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On enhancing professional development within an internationalisation context

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RIJKSUNIVERSITEIT GRONINGEN

On enhancing professional development
within an internationalisation context

Proefschrift

ter verkrijging van het doctoraat in de

Letteren

aan de Rijksuniversiteit Groningen

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Marion Troia

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Dedicated to the memory of Carl Troia
1925 - 1976.

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Chapter one *Introduction*

This thesis recounts an investigation into providing Dutch higher education teachers with in-service learning opportunities in the context of internationalisation of the curricula.

The teachers concerned were experienced in delivering courses at the Northern University of Applied Sciences (hereafter NUAS) in their own subject areas and in their native language. However, none of them were trained to teach in the medium of English or had studied in English during their own university days. The intention was to explore how multiple content domains of English language enhancement, intercultural competence enhancement and improved teaching skills could be combined, framed and supported by particular learning approaches and concepts (accommodative / transcendent learning; self-directed / independent learning; and practice-engendered / embedded learning) for highly educated, skilled, practitioners who found themselves repositioned as novice-learners, due to the innovation of internationalisation of the curricula in which they teach. However, discovering how these three domains could be integrated and supported by learning approaches was only part of the aim. Intertwined with it was an interest in advancing a theoretical understanding of professional development itself, not through classroom observation or interviews but through insider-practitioner, design research.

Two policy documents are the main source of the following situation sketch of the research context. They provide an insight into the organisation's ecology regarding internationalisation and professional development. Internationalisation as innovation had started in the late 1980's but a major policy initiative about it was produced in 2004 and the next two years saw a marked increase in the activities which grew in number and strength. As part of this process, in 2006, the central staff office's internationalisation team produced a comprehensive progress report on internationalisation that is in effect a snapshot of the innovation across the system. Therefore the academic years 2005/2006 and 2006/2007 will be used to sketch the situation. In addition, it was in 2006 that researching the teachers' attitudes, experiences and wishes in the context of internationalisation began. Several interviews were conducted at this point which gave an indication of their views.

1.1 Internationalisation policies & practices at NUAS: a snapshot

In the past two decades, on the European continent, an increasing number of higher education institutions, have embarked on a complex process to embed an international dimension on an institution wide scale. Complex political, social, economic and academic factors are driving this innovation which is generally initiated by central management (Knight & de Wit, 1999, p.17). A major political development is the Bologna process (Bologna Declaration, 1999; Enders & Fulton, 2002; Altbach & Knight, 2005), in which standard degree structures for bachelor and masters' degree qualifications (often referred to as Ba/Ma) throughout Europe have been established. Closely linked to this drive to standardise is the desire to create a 'knowledge society' (a not uncontested term, see Altbach, 2004; Marginson, 2007). Another set of drivers is more competitive in nature (Bremer & van der Wende, 1995; van der Wende, 1997). They are the perceived need to compete in international markets for students and research funding and to join the race for a position at the top of international university league tables. Tensions between these drivers are invariably felt throughout the process and contribute, in no small part, to its complexity.

The Northern University of Applied Sciences is one of the largest professional / vocational higher education institutes in the Netherlands. In 2005, the university community consisted of approximately 25,000 students and two and half thousand employees. Students were enrolled in one of seventy (mostly bachelor) degree programmes in professional fields such as business management, information technology, health sciences, social work, applied arts, and sports education, to name but a few. Under the direct control of the executive board are four university Staff Offices. One of these is the office of 'Educational Matters' whose remit includes supporting research and educational innovations such as internationalisation. The internationalisation team belongs to this Staff Office. The degree programmes are provided within 'Schools' of which there are 19. The educational programmes are aimed at producing graduates who can work as entry level professionals in their fields. Each 'School' has its own management team led by a Dean. There is a high degree of decentralisation within a managerial organisational structure. The executive Board of Governors (consisting of 3 members) sets out broad policy directives, usually in a five year plan. Deans are required to fill in the policy pillars or spearheads, such as internationalisation, with concrete implementation measures and are held responsible by the Board for meeting the targets set. In budgetary matters Deans have wide discretionary powers, although there are central staff functionaries who are able to exert a controlling and or signalling function on the practices of Deans.

The policy document of the executive Board for the period of 2005 to 2010 (*FOCUS 2010*, 2005, p.23) presented two 'all-embracing themes' as the dual policy pillars for the strategic planning of the subsequent five years. These two pillars were the knowledge society and internationalisation. Internationalisation was defined as operating 'from an international perspective' (*FOCUS 2010*, 2005, p.28). Echoing the trend in Europe, the NUAS policy makers saw these pillars as interrelated because without 'strong international ties' the cognitive, affective and skills' requirements for a successful knowledge society simply could not be achieved. Internationalisation was to be directed at preparing all graduates to be able to function 'professionally, socially and emotionally in an international context or environment' (including interculturality) and to be 'prepared to contribute to knowledge sharing and innovation at international standards'. Teachers were expected to be 'inspired, internationally oriented and innovating professionals' (op. cit. p.30). Three goals were identified:

- there is a demonstrable international dimension in all curricula with an international orientation embedded into every degree programme
- the environment inside the NUAS is international
- the NUAS will export knowledge

In a follow-up document (*Looking Further*, [LF] Oct. 2006) written by the Staff Office team for internationalisation, the goals were described in more detail. The first goal was to be achieved by including international topics into existing courses, by developing English taught minors and offering foreign languages and/or intercultural competences courses. The environment was to become more international primarily through a numeric increase in several areas such as the number of international, English-medium study programmes, the number of students and staff involved in mobility such as internships or exchange studies, as well as increased recruitment of students and staff especially from EU countries. Also, improving facilities for foreign students was seen as part of this goal. The third objective had originally been to develop commercial educational products to sell to universities abroad but this was changed into a knowledge-sharing goal. The aim of this was to strengthen non-commercial international partnerships and networks (LF, 2006, p.4). The 19 Schools were considered the best location for the concrete realization of most of the goals, since internationalisation had to be appropriately implemented in the curricula. However, certain requirements were identified, to ensure that the international orientation was not merely a voluntary extra to the main studies:

All... aspects should be given due attention in the curriculum of each degree programme. The development can take place in separate parts of the programme focusing on international aspects, or integrated into other modules. Each degree programme should explicitly state in which parts of the curriculum internationalization issues are discussed. It is a requirement that the relevant study units are included in the core curriculum and not only in elective modules (LF, 2006, pp.10/11).

