uncovers and what other UK HE institutions do to deal with the internationalisation of their own respective research provisions. Further theoretical and evidence-based research on this topic will be much welcomed in the future.

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Case Study 1: Study Abroad Placement Map Project

Phillip Pierce¹ and Rachel Challen²

This case study outlines the development of a Placement Map project in the School of Arts and Humanities (AAH) at Nottingham Trent University. The project utilizes a Technology Enhanced Learning solution to support Modern Language students on placement and includes two elements – an online map and an online space to record information and reflections on the placement. The project started in 2009 when a need for students on four-year Modern Languages programmes, which includes a Year Abroad study or work placement, to have access to more current information on the placement choices they made. The existing summative assessment for the placement also required a written account of the in-country experience and it was felt that if this was openly available and combined with the shared knowledge of the destination, it would be a powerful resource to assist future students when making their placement choices.

The intention was not to build a placement management system, but a tool focused upon enhancing the placement experience, which would benefit students by:

- Utilizing the comprehensive and up-to-date knowledge of placement destinations that past and current placement students had to enable future students to make informed choices about their placement destination;
- Improving the experience for Year Abroad students by preparing them fully for their specific placement destination; for example, by providing advice about preparation before departure, and helping to settle upon arrival;
- Supporting a digital approach to assessment by using online publishing tools to provide opportunities for publicly shared reflection on the Year Abroad experience – developing digital capability skills and a positive online presence for employment purposes.

The Learning and Teaching Support Unit in the School addressed these requirements by developing a Google Map (Figure 1) that had hyperlinks to dynamic informational narratives from each placement – written in a WIKI, (derived from the Hawaiian phrase wiki-wiki meaning ‘fast’ but often backronymed to ‘**W**hat **I** **K**now **I**s’), which contains a structured template for students to complete. By combining multiple global placement information on a single map, this resource gives access to an increasingly broad and in-depth view of what it is like to live, study and work at destinations all over the world. This information was not easily available to students previously and providing the information online makes the information dynamic and accessible.

All the information on the map is provided and authored by past or existing students who have been to these destinations themselves, giving a unique, invaluable and up to date "students' eye" view of each destination. This provides a level of detail and perspective that tutors are rarely able to give, and enables one cohort of students to pass on their experiences to future groups.

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Figure 1: Each pin on the map represents a specific placement destination and attached WIKI entry

Engaging Students

At NTU, the Virtual Learning Environment (called “NOW”) has dedicated areas (known as “learning rooms”) used to support modules. These learning rooms include all of the resources that students will need for organising their placement, including a link to the map. Made available to all year groups on a particular course, anyone can access information about the placement process – whether it is forward thinking first years, second years, or students actually on placement. The aim is to encourage students to focus on preparing for their placement, and to emphasize that the map, along with the relevant placement learning room, are the key online resources for them to use. This information is disseminated in generic sessions in the first-year induction week and throughout year one.

The placement year for Modern Languages occurs after the completion of the second year of study. Year Abroad tutors reintroduce the map into the curriculum at the start of the second year, giving ample time for research into placement preferences before a decision is required. The map enables students to see where placements have occurred in previous years, and read about experiences in those destinations. Modern Languages students can choose either to have a study placement at a partner university, a teaching placement via the British Council, or an independently organized work placement. The map uses specific marker colours to indicate specific types of placement and this enables smart searching for those with a placement or destination preference.

In each Academic year in late April, the LTSU leads on technical training for the students – at this phase of the project the focus is specifically on how students should use the WIKI software to make their own contributions while on placement. The training consists of a single one-hour session that covers the writing of their Placement Map contributions, and other IT issues relating to their year abroad. The timing of training is important – if done too early, students are more likely to forget crucial details. Do it too late and exams or summer plans take precedence.

Once on placement (and indeed before and after), students write about their experiences, for future cohorts of students to read. Guidelines for what to write vary according to the course and placement programme in question. When using WIKIS, we asked students to contribute to each of seven categories of information:

- Recommended Modules (study placements) / Placement activity (work and teaching placements)
- Accommodation
- Travel
- Social life
- Things to do, things not to do
- Useful Contacts
- Before you go

After the placement has finished, students need to have contributed enough material to fulfil the requirements of the Modern Languages Year Abroad assessment. As such, they are not graded upon their contributions, but if they have not written anything, or if their written material is too brief or of insufficient quality, they do not receive the year abroad certificate, although they do progress to the final year of study.

As expected, engagement with writing WIKI contributions is dependent on the formal assessment weighting. Comparing levels of engagement of two different exchange programmes that use the Placement Map illustrates this point, on the Modern Languages Course, WIKI contributions have been included in the assessment diet for year abroad placements, and contributions have been extensive. For another placement programme, the Arts and Humanities International Exchange semester, contributions have always been voluntary, and as a result, the amount of content produced has been minimal.

Lessons learnt from initial project development - WIKIS

WIKIS are collaboratively authored online documents; chosen as the publishing platform for this project as it aimed to focus on gathering and sharing factual and practical information in the distinct categories already mentioned. However, the art of WIKI writing is something that many students have struggled with - illustrated by the observation that after time, WIKIS for popular destinations often accumulated less material from their many contributors than those that had a single student. From informal discussion with returning students, they often had a fear of deleting or editing other people's work, and lacked a sense of ownership of the pages they were editing. It must be noted however, that the WIKIS for a handful of the more popular destinations were effectively "full" after a few years, with the only scope for adding additional information being in the form of small updates to existing, relatively factual content.

Additionally, rather than attempting to contribute to a collectively authored document using the defined structure of a Wikipedia page (as suggested to them in training), students would often add what they wanted to say at the bottom of a page or section, and add their name in the body of the page. This resulted in disjointed WIKI pages that did not read like a single document, but rather looked and read more like discussion forum postings.

These issues were addressed in training, by giving a quick exercise that involved students working in pairs, editing and re-writing each other's work in class, and pointing out that the WIKI software will automatically record any changes attributable to a particular contributor, hoping to allay fears about potential disputes that involved the authoring or editing of material. Despite this, the only group of students who appeared to master the concept of collaborative writing with WIKIS were French language students, who were assigned an assessed piece of WIKI-based group work to do in a second-year module, and were thus much more familiar with the process of writing a WIKI. Students of other languages, who had not had this additional practice struggled to understand that producing a WIKI document is a collaborative effort that requires a particular approach, and style of writing.

2014 - Building on lessons learnt

Two key areas of development arose from reflecting on the success of the programme from 2009 – 2014. These were: the move away from WIKIS to blogs (Web-logs); and remote training requirements.

Blog Vs WIKI

A key change since 2009 has been a switch from using WIKIS to blogs, as the main publishing medium. This switch was made with the aim of encouraging students to engage with the writing process and to enable them to write more freely about their experience of being on placement rather than just recording information. The use of blogs and other internet-mediated forms of communication have been shown to enable learner autonomy and cultural awareness during study abroad programmes (Lee 2011; Ziess and Isabelli 2005; Elola and Oskoz 2008).

At the time of writing, two complete cohorts have completed the Year Abroad using blogs rather than WIKIS. Engagement appears to be improved; however, in the case of Modern Languages, this change has coincided with the decision to allow students to write their contributions in either the target language, or English (the WIKIS previously had to be written in the target language; with the switch to blogs, most have opted to write in English). This makes it harder to determine exactly why engagement with blogs appears to be greater than with WIKIS, but the pedagogical shift to an inclusive curriculum, engaging “students in learning that is meaningful, relevant and accessible to all” (Hockings 2010) may have had a significant effect by increasing students’ feelings of ownership of “their” blog over a collaborative WIKI.

Conversely, the main problem that has arisen from the switch to blogs is that students often write a lot of material, making it difficult for readers to find specific information. For example, there may be information about accommodation, but finding it amongst many long posts where accommodation is occasionally mentioned is not necessarily easy. The next cohort are being asked to tag their posts with key words to enable people reading their blog to find information on a specific topic relatively easily, and to try and focus each blog post on a specific topic where possible.

Training

It was strongly recommended that students going on placement attend the training session; however, there is a consistent 20% of students who fail to attend each year. Those students who fail to attend are usually the ones who struggle with the technical aspects of publishing their contributions, once on placement. This can be a real issue for some students, who may find themselves in remote parts of the world, with poor access to the internet, and who then struggle to contact tutors or LTSU for support.

In an attempt to mitigate this issue, extensive online support materials are available to students in the learning rooms associated with each placement programme. Guidance not only covers the basic technical “how to” issues involved in setting up a blog, but also provides clear guidelines for the type of information and writing style expected. These materials are essential to support students and serve as ongoing reference for students throughout the period of placement.

Current Developments

Having piloted the blog as the student platform and developed face-to-face and online support for placement students, the next step was to evaluate the technical process underpinning the creation of pins on the map. Whilst a Google Fusion Table was a good initial technical solution, the technical landscape had advanced and more options were available to achieve the same outputs. Resource overheads were also disproportionate to the number of students the map was required for and a review of the systems was undertaken. In collaboration with the Centre for

Academic Development at Nottingham Trent University, an open source solution, Easy Map Maker, was identified as a fit for purpose platform. Although a little less sophisticated, this solution reduces administration support requirements by 90% but gives students an equitable experience.

Technical development

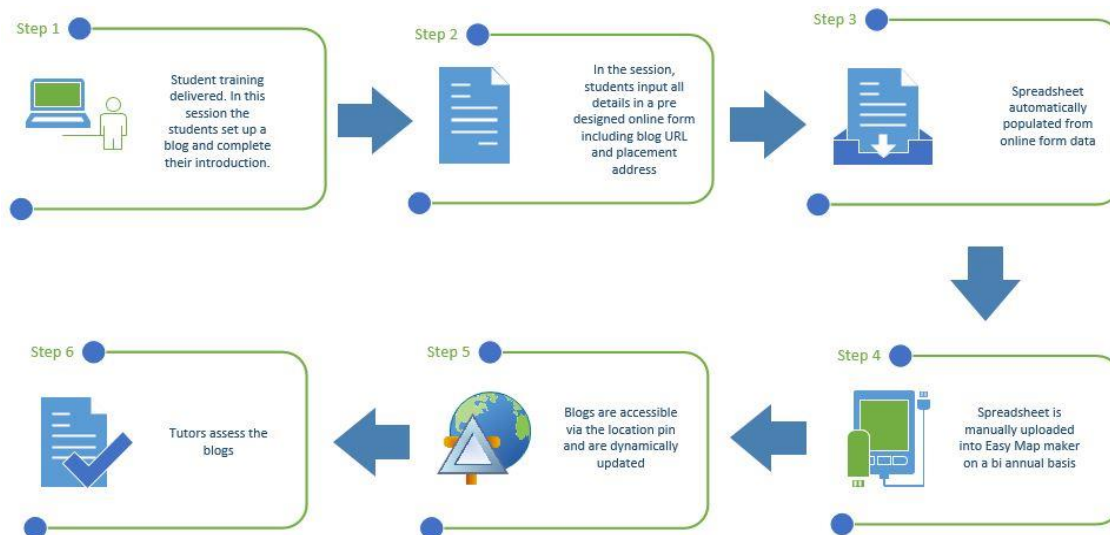


Figure 2: Blog to Easy Map Maker 2017

An unavoidable issue is that the previous maps cannot be quickly merged into the new format as the data is not presented in the same way for both systems. To counteract this, the maps are running concurrently to each other in the learning room. Face to face training is still recommended and this covers the basic technicalities of setting up a blog, and what is required of them in terms of writing a blog suitable for their placement. Within this session, students are asked to set up a blog for their placement, and complete an online form with brief details of the placement and the URL to the blog. Online support is kept up to date and accessible.

Conclusions

This is a longitudinal project which has gone through three key areas of change throughout its 8 years. From WIKIS to blogs, development of online training support, and the move away from Google Fusion Tables to Easy Map Maker. The experiences, reflections and consequent improvements to the project will provide valuable guidelines as to how such a project could be approached by others in the UK Higher Education sector by institutions keen to identify technological solutions to enhance international learning.

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Case Study 2: The Impact of International Volunteering on student participants: International Volunteering at Nottingham Trent University

Andy Coppins¹

Introduction

Nottingham Trent University (NTU) has been running International Volunteering (IV) opportunities for six years, with an increasing range available to students. What began as an opportunity to take part in the European Year of Volunteering in 2011, through support of a summer school in Romania, has grown to involve 5 charities running projects exclusively in Romania, Uganda, Sri Lanka, Guatemala and Fiji.

NTU seeks to continually better understand how these opportunities can be promoted, how students can be best supported prior to, and during, participation on the project in-country, and to encourage further development of their global citizenship skills on their return.

Context

The subject of international volunteering (IV) has seen increased exposure in recent years with the number of participants increasing; recent estimates suggest that as many as 10 million people take part worldwide annually in international volunteering projects (McGehee 2014). In addition, the number of providers has increased significantly (Jones 2011) along with the introduction of schemes like the government funded International Citizens Service. This increased interest in participating in IV has been said to reflect a desire from 'people seeking to act upon their world, outside of traditional political channels' (Butcher and Smith 2010: 28), allowing them to experience more of the world and engaging with it, in what appears to be a meaningful way.

Research looking at voluntourism, particularly volunteering for development, and the impacts these types of projects have on host communities and the individual volunteers, however, highlights the more controversial aspects of IV (Simpson 2004; Guttentag 2009; Vodopivec and Jaffe 2011).

Increasingly, therefore, it has been recognised that more needs to be done to educate and support volunteers to engage with debates around factors causing the poverty which they are hoping to alleviate (e.g. Hammersley 2014; Learning Service 2014).

This case study explores some of these issues from the perspective of both student participant and host organisation. It raises some considerations on how to maximise the positive aspects of these experiences.

Volunteer experience

As part fulfilment of an MA in International Development, the author carried out semi-structured interviews with four organisations linked to NTU, which are UK charities who carry out their work in one location abroad, to establish their perceptions on the volunteer experience related to the work of their organisation. These interviews contained questions on preparation provided for volunteers, managing expectations and perceptions, and the perceived effects on volunteers' global outlook. An online questionnaire was also used with a small group of seventeen students who have returned from one of the NTU-run international volunteering experiences. This questionnaire looked at student outcomes, including personal and professional development,

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changes in outlook and propensity towards further volunteering, while also looking at expectations prior to participation and changes in understanding of global citizenship.

The initial motivations for the students' involvement in NTU's IV programme revolved around making a difference in, or experiencing another part of, the world and making a difference to themselves. This is in line with the concept of global citizenship for students in higher education which has been increasing in profile and popularity (Jones 2010). However, as NTU's IV programmes have developed, students' motivations are increasingly varied, as McGehee suggests (McGehee 2014).

The charities NTU works with agreed it is important to give relevant, useful and timely information prior to travelling, ensuring volunteers are well prepared. This mainly providing included information on volunteer role, logistics, accommodation, cultural awareness and to a lesser degree, relevant country information. This ensures volunteers are ready for their experience, in a practical sense, along with ensuring expectations are aligned. This minimises the chance of negative consequences as they have a better idea of their role, the importance of cultural awareness, and of the ethos and principles of the charity. The volunteers placed emphasis on this too, as in some cases they wanted more of this information prior to their project to ensure they are well prepared.

However, from the organisations' perspective the best place to learn about the country, culture and any challenges for the beneficiary groups, is through experiential learning. Therefore, most do not give macro level statistics, or in-depth information about challenges facing their beneficiaries as they feel the best place to learn about it is through talking to the people themselves. This prevents volunteers forming an opinion before they travel which may not be appropriate to the community in which they will be volunteering, confirmed by one of the organisation's representatives. She said "you can end up painting a picture that is not valid for the community they are in...I want the volunteers to get a real perspective about what Uganda is about, not what the UN statistics say". The volunteers backed this up saying 'every experience is different and part of the enjoyment is learning new things as you go'. This kind of learning about poverty and its causes through a real encounter can challenge perceptions, but if not managed well, with distinct learning taking place, has the danger of reinforcing a western view of development (Palacios 2010).

Turning to the projects themselves, the organisations and volunteers agree with much of the literature, that the impact of IV is generally positive on the volunteers including enhancing personal development, skills development, the participants' concept of being a global citizen and their outlook on life (Jones 2010; Smith and Laurie 2011; Lough et al. 2009). Many volunteers commented on how useful reflection was during the project, actively seeking ways to understand more about local issues, by asking staff, volunteers or the local community. Volunteers fed back that 'in these [reflective] sessions we were informed about certain issues in the community and were given knowledge about everything. This was the time where we could ask questions' and 'we were regularly in contact with teachers and locals and so would have open conversations with them about issues they're facing'. One of the interviewees said, "I think the volunteers get a lot more out of it by asking the local staff questions about their life when they are actually there than they do by telling them before they go".

This action to volunteer internationally could be seen as the humanising response to global issues (Lewis 2005), and as one volunteer said, "since I have seen some of the global issues first hand, I know I will be more involved and sensitive in the future towards different issues". As can be seen, one of the outcomes for participants of IV is their global education and understanding increases and transformative learning can take place. Diprose (2012) suggests focussing on the transformative potential of these projects to motivate and provoke participants to think outside of their everyday experience, which would hopefully take them beyond simple notions of "luck"

to explain inequalities and differences they encountered' which could be a common reaction (Simpson, 2004, p.689).

On their return to the UK, volunteers interviewed have good intentions of doing further volunteering abroad (with 79% saying they were more likely) and, to a lesser extent, local volunteering (43% more likely, with the rest unsure). However, further longitudinal studies are needed to assess if this good intention is borne out. From the organisations' point of view, there are difficulties in keeping previous volunteers engaged, and a feeling that once the volunteer had taken part, even though it may have changed their outlook on life, it doesn't always benefit the individual charity. However, as Devereux (2008) suggested and the charities reinforced, a proportion of the volunteers do go on to become ambassadors for the charity or continue to fundraise.

The volunteers engaging in these activities seem to have adopted an approach of becoming more of a global citizen as a result of their international volunteering, and, aligned with writers such as Smith and Laurie (2011), Jones (2011) and Diprose (2012), have experienced some form of development education. This enables greater awareness of social justice issues, with one volunteer saying 'it's showed me that global issues aren't just something that you see on the TV, it's something that I can be involved in and try and make a small difference'. These experiences have enabled them to structure more informed ideas within a reflective environment, which they can take back to the UK, as Jones (2010) suggested in his research. Participation has supported their personal development, with 64% saying it had a very positive effect and the rest saying it had a positive effect on this. It also affected future life choices linked with career ambitions, with 57% reporting that it had a positive or very positive effect on this area, with one volunteer stating that 'I have gained such a great insight to what I want to do in my future. It has influenced me so much seeing how great the children are out there and learning about a new culture. It has genuinely been life changing and was a privilege to be a part of' and another saying it 'helped me to understand how communism has affected communities and the politics of this...encouraged me to pursue a career as a lecturer or a career involving international issues that I could help make a difference in'.

Considerations

While this case study does not address the impact of these volunteering projects on communities and the international development aspect of this area of work, NTU does do this in terms of choosing organisations with which to partner and the information given to students, and would encourage others to do the same. However, in terms of volunteer development, which this case study aims to bring to light, there are a number of interventions which could facilitate supporting volunteers' longer term global citizenship goals.

Firstly, preparing the volunteers adequately for their experience is a key stepping stone for a successful experience, but also for their longer-term engagement in global or development issues. As discussed earlier volunteers need accurate and timely information prior to their project to ensure they understand the context of the volunteering and what the expectations are from all sides. This needs to include sufficient information to make sure the volunteer is well prepared, but not too much so that it defines a single story of what volunteers may experience in the country.

Secondly, while the volunteers are in the country there needs to be sufficient time and resource provided to facilitate some form of reflection to help them to contextualise their experiences, so they emerge with greater understanding of factors affecting the groups of people with whom they have worked. Also, where language barriers are not prohibitive, ensuring the volunteers are working alongside the local community so conversation and mutual understanding is facilitated and encouraged is key.

Thirdly, organisations should continue the relationship they have built with volunteers after their return home, encouraging further involvement with the organisation, but also encouraging them to reflect further on their experience, and how it will affect future actions with regard to volunteering at home and abroad or other international experiences. Having links to local volunteering opportunities or infrastructure to enable volunteers to continue a volunteering ethos in the UK would help to continue their engagement.

NTU aims to facilitate these three areas in their IV provision, and to support this have developed a pilot reflective International Volunteering journal, in association with Leeds Beckett University, for students to complete prior, during, and after their IV experience. Therefore, as well as training and support prior to the project this pilot approach aims to ensure volunteers are well prepared, reflect on their experience, and implement actions on their return to the UK.

Short-term international volunteering, from NTU's perspective and experience, if it is well managed, and with the right organisations, can have a positive impact on host communities and on the individuals who take part. The short-term effects for the volunteers are clearly significant, but the long-term effects on volunteers of this kind of volunteering and their propensity to continue volunteering or take part in activities demonstrating a more rounded global citizenship is something inferred, but would require a further longitudinal study.

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Part II: Staff Engagement

Chapter 5: The Opportunities and Challenges of using tools or checklists to assist with Internationalising the Curriculum

Rose Gann¹, Sandra H. Kirk², Clare Newstead³, and Cheryl Rounsaville⁴

Introduction

Research on internationalising the curriculum (IoC) routinely highlights the importance of academic staff engagement (Agnew 2012; Barnett 1994; Dewey and Duff 2009; Stohl 2007). Academic staff are key to effective integration of teaching and learning practices that enhance global perspectives, and to promoting opportunities available for students to gain international experiences that enhance their subject knowledge and future employment prospects (Kirk et al. 2018). However, IoC is just one of an increasing number of priorities academic staff must respond to in the design and delivery of their curricula. Employability, skills, innovations in teaching and learning, feedback and assessment, as well as quality enhancement, are all key priorities for academic teams. Ensuring that these priorities are embedded into the curriculum can be challenging. Adding to this list the request to ensure the curriculum is internationalised can be seen as an additional burden - resulting in academic staff feeling overburdened by the need to audit courses and 'add-in' learning activities to already full curriculum structures. Staff can feel that such priorities are taking them away from subject learning and their disciplinary base. This paper reflects on the use of a checklist approach to supporting academic teams with the task of internationalising their curricula. It sets out some of the opportunities and challenges that the checklist (or tool) offers and evaluates the usefulness of this approach in terms of its capacity to assist academic teams with the task of internationalising their curricula.

Over the last 15 years, there has been a growth in the number of tools for measuring and evaluating Internationalisation in Higher Education (Aerden 2014; Barker 2011; Brandenburg and Federkeil 2007; De Wit 2009; Green 2012). These range from high level generic overviews, by organisations such as the European Association for International Education (EAIE) (De Wit 2009) and European Consortium for Accreditation (Aerden 2014), that seek to assess internationalisation – often at a macro level - to much more practical web-based questionnaires and surveys, such as Mapping Internationalisation (MINT), designed for use at the institutional level (Gao 2015; Nuffic 2012). Such tools nearly all focus on capturing quantitative information, although some do look for qualitative information also. There is a tendency for such tools to be imposed as part of top-down initiatives – driven by a desire by University management to ensure quality, and/or monitor/measure progress against set targets or for benchmarking purposes. Luxon and Peelo (2009) suggest that there needs to be a shift away from this macro level towards

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teaching and learning ‘which is where students and teachers actually experience internationalisation’ (1). A number of researchers have suggested that it is important for academic teams to own the meaning and have control over the process of embedding internationalisation at the local level (Leask 2015; Gann 2016; Kirk et al. 2018). Within this context, this paper explores the use of checklists to promote, support and encourage academic teams to further internationalise their curricula.

The paper reports on efforts at NTU to introduce checklists to effect meaningful and deep change within staff teams and the curricula. Two checklists form the focus of the paper – one originally designed and used within the School of Social Sciences (Gann 2016), and the other, developed as part of a wider institutional project funded by the HEA, and supportive of NTU’s new strategic direction. We seek not only to evaluate the potential of such checklists – as supportive and facilitative tools - but also to shed light on the merits of a tool-based approach more generally. Evaluation of the tools was conducted through interviews with staff who had implemented them, and through wider discussion with course leaders from across NTU.

The NTU Internationalisation checklist tool

There is an extensive body of literature and debate surrounding the definition of internationalisation, and, more specifically, IoC within the higher education context (Bell 2004; Clifford 2009; Green and Whitsed 2012; Knight 2003, 2004). This paper takes as its starting point the work of Jane Knight (2003, 2004) who has put forward an ‘evolutionary or process-oriented view of internationalisation’ as ‘the process of integrating the international dimension into the teaching, research and service functions of an institution of higher education.’ She later modified this definition to ‘the process of integrating an international, intercultural or global dimension into the purpose, functions, or delivery of post-secondary education.’ (Knight 2003: 2). Knight is however mindful of the need to avoid internationalisation becoming a ‘catch-all’ phrase, and notes that it is important to tailor any plan or strategy to the specific interests and character of the institution concerned (Knight 2004). Lodged within definitions of internationalisation is often a presumed understanding of what IoC entails, which can vary between institutions as well as within the same institution between different disciplinary approaches. Where there are different approaches, tensions around conforming and complying with university strategies can arise. With this in mind, a checklist was initially developed for use in one academic School within NTU.

The first checklist this paper examines was put together in 2012 in the School of Social Sciences, to assist academic teams with the re-alignment of their curricula in response to a University wide initiative to enhance its provision (Gann 2016). The original checklist involved a series of questions on IoC that course leaders were asked to complete with their course teams. The main rationale behind the development of this checklist was to provide a tool that would not overly burden academic teams but would prompt wider interest and discussion on internationalisation that could then be worked into the revised curriculum. The checklist followed the criteria and areas for IoC set out in the NTU Internationalisation Plan 2012-2015. The key goals of the plan were that all modules should include international or comparative content, and that all students should be offered an international experience (which could take several forms, ranging from study abroad to studying a foreign language). The checklist invited academic teams to consider and provide information on how their courses responded to these strategic objectives. It also requested information on international partnerships, how the course enabled or developed the NTU graduate attribute of global citizenship, and arrangements for supporting international students – asking teams to explain any support structures or disciplinary specific help provided for them.

The original checklist was deployed at two distinct stages within the process of course review within the School. Firstly, course leaders (21 in total) were given it alongside other materials to aide their discussions and develop their revised course curricula. Secondly, once the full suite of

paperwork was submitted for School scrutiny, the checklist was used to facilitate peer review. Within each Department, academic staff were allocated as representatives or champions for internationalisation – with a brief to encourage its development and promotion within their Department and across the School more generally. These champions were allocated the revised paperwork from another Department and asked to review it against the University Internationalisation Plan criteria. To do this consistently, they were asked to complete the internationalisation checklist - this time as part of a process of internal peer review - and submit it to the School's lead for quality management and assurance (the Quality Manager) and the School's lead for Internationalisation to feed into discussions and reports at course approval events. The full details and a discussion of this initial development and pilot can be found in Gann (2016).

As part of a broader HEA-funded IoC project, and coincident with the new NTU Strategic Plan, in 2015 the authors embarked on development of the checklist for university-wide application. Evidence suggests that the initial checklist in Social Science had been useful in raising awareness and discussion on internationalisation. Gann states, for example, that 'many academic teams [have] continued to discuss, develop and embed internationalisation into their curricula' and that '...activity relating to student mobility increased considerably...' (Gann 2016, p.8). This project involved four distinct aspects: evaluating the original checklist through interviews with academics who had used it; development of the checklist to take account of institutional changes in strategy and the HEA Framework for Internationalising the Curriculum; piloting the revised tool with selected course teams; reviewing effectiveness through interviews with staff in the pilot and discussion at NTU's Course Leader Conference.

Evaluating and extending the reach of the internationalisation checklist tool

To evaluate the original checklist, a questionnaire was delivered and interviews undertaken with seven academic staff from Social Sciences. This included three course leaders, two academic champions, one Head of Department and the School's Quality Manager, all of whom had either used the checklist, or had some knowledge of it being used.

The majority of staff interviewed felt that the checklist had made a positive contribution. Staff found it useful as a means through which teams could assess the extent of internationalisation and be prompted to think about it further and in different ways. The School's Quality Manager, for example noted:

...it provided a framework from which people could evaluate internationalisation in the curriculum. It gave some boundaries...from which they could make judgements about if there were gaps....

In support of this, speaking of their own Department, an academic champion for internationalisation commented that "I think it made us very aware of what little we have and the need to develop." Both academic internationalisation champions noted the value of the checklist.