The Schools submitted plans to central management for further analysis by the internationalisation team, the normal procedure at NUAS. It was this team's conclusion that there were very great differences between the Schools' plans in terms of both the goals and concrete activities. Several areas caused special concern. One, many Schools stated that they had successfully incorporated an international dimension in their curricula, which should have been welcome news. Unfortunately 'too often a comment made is that the subject area is inherently international without any visible evidence given' (LF, 2006, p.4). In other words, the Schools, especially those in the Faculty of economics, maintained that they had little need to change, since they had already met the Board's requirements because the subject area is universal. However, studies conducted by the World Bank (Cernea, 1991) conclude that half of the UN's development projects led by 'international' experts in economics, health care, agriculture and the like, failed 'to be either sustainable or cost effective because they did not take the cultural environment into account' (cited in Mestenhauser, 1998, p.18). In a sense, this is what Stier is referring to when he notes that:

Some educators claim that their particular subject lacks intercultural or cross-cultural dimensions. For the most part this is not accurate. Engineering, social sciences, medicine and the arts, to mention only a few fields, invite intercultural and/or cross-cultural perspectives and themes (2003, p.79).

Also, this tendency on the part of academics in some disciplines to see no need to change their courses is aptly countered by the policy statement of Monash University:

The university acknowledges that many would regard some types of knowledge as universal in nature, for example in Mathematics and in the Physical and Biological Sciences. However, even in these areas it is appropriate to review cultural perceptions and develop culturally appropriate pedagogies, case studies and examples to assist learning. (Internationalisation of the Curriculum Policy 2005, para. 2).

The central staff internationalisation team observed that the individual School plans submitted by Deans 'tend not to offer a secure basis for an international environment' (LF, 2006, p.5). Some Schools interpreted the management policies narrowly. An X number of courses would be offered in English. An X percentage of Dutch students would follow an

exchange or internship semester abroad and an X percentage of international students would participate in exchange programmes in the School.

In fact, the performance indicators (PIs) used to measure success of internationalisation by the executive board are also expressed in such quantitative terms. Certain percentages are given as a norm such as 7 % as the target for foreign full time students, including at Master's level. How these norms were identified is not explained and what should happen if a School does not reach a norm percentage is left unsaid. (See endnote to compare implementation procedures with Monash University which audits the process in a three year cycle.)

An additional quality concern is identified. Including an international orientation, the team states, must entail an improvement of the substance / content of the curriculum; simply turning a Dutch curriculum into English without adding any improvement to its contents will not do. In spite of this, no criteria, tools or expertise are provided to help Schools in adapting their curricula in this substantive manner. If the Schools did make the substantive changes they had no methods to prove they had done so or ways to measure the effectiveness of the changes. In fact, there were cases of Dutch courses being translated and offered, with little change, as an international course. This is an example from an interview with a teacher (2007) who had been involved in an early international exchange semester:

*Interviewer: So it was a question of a Dutch course with foreign students in the classroom?
Teacher B: Yes, but then in English. When I started I expected it to be more intercultural... with international themes... and I wanted to have the students share their international experiences. But that just didn't happen in the first years. It was the Dutch programme in English. (Teacher B, personal communication, 10 July, 2007).*

The central management's contributions to the process were, among others, to set up an International Student Office and to facilitate the creation of an Expertise Centre for Languages and Cultures (ECL&C), embedded in the School of International Marketing and Management. The establishment of the Language Centre introduces the policies regarding language support in this period.

Policies related to English as medium of instruction

Several policy documents state that one of the aims of the international orientation is to support multilingualism by offering studies in 'other languages'. The overwhelming majority of the internationally oriented courses are taught in English (and indeed there is an international business degree programme in German), as is the case in most continental European universities. In fact, English is given the status of lingua franca and second official language of the organisation. The Expertise Centre for Languages & Cultures was given the responsibility of providing both Dutch and international students with remedial courses in English and elective courses in other foreign languages. Further, the Centre was to be responsible for supporting teaching staff in becoming competent by offering courses in 'Classroom English' and, at some point in the future, intercultural competences. Further it is stated that:

The strengthening of the international dimension and the use of English as a language of instruction demands a certain level of knowledge and competencies of lecturers and other staff members. This has to be taken into account in the recruitment and the training of personnel. (With a view to internationalisation, 2005, section 3.4)

A year later assurance is given that teaching staff will have the required skills for instruction:

Teaching staff that are engaged in delivering programmes in a language other than Dutch will have a competent level in the language of instruction.¹ The skills of the teacher to provide foreign language educational programmes will be guaranteed under all circumstances (LF, 2006, p.13).

Policies that consider intercultural learning

The NUAS policy makers define two aspects which together make up the international orientation of the university; a cognitive aspect and an attitude-related aspect. These were taken over from Nilsson (2000, p.19).² In an earlier document (Precise definition of the concept 'international dimension' in curricula, 2003) several strategies are suggested for how to incorporate these aspects. The strategies put forth for the cognitive aspects are, as Nilsson suggested, to offer international subjects such as international law, or to provide opportunities to comparatively examine different national or cultural approaches to the profession being studied, or to study specific countries / regions. Courses in foreign languages are also considered a strategy for incorporating an international dimension. The final cognitive strategy is that the Schools include an examination of 'cultural differences' in courses or programmes.

The attitudinal aspects, which Nilsson defined in terms of broadmindedness and respect for cultural differences, predictably, consider the intercultural rather more strongly. The main strategy to support students in learning to be internationally competent professionals is to offer courses (that is specific classes or modules) in which students from the Netherlands are combined with students from abroad. Suggestions for this kind of intercultural interaction also include video conferencing and other new media. The second attitudinal strategy is to provide modules which were wholly focussed on 'cross-cultural skills' for dealing with diversity in their future workplace (including those of communication with immigrants). This is the only mention of diversity in the two documents. This suggestion led many Schools to develop a two-or three-credit, stand alone, course/module. These courses were often not strongly linked to the main subject areas of curriculum.

The recommendation to combine international and domestic students was most often realised by offering exchange semesters for foreign students which were simultaneously minors for the Dutch students. How the physical mixing of students by itself would ensure increased intercultural skills was not clarified. No provisions were made to prepare teachers to stimulate or facilitate the increased intercultural understanding and communication that this interaction was supposed to engender. It must be said that a few Schools did organise an introductory workshop on intercultural awareness for teaching staff given by an external facilitator. Those were primarily Schools with full four-year degree programmes in English. This unfortunately sometimes led to exchange semesters in which the two types of students broke up into two sub-groups, the Dutch students staying together in a circle of their own and the international students outside that circle.

¹ As a rule of thumb, standards set by other universities were used. Most commonly these are based on internationally recognised English proficiency tests such as the British IELTS tests or the American TOEFL tests. By 2008 the Staff Office for Educational Matters had suggested IELTS and TOEFL scores as well as the Dialang self assessment tests results using the Common European Reference Framework for languages (CERF). Teachers can download materials on IELTS, DIALANG, TOEFL and arrange to take tests on campus for a fee.