One stressed the value in sharing of good practice:

It's a good way of structuring what you're looking for, I think. (...)I think looking at other courses and what they do was very useful for us.,it gives you ideas of good practice and what other people are doing and some ideas.

The other champion stressed its potential in preventing complacency:

I thought it was useful in terms of prompting us to think about things from a different perspective. (...) there was something (...) on there that prompted us to think more - again

I use the term three dimensionally but thinking how can we attack this from lots of different angles rather than the rather smug thing thinking we're International Relations, we're already international.

Several examples were given of the ways in which the checklist prompted a change to or amendment of the curriculum. For example, one course leader made changes to an essay specification to enable students to bring their own cultural background and experiences to bear.

Interviewees felt that the peer-review was valuable – although some were keener to see this aspect developed than others. The opportunity for collegial discussion, rather than purely a top-down audit approach, was seen as particularly beneficial. One course leader argued that IoC should be part of the quality assurance/enhancement process, because it would be more likely to be resourced by universities, whilst another interviewee cautioned that if it was embedded into quality assurance it was more likely to become ‘a tick box thing’, and so preferred it to be ‘more focussed on enhancement than assurance.’

When asked if there were any aspects of the checklist they would want to change, the interviewees responded that they felt it should be part of a more discursively based annual course review process. However, interviewees noted that academic teams are more likely to take on board internationalisation if this aspect is championed by a credible member of the disciplinary team. They also recommended provision of support for mentoring and co-mentoring within a team; and, production of key information and documents for international students and international exchanges at School level.

Development of the new institution-wide checklist

Taking account of feedback from Social Sciences, and in the light of a review of recent literature on IoC, the Higher Education Academy’s Framework for Internationalisation, and the revised University-wide Internationalisation strategy at NTU, the checklist was reviewed and revised (Appendix A). As a result, significant amendments were made to ensure viability across the institution, and between disciplines. A requirement was that it be enabling, particularly for subject areas that might hitherto have had very little experience or engagement with IoC. Moving away from viewing international students as an “issue” and towards an holistic approach to production of an multicultural environment, the HEA framework was used to inform sections on fitness of courses for diversity of learners (Q5), and opportunities for intercultural learning (Q9). Additionally, guidance notes and links to further information were added, to encourage flexibility in interpretation and approach to IoC. More detailed information on the criteria of the NTU graduate attribute of Global Citizenship was included. This was important, as a course leader from Social Sciences commented that there was uncertainty around the meaning of Global Citizenship, noting that “the trouble with this is that global citizenship, to be honest, is a managerial concept. This is nothing that is directly and in detail built into the teaching of [x subject] ...”

The usefulness or effectiveness of this revised checklist was trialled via a session at the University-wide annual Course Leaders’ Conference in 2015. Around 18 course leaders attended the session during which they were asked to complete the check-list before sharing it with a neighbour. They were then asked to rate each other’s courses – based on the completed checklist, and to discuss the international aspects of their provision. This prompted a lively discussion about the rationale for including different international activities (such as exchange semester, study abroad, virtual collaboration, work placement abroad) in various courses and, as a consequence, there was considerable sharing of practice. While demonstrating the varied understandings of IoC, the discussion highlighted the richness of disciplinary insights and resources available across the University.

The extent of debate, as well as the almost universal request to take the checklist away, was a powerful form of feedback – it suggested that participants had found it extremely useful, and the session itself offered proof of a high level of engagement by staff the tool and the peer-review approach. It also suggested that staff were keen to have such tools/resources to inform and guide their thinking around IoC. The concluding group discussion was captured in note form by the research assistant working on this project, and gave rise to further suggestions to improve the checklist; one comment was that it seemed to be more adapted to undergraduate courses – and it should include more elements for postgraduate/non-standard courses; and another comment was that the peer review aspect – which relied heavily on accessing course documentation - might not work well if course documentation was not accurate/kept up to date. In addition, several participants mentioned that it would be useful to see concrete examples of internationalisation within the University for reference as well as a more developed definition of internationalisation. There was considerable debate on the definitions attached to Global Citizenship. Several participants felt the need to understand more about what this graduate attribute would entail or look like and felt that the concept was more a top-down idea than something that staff felt had developed organically and was ‘owned’.

Extended pilot and feedback

The final strand to this project was to run an additional pilot of the revised internationalisation checklist across the University. The aim was to assess the portability and flexibility of the checklist – could it be useful outside of a large scale, School-wide curriculum review process, as part of the more routine course development and review cycle? Academic teams going through the University’s formal approval process were selected – arising due to the development of new courses and/or the revision of existing provision. The courses involved were MA Photography, MA Geography, MBIol (a linked suite of 3 courses in Biochemistry, Pharmacology, and Microbiology) and MA Culture, Style and Fashion. In each case the course leader was asked to use the checklist with academic colleagues as an aide memoire as they revised their courses. Another academic from within the same School, but from a different discipline, was asked to take on the role of peer reviewer/critical friend – reading through all course documentation and completing the checklist. The peer reviewer then offered feedback on the ways in which this aspect of the curriculum might be further developed. A workflow table was put together with a timeline of the different stages at which the checklist was to be used. Research assistants oversaw the workflow and followed-up any queries or questions.

Of the four subject areas taking part in the pilot, only three academic teams used the checklist and only two course teams (MBiol and MA Photography) went on to engage in the peer review process. Even in this small sample size, the checklist was useful in highlighting aspects of internationalisation, and providing some assessment of this.

Whilst the MBIol suite offered an optional international work placement, Global Citizenship attributes, and comparative and international content in modules, the reviewer noted a lack of reference to pace of learning, choice of assessments, or ethical considerations related to international students. The Course leader for MBIol Microbiology noted during interview, that this course was already designed before the checklist was made available, such that no changes were made in light of it. They did feel, however, that it was potentially useful if available at an earlier stage – very early on when courses are first being developed. They also agreed that it had potential as a prompt for annual reporting on course health and currency. This course leader also stated that although this was a new course, being started from fresh, many appropriate internationalisation activities were already in place, although these were not necessarily noted in the documentation. They felt that the use of the tool in a face-to-face discussion would be most useful in terms of implementation. In terms of further development of the tool, inclusions of

some agreed definitions of terms and examples of good practice for better understanding of potential modifications would be ideal.

For the MBiol suite, most of the feedback from peer review was given directly to the overall Courses Manager, rather than individual course leaders. The Courses Manager stated that this had been useful, and that as he had been actively involved in design of the MBiol Biochemistry course, the checklist had helped focus him, and encouraged thought, although it had not been available prior to the main validation event. The feedback provided will be useful in influencing future changes and new modules as they come on line. He made the useful point that as module documents can only ever contain a summary of content and activities, and focuses on those directly linked to learning outcomes, other inherent activities (including aspects of IoC) are missed. Again, he reiterated the views of the MBiol Course Leader - however useful the checklist, it does not substitute for dialogue. Clear mentoring is a requirement for those to who the concepts are new. In addition, it is important to have an understanding of the subject context within which courses are peer reviewed – staff expect to be able to take some things as read within a discipline-specific context. In summary, this staff group felt that appropriate use of the checklist requires knowledgeable peer reviewers, discussion rather than form filling, and allowances for disciplinary differences.

The MA Photography course was also already far advanced in development when the checklist became available, such that it did not impact significantly on course design. However, the Course Leader reported feeling reassured by it that the course fitted with the University Strategic Plan. This is in contrast to the impression given to the peer reviewer, who stated “I feel that there is no evidence of cross-cultural content... The internationalisation aspect relies heavily on the exchange semester.” In addition, the reviewer reported that all books on the reading list were “..English based”. The course leader, however, pointed out in interview, that the peer reviewer was missing some nuances due to lack of subject knowledge, and so felt that the feedback given was of limited use/validity. He felt that a face-to-face discussion would have been more useful to clarify these issues. He confirmed that the course predominantly appeals to international students, and is focussed on providing them with a skills base for work both here and overseas. The fact that the course is written for an international cohort, means that the team did not feel the need to report in detail how it was made international – this was ingrained from the outset. At interview, the course leader gave several examples of how international students (Indian, Chinese) had helped inform his thinking on curriculum content.

What is clear from the results of the interviews is that there is a requirement for a longer time period for implementation of the checklist in the run-up to course approval. When the extended pilot was launched, most course teams were already well ahead with their preparations for course approval, and thus past the time point at which the checklist could have measurable impact, particularly given the other pressures on the staff involved. Secondly, the extended pilot project was not embedded into a formal School-wide review, thereby lacking senior staff endorsement. Without buy-in from those responsible for quality management, the impetus to fully engage is minimal. Thirdly, the checklist was being introduced as part of a research project rather than emerging organically from within the academic teams involved. Evidence from the Course Leaders' Conference showed that when given space to meet and discuss the checklist with peers, it genuinely stimulated debate and showed the potential impact it could have.

Conclusions

Enabling meaningful and deep change within staff teams and the curricula is more complex than simply providing a check-list. As shown in the current study, the timing needs to be appropriate, and opportunities need to be created for it to be used in a discursive manner for maximum benefit. It is arguable, that there is no need for such check-lists to be physically completed and

returned, unless required as a part of a formal quality assurance process. Rather, the evidence from this project suggests that checklists can support change when used to facilitate debate and discussion. While the peer-review aspect of the initial project suggested some benefit to its use, the institution-wide project suggested that this was not always beneficial. What both projects indicate, however, is that there is benefit to be had from sharing good practice, and while the Course Leaders Conference demonstrated this can usefully take place across disciplines, both projects suggested the greatest benefit came from discussion taking place amongst those who share common understanding of disciplinary norms and conventions.

There is a delicate balance to be struck by institutions when it comes to setting out University-wide plans for internationalisation. Too general a plan risks leaving academic teams without sufficient guidelines or parameters, with the possibility of little development taking place. Too specific a definition or plan risks closing down opportunities for staff ownership, and creativity is stifled, under what can be seen as another bureaucratic imposition (Kirk et al. 2018). Evidence from the pilot studies examined in this project, indicate that checklists can play a part in connecting strategy with practice in academic teams. Senior buy-in is vital as is local leadership within disciplinary areas. Clarity around the purpose and role of the checklist is also important and this should be reflected in their design. Is it there to monitor/assess the extent of internationalisation within the revised curricula, to encourage and engage staff to develop this aspect further, or both? Our findings suggest that academic staff were generally receptive to engaging with a tool that encouraged qualitative reflection and discussion but were less inclined to complete any requests for quantitative assessments regarding current course provision. The addition of prompts, exemplars and other sources of information can be useful, although care is required in respect of the perceived workload associated with compliance with the checklist.

Following on from the extended pilot of the revised checklist, the project team were involved in facilitating further cross-university discussion on definitions of internationalisation, and carried out further HEA-funded research at NTU on disciplinary differences in the understanding and implementation of internationalisation. This resulted in the production of a series of vignettes of good practice across disciplines for sharing within and outside the institution (Newstead et al. 2015). The checklist was revised for a third time (to accommodate the new University internationalisation strategy (2015-2020) – Connecting Globally) and added to the University's toolkit of support materials as an aide memoire for course review/design.

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Appendix A: NTU Internationalising the Curriculum Checklist

Internationalising the learning experience :

Q1. Is there any flexibility in the design or delivery of the course to facilitate international mobility and/or collaboration? Yes No (please tick)

If yes: please tick **all** that apply below and provide details where appropriate alongside each experience:

Y/N		Please provide further details
	Exchange semester	
	Compulsory year abroad at a partner institution (e.g. as part of a dual/joint degree)	
	Optional study year abroad	
	Optional work placement abroad	
	Virtual collaboration with a partner institution on course/module delivery	
	Period of volunteering abroad	
	Studying a foreign language	
	Working as part of an international research network	
	Other (please provide details)	

Course information on Internationalisation :

Q2. Do course specifications include a summary of the international learning opportunities for students? Yes No N/A

Q3. Is there any evidence of the course routinely running events for students with an international theme? Yes No

If yes: please provide details here:

Click here to enter text.

MoUs and International Partnerships:

Q4. Does the course material refer to any institutional partnerships with international organisations or universities, Erasmus+ agreements, or any other frameworks for facilitating international mobility and collaboration (e.g. ISEP, Generation UK, British Council Language Assistantships etc.)? Yes No

If yes: please provide details here:

Click here to enter text.

Q5. Is the course designed to accommodate a diversity of learners e.g. in pace, assessments, modes of delivery and content? Yes No (please tick)

If yes, please provide further details activities or approaches designed to accommodate students from different cultural backgrounds:

Click here to enter text.

International student support:

Q6. Is there any special provision in the course specifically for supporting international students (e.g. English Language support, writing for academic purposes, introduction UK academic cultures etc)? Yes No (please tick)

Please list what support is offered/provided for International Students in the box below:

Click here to enter text.

Course content:

Q7. Is the course designed to enable or encourage students to develop the Graduate Attribute of Global Citizenship?

Y/N		Knowledge	Skills
	International awareness and openness to the world, based on appreciation of social and cultural diversity, respect for human rights and dignity		
	Understanding and appreciation of social, economic or environmental sustainability issues.		
	Leadership capacity, including a willingness to engage in constructive public discourse, and to accept social and civic responsibility		

Module content :

Q8. Do modules on the course have international or comparative content and/or draw upon international/comparative theories and concepts? (this can be found in case studies, reading materials, literature)? Yes No (please tick)

If yes, what percentage of modules on the course would you say have international or comparative content?

If no, or only a small number of modules have international or comparative content, is there a rationale/reason for this? Please provide further information in the box below:

Click here to enter text.

Intercultural learning experience :

Q9. About the intercultural learning provided in your course, please tick all that apply below and provide details where appropriate alongside each experience:

Y/N		Please provide further details
	The curriculum incorporates knowledge and experience brought by students from diverse backgrounds	
	The modules use materials from and outside the “traditional” canon and encourage discussion and debates	
	The assessment methods are varied and require students to consider issues from different cultural perspectives	
	Students are encouraged to recognize, analyse and compare their own tacit knowledge and values	
	Students are enabled/encouraged to work effectively in cross-cultural groups (within the class group or through electronic networks)	
	The course utilises guest lecturers from varied backgrounds	
	Other (please provide details)	

Guidance to Questions

The internationalisation of the curriculum is one of the strands developed in the NTU Internationalisation Plan (2010-2015) to enhance the learning experience and prepare students to become “highly employable global citizens”. The whole document can be found here:

http://www.ntu.ac.uk/about_ntu/global_university/internationalisation_strategy/index.html

The purpose of these questions is to act as a prompt or guide to help you think more about internationalisation.

In relation to Q1, (**Is there any flexibility in the design or delivery of the course to facilitate international mobility and collaboration?**), please list any opportunities offered in the course - regardless of the number of students participating.

In relation to Q7, (**Is the course designed to enable or encourage students to develop the Graduate Attribute of Global Citizenship?**), please provide information as to where this takes place. The focus here is on course and module learning outcomes.

Do the learning outcomes of the course (or module), for example, develop knowledge and/or skills that would develop these attributes? Learning outcomes refer to what the students should know (knowledge and understanding) and be able to do (qualities and skills) by the end of the course if they take advantages of the learning opportunities provided.

Chapter 6: Academics' Perspectives on Internationalising the Curriculum A

Claire Simmons¹

Introduction

The engagement of academics is key to the success of embedding internationalisation initiatives in the curriculum for the benefit of students, and has become a salient area of pedagogy. This is evident in the extensive literature created by a vibrant community of scholars who research and practise the many ways students develop intercultural competences. As they progress through their programmes of study, there will be myriad opportunities for students to engage with the concepts and practicalities of becoming global graduates. However, though there are pertinent areas of pro-activity around the exploration of internationalisation in higher education, not all academics participate fully in the epistemology attached to this field, perhaps due to limitations in their research time and their perceived need to concentrate on their own subject areas (Walker 2006).

The case to gain intercultural competences is now an expectation in the academic community, particularly in the contemporary higher education landscape where staff mobility is normal and, where transnational education is concerned, encouraged (McBurnie and Ziguras 2007). Certainly, we know that employers look for specific attributes in their employees that offer added value in the global workplace. These include understanding cultural differences and being able to adapt to them, being sensitive to working in diverse teams, being respectful, and being able to build trust (British Council 2013). We cannot assume that all academics will already identify with the subtleties of what it means to have intercultural skills (Hellsten 2008). Nor can we suppose that they will be equipped to enrich their teaching and students' learning in this sphere.

Having intercultural knowledge and awareness is an intrinsic employability quality, yet elusive until realised and contextualised (Sanderson 2008). Deardorff (2009: xiii), states that gaining the knowledge and skills to be a global citizen is a "lifelong process; there is no pinnacle at which someone becomes 'interculturally competent'". Leask (2015: 63) adds "... intercultural competence is a state of becoming, rather than a destination".

As everyone needs to begin somewhere, it can be hard to pinpoint where the journey should start for both academics and students. For many academics, whose day-to-day focus is usually subject centric, being asked to design modules which also incorporate teaching and assessment of intercultural competences, can present a challenge, particularly when asked to adapt course and/or module learning outcomes. As Leask (2007: 87) states, academics need to engage with and learn from other cultures, to become interculturally competent "...so that they can take on the role of being an intercultural educator".

This chapter presents practical ways to implement internationalisation projects with case studies showing how to enhance three pillars of educational value for students: internationalisation, employability and digital fluency. Projects undertaken at Coventry University with international higher education partners are shared here to give a rounded view of the barriers and enablers of raising intercultural awareness and competences in students that

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translate across subject areas. Before case studies are presented, with the evaluations of the staff who designed and implemented them, the next section acknowledges the investment of time and commitment needed.

Engaging busy academics

Much has been documented about the work pressures of academics in higher education whose duties span a matrix of demands from both the 'bottom up', i.e. students, and the 'top down', i.e. senior policy makers (Blackmore and Blackwell 2003; Churchman and King 2009; Billot 2010). The lecturer sitting in the middle competes with their own timetable to fit in teaching, learning and assessment, research and scholarly activity, and other staples such as personal tutoring and recruitment. Add to this a level of administration that accompanies all the former, it's understandable that time is a precious commodity (Houston et al. 2006; Kenny and Fluck 2014). Designing innovation and creativity within courses are viable when there is time to reflect, ponder and experiment, but opportunities for these appear to be increasingly luxurious in outcomes-driven 21st century Higher Education Institutions (HEIs).

It is encouraging then, that many academics continue to seek inventive ways to improve their students' experiences and capabilities. Pedagogic investment carries a satisfying return when efficacy can be measured in a positive and meaningful way. However, with the willingness to engage in debate and share good practice, and the piloting of ideas to enable transformative learning for students, there remains a constant demand of implementing projects that are time-consuming and at times, complex to set up. Internationalising the curriculum (IoC) can be either or both, and a successful academic experience for both tutors and students experimenting with IoC initiatives is also predicated on the level of institutional proclivity and support mechanisms (Knight 2004; Brown and Jones 2007).

Many higher education institutions have embraced internationalisation initiatives and there is an established body of knowledge evidencing how to embed these into course outcomes (Bennett and Bennett 2004; Leask 2005; Deardorff 2006; Jones and Brown 2007; Clifford and Montgomery 2011; Carroll 2015). As the point of IoC is to enhance the student experience for all the reasons discussed, developing academics at the outset is a crucial part of their being able to support students' transformational learning journeys. As Carroll suggests, we cannot leave it to the students alone to figure it out for themselves (2015: 24).

While this chapter will examine several tried, tested and evaluated IoC case studies and the perspectives of academics who trialled them, the following section focuses on how to engage and support academics in this 'pillar' of educational strategy.

Developing academics for internationalisation projects

The benefits of developing academic capabilities to embed internationalisation strategies in programmes of study are easily understood in the macro sense. Creating global graduates who can view the world as their workplace is persuasive in any language and culture. While the English language may be accepted parlance for international business, this does not necessarily confer employment success for students from the mainstream English-speaking HEIs, such as in North America, Britain and Australasia. It is fair to emphasise that international HEIs beyond these 'mother tongue' English countries have, arguably, been presenting many successful English-speaking graduates who can adapt to any number of workplaces outside their native domicile.

Global graduate mobility is one of the most compelling reasons why giving students a greater awareness of intercultural competency knowledge and skills is high on education agendas across secondary and tertiary education worldwide (UNESCO 2013: 8; HEA 2014).

There are many ways for the implementation of IoC across institutions, and many embed internationalisation into their courses as part of a committed strategy fed from the top down to improve student experiences and graduate employment outcomes. Understanding the role of the academic and ensuring they too understand what constitutes IoC is vital in determining how to integrate initiatives into courses in a natural and progressive way.

Some academics working within time constraints may become protective of their subject discipline and may consider IoC to be something 'apart' from the specific content and context of the course. Creating internationalisation activities as an 'add-on' can be counterproductive in that they tend to stay that way and are not inherently viewed as linked to course outcomes (Leggott and Stapleford 2007: 128). Supporting staff through development of IoC initiatives in the formal and informal curricula is therefore a key part of engaging academics and ergo, their students (Jones and Brown 2007: 195).

Working with staff on specific projects can be an effective enabler for them to increase student intercultural competences. While most academics may consider they are already interculturally aware, some may not view internationalisation of the curriculum in the same way. Creating development workshops to increase staff capability is a responsibility of HEIs and a proven way to help the academic body align to the institutional internationalisation mission and values. Indeed, it is common to find many staff push upward to make this happen and as discussed earlier, there is already an established research community that explores internationalisation pedagogy.

Engaging with the relevant literature is an important part of an academic's own learning journey (Moon 1999; Biggs and Tang 2011). It cannot be taken for granted that all academics will enter teaching with a complete set of intercultural knowledge and skills. It is also the case that increasing someone's intercultural competences is not straightforward, as several approaches to address this issue attest. From Bloom's taxonomy to evolved matrix models of student learning outcomes (Bloom 1964; Rhodes 2010; Ridings et al. 2008), gaining intercultural competences is not a linear exercise. Someone may be incredibly competent in specific situations, but the nature of the global world being what it is, that person is likely to be less aware of subtleties if placed in a different international context. Rather than giving staff – and their students – particular knowledge of an individual culture, attaining a base knowledge of how to raise initial awareness is often used as the starting point to become interculturally adept.

Often academics will use their subject content to consider how cultures have impact on societies. Other popular forms of integrating teaching and learning to incorporate intercultural knowledge acquisition is utilised by the diversity within the student body, extending to engaging in field trips and partnership activities abroad (Leask 2009). However, not all students desire, or can afford, to travel.

The Internationalisation at Home (IaH) approach aims to offer enrichment in a way that is inclusive to all students and staff and a successful method to encourage staff to enhance their curricula is using a virtual mobility model (Beelen and Jones 2015; Villar-Onrubia and Rajpal 2015). The following section considers how this model brings students together on real-world projects using online platforms.

Internationalisation at home (IaH): Virtual Mobility case studies

Coventry University has several schemes which are centred around student engagement. As the university makes further advances in its internationalisation strategy, many staff-centred development activities are aligned to the institution's corporate plan (Coventry University Corporate Plan 2015). In fact, achieving internationalisation targets which include field trips and transnational education via link tutors, is linked to academics' annual performance review.

Academic development staff are specifically employed to enable and support successful completion of projects. Also, a section on internationalisation is incorporated in the annual report of every course, which ultimately goes to a quality assurance committee. It is a key part of rolling out the institution's strategy, and one of the most successful initiatives can be found with the Online International Learning (OIL) model the institution promotes (Villar-Onrubia and Rajpal 2015). The OIL model, first created in Sweden (Nilsson 2000) and further developed in America (SUNY 2006), has been embraced by Coventry University, bringing students into online contact with others from partner universities around the world. Where links have yet to be forged, the proactive academic is encouraged to create their own relationship to introduce students to culturally diverse environments.

The main tenets of Online International Learning projects are that:

- (1) Students must engage in some sort of online dialogic interaction with international peers on discipline content;
- (2) the collaborative activities must be informed by a number of internationalised learning outcomes; and,
- (3) there must be a reflective component (e.g. essay, focus group) that helps students make explicit the learning resulting from engaging in such intercultural encounters.

(Villar-Onrubia and Rajpal 2015)

In terms of cost, this 'internationalisation at home' approach is minimal and its effectiveness is measurable. Embedding assessment (usually formative rather than summative) is part of the process and enables students to make a clear correlation between their experience and the value of the outcomes to their employability and lifelong learning. As Carroll (2015) points out, summative assessment is not the only way to evidence where learning has happened - supported reflection is where transformations take place for students.

To aid the understanding, consistency and accountability of OIL activities at Coventry University, staff are given templates with which to plan, design and implement their projects. A typical template will outline the nature of the online activities, the learning outcomes of the activity in relation to the module or course-based outcomes, and the measurable assignment that the students undertake. As propounded by others, some aspect of reflection is a vital element during and afterwards to highlight the intercultural learning that has taken place (McGrath-Champ et al. 2013:32). Here too, staff need assistance to create learning outcomes that are meaningful and explicit in the design of the OIL project. Reflective practice is considered best practice in higher education (Schön 1983), but if academics are new to virtual mobility and the tenets behind intercultural competency models, it is important that institutional support is given to ensure that reflective work becomes part of raising intercultural awareness.

Being invested in increasing one's own intercultural awareness is the aim of the staff development workshops that are available on a regular basis throughout the academic year. These are voluntary and offered monthly on a cross-faculty basis. Members of staff from different faculties are encouraged to attend so that different perspectives from the distinctive subject fields can be explored and discussed. It is interesting to note that academics from Art and Design often work on the creation of OIL models with colleagues from Mathematics or Engineering, highlighting the fact that projects use the principles of increasing students' intercultural competences rather than the subject field. Insights from other faculty staff can often expose ideas and innovations that are not dependent on specific disciplines.

As more staff gain confidence and competence in running virtual mobility activities, they cascade their knowledge and experiences to colleagues new to the initiative. The institution's aim is for every course to offer a virtual mobility experience by 2021 and course annual reports need to include examples of where this occurs during a programme of study. This feeds forward to the

institution's monitoring processes which include anonymous evaluations from students. From the academic's perspective, this creates a push-pull effect on their proactivity. From the student perspective, OIL projects enrich their intercultural competences and reduce the financial pressures to engage in field trips abroad, enabling international experiences for all. In 2014-15, 1900 students at Coventry University were engaged in OIL projects across the four faculties. Examples of these can be seen on the dedicated website which showcases the projects and the international partners who took part (OIL website 2017). In 2015-16, the number of students engaged in virtual mobility projects at Coventry exceeded 2000, which reflects the drive for academics to create opportunities across courses. A selection of examples from different faculties are presented below.

1. Case Study: 'Coriolanus Online' - Immersive Telepresence in Theatre (University of Tampere, Finland and Coventry University)

This OIL initiative was devised by academics from the University of Tampere in Finland and Coventry University for Theatre and Performance students. Using synchronised filming over the internet onto large screens, students from Finland acted out specific parts from the Shakespeare play, *Coriolanus*, in real time with Coventry students taking the part of opposite actor roles. While there was a slight latency in the performance of several seconds, the need for them to discuss how they would carry out rehearsals and their collaborative work for the final performance gave the two sets of students a greater awareness of how the preparation of theatre performance differed between the two countries (Gorman et al. 2016; 2017).

The aims of the project were:

- Students identify and explore relevant features of performance practices within and in relation to their specific cultural and historical contexts;
- Students demonstrate an engagement with the historical and cultural context of a selected text;
- Students engage in a cultural exchange with each other and explore the differences in theatrical cultures between the UK and Finland.

The activity was not without problems, including creating a viable technical platform for synchronising the performance and, for the Finnish students, the added pressure of performing in English. The staff involved in the project outlined how the initiative was beneficial for themselves as well as the students in the dedicated website where there are interviews from staff about their intercultural experience and those of the students (Gorman et al. 2016).

The wider benefits to creating greater intercultural awareness had a spin-off effect of highlighting how this form of online activity could be translated across subject disciplines to benefit student experiences and intercultural learning. The project won a Re-imagine Education award for its innovation in the Arts and Humanities discipline (Re-imagine Education 2016).

2. Case Study: 'You say tomahto, I say tomayto' (SUNY Genesee Community College and Coventry University)

In this project, students from creative writing courses in Coventry and New York worked on a blog with the theme of student social activity. Both sets of students engaged in writing their experiences of a 'Saturday Night Out' and recorded their reflections on an asynchronous blog. This alleviated issues with time differences and allowed students time to consider the activities that a typical night out might involve between students from two countries with a shared language, but with distinct cultural differences (Morris and Toriseva 2017).