² Cognitive objectives aimed at increasing students' international competence (e.g. foreign languages regional and area studies, humanities and subjects such as international law and international business). Attitude-related objectives aimed at increasing students' intercultural competence (e.g. broadmindedness; understanding and respect for other people and their cultures, values and ways of living understanding of the nature of racism) (2000, p.19).

Situation of Professional Development beyond English

Professional development was, as stated, primarily in the form of English courses. Other opportunities for professional development such as chances to carry out international research projects, present findings at international conferences, join international professional associations were possible but highly limited. How staff members were chosen to take up these opportunities was not transparent. Again the decentralised policy, that puts most decision making and budget allocation powers in the hands of the Deans of the Schools, makes it difficult for the central management to ensure transparency or standardisation in policies for these types of professional development. One teacher expressed frustration at the types of support available to him. It is not a unique reaction:

... there is money for training; you can always take English language courses, if you like. There is money for that. But if you want to be an international teacher you have to do it yourself. ... For me it is coordinating international exchanges that demands the most. It is not just the busy work, with phone calls and emails, it is that my superiors do not know or really understand what my job entails...(Teacher H, personal communication, 8 December, 2008).

Continuous professional development (CPD) opportunities combined with the implementation of internationalised curricula at Schools was not offered by the professional development staff in this period. They had not been trained in how to support teaching, managerial or administrative staff members in dealing with the changes that internationalisation was bringing. The members of the professional development team were exclusively Dutch. They had studied education from a Dutch perspective. The main areas of expertise that they exercised appeared to be retention, assessment, and curriculum development for competency based learning. Many of them had not worked as university teachers in any discipline or subject area and, until recently, almost none had international experience. Some were not able to speak English very well which made it nearly impossible for them to support the development of English medium programmes.

1.2 Research perspectives

This very short sketch indicates some of the challenges and tensions teachers face in their transition from Dutch to international teaching. As we have seen, in spite of the plans submitted by his or her Dean, a teacher generally had little control or say in the type or duration of in-service professional development opportunities. The snapshot of the state of implementation of internationalisation and of the, then, current professional development opportunities were in part, manifestations of underlying problems facing teachers and they formed puzzles for the researcher.

Perspective 1 - Problems in the domains and types of learning useful for international teaching

Comments collected from teachers, students and the internationalisation team revealed common areas of concern. Several domains needed to be explored, engaged with and reflected on at the same time. Areas highlighted by those core stakeholders correspond to three of the eight competency clusters of the 'profile of the ideal lecturer in the international / intercultural classroom' identified by Teekens (1997; 2000; 2003). Namely:

- Issues related to using a non-native language of instruction
- Factors related to dealing with cultural differences and
- Specific requirements regarding teaching and learning styles (Teekens, 2003 p.111)

Language skills, intercultural communication capacity and pedagogic issues in teaching diverse groups and individuals have been chosen as the domains for investigation. These are clearly not the only areas of professional competence that higher education teachers need to address and they are admittedly arbitrary. The rationale for choosing them is that, first the overwhelming concern of professional developers in the Netherlands is the challenge of the adequacy of Dutch teachers' proficiency in English. No professional development support intervention can allow itself the luxury of ignoring this issue if for no other reason than the necessity of meeting expectations of participants and organisational power holders who can permit or withdraw resources (management) and agree or refuse to participate (teachers). The area of intercultural competence is invariably brought up by recipients of the professional actions of the teachers, that is, by both Dutch and international students. It is a priority in the first place because it matters very much to them. It is also a priority because, as the literature will show, without any opportunities to explicitly address the complex and sensitive aspects of intercultural communication and awareness, the tendency on the part of teachers to rely on their internalised, Dutch-centric, patterns of behaviour in interacting with students is great. Finally, the area of pedagogic skills enhancement for international teaching is vital because the teaching and assessment repertoire of most NUAS teachers is limited to addressing the challenges of mainstream (Dutch) classes but not the additional challenges found in international classes. Dutch teachers have not (with very few exceptions) had exposure to professional development support opportunities explicitly focussed on these challenges in earlier training programmes.

Perspective 2 - Problematic aspects of professional development delivery

As with internationalization practices, the puzzles derived from the situation relating to professional development are intriguing. The concerns expressed by meta-teachers of the Classroom English courses showed their frustration at not being able to link the issues and activities of the course to the actual work of the participants.

This leads to a question concerning not the content of a professional development intervention but the method of delivery. Should the professional development not only be expanded to cover more than one content domain but also to be delivered in ways that make a direct link to the immediate work place possible? How is such a direct link to be achieved

and what are the potential benefits as well as challenges involved? Caruana (2007) identified two options for the delivery of professional development for HE teachers that suit the NUAS situation. One is to 'raise awareness and promote dissonance by interdisciplinary engagement and cross-fertilisation to fuel debate.' This could be interpreted at NUAS as offering in-service courses or training workshops as stand-alone interventions that include more than English language, especially including issues of policy and practices regarding internationalisation.

The other is to localise the teacher development opportunities in the immediate work environment. With this option there can be, 'At the chalk-face³ ... specialists, who operate 'in collaboration with disciplinary and programme teams to reinforce an emergent and unconnected process' (Caruana, June 2007, slide # 23). At the NUAS this would mean offering tailored interventions aligned to policies and practices of continuous professional development in Schools, linking the intervention to the activities of teams of teachers who are internationalising their curricula.

Each option has its own potential benefits and problems. Considering the first, is this dissonance triggering, interdisciplinary, but non-embedded approach *only* stimulating for teachers' professional growth or can it also be limiting? The lack of credibility of stand-alone professional development interventions of this type and their often minimal impact on long term practice have been challenging experts in the field for some time. What kinds of problems might come from the dynamic itself? Is it possible that a dialogic approach, meant to fuel debate, will itself generate tensions when teachers from different Schools or epistemic traditions are put together? What limitations can be illuminated? How are self-directed learning, accommodative and workplace learning affected in this mode of delivery?

In the second option there is clearly greater potential for relevance and sustainability as the outcomes of the interventions are already embedded in the workplace. But here issues of 'how work related learning is connected at different levels' (Nieuwenhuis, Nijhof & van Woerkom, 2008, p.2) become acute. If an expert comes in to collaborate with a development team, where does that leave individual self-directed learning? What influence does that collaboration have on team learning? In general, 'What happens in the intersection between the individual and the team, or team and organisation?' (Marsick & Watkins, 2001). How can processes that are emergent and ill defined, i. e. 'wicked', problems (Briggs, 2007) be accommodated within organisational (resource and cultural) constraints so that sustainable changes are engendered or supported? Can the complexity of the innovation be contained within disciplinary boundaries or must internationalisation be approached in a multidisciplinary way in order to stimulate the level of critical and comparative thinking needed (Mestenhauser, 1998)? What can be discovered concerning the practice-engendered learning across the organisation?

Clearly, deciding between these options is not simple. Would it be possible to combine them, selecting the strengths of both a core programme and an embedded delivery mode? Can the challenges of logistics, policy alignment for organizational enhancement and high quality learning be met simultaneously? Arguably, this is about combining flexibility with relevance, which is strongly wished for and hard to achieve. Can a form of PD be customised enough to be relevant to widely different learners and still be standardised enough to be reusable in different locations within the organisation? Are there ways in which the time constraints, the great enemy of quality customizing, can be loosened, if not overcome? Or will professional development remain, as Rubeck and Witzke (1998) suggest, a 'field of dreams'?

³ defined in Collins English dictionary as : (Social Science / Education) *Brit. informal*
the work or art of teaching in a school, esp classroom teaching as distinct from organizational responsibilities (esp. in the phrase **at the chalkface**)

1.3 Core Question

The investigation puzzles and objectives can be summarised in a question:

How can professional development interventions for teaching staff involved in internationalisation of the curricula at a university of applied sciences be designed and implemented to enhance English, intercultural and pedagogic learning in multiple modes of delivery?

1.4 Researcher's multiple roles

In designing and conducting interventions while investigating them at the same time, the potential for role conflict is strong. Orrill, who designed a framework for professional development and was also researching how teachers used that framework, found it difficult to balance the responsibilities of professional developer and researcher. When she had to choose between the two, she chose to protect her research aims at the expense of the professional development goals (2001, p.20). Examples of these choices were using a tape recorder in situations where she knew recording was likely to stifle conversation, or steering teachers towards a particular technique rather than waiting for the teachers themselves to ask for the technique. Several situations similar to those encountered by Orrill, in which the balancing of the two roles was challenging, took place during the current investigation. In the majority of them the researcher also choose to preserve the integrity of the investigation. However, there were a few situations, especially relating to English language learning, when being an English teacher took precedence over being a researcher.

In addition, Orrill refers to the multiplicity of functions even within the specific professional developer role. First, she had to learn to be a facilitator, well versed in the relevant academic literature, and in strategies that teachers could use. Second, she had to be a provider of resources. Third it was her responsibility to question the teachers, to act as 'second pair of eyes' to give reflective feedback, to promote reflection. The professional developer also needs to be a supporter who builds confidence.

1.5 Aims

This is not the first investigation into internationalisation in higher education from the perspective of teachers (see especially Childress, 2007; 2008). Nor is it the first attempt to track a professional development programme. However, research that explicitly investigates teachers' needs in the context of specific support interventions or provisions is 'sparse' (Caruana & Spurling, 2007, p.79; Bond, 2003, loc. cit.). With the intention of adding abundance to this sparse investigatory area, a number of aims were formulated.

One aim was to provide university policy makers and managers, internationalisation experts, human resources officers and teacher educators (that is professional developers) with a critical understanding of internationalisation and relevant professional development provision especially focussed on teachers' learning needs.

A second aim was to provide teacher educators and/or professional development units in higher education institutions with practical materials, based on evidence from a small scale single case exploratory naturalist study that was framed and directed by theories from a number of disciplines.

A third aim was to offer a tentative model for an approach to professional development interventions to human resource development experts who are involved in the process of internationalisation of their organisations.

1.6 Execution

To reach these aims, an illustrative and explorative case study has been carried out. This case shows the development and application of a professional development programme, called the 'Teachers' Internationalisation Programme' (hereafter TIP) created specifically for and during this investigation by the researcher. The approach used was to design, execute, analyse and redesign the programme for internationalisation of the curriculum iteratively across multiple contexts with small groups of teachers. There were three iterations in the design, delivered over a period of two and a half years. The approach was inductive.

First there was a pre-design phase during which the situation was analysed and the literature in the fields of content, learning approaches and professional development was studied. This 'zero-iteration' is difficult to set out exactly in time as it grew organically but it can be said to have started in 2006 and continued up to the first design phase which started in late 2007.

The first two iterations included the construction and refinement of the programme as well as its delivery. The first stage of design phase started in October 2007 with the process of devising the initial version of the programme. The actions of the iteration ran from March until June 2008 with 6 participants. They explored puzzles regarding specific content and structures which constrained or stimulated teacher's learning and identified emerging design principles. Changes were made to the programme on the basis of its enactment together with analysis of theories and models from the various fields. The second iteration (also the second stage of design phase) commenced with the redesigned programme, again studying its progress and effects as it was being enacted. This iteration also had 6 participants and ran from the end of September 2008 until May 2009.

The culmination of that period was a second redesign as well as an analysis of the phenomenon of teacher learning and of refined design principles. The product that came out of this process was a stand-alone professional development (core) programme course map. It integrated contents and learning activities in a way that was coherent and multidimensional. It was completed in June 2009.

The third and final iteration used the programme course map selectively and flexibly as a template for embedding professional development for internationalisation of the curriculum into local contexts. This third stage of the design phase included two interventions. Components from the core course map (also called programme template) were used in two Schools based on a pre-designed contextualisation instrument. The interventions started in November 2009 and ran until April 2010. The research was completed in the post-design phase in which a reflective analysis across the iterations was carried out. A set of four heuristics for contextualisation of generic programmes based on design principles was identified. Teaching materials and tasks developed during the investigation are provided.

1.7 Overview of the dissertation

The following chapter, Chapter two, reviews definitions and approaches for implementation of Internationalisation of the Curriculum (IoC) in higher education. The area is highly important for the first research perspective and especially for understanding the three domains that the research programme addressed. This includes literature specifically focussed on the challenges and opportunities for teaching staff in relation to English medium instruction, intercultural learning and issues of international teaching.

Chapter three presents a critical discussion of professional development in higher education institutions including a typology and critiques of various modes of delivery. This area reflects the second major research perspective. The problematic aspects reviewed concern sustainability, relevance and credibility of stand-alone forms of professional development interventions and the positive aspects of integrated interventions. In addition, four significant examples of professional development interventions for IoC are described and critiqued.

Finally, a group of theories that conceptualise learning as change for the better in organisations are considered. These so called enhancement theories are supplemented with key concepts such as a 'middle out' approach. The umbrella paradigm is that of 'socio-cultural theory focussed on social practice as unit of analysis' (Bamber, Trowler, Saunders & Knight, 2009).

The cumulative conclusion of this chapter is that none of the exemplars are comprehensive in both investigating the effects of professional development for internationalisation of multiple content domains and multiple approaches to learning with a scope that includes both individuals and groups at a meso level. This created a conceptual space for the current research's exploration.