The aims of the project for the participating students were:

- Appreciation of the relation between your field of study locally and professional blog traditions;
- Ability to reflect upon your own and peers' cultural references and appreciation of the complex and interacting factors that contribute to notions of culture and cultural relationships;
- Increased competence in using blogs as a form of creative communication.

This project used an online blog as the virtual platform and was carried out during the period of study, allowing for reflection and peer response. The assessment for both sets of students was to find commonalities or otherwise in the written blogs. The findings raised were interesting and valuable to the students in terms of highlighting the cultural differences that emerged. Despite having similar intercultural experiences through shared history and contemporary media, particularly television, the students found several points of intercultural ignorance. Some reflections from the course director were as follows:

“Coventry students noted several differences between their own experiences and those of their New York cohorts. The New York students appeared to enjoy less elaborate nights out, in most cases preferring a bonfire in the woods as opposed to the Coventry nights out that consisted mostly of clubs and the consumption of alcoholic beverages.

It was noted that driving was a common aspect of the New York students' night out and some articles focused almost entirely on having to drive to places to enjoy themselves. Religion appeared to be an important part of the New York students' lives, and family get-togethers were viewed as the equivalent to a night out.

The New York articles were also limited to a single student's perspective and did not include nights out with peers from their degree; it was noted by the Coventry students that this could be due to students living within proximity to one another in Coventry. Finally, it was noted that there was a significant age gap between both cohorts of students.” (Morris 2017)

3. Case study: Physiotherapy in an international context (University of Gondar, Ethiopia and Coventry University)

The aim of the project was to enable two groups of physiotherapy students in Ethiopia and the UK to collaboratively explore differences and similarities in Physiotherapy assessment and treatment that may exist between their disparate health cultures. In addition, engagement in online activities and clinical scenario discussions provided an opportunity to foster a greater understanding of Physiotherapy in an international context.

Following the close of the project discussion forums, all participants were invited to engage in a focus group to explore how participating in the online learning project may have altered perspectives of physiotherapy in an international context (Barry and Bayisa 2017).

The aims of the project were:

- To improve students' knowledge and understanding of physiotherapy in an international context;
- To improve students' knowledge and understanding of the impact of differences in the wider health culture on physiotherapy and physiotherapeutic interventions;
- To help students learn to communicate with health professional colleagues from other health cultures with greater levels of comfort, satisfaction, confidence and sensitivity;

- To enhance students' intercultural awareness and professional collaboration in a global context;
- To enhance students' digital communicative competence in an academic and professional context.

Student reflections included:

"It was interesting to get ideas from those practicing in other countries with different teaching and treatment skills, I will certainly be bearing this in mind when I treat my next patients."

"It has made me more aware of cultural differences and that some patients might have different beliefs about their pain and symptoms and that religion can influence how a patient can respond to treatment so I will be more aware of this in my treatment sessions."

The online platform used was Open Moodle and facilitated by learning technologists from the university's Centre for Excellence in Learning Enhancement (CELE), which was a strong enabler for the project to continue.

4. Case Study: Computing - Leadership Development and Project Management (Institute of Accountancy, Arusha, Tanzania and Coventry University)

Students from both institutions investigated issues related to Leadership in the Management of Projects and its contextual challenges.

The unique project design allowed students from different nationalities to engage with in-class and online-forum discussions to explore the effectiveness of teaching and learning procedures and to share their ideas with regard to ideas such as 'Project Managers Stumble as Leaders' (Sassman et al. 2017)

The project aims were for students to:

- Interact, engage and collaborate with peers they would not have had the chance to work with otherwise;
- Share understanding of one another's societies, ways of living, and perspectives, to develop valuable intercultural skills and mutual understanding;
- Develop digital skills that are key to life in the 21st Century, especially those that will enable them to participate in team-work involving networks of geographically-dispersed professionals.

The online technologies used were Open Moodle, Facebook, and Twitter, which was a challenge with internet connection issues. It was acknowledged that students were not always able to access these online devices, and delays in communication were not uncommon.

Challenges for students on both projects included:

- Sharing concepts of what leadership is in their professional practice and how project management is understood across both cultures;
- Understanding time 'lags' in online communication and problem-solving using digital project management tools;
- Cultural differences across gender and mannerisms;
- Exploring the concept of 'time', 'deadlines' and 'outcomes' across two cultures;
- Students in Coventry were challenged about how ICT is not always available;

- Students in Tanzania gave video interviews highlighting how they gained insights into student learning in the UK .

Further Research

To access more examples of OIL projects, the dedicated website has more than 70 case studies listed across all disciplines, including the aims of each project and the online technologies used to enable students to interact without travelling to other HEIs (Online International Learning website 2017). An area still to be examined in more depth, is the academics' experiences of designing and implementing projects such as OIL. Student reflections are intrinsic to their assessment, but the experiences of academics who are tasked with IoC are less well known. The next section includes reflections from a purposive sample of ten academics who undertook OIL projects in Coventry University. Of these, five had completed OIL projects previously as early adopters. The other five were new to creating OIL projects. This is by no means a comprehensive sample, but serves as a pilot for future research being completed by the author.

Academics' feedback on designing and implementing OIL projects

An important part of supporting academics is to consider their experiences of implementing virtual mobility projects and working with them to address issues that arise.

An evaluation of the academic experience of embedding OIL projects into the curriculum was undertaken to find out what barriers and enablers were present during the design and delivery of their chosen initiatives.

A purposive sample of academics engaged in OIL projects was collated and short interviews with staff were recorded. The major challenge for staff who were new to designing OIL projects, was finding universities abroad where the staff there were willing to engage on projects. The other equally important issue was ensuring that the students could speak English. The language aspect is very important on the basis that it was often the main reason other HEIs abroad were willing to work with Coventry University. As stated earlier, English is the international language of business and for universities' where this is not the native language, a main incentive to engage with OIL projects were due to the benefit of giving their students experience of working on projects where students had 'mother-tongue' English. It would be interesting to speculate what the currency of this model might be now and in the future, when English may no longer be the accepted dominant language.

One of the main themes emerging from the staff interviews was the positivity in the feedback from students who engaged with OIL projects. This came from both students in Coventry and those in the partner university abroad. From revelations of gaining intercultural awareness, to appreciating cultural differences and similarities, the students said they wanted to engage more with projects as they progressed through their course. Further research is currently being carried out at Coventry University to capture qualitative and quantitative data from the students' perspective.

For the academics who were interviewed, a number of areas were highlighted that challenged them when designing and delivering virtual mobility projects:

- Ensuring that the project was firmly based on helping students to raise intercultural awareness and sensitivity within that subject area and as a transferable skill for employability;

- Engaging with internet-based technologies for communication across borders, particularly in countries where online platforms are not always reliable, e.g. rural areas in Africa;
- Enabling staff to understand the overarching principles of intercultural competency gain and how it can affect their own professionalism as well as that of their students;
- Finding partners abroad where collaboration is an authentic two-way communication process;
- Creating course or module learning outcomes and assessment, whether formative or summative, to incentivise students to embrace gaining intercultural competences;
- Dealing with time differences so that choosing synchronous or asynchronous activities are relevant and productive;
- Creating assessments that offer real insights into what the intercultural competency gain is for students, so that they can articulate this on their CVs or frame this gain in ways that give benefit to their future aspirations;
- Following up with course progression activities to further enhance their students' learning in intercultural awareness and competences;
- Creating space in the staff timetables to be able to facilitate intercultural teaching and learning activities;
- Engaging with up-to-date literature in this field and exploring ways to disseminate their own experiences.

Clearly, there are opportunities to mine richer data on how academics engage with projects like OIL and other internationalisation initiatives. A comprehensive study into aligning their experiences with those of their students will bring forth valuable material around the efficacy of projects such as OIL.

Conclusion

This chapter has sought to present several areas pertinent to academics' perspectives of internationalising the curriculum, particularly with initiatives such as online international learning. From research of the relevant literature, to the design and implementation of 'internationalisation at home' projects, academic staff who wish to engage in raising their own, and their students', intercultural competences, need to be pro-active.

We have explored the need for the principles of intercultural competency be incorporated into the wider curriculum as well as in subject-specific fields, and where this may be problematic, to find innovative ways to create relevancy to students' transferable skills and graduate attributes. Much has already been presented in the pedagogy of internationalisation, but as discussed here, this is not a straightforward pathway to equipping staff with the knowledge and skills required to teach students how to be interculturally competent. Academic staff need to be developed, incentivised and supported in designing curricula that truly embrace intercultural competency in programmes of study.

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Chapter 7: The use of IoC theories within a public health programme and the creation of a transtheoretical approach to sustain curriculum development

Sally Markwell¹

Introduction

“Globalisation brings innovation, new experiences and higher living standards; but it equally contributes to economic inequality and social division” (OECD 2016:1). These assertions from the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD), recognise the unprecedented challenges and opportunities for young people today, who are required to work with others from different disciplines and cultures, in situations in which people’s beliefs and perspectives can be extremely varied. The OECD’s focus upon the creation of ‘Global Competences’ aligns with current thinking across Higher Education Institutions, where these competencies, described as ‘enhancements’ to curricular-based outcomes, have been debated, and researched amongst HEIs for over two decades (Brennan 1995). These skills and personal qualities have also been described as ‘attributes’, a term recognised and developed within higher education through both formal and co-curricular experiences (Nicol 2010).

Although the practice of intercultural study and training are common within the academic fields of language, culture and business (Hyland et al 2008), the development of appropriate levels of international and intercultural competencies are also required in order to respond to global and local health challenges, within the fields of public health (PHE 2015). In this field, practitioners are required to be equipped to both identify and work alongside individuals and communities with a wide range of ethnic identifications, religions, beliefs, and behaviours (Lee 2000). Professional education programmes supporting the development of a wider public health workforce working within communities both in the UK and across the globe are therefore deemed increasingly important in order to improve the health of the public and reduce avoidable illness and health inequalities (PHE 2016a). However, anecdotal and research evidence (HEA 2014b), suggests that opportunities for both staff and students to develop intercultural competencies, ‘does not always happen, nor does it happen by chance’ (2014:3). Leask’s (2015) research into ‘blockers’ to staff engagement in internationalising the curriculum has helped to identify the challenges of supporting staff in their role to develop these specific competencies in students, recognising the need for deliberate strategies and processes to develop intercultural competence across programmes of study.

This chapter therefore aims to identify the challenges associated with the processes of Internationalising the Curriculum within the context of an MSc in Public Health (MSc PH) at Oxford Brookes University presented through the following three sections. Firstly, the associations between public health and an internationalised curriculum are explored. The second section provides a reflective narrative summarising the context and changes achieved through the internationalisation of two public health modules, also illustrated within Tables 1 and 2. The final section offers a discussion concerning the potential use of a conceptual model, a ‘transtheoretical approach’ to change management, that could support staff and student engagement in the development of intercultural perspectives and competencies.

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IoC within Public Health, and the requirements for an internationalised curriculum at Oxford Brookes University (OBU)

Globalisation and Public Health

The concept of globalisation within public health practice was already driving educational debate over 16 years ago to give further priority to the analysis and development of global public health issues within public health professional training (Lee 2000). Many of the public health challenges faced today are global health problems and require an understanding of the global dimensions of health and its influences. It is therefore acknowledged that in an increasingly interconnected and globalised world, public health professionals need to have an understanding of the global influences on health in order to be able to improve the health of the population (Lee 2011). Global disparities in health represent the most stark health inequalities of all and an appreciation of this global burden on health care and the strategies to tackle these at global and local levels also needs to be understood by the public health workforce (Marmot and Wilkinson 2006). There is significant recognition of the cultural impacts of health inequalities emerging amongst vulnerable populations and public health professionals within the UK (Buck and Maguire 2016), alongside global colleagues in the USA (Domenech Rodriguez 2011; Fleckman et al 2015), and Australia (Croager et al 2010) have called for culturally relevant and sensitive training courses that address the planning, implementation and evaluation of public health programs and research across black, minority and ethnic (BME) and indigenous population groups.

Within the UK, many of the public health challenges faced today are recognised as enormously complex (PHE 2015), and arguably require multi-disciplinary professional competencies to navigate across a myriad of global dimensions of health (D'Elia 2009) in order to effectively communicate a vision for health and wellbeing to a wide range of stakeholders (CfWI 2014). HEIs in the UK also recognise that the importance of up-skilling those involved in the delivery of public health research and programmes has never been more urgent, with the scale and potential of a wider public health workforce spanning multi-sectoral contexts of the UK (PHE 2016b). This includes a diverse range of professional groups, working within the NHS, national and local government and academic departments, alongside those from allied health and social care (CfWD 2014). More significantly, the scale, diversity and reach of a wider workforce of up to 15 to 20 million people has been recognised as having great potential to make significant contributions to health and wellbeing across England (CfWI 2015).

Oxford Brookes and Internationalisation

At Oxford Brookes, the widening participation policies emanating from Tony Blair's era in government led to an increase in the number of international students participating in post-graduate studies (HESA 2011) and demonstrated the growing internationalisation of UK university life. In addition, the focus on the increasing mobility of students and academic staff, through the ambitious agenda of the Bologna Process (Dodds and Katz 2009), has also shifted towards what Jones et al (2016) describe as an 'internationalisation at home movement'.

As a Senior Lecturer in public health, with both nursing and public health fields of training and experience, the author has been involved in the delivery of modules within the annual Public Health Masters programme at OBU for six years (2010-16). The majority of students in public health are international (up to 75%), and require a visa to study in the UK, coming to the programme from a range of careers and disciplines: medicine, nursing, pharmacy, physiotherapy, biochemistry, environmental health, social work, media, teaching, and community development. International students often return to work in these areas or into governmental departments and non-governmental organisations (NGOs). A minority of students are 'home students', who are often employed in public health posts already and are taking the course on a part-time basis to enhance their careers. Across the university student entrants from BME Groups (BMEG) has fluctuated during this period with base population averaging between 491 (13.5%: 2010/11) and

687 (16.9% 2014/15) (Chaudhuri 2015), many of whom participated in courses within the Faculties of Business and Health and Life Sciences. Within the past 2 years, however, there has been a noticeable downturn in applications for the MSc in Public Health from the overseas student market corresponding to UK trends (HEFCE 2016).