Chapter four discusses the learning theories related to the concepts that were influential in framing the design of the programme. The first is related to the concept of 'independence'. It reviews literature concerning self-directed learning (Hiemstra & Brockett, 1994) strongly focussing on responsibility and on both individuals and groups. The second concept is that of combined domains to stimulate accommodative learning (Illeris, 2003; 2007) for integrating pedagogic, intercultural and linguistic content across multiple contexts. The third concept, 'embeddedness' for enhanced performance situated in the workplace, reviews several different theories including Schwandt's (2005) formulation of knowledge and knowing-in-practice. Another significant theory reviewed concerns action learning (O'Neil, 2000; Zuber-Skerritt, 2002). In addition, a 'culturalist' interpretation of practice theory developed by Reckwitz (2002, p.91) is reviewed, as it is the underlying concept for the social practice perspective. The chapter is rounded off with an explanation of how the three learning approaches form a coherent framework for the research in terms of learning theory.

Chapter five sets out the methods of data collection and analysis of the research questions and previews the following chapters. Those subsequent chapters, 6-9, present results and analysis in the form of narratives including participants, settings, design propositions, characteristics of the design, chronologies of each intervention's enactment, results and immediate analysis offering candidate explanations and candidate solutions to design problems and links to the framing theories of the research. These four chapters tell the story of the teachers' internationalisation programme [TIP] and the simultaneous researcher's story of emerging design principles.

Chapter ten is a product of the post-design phase. It begins with a summary of how the three learning approaches concretely stimulated or constrained learning, visualising the constrainers and stimulators as interlocking factors. After that, it offers a series of discussions of issues related to the three domains of English, intercultural and pedagogic enhancement across the four interventions. Each of these discussions is preceded by a

summary of key activities and materials for the relevant domain. The chapter goes on to present an analysis of the strengths and limitations of both modes of delivery. The design is then evaluated using the criteria of viability, legitimacy and efficacy (Van den Akker, 1999). The model which is the outcome of the investigation is provided. The model encapsulates the heuristics and their related design principles. Next, a number of strengths of the research are highlighted. Then issues of validity are discussed as well as limitations. A reflection on future research completes the dissertation. An accompanying volume provides materials used during the interventions, the skeletal designs of successive prototypes and examples of diverse workshop plans.

Endnote

Implementing Internationalisation of the Curriculum (2003, last update 2007)

<http://policy.monash.edu.au/policy-bank/academic/education/management/suppdocs/appendix-a-internationalisation.html>

Appendix A to the Internalisation of the Curriculum Policy and Procedures

It is not anticipated that all policy and procedures, including guidelines, can be implemented immediately. Faculties will need to develop strategies, which in a progressive and planned manner, implement these policies, procedures and guidelines.

One way of achieving this is to progressively introduce change within a three year cycle with incremental changes reflected in faculties' Learning and Teaching Plans or other appropriate planning documents.

Key performance achievements will need to be documented annually. The most opportune time to introduce new change is in new course development and in major course review. Documents used to submit new courses for approval or review should contain a statement indicating the international implications of the course and reference to the implementation of policy, procedures and guidelines for internationalisation of the course (or subject). The University may audit these submissions as well as curricula to ensure adherence to these proposed changes. This will inform AUQA audit process.

Following are the steps in the implementation process:

1. Subcommittee prepares Policy, Procedures and Guidelines.
2. Subcommittee prepares Information Guide.
3. Policy, Procedures and Guidelines submitted to Education Committee and Academic Board.
4. Approval by Education Committee and noting by Academic Board.
5. Presentation to Committee of Deans.
6. Faculty roll out through presentations to Faculty Executive Structure by members Subcommittee Management and Reference Groups.
7. Faculty representatives meet with all Course Coordinators. Review policy and implementation to identify areas for improvement.

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Chapter two *IoC issues*

Introduction

The present chapter presents an overview of the literature on internationalisation of the curriculum as it relates to the challenges facing teachers. It begins with a range of definitions of IoC and several approaches to implementation that have been employed at universities world-wide (2.1). Next, the three learning domains are considered (2.2). First, challenging aspects of English as medium of instruction (EMI) are identified. These aspects are linked to the challenges of non-native speaker teachers. The approach of Content and Language Integrated Learning is also introduced here. Second, issues of why intercultural learning is important in internationalised curricula are discussed (2.3). Two influential theories of cultural competence (Bennett, 1993; Hofstede, 1986) used in higher education are also presented and challenges teachers face in this domain are identified. Third, international teaching issues are considered (2.4) starting with the identification of a range of teachers' responses to internationalisation of the curriculum as an innovation that they must implement. Reasons for resistance are identified in this context. A suggested list of teacher competencies is reviewed next. Looking ahead to the next section, a brief review of what policy literature has to say about the state of professional development for internationalisation at universities is given and conclusions drawn (2.5).

2.1 Internationalisation of the Curriculum (IoC)

The complexity involved in working in the field of internationalisation requires an additional set of knowledge, skills, attitudes and understanding about the international/intercultural global dimension of higher education. How are these competencies developed and recognised for those academics, administrators and policy makers working in the field of internationalisation in higher education? (Knight, 2004, p.29).

The policy documents of the NUAS refer to the integration of an international dimension in the curricula of all students at the university. This policy is derived from earlier definitions, primarily that of Bengt Nilsson who defined IoC in terms of its outcomes. According to Nilsson, an internationalised curriculum is:

... a curriculum which gives international and intercultural knowledge and abilities, aimed at preparing students for performing (professionally, socially, emotionally) in an international and multicultural context (Nilsson, 2002, p.22).

This definition has found wide acceptance and is used by the European Association of International Educators. It is, however, far from being the only definition. Normative assumptions may be surmised from some other definitions such as this one which claims that internationalisation of the curriculum is:

... an on-going, counter hegemonic, educational process which occurs in an international context of knowledge and practice where societies are reviewed as subsystems of a larger inclusive world. The process of internationalization at an educational institution entails a comprehensive, multifaceted program of action that is integrated into all aspects of education (Schoorman, 2000b, p.5).

Arguably, the broadest interpretation of IoC available in the literature comes from Mestenhauser (2002, p.168). For him, international education is a complex innovation that requires a transformation on all levels of the university. He made a formula in order to express its complexity.

International education = disciplinary knowledge + interdisciplinary knowledge + knowledge of one's own culture + knowledge of the other culture(s) and language(s) + knowledge about knowledge and its acquisition + the integration of all the above.

Mestenhauser also made a systems model (fig. 1)

In this model he identifies critical issues, pointing to areas that policy makers are not dealing with sufficiently or not dealing with at all. To start with, he points to a lack of appreciation of the complexity illustrated above as well as a lack of clarity of what international education is. In addition, a conceptual underpinning on how to administer a complex system across the institution is missing. Also, there is an unwillingness to move international education to the core. Finally, there is a lack of serious discourse about these issues (Mestenhauser, 2007, p.15). Mestenhauser believes that if the sub-system of international education grows, the university system as a whole will grow. In other words, internationalisation 'cannot be a peripheral activity' (Luker, 2006, p.13). An unfortunate paradox of the current top down strategies for internationalisation is that the education professionals, such as university teachers, and dedicated staff officers are in the periphery of the system while they are potentially 'the key force capable of enhancing the entire system' (loc. cit.). In order for this kind of critical, creative and transformative education to occur, all the domains as well as variables (such as all the stakeholders and the educational approaches used) must be involved and aligned.

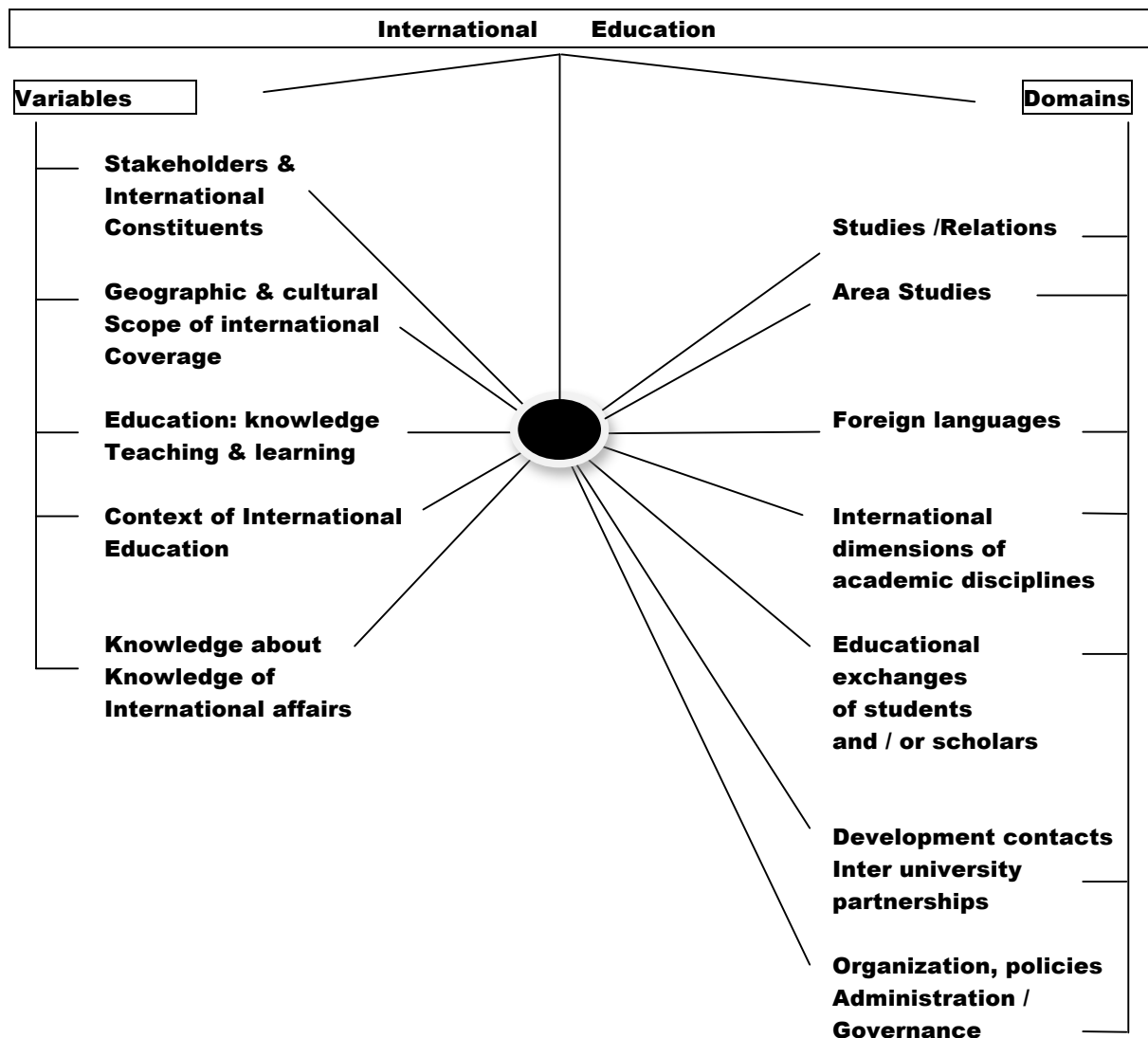


fig. 1 Mestenhauser, J. (2002, p.175). In search of a comprehensive approach to international education: A systems perspective, in W. Gruenzweig & N. Rinehart (Eds). *Rockin' in red square: Critical views of international education in the age of cyberculture*. Muenster: LIT Verlag.

Three approaches to implementation of IoC

Studies of the actual implementation of internationalisation of the curriculum are relatively few in number. Implementation strategies that have been identified tend to fall into one of three approaches. This tripartite categorisation has been given different names by different analysts. One common way is referred to the 'add-on, infusion and transformative approaches' (Harari, 1992; Bond, 2003).

Approaches to Internationalizing the Curricula

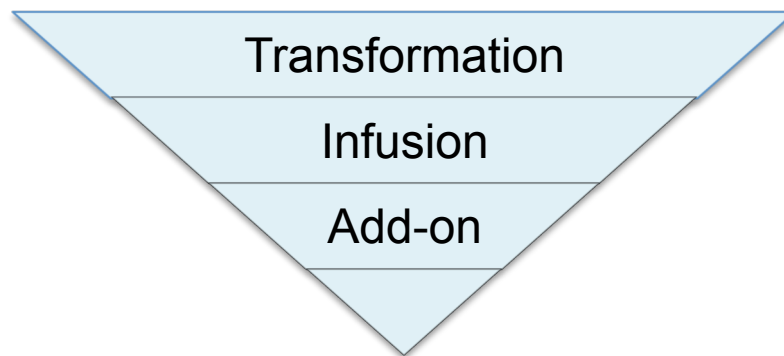


fig. 2 Bond, 2006, section 6.0

The 'add-on approach' is characterised by international degree programmes and exchange semesters. It is associated with a strong recruitment policy. The assumption is that simply by having a massive influx of international students a process of curricular revision, and other educational changes, will be stimulated by 'osmosis' (Martin, 1999). This approach has been called 'minimalist, instrumental, introductory, conceptually simple, discipline-reductionist and static' (Mestenhauser, 1998, p.7) since, even if curriculum reform were triggered by the changes on the ground, it still leaves the 'dominant theoretical and conceptual perspectives untouched and 'the international' is seen through the eyes of these Western paradigms.' (Mestenhauser, 1998, p.17). This approach gives internationalisation a poor reputation within the university where it is seen as 'education for profit' (Bell, 2004) or for the enhancement of status. In truth, 'universities are deluding themselves if they believe that the presence of international students on the campus contributes to the internationalisation of higher education' (Wright & Lander, 2003, p. 251).