Skill/competency development

Within the public health field, developments in understanding the advantages of facilitating 'cultural competence' for public health professionals has continued to infiltrate training programmes on a global scale (Doutrich and Storey 2004; Kodjo 2009; Dauvrin and Lorant 2015; PHE 2016a; Community Commons 2017). These competences span the key domains of public health practice from improving health and health care, and protecting population health, to addressing inequalities in health and social care (Hill et al 2007; Lomazzi 2016). In the UK, higher specialist training programmes now aim to equip trainees to work as public health consultants with an awareness of how to promote the health of populations by influencing lifestyle and socio-economic, physical and cultural environments directed towards populations, communities and individuals (FPH 2010).

Over the past seven years, cross-departmental programmes at Oxford Brookes, have begun to provide a variety of cross-curricular activities that demonstrate knowledge and skills showing cross-cultural awareness, the value of human diversity and the ability to work effectively and responsibly within a global context (OBU 2010). A refresh of the Strategy for Enhancing the Student Experience (OBU 2015) revised the definition of global citizenship, renaming it as 'active citizenship', thus clarifying the university's ambition that students will use knowledge and skills described in this attribute to actively engage with local and global communities. This focus provides a clear backdrop for addressing the increasing awareness of the wider values that characterise higher education (NCIHE 1997), and the development of cross-cultural awareness as an ability to question one's own values and those of others responsibly and ethically (Leask 2009; Killick 2016) as key attributes required to integrate within the increasingly global cultures of both workplaces and communities.

Module Developments

The Masters degree in Public Health at OBU has provided a *Foundations in Public Health* module (FPHm) that offers opportunities for home and international students to explore historic and current trends in public health, with an emphasis upon examining the key determinants of health. Environmental, behavioural, socio-economic, cultural and disease factors are critiqued by addressing inequalities across groups, populations and countries, as well as establishing links between health inequalities and race, gender, employment status and class. Since the author's initial involvement in this course (2010/11), annual programme reviews have reflected upon areas of quality enhancement in curriculum development. Within the FPHm, these have focused upon the areas where inclusive and transformational approaches (Morey 2000) have begun to enhance IoC. In 2014, the MSc PH programme was revalidated with curriculum changes and the development of new modules (Public Health Policy - PHPm), with a focus upon embedding further the university's graduate attributes and in particular the notion of active citizenship (OBU 2015). Although there are no professional body accreditation requirements for developing a masters in public health, there are a range of accepted core competencies relevant for public health career development in the UK (PHORCaST 2012) that are positively regarded by international students and employers (CfWI 2014; RSPH 2015).

Reflective narrative on IoC development within MSc Public Health modules

Reflective practice is increasingly recognised as a useful tool across education (Bolton 2010) and healthcare (RCN 2015), from PGCE students (Ghaye 2011), to nurses (Bulman and Schutz 2013)

and paramedics (Markwell and Kerry 2015). Models associated with this process have been developed in order to guide the process of reflection from the superficial to deeper levels that can lead from thoughtful action to transformational learning (Mezirow 1997). A variety of models are available for reflecting on previous practice. Gibb's (1988) reflective cycle, for example, encourages practitioners to focus upon a particular incident through a series of reflective stages, allowing learning from reflection to be formalised through documenting the experience with a consideration upon how to use new knowledge gained in the future. Alternatively, John's model (2009) provides a number of cues that can help practitioners to access, make sense of, and learn through experience, with a focus upon facts, ethics, empathy and situational awareness. Kolb's (1984) experiential learning approach has provided the theoretical basis for these reflective models, offering a cyclical model based on the belief that deep learning comes from a sequence of experience, reflection, abstraction, and active testing. Learning is defined as, "the process whereby knowledge is created through the transformation of experience. Knowledge results from the combination of grasping experience and transforming it" (Kolb 1984:41). This particular focus upon deeper learning in Kolb's (1984) model provides an opportunity to present a chronological reflection of the development and delivery of a *Foundations of Public Health* (FPHm) module for four years (2010; 2011; 2013; 2014), and the design, development and delivery of a new *Public Health Policy* (PHPm) module during 2014/15.

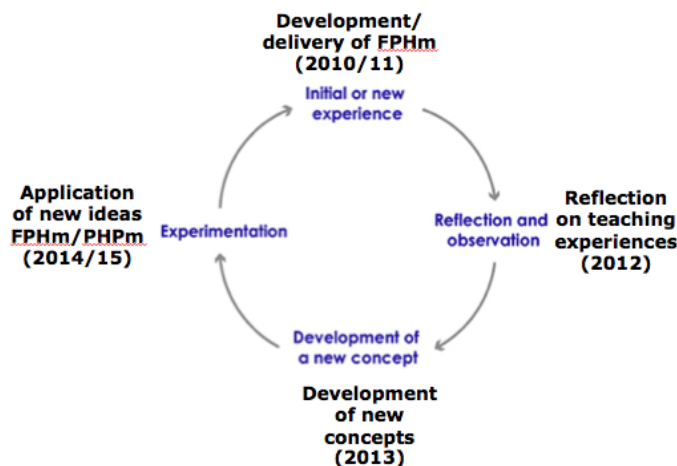


Figure 1: A reflection of module changes using Kolb's (1984) cycle

Reflection occurs within each stage of the cycle beginning with the active experience of development and application of course modules, leading to the stage of reflective observation, whereby challenges and opportunities are identified which, in the third stage are used in the consideration of what has been learned from the experience. The final stage of Kolb's cycle is then presented as the active experimentation of changes made to curriculum design.

This phased reflection focuses specifically upon areas of multi-cultural curriculum development drawn from Kitano's research with multicultural educators (Morey and Kitano 1996), providing the chance to consider transformative levels of progress through recognition and promotion of the values of diversity and equal opportunity (Morey and Kitano 1997).

These areas, which focus upon elements of curriculum design within course content, teaching strategies, assessment, classroom dynamics and outcome measures, can move from non-inclusive, traditional types of teaching, to the addition of different perspectives (inclusive) following examination and synthesis of knowledge construction and new thinking (Morey and Kitano 1996).

These elements align with the exploration of IoC by highlighting the contributions and perspectives of people of differing race, ethnicity, culture, language and religion (Morey and Kitano 1997).

Although no specific commentary from colleagues or students are provided within this reflection, the following discussion is drawn from the author's personal observations and reflections and are linked to published-evidence from wider IoC practice. Explanations of theoretical concepts underpinning the development of curriculum dimensions, together with new suggestions are drawn from the author's own notes from module planning. A brief summary of this information has been mapped within a matrix in Tables 1 and 2, which highlight the key developments within learning phases aligned with the stages of Kolb's cycle across elements of curriculum design (Morey and Kitano 1996).

Phase 1: Initial experiences - Foundations in Public Health module (2010/11)

The first phase of Kolb's cycle, which provides a detailed description of the 'concrete experience' (Kolb 1984), was incorporated by the author in the FPHm. This module was taught over 12 weeks in semester 1 and introduced students to the core elements of public health practice, underpinning other modules in the programme. Elements of course description build upon Kitano's (1998) multi-cultural curriculum model relating to content, teaching strategies, assessment, classroom dynamics and outcome measures.

Course content within this module involved identifying literature associated with recognising diversity within multi-cultural education (Banks 1997), that could be linked directly to the specialised training curriculum recognised through the Faculty of Public Health (FPH 2007). Curriculum content was designed to address the social determinants of health (Marmot and Wilkinson 2006). Content provided a range of global perspectives (FPH 2007) through an understanding of, for example, the challenges of addressing the relationships between local actions and global consequences in achieving the Millennium Development Goals (WHO 2005), which as Killick (2007:203) suggests, can act as 'ethical underpinning' that supports the development of cross-cultural capability and provides a values-based ethos.

Teaching strategies within this module, as with other medical specialties, provided a distinct set of knowledge, skills and expertise for those wishing to pursue careers within the field of public health. Opportunities to link international and cross-cultural perspectives were introduced mainly through blended teaching and active learning seminars (Pedlar and Abbott 2013). Disease prevalence discussions, for example, highlighted the impact of globalisation on population health from infectious diseases, tobacco use, unhealthy diet and factors contributing to mortality in high/low income countries (Killick 2007; Lee et al 2011). However, the domains of public health were generally only explored through western-centric perspectives (Clifford and Montgomery 2011), addressing public health protection, promotion, and service improvement.

Assessment strategies were undertaken in two forms: firstly, through group working, providing an oral presentation on a specified PH intervention and, secondly, as an individual written assignment based upon the critical analysis of a self-selected public health issue. Basic alignment of learning outcomes with assessment strategies encouraged group-based discussions, application of theory and self-directed learning (Kember 2001; Biggs 2003).

Classroom dynamics followed Faculty of PH guidance and typically included didactic presentations of core knowledge (FPH 2007). However, the supplementation of existing curriculum with international examples within specific areas of health improvement, as well as the facilitation of engagement with other students from different disciplines and cultural backgrounds (Barron et al 2010), can be recognised as supporting graduate attributes (OBU 2015).

Outcome measures provided a mixed approach to both student-centred and traditional outcomes (Gibbs and Coffey 2004), and in relation to IoC, focused upon the development of knowledge and understanding linked directly to the relevance of public health within students' own disciplines as well as geographical and multi-disciplinary challenges in public health (Marmot and Wilkinson 2006). Professional skills outcomes related to factors influencing student's own beliefs and values about public health (Lee et al 2011), their management and leadership styles and a range of transferable skills embedded across programme modules which, at that time encompassed academic skills, and the evaluation of different strategies including personal learning (Fry et al 2009), as well as their ability to situate health communication within local contexts (Dutta 2008).

Phase 2: Reflective observation - only FPHm (2012)

A SWOT analysis (strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, threats) (Wehrich 1982) guided Phase 2 of Kolb's cycle and provided an opportunity to reflect upon what had been 'done and experienced' (Kolb 1984) during these two years related to internationalisation of the FPH course. A summary of the SWOT is presented in Table 1 and raises a number of issues for further consideration.

Course Content:

Strengths: The author reflected upon her own social and cultural background, as well as previous involvement in adult education. Her experience of Welsh and European languages both formally and informally acquired, had already helped to both motivate and support research into the development of health education within Romanian communities (unpublished M.A. Ed. 1990), followed by mono-cultural training of a group of Romanian professionals. Within OBU, pro-active interventions to address obstacles to learning encountered by individual students had been provided through the universities' Academic and Cultural Orientation Programme (ACOP) (OBU 2010).

Weaknesses: However, it was clear that teaching methods impacted upon experiences within the classroom, highlighting how cultural differences can affect communication, relationships and learning. A reflection upon course materials also contributed to some unease for the author in that the curriculum/teaching methods/styles prepared for the FPHm could at this time also contribute to "academic 'culture shock'" for transitioning students (Carroll and Appleton 2007).

Opportunities: The author arranged extra-curricular discussions with some of the international students in an effort to understand their experiences of studying within a new culture and their recognition of the differences they faced and the barriers and opportunities they encountered. The focus on global citizenship (OBU 2010) encouraged students' awareness of ecological and sustainability issues.

Threats: A number of concerns emerged through these conversations, which highlighted the fact that students were struggling to adapt to the classroom environment and were also troubled by their increasing feelings of isolation and ability to cope with the challenges of living in the UK associated with accommodation, healthcare, currency and socialisation.

Teaching approaches and strategies:

Strengths: Staff team involvement in the development of the course handbook was based upon discussions concerning the previous years' course evaluation with minor changes to the provision of class lecture notes and organisation of guest lecturers. Attention was also given to the international perspectives and views of those from a variety of cultures, with the use of Bigg's (2003) focus upon more culturally inclusive teaching strategies.

Weaknesses: However, it was clear that the author's own understanding of healthcare systems within less developed countries and the burdens of disease affected by conflicts, environment and extreme poverty needed to improve in order to provide a more balanced curriculum.

Opportunities: Student's tended to be more comfortable engaging in learning tasks with their own cultures for example, often reverting to their national language in communication. Recognition of the challenges within healthcare e.g. experiences of specific diseases such as Malaria, Dengue Fever, or high levels of infant mortality, were discussed with greater confidence when shared with each other, as opposed to presenting to other cultures.

Threats: The author also had concerns about her potential misconceptions concerning students' learning experiences in response to western educational methods.

Formal assessment:

Strengths: Formative classroom assessment undertaken at both mid and end of semester provided helpful feedback from students on their learning experiences (Gibbs 2010), and when combined with formal on-line module evaluations underpinned changes in module development.

Weaknesses: A more traditional (non-inclusive) approach towards assessment had been used in general during 2010/11, which reduced opportunities to recognise cross-cultural competencies, by allowing students to select their own country as the context for their written assignment.

Opportunities: The use of comparative case studies was introduced during multi-cultural group working which enabled some critical reflection of shared experiences.

Threats: A lack of understanding amongst multi-cultural peers of their own culture's priorities was observed, which impacted upon discussions in relation to healthcare decisions and public health dilemmas.

Classroom Dynamics:

Strengths: A proactive approach to formulating cross-cultural groups for classroom activities and assessment, provided opportunities for students to explore different ideas and experiences.

Weaknesses: During this phase, it was clear the author's recognition of some of the challenges of intercultural working were limited as student feedback highlighted frustrations about being misrepresented by others due to their lack of cultural understanding.

Opportunities: Undoubtedly students brought a wealth of experience and knowledge to classes and when this was recognised it was clear each was a valuable resource to one-another.

Threats: Within the classroom international students found that working within multi-cultural groups affected their confidence, often feeling embarrassed by their language abilities and confused by their peers expectations of their involvement with group tasks.

Outcome Measures:

Strengths: Module assessments provided opportunities for students to demonstrate their understanding of the key domains of public health practice from improving health, improving health care and protecting population health to addressing inequalities in health and social care. The promotion of intercultural inclusivity through group learning and assessment helped to identify the challenges and opportunities for creating positive intercultural attitudes.

Weaknesses: Although links to graduate attributes had been made that embraced graduate qualities in relation to values and cross-cultural understanding, specific understanding and measures for the identification of intercultural competencies were not used at that time.

Opportunities: The forthcoming preparation for the Public Health MSc programme revalidation (2014), provided an opportunity for the concept of global citizenship, through students' awareness of ecological and sustainability issues, to be formally adopted into the curriculum.

Threats: Current skills gaps for staff in recognising and aligning intercultural competencies with learning outcomes remained a key concern.