The infusion approach is the most common (Cogan, 1998; Bond, 2003, Bond et al., 2006; Caruana & Spurling, 2007). It is reflected in the policy goals for including an international dimension used by the NUAS. The approach is now so pervasive that it has come to, 'define what international curricula ought to be' (De Vita, 2007, p. 154). This is unfortunate as the process is fragmented and piecemeal. The suggested implementation measures of the NUAS, which are typical of the infusion approach, are pragmatic in nature. Examples offered by the policy documents include adding a comparative element to an existing subject course, establishing stand-alone modules in foreign languages and/or modules in cross-cultural communication competence. This pragmatic approach has advantages, such as the range and variety of activities and the chance to build on existing curricula without too much disturbance. At the same time, its modest pragmatism can be seen as its pitfall. Nowhere does it make the challenge to educate its graduates to be culturally inclusive individuals its top priority (De Vita, 2007, p.163).

The third approach is the most recent and the most radical. It is referred to as the transformation or transformative approach and has evolved out of a growing dissatisfaction with the problematic aspects of internationalization as innovation.

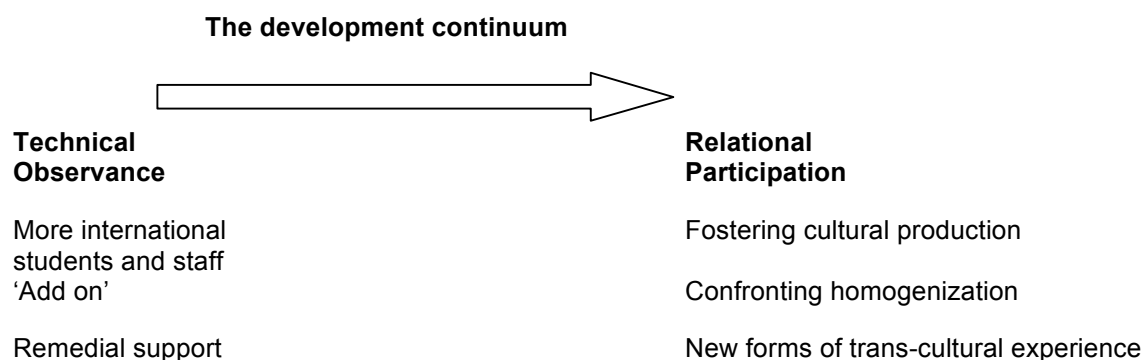
The transformative approach responds to the criticism that levels of intercultural interaction are disappointingly low in both the add-on and infusion approaches (see Otten 2003 for a review of critiques). As we have seen, it is transformation that Mestenhauser believes to be the only legitimate objective of international education.

The transformational approach produces reform, which requires a shift in the ways in which we understand the world. As an approach to curriculum reform, transformation is realized much less frequently but has the potential to involve many more people, and change, in

fundamental ways, how faculty and students think about the world and their place in it (Bond, 2003, 6.0)

This approach has characteristics of both socially inclusive pedagogy (Robson & Turner, 2008; Black, 2004) and critical pedagogy (Nainby, Warren, & Bollinger, 2003). In the transformative approach, the content of programmes includes international and intercultural aspects but not only that. In addition, the processes of teaching and learning change. In effect, the members of the university community engage in learning ‘from, with, and for a multitude of cultural perspectives’ (Nainby, Warren, & Bollinger, 2003, p.198). Groups of high diversity are not only encouraged but actively supported in exploring and engaging with their various backgrounds. This kind of interaction must allow room for participants, including teachers, to make their own educational traditions and values explicit for others (Robson & Turne, 2007). Transformative internationalisation recognises that globalisation marginalises large numbers of people and that educational institutions should ‘pursue’ educational activities that address inequalities’. Further, higher education should be investigating and redressing these inequalities through ‘principles of reciprocity’ carried out through partnerships and networking (Hanson, 2010, p.73).

Thus an economic, add on approach is followed by a pragmatic, infusion approach followed by a critical and counter-hegemonic, transformative approach. The three approaches can be seen to represent an evolutionary process from an instrumental mentality to a culturally and ethically driven ethos (De Vita, 2007, p.166). This resembles the trajectory showing the elements of a) ‘under developed concepts of internationalisation’ moving to b) ‘developing concepts of internationalisation’ moving to c) a ‘broader vision’ (Robson & Turner, 2008, table 1, page 52). Caruana reminds the internationalisation community that they should go ‘back to the basics’ of goals of an international curriculum: critical thinking and phronesis (2009, p.19). She refers to McTaggart’s identification of the movement of institutional implementation that would support those educational goals, (loc. cit., p.22, with Hanstock, 2005; Mc Taggart, 2003).



Tripartite institutional models of a) a Market model, b) a Liberal model and c) a Social Transformation model are similar to the add-on, infusion and transformative categories (Hanson, 2010). It is safe to say that the approaches to implementation contradict each other and to some extent are in competition with each other. There is no clear consensus on which approach should be used (Caruana & Spurling, 2007). There is, however, an emerging consensus on the ‘discourse of marketisation’ focussed on higher education’s responses to globalisation such as competition, global business, executives’ training, and education/institution branding (Marginson, 2006, p.6).

2.2 English as medium of instruction in internationalised curricula

English medium instruction (EMI)

It goes without saying that the internationalisation of higher education through participation in the so-called Bologna process (which aims at the harmonisation of higher education in the participating countries in and bordering on Europe) is a major driver of increased use of English as a medium of instruction in higher education institutions. The official discourse is that instruction in foreign languages is a positive development in European education as it stimulates knowledge sharing and joint research. But the strategies of individual universities are aimed at a different kind of outcomes. Some of these are the statistics regarding greater chances for employment of graduates who are proficient in English, greater prestige and ranking with English medium degrees and research projects, greater access to research funding and, certainly not least, more career possibilities for academics (Coleman, 2006, p.5). However, as compelling as these arguments seem, different countries take very different stances regarding the introduction of EMI. In general, large nations with strong academic and scientific traditions in their national languages, such as Germany, Italy and, to a lesser extent, France are less likely to introduce EMI on a massive scale in universities.

In their survey of EMI in higher education institutes in 22 European countries in 2002, Ammon and McConnell show that the percentage of higher education institutes offering EMI in some countries, notably Norway, Finland and the Netherlands, was 90 to 100% while Spain, Italy and Greece had, at the time of the survey, no courses taught through the medium of English (cited in Colman, 2006, p.6). The NUAS fits in with this trend. By 2010, 29 one-semester exchange programmes at bachelor (third year) level were being offered in English in addition to three four year Bachelor degree programmes and one applied sciences Master's degree (with at least two more in the pipeline).

An impressive list of problems typically encountered in English medium programmes in European higher education, identified by Smith (2004) will be familiar to many international educators. It includes, among other problems:

- inadequate language skills and the need for training of indigenous staff and students
- ideological objections arising from a perceived threat to cultural identity and the status of the native language as a language of science
- unwillingness of local staff to teach through English
- the lack of availability on the international market of sufficient Anglophone subject specialists
- the inability of recruited native speaker tutors to adapt to non-native speaking students
- uniformity and availability of teaching materials
- equity of assessment for native and non-native English speakers (cited in Colman, 2006, pp.6/7).

In spite of these (and other well recognised problems) EMI has only increased since 2004. Currently eastern European countries have more and more English medium programmes while the number has gone up dramatically in Germany and the Netherlands. The University of Maastricht is considering becoming the first exclusively English language national university on the continent.

EMI challenges related to non-native speaker teachers

The challenges of carrying out professional practices in a foreign language for the non-native speaker teachers are many. However they are not well studied. The teachers may have little or no international experience. Their own disciplinary studies were primarily carried out in local cultural and linguistic frames. Most have had no training in intercultural awareness or communicative skills, while all aspects of their work are affected by having to carry out tasks previously done in their own language and culture with new types of students and colleagues in new didactic approaches with new literature. Members of the teaching staff at

Dutch universities have, with few exceptions, no previous training in international educational teaching competencies and little international professional experience or experience in teaching the diversity of international students (Teekens, 2003b; Childress, 2007).

In their review of English language academic literature regarding internationalisation of higher education between 1995 and 2006, Caruana & Spurling, (2007) selected 353 sources on the basis of clear research criteria. Of these, 289 (roughly 81 %) were published from an English speaking country (the UK, USA, New Zealand, Canada, and Australia). The literature from non-English speaking countries thus represented slightly less than 20% of the total. This may help to explain the scarcity of sources regarding non-native speaker teachers.

The relative proportion of attention given to three areas of professional development: English language proficiency, interacting with people from a diversity of cultural backgrounds, and adapting pedagogic practices to international education, differs between sources from English speaking and non-English speaking countries.

That increased intercultural sensitivity is needed for teaching in international environments is amply shown in the discussions of experts from both the non-native English speaking countries of Europe and the English speaking world, especially when they are looking at the phenomenon from a macro level (Otten, 2003; Mestenhauser & Ellingboe, 1998; van der Wende & Teekens, 1997, Teekens, 2003b; 2007). However, the proportion of attention given to the intercultural and language aspects at the level of teaching practitioners differs between the literature from English speaking countries and non-English speaking countries. The focus on intercultural learning is greater in the English speaking countries (cf. Liddicoat, 2004; Paige, 2004; Killick, 2006; Gannon, 2008) while, understandably, English language skills of teachers are a major preoccupation in the non-English speaking countries. In continental Europe, an increasing number of investigations are being carried out on how to meet the linguistic challenges in teaching (Airey, 2003, 2004, 2009; Hartiala, 2000; Klaassen & de Graaff, 2001; Wilkinson & Zegers, 2005). This literature reflects concern with the first three problems of English language instruction identified by Smith above, especially regarding the language inadequacy of some teachers.

Most of the Dutch professional development opportunities for internationalisation assume a deficiency orientation (Vinke, 1995; Klaassen, 2000; 2003; 2008). This means that the weaknesses of Dutch teachers or lecturers have been identified and workshops and courses aimed at overcoming those weakness or deficiencies are a common approach in in-service training. For example Vinke identified specific language and communication weaknesses in engineering education instruction in English at the universities of Delft and Twente (see endnote no. 1, 1995; 1998). In these studies, she noted linguistic constraints on the presentation of information such as the lack of clarification through failure to restate points (that is, a lack of redundancy) or problems with interaction by failing to elicit / prompt sufficiently (see end note for complete list).¹

The Dutch literature also reports ambivalence on the part of lecturers towards this deficiency orientation. Vinke's large scale survey revealed high self-efficacy among Dutch lecturers based on results from three universities and one agricultural college which showed that 80% of the responding lecturers felt their English was good or native-like but most seemed to be unaware of the students' negative evaluation of their language proficiency (Vinke, 1995). Part of a recent study in which transcripts of lectures and classes held in English by Dutch lecturers were analysed, appeared to confirm this finding (Bergsma, Calabrese & Saliari, 2011).

Focus on EMI as Lecturing Behaviour

In one of the few major investigations into workshops aimed at improving EMI in the Netherlands, Klaassen (2000) describes the professional development provided for lecturers of English stream engineering programmes at Delft University. Klaassen and a team designed a foundational training course called 'Working with Groups of International Students'. Five of its ten workshops were based on the team's research into the perceived problems that lecturers had when delivering their lectures in English. Certain workshops consisted of lecturer-participants doing a number of trials of lecturing formats, in succession, getting feedback and reflecting on the feedback, trying to match their performance to preferred lecturing behaviours. The in-service training team was, according to their stated goals, aiming at the best type of learning support combining both 'personal development' and 'development of skills considered necessary' (2000, p.79). From the activities described, however, it appears that training was based on a cognitive-behaviourist concept, in spite of claims to the contrary. A deficiency approach is also evident from an analysis of the problems made in the following year:

In a second language lecturers are likely to cover less material in the allotted time as opposed to lecturers teaching in their native tongue (Vinke 1995). The lecturers tend to have problems with pronunciation, accent, fluency and intonation and lack of non-verbal behaviour (present research). Furthermore, the focus on language production influences the lecturers' didactical skills in the sense that they are less flexible in conveying the contents of the lecture material, resulting in long monologues, a lack of rapport with students, humour and interaction (Klaassen & de Graaff, 2001, p.282).

This view of the 'problems' (aside from the problematic aspects of its individualist approach) is also important in what it prioritises. The main focus is on inadequate oral skills, followed by inadequate classroom interaction resulting from the teachers' diminished classroom competency. There is also a prescriptive set of topics for the curriculum of a teacher training to address the problems, which must cover:

1. Effective lecturing behaviour which suffers from a switch in language.
2. Effective lecturing behaviour which addresses the needs of non-native speaking students.
3. Awareness of second language (acquisition) difficulties.
4. Reflection on beliefs and actual lecturing behaviour.
5. Cultural issues if relevant to the first four aspects. (loc. cit).

Noticeable in this list is the relatively marginal position that cultural awareness and learning play. Cultural issues are to be addressed only if they are relevant to the first four. One can be forgiven for concluding that they are of secondary importance and may possibly not be relevant at all. Considering the competing visions of an internationalised curriculum discussed above, a marginal positioning of the intercultural learning aspects of pedagogy place this training in an 'add on' or a marketisation model since meeting the needs of international students is restricted to behavioural change, not one that challenges