Table 1: Changes in MSc Public Health Module Development 2010-2015 – Reflection Phases 1 & 2

	<i>Kitano (1998)</i>				
<i>Kolb (1984)</i>	Course Content	Teaching strategies	Module Assessment	Classroom Dynamics	Outcome Measures
Phase 1: Development/ Delivery FPHm (2010/11) – actual	Formal curriculum: Globalisation impact on population health e.g. infectious diseases, tobacco use, unhealthy diet (WHO 2005; FPH 2007); Addressing inequalities (Marmot and Wilkinson 2006) Recognising diversity (Banks 1997)	Blended teaching and active learning seminars (Pedlar and Abbott 2013) Discussion of factors contributing to mortality in high/low income countries (Killick 2007); Lee et al 2011) Western-centric perspectives (Clifford and Montgomery 2011)	Oral: Assessed group working on specified PH intervention (Kember 2001) Written: Assignment focus on self-selected public health issue (Biggs 2003) Formative evaluation: Teaching strategies, 1:1 interviews international students	Exploration of PH and interventions (FPH 2007) through lectures, self-directed learning, peer led mono & multi-cultural group work (Barron et al 2010) supporting graduate attributes (OBU 2010)	Module Learning Outcomes: Mixed approach: Both student-centred and traditional outcomes (Gibbs and Coffey 2004) Knowledge & understanding: Relationship between social inequalities and health inequalities (Marmot and Wilkinson 2006) Disciplinary and Professional Skills: Identify and analyse own beliefs and values about public health in relation to own area of work; (Lee et al 2011) Transferable skills: An ability to present ideas to different audiences using appropriate media within local contexts (Dutta 2008)
Phase 2: Reflection on Teaching experience (2012) – personal SWOT	Strengths: International and cross-cultural perspectives OBU – ACOP programme Weaknesses: Teaching styles; cultural differences; course materials/ academic culture shock Opportunities: Extra-curricular discussions; global citizenship Threats: Adaption to class environment; communication/language issues; culture shock	Strengths: Course evaluation; culturally inclusive teaching strategies Weaknesses: Tutor understanding of international healthcare systems Opportunities: Mono-cultural class collaboration Threats: Student reactions to western educational methods	Strengths: Formative classroom / on-line module assessments Weaknesses: Traditional non-inclusive/ mono-cultural approaches Opportunities: Use of comparative case studies Threats: Lack of understanding of cultural priorities in shared assessment subjects	Strengths: Engagement with other students from their own and different disciplines and cultural backgrounds Weaknesses: Misrepresentation by others; lack of cultural understanding Opportunities: Students as valuable resource Threats: Limitations in confidence/language; stereotyping	Strengths: Recognition of inequalities Promotion of intercultural inclusivity Weaknesses: Lack of intercultural competency learning outcomes Opportunities: Preparation for MSc programme revalidation Threats: Skills gap for staff in recognising intercultural competencies

Table 2: Changes in MSc Public Health Module Development 2010-2015 – Reflection Phases 3 & 4

Kolb	Course Content	Teaching strategies	Module Assessment	Classroom Dynamics	Outcome Measures
Phase 3: Development of new concepts (2013) - theoretical	Students' roles and relationships (Montgomery 2010; HEA 2014a) Links between "globalisation and inter-cultural competence (Leask 2008; Clifford 2013) Adapting to new cultures (Shaules 2007) Supporting students in culturally different educational environments (Ryan 2010; Killick 2011) Western curriculum causing conflicts in cultural assumptions (Davis 2011) Understanding of 'culture shock' (Walsh 2010) Cross-cultural learning (Thornton et al 2011)	The formal, informal and hidden curriculum (Leask 2009; Banks 2009) Traditional national and local practices and wisdom (Ryan 2011) Bringing cultural beliefs to practice (Lupton 2012) Global burden on health care services (Lee et al 2011) Understanding of the culture and ideology (Hunter 2009) Facilitation of non-western as well as western education methods (Biggs 1999)	Challenging orthodoxy and bringing about change (Caruana 2010) 'Cross-cultural capability' as a graduate attribute (Killick 2005) Shared/comparative case studies (Galligan 2008)	Intercultural Development Continuum (IDC – 2012) Cultural adaptation (Shaules 2007) Challenges of multi-cultural student group work (Popov et al 2012) Multi-cultural group task training (Montgomery 2010)	Intercultural inclusivity (Clifford and Montgomery 2011) 'Global-ready' graduates in the 21 st century (Deardorff and Jones 2012) The Global People Competency Framework' (Spencer-Oatey and Stadler 2009)
Phase 4: Application of new ideas FPHm & PHPm (2014/2015) - actual	Introduction of global and inter-cultural perspectives Recognition of student diversity as a resource Recognition of health needs and service improvement within developed/developing countries Introduction of a wider range of global examples and case studies	Pro-active approaches to relationship building Informal curriculum development / multi-cultural pairing Class buddy groups / comparing western and non-westernised cultures Active learning tasks Opportunities for discussion of own country priorities	Assessment strategies scaffolded into class activities Written and oral collaborative/individual assessments Weekly workbook tasks Poster creation / class debates Critical assessment of ethnocentric viewpoint	Establishment of 'Cultural Celebration' Positive group dynamics Opportunities to meet local professionals	Module Learning Outcomes include international perspectives Shifts in mind-sets from mono to intercultural Shifts in relationships amongst all students Active Citizenship through creation of Public Health Society Formative evaluation of cross-cultural competences

Phase 3: Development of new concepts (2013)

Within the context of public health, one approach to tackling health inequities is to consider an asset-based model which provides scientific evidence and best practice on how to maximise the stock of key assets necessary for promoting health (Morgan and Ziglio 2007), rather than only looking at the inequalities, problems and needs of a population. This approach to redressing the balance between the assets and deficit models for evidence-based public health could also be used to help unlock some of the existing barriers to effective action concerning the development of an internationalised curriculum.

During phase 3 therefore, a basic literature review was undertaken which identifies a number of known IoC concepts, and helps to make sense of the SWOT analysis in phase 2 of this reflective narrative. This third phase of Kolb's cycle appropriately leads us to align strengths/opportunities and weaknesses/threats alongside this evidence base in order to identify potential strategies, which helped to progress the internationalisation of the public health curriculum.

Addressing Course Content:

Consideration of strengths/opportunities

Apart from her own cultural experiences, the author has been able to draw strength from a number of studies which demonstrate how course content can also impact upon students' roles and relationships. For example, Montgomery's (2010) research into the outlooks from international and home staff and students in recognising their experiences of the developing links between "globalisation and inter-cultural competence" (Leask 2008), align with Clifford's (2013) focus upon three specific components: global perspectives; intercultural communication; and socially responsible citizenship. These components are reflected within the roles of students acknowledged by the HEA (2014a), that require the knowledge, skills and attitudes that "...comprise a person's ability to get along with, work and learn with people from diverse cultures"(ibid:3).

Consideration of weaknesses/threats

However, from a personal perspective, it is also important to take note of the difficulties and unpredictability of adapting to life in a new culture (Shaules 2007), with attention needing to be drawn towards how to support students adapting to culturally different educational environments (Ryan 2010; Killick 2011). This may require a more exploratory focus upon curriculum content drawing upon diverse sources with an appreciation that for many international students, the use of western-centric curriculum can create conflicts in cultural assumptions (Davis 2011). An appreciation of the transitions that international students were experiencing, which could also affect their relationships with others, leading to marginalisation and a lack of confidence was helpfully explored through a further understanding of 'culture shock' (Walsh 2010), and the negative impact upon the potential benefits of cross-cultural learning (Thornton et al 2011).

Addressing teaching approaches and strategies:

Consideration of strengths/opportunities

Building upon the strengths of staff involvement in course planning the author recognises how the interactive elements of formal, informal and hidden curriculum (Leask 2009), need to be explored as a dynamic interplay of teaching and learning processes. Whereby, attention to content, topics, resources and assessment (formal and informal) could contribute and define the cultural perspectives that influence course preparations and learning outcomes. The notion of the 'hidden curriculum' (Banks 2009), also provides an opportunity to consider the values placed upon

the knowledge imparted as well as the relationships forming between tutor and students, with recognition of traditional national and local practices and wisdom (Ryan 2011). What is helpful to recognise are the culture-bound syndromes that can be identified in both western and non-western cultures, revealed in the mono-cultural discussions between students, whereby the life-worlds of patients, health-care and public health professionals bring their own cultural beliefs to their practice (Lupton 2012).

Consideration of weaknesses/threats

A recognition of the global disparities in health representing the most stark health inequalities and an appreciation of this global burden on health care services (Lee et al 2011) need to be appreciated more fully by both tutors and students through an understanding of the culture and ideology perceived as essential for the management of healthcare systems undergoing reform (Hunter 2009). These discussions require facilitation of non-western as well as western education methods, taking into consideration students approaches to learning with acknowledgement that students from Confucian heritage cultures (CHC) (e.g. China, Japan, Hong Kong, Thailand), for example, may lack critical thinking skills and are often more used to rote learning (Biggs 1999).

Addressing Formal Assessment:

Consideration of strengths/opportunities

Assessment methods focussed upon participant learning and included setting assessment tasks such as extended assignments that involved participants researching a topic and producing work based on their own research. Using comparative case materials (Galligan 2008) that acknowledged cultural relevance, students were enabled to provide different ways of thinking about the world, challenging orthodoxy and bringing about change (Caruana 2010).

Consideration of weaknesses/threats

The lack of recognition of cross-cultural competencies within formal assessment strategies needed to be reviewed in line with a level of know-how required for effective intercultural interaction. Killick's (2005) curriculum review of essential elements for the promotion of global citizenship, in which 'cross-cultural capability' was identified as a graduate attribute provided three major elements for effective and responsible engagement with a globalising world which could be used as parameters for further assessment. These are:

1. Intercultural awareness and associated communication skills;
2. International and multi-cultural perspectives on one's discipline area;
3. Application in practice (2005:3).

Addressing Classroom Dynamics:

Consideration of strengths/opportunities

Shaules (2007) work on cultural adaptation provided some clarity into how student engagement may be perceived both positively and negatively. The author also considered how Hammer's Intercultural Development Continuum (2012) Table 3, could highlight one's capability of shifting cultural perspectives and adapting behavior to cultural contexts.

As the author reflected upon her experience of mono-cultural perspectives in her previous training, she considered how such a continuum could support staff and students in understanding their own levels of perception from culturally-based patterns of difference to a more complex experience around cultural diversity.

Table 3: An explanation of Hammer’s Intercultural Development Continuum (Hammer 2012)

Denial:	Not noticing cultural differences and separating from those that are different
Polarization: Defence:	Awareness of other cultures but lack of understanding and negative stereotyping and distrust
Polarization: Reversal:	Recognition that other cultures better than ones own and therefore judgemental of own culture
Minimization:	Awareness of cultural differences but on a surface level, assumes similar understanding to those of different cultures
Acceptance:	Awareness and understanding of differences in cultures, accept other perspectives as rich as one’s own, seeks further understanding
Adaptation:	Recognising value of having more than one cultural perspective and able to evaluate situations from another cultural perspective, able to change behaviour to act in culturally appropriate ways

Consideration of weaknesses/threats

Concerns experienced from class group work however needed further exploration and were accepted as not unique. Similar concerns were recognised in research studies by Popov and colleagues (2012) into the challenges of multi-cultural student group work (MCSG) and student feedback in relation to issues concerning group membership and group processes. In particular, academic attitudes, knowledge domains and ambition, could be associated with members’ traditional educational experiences; whilst group processes were affected by attitudinal problems, different styles of decision making and problem solving, insufficient English language skills and students not communicating properly, and individual effort (ibid.). Certainly early experiences of managing the dynamics involved in multi-cultural group tasks highlighted the need for students unaccustomed to collaborative working to be provided with the education and training in the required skills to handle the challenges of working with groups (Montgomery 2010).

Addressing Outcome Measures:

Consideration of strengths/opportunities

Shifts in intercultural attitudes and skills, focusing for example upon intercultural inclusivity (Clifford and Montgomery 2011) amongst the students, had been identified through oral and written assignment tasks that included self-reflection, as well as critical thinking. Results of these tasks were perceived as opportunities to create the development of “...’global-ready’ graduates in the 21st century who will be able to address global challenges and live in an increasingly interconnected society” (Deardorff and Jones 2012:283).

Consideration of weaknesses/threats

Although links to graduate attributes had been made that embraced graduate qualities in relation to values and cross-cultural understanding, specific understanding and measures for the identification of intercultural competencies were not included within assessment protocols at that time. There was clearly a need for guidance upon how these measures could be acquired. This deficiency led the author to explore the ‘The Global People Competency Framework’ (Spencer-

Oatey and Stadler 2009), which identifies four interrelated clusters, according to the aspect of competence students may affect or relate to that includes: knowledge and ideas; communication; relationships; personal qualities and dispositions. The framework was a helpful resource as a formative reflection for students of their own awareness of intercultural competency development and helped build confidence in class discussion across alternative cultures.

Phase 4: Application of new ideas FPHm & PHPm (2014/15)

This final phase of reflection highlights the changes in module development that have evolved following the first three phases to support 'curricular transformation', identified by Banks and Banks (2010), as enabling students to view concepts, issues, events, and themes from the perspectives of various ethnic and cultural groups.

The first two phases highlighted that a more traditional (non-inclusive) approach towards curriculum development (Kitano 1998) had been used in general during 2010/11. The literature review provided an opportunity to consider additional (more inclusive) perspectives, which could be developed, in subsequent years to include "...critical thinking, examination of the construction of knowledge, and synthesis of old and new (or different) perspectives" (Mayo and Larke 2011: 5). Subsequent discussions with colleagues within the public health team provided an opportunity to formulate new ways of thinking and the creation of a more appropriate range of approaches to address the challenges that had been identified. During this phase both inclusive and transformative approaches to curriculum development were introduced through a number of changes across curriculum content, teaching strategies, forms of assessment and classroom dynamics.

Changes in curriculum content

Changes in module content introduced global and inter-cultural perspectives through formal, informal and hidden curriculum, with continual comparisons between developing and developed country perspectives, policy, interventions and evaluation strategies, in both modules. Student diversity was recognised as a resource, with introductions to disciplines and public health priorities used at the beginning of each module as an ice-breaker. Recognition of the impact of cultural difference upon health needs and service improvement was recognised throughout the development of the Public Health Policy module (PHPm) and continuing adaptations within the FPHm. Further amendments included a wider range of global examples and case studies.

Changes in teaching strategies

Pro-active approaches to relationship building, embraced the principles of shifting towards an intercultural mind-set and provided the context for informal curriculum development through the formation of multi-cultural pairing and class buddy groups, for group tasks and mutual support. The adoption of a process of paired buddy groups for example, provided opportunities for comparing western and non-westernised cultures and health experiences within own country contexts. Active learning tasks were introduced with consideration of individual similarities and differences (hidden curriculum) ensuring opportunities for own country priorities to be introduced within class discussions.

Changes in forms of assessment

Assessment strategies were scaffolded into class activities using both written and oral assessment tasks through the creation of a weekly workbook. The presentation of a poster within multi-cultural teams focused upon the difference between health improvement strategies between developed and developing countries. The organisation of class debates/group presentations, have been a continuing success, and assessment strategies have provided opportunities for both individual and group assessment. Written assignments have ensured marking rubrics take into

account elements of diversity and critical thinking, whereby the final essay provides critical assessment of ethnocentric viewpoints (FPHm) and the assignment task compares home country health improvement policy with alternative perspectives (PHPm).

Changes in classroom dynamics

As part of the ongoing recognition of student diversity, a 'Cultural Celebration' has become an established activity within the first semester, in which students and tutors wear national costumes, share food, music, poetry, etc. This has been so popular that the event, primarily used as an end of term celebration is now organised within the first few weeks, to support relationship building and inclusivity, which has a tremendous impact upon classroom dynamics. Group working has clearly been viewed as a much more positive experience, to the extent that in one semester, students within the debate teams created their own T shirts/outfits as they presented their arguments. Opportunities to meet with local professionals and share diverse perspectives within an environment of mutual respect, have also been created through the provision of a 'Question Time' session.

Changes in Measuring Outcomes

Students have engaged in a formative evaluation of their own development of cross-cultural competences, awareness and expertise through the creation of a questionnaire based upon the Global People Competency Framework (Spencer-Oatey and Stadler 2009). During these two years, there have been recognisable shifts amongst the students from a mono-cultural to an intercultural mind-set, with demonstrable examples of cross-cultural sensitivity. Students have been able to identify where there are cultural, social and political differences within and between groups of students and teachers. Formal evaluation of the modules highlight recognition of the usefulness of insights into different cultures with mainly positive reflections and clear shifts in relationships amongst all students. Module learning outcomes identified specific areas of IoC development through the assessment of global population health and wellbeing, analysis of policy and strategic development, leadership and collaborative working and insight into own leadership style and preferences, and display of critical self-appraisal and reflective practice. The students' developing traits as active citizens is well illustrated through the creation of their own Public Health Society (in 2015), obtaining sponsorship from the Student Union and working together, gaining knowledge of the local community, sharing and questioning their global perspectives and engaging with issues of equity, sustainability and social justice (OBU 2015).

Summary

This reflection upon the IoC process over the previous five years, highlights transformative changes that have been achieved at programme and individual levels, identified by Mezirow as, "...the process of using a prior interpretation to construe a new or revised interpretation of the meaning of one's experience in order to guide future action" (in Taylor 2007:173).

At programme level, content changes provided an introduction to global and inter-cultural perspectives through discussions about health needs and service improvement within developed/developing countries using a wider range of global examples and case studies. However, key to programme transformation has been the use of pro-active approaches to relationship building through multi-cultural pairing, providing opportunities for comparisons between western and non-westernised cultures through active learning tasks and the scaffolding of weekly workbook activities and assessments presenting critical assessments of western and non-westernised ethnocentric viewpoints.

At individual levels, the author observed clear shifts in intercultural mindsets that resulted from the changes in teaching approaches and the more transformative elements of students' personal

development. This is illustrated through extremely positive formal and informal module feedback, but more importantly the demonstrable intercultural competencies in students' abilities to work collaboratively and inclusively through positive communications and relationships within the classroom. Students' commitment to furthering their own experiences of active citizenship can also be recognised through the development of the Public Health Society.

On a departmental level, managing a more sustainable approach towards curriculum transformation, appears to be a more substantial task and one that can only be achieved through the co-operation and commitment of colleagues. Motivating staff to not only commit to curriculum development but to also be prepared to reflect upon their own cultural mindset and develop their own cultural competencies could be a significant challenge. As Williams et al (2016) have recently observed, attempting to change individual mind-sets, beliefs and attitudes within the context of inspiring teaching requires small step changes rather than seismic shifts. Clarifying which issues drive us forward or hold us back when we are trying to make a decision to get involved within IoC appears to require further investigation. This observation has led to a consideration of Leask's (2015) ideas of creating enabling forces that support change. These issues will be further explored in the next section of this chapter.

Managing change

This final section pursues the development of a conceptual model that could be used to shift cultural perspectives and develop intercultural competencies amongst staff and students. Firstly, there is a need to acknowledge the significance of the emotions underlying people's attitude to change and the challenges of managing change.

Leask (2015) draws upon Lewin's (1948) awareness that one requires a focus upon reducing impediments to change rather than introducing new policy or mandates for implementation. Leask's 'enablers' appear to address skill gaps for staff and their knowledge of terminology and concepts associated with IoC. As the author has experienced, although staff workshops can be helpful in providing information and a forum for discussion, they rarely result in facilitating the personal motivation and change required to internationalise the curriculum (Leask 2015). Earlier in this chapter, the adoption of a model used within public health contexts for asset mapping was tailored to identify potential strategies, which helped to progress the internationalisation of the public health curriculum. In a similar vein, these concepts of motivation and managing change are also recognised as the cornerstones of public health intervention strategies, which aim to enable people to make decisions that can positively improve their health.

One model that helps to support this type of change management process is known as the Stages of Change Model (Prochaska and DiClemente 1983). Originating from theories of psychotherapy and behaviour change to reduce the harm from tobacco smoking, the Stages of Change Model integrates key theories from the process of decision-making (Dewey 1978), management of change (Lewin 1948) and self-efficacy (Bandura 1977). The model also known as the Transtheoretical Model (TTM), embeds these cognitive and behavioural processes and principles of change, within stages that are most commonly illustrated as a cycle. This model, based upon the premise that "behaviour change is a process, not an event" (Macdowall et al 2011:75), has been extensively used in health behaviour change programmes in the UK and elsewhere (Taylor et al 2006) to moderate behaviour through consideration of the barriers and benefits to change (Prochaska and DiClemente 1992). The stages are described in Table 4 below. By adapting the concepts from this table, one could envisage that some staff may not recognise (Stage 1) the requirements for IoC to take place, whilst others see the potential (Stage 2), but then need some help to develop appropriate strategies to undertake the changes required (Stage 3) etc. The table helps to identify the stages of the change process where appropriate support can be provided. In addition, the actual changes in behaviour and beliefs in relation to IoC, have been clearly

illustrated by Hammer's (2012), Intercultural Development Continuum (refer to Table 3). This model highlights changes in perception from monocultural mindsets towards intercultural or global mindsets through recognition of the stages of change from denial, through to acceptance and eventually adaptation. Both staff and students have the potential to move through this continuum as transformative changes within curriculum development take place.

Table 4: Application of the Stages of Change Model (After Gottwald and Goodman-Brown 2012)

	Feelings	Support
Stage 1: Pre- contemplation	Not seeing the importance; Not thinking about change; Not needing any help;	Focusing on the general benefits; Discussing disadvantages of not changing; Providing information; Offering support
Stage 2: Contemplation	Aware there is a problem; Thinking about change;	Discuss advantages and disadvantages; Support problem solving and decision making; Acknowledging change is not easy; Arrange further support
Stage 3: Commitment	Focus upon change; Identifies goals for change; Identification of skills to support change	Discuss and acknowledge concern; Identification of barriers Encouragement of skills Provision of specific support
Stage 4: Action	Prioritise changes Recognition that change has happened Participation in new ways of being Reflecting on changes	Identification of strategies to support the change Acknowledge success, increase confidence Provide interventions to further improve confidence Discuss triggers that may cause a relapse
Stage 5: Maintenance	Continuing change Recognising the challenges of maintaining the change	Identification of strategies that have supported the change so far Providing other support opportunities Planning for monitoring and follow-up
Stage 6: Relapse	Reverting to previous behaviours Recognising relapse is a normal part of change Understanding what caused the relapse Identify further goals to go forward	Encourage positive thinking Identify the strategies that worked so far Re-focus on the contemplation/action stages and go forward

Being aware of the challenges and opportunities within university departments as well as programme teams can also help in the planning of IoC development. The Global People

Competency Framework (Spencer-Oatey and Stadler 2009) provides a further opportunity to assess areas of intercultural competency, previously introduced in Section 2 of this paper as an assessment tool for students, could also be used for staff to build specific areas of confidence.

By focusing upon the alignment between these three models/tools it is possible to visualise the potential for developing a combined model to support the shift from mono-to intercultural mindset. Table 5 aligns the stages of change and the continuum for changing mindset, alongside the development of intercultural competencies. Although stage six has not been identified here, the requirement for reflection and adjustment might be embedded within each stage to ensure realistic progress.

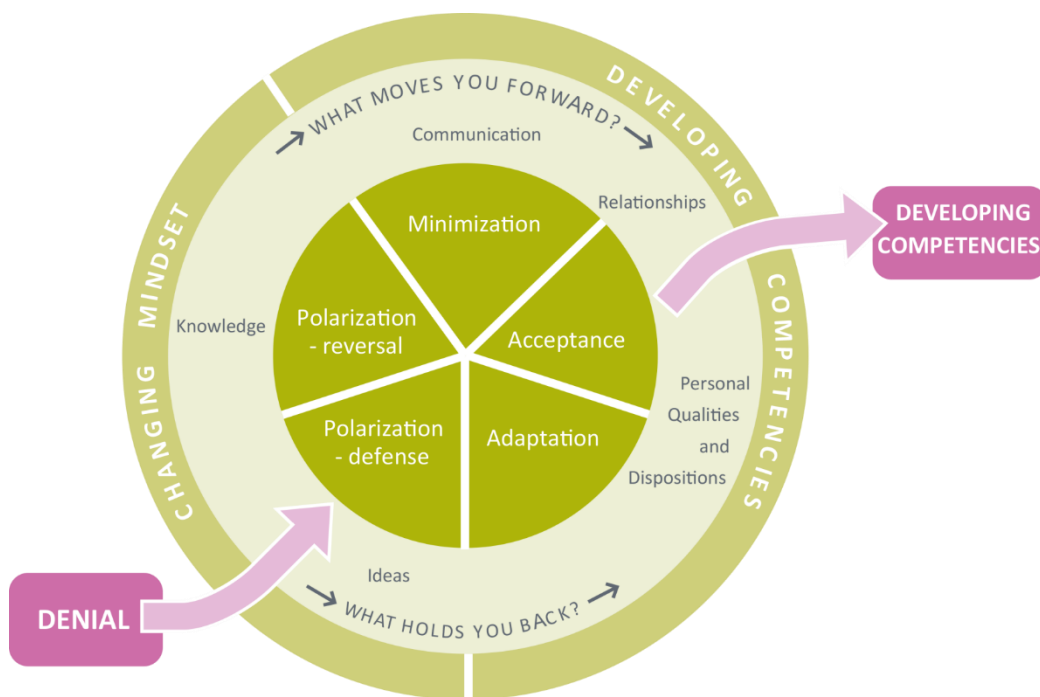
Table 5: Integration of the Stages of Change Model with Intercultural Development Continuum and The Global People Competency Framework

	Changing Mindset	Developing Competencies
Stage 1: Pre-contemplation (Denial)	Being comfortable with the familiar Not anxious to complicate life with 'cultural difference' Not noticing cultural differences and separating from those that are different	
Stage 2: Contemplation (Polarization defence/reversal)	Aware of other cultures but lack of understanding and negative stereotyping and distrust (D) Recognition that other cultures better than ones own and therefore judgemental of own culture (R)	Ideas & Knowledge Information gathering New thinking
Stage 3: Commitment (Minimization)	Awareness of cultural differences but on a surface level, Assumes similar understanding to those of different cultures	Goal orientation Synergistic solutions Language learning Language adjustment
Stage 4: Action (Acceptance)	Awareness and understanding of differences in cultures, Accept other perspectives as rich as one's own, seeks further understanding	Active listening Attuning Building of shared knowledge and mutual trust Stylistic flexibility Welcoming of strangers Rapport building Sensitivity to social/professional context Interpersonal attentiveness
Stage 5: Maintenance (Adaptation)	Recognise value of having more than one cultural perspective and Able to evaluate situations from another cultural perspective, Able to change behaviour to act in culturally appropriate ways	Spirit of adventure Self-awareness Acceptance Flexibility Inner purpose Coping Resilience

Figure 2 below, 'Changing Mindsets and Developing Competencies', presents the synergies between the three models (Prochaska & DiClemente 1983; Hammer 2012 and Spencer-Oatey and

Stadler 2009), and offers a new approach to supporting staff and students to engage with Internationalisation of the Curriculum. By using a cyclical approach, the figure identifies entry into the stages of change mindset and is supported by the developing competencies that could be offered by student or teacher, depending upon the scenario. A reminder of the enablers and blockers as areas for potential encouragement or relapse throughout the cycle are depicted by, 'what moves you forward?' and 'what holds you back?' (Leask 2015).

Figure 2: Changing Mindsets and Developing Competencies (CMDC): Model to support IoC, adapted from Prochaska & DiClemente (1983); Hammer (2012) and Spencer-Oatey and Stadler (2009)



The figure thus emphasises how cultural competencies can potentially support shifts in intercultural mindsets, whether these be identified by students or teachers. It provides both a recognition that the process is akin to managing change and can also be used as a form of assessment in recognising that change has happened.

Conclusion

Key areas of reflection within this chapter have focused upon the development of appropriate levels of international and intercultural competencies required in order to respond to global and local health challenges with the context of public health. A reflective narrative highlighted aspects of module planning and delivery and demonstrated an alignment of key literature from the field of IoC that can support transformational change in curriculum development. The opportunity to manage shifts in mindset and the development of intercultural competencies amongst students and staff has been discussed through the creation of a transtheoretical model adapted from known public health theories. The process of change now rests with you. As you have already read this chapter you are undoubtedly in the contemplation stage of the change process. Please use these insights and models to support your own journey towards curriculum transformation.

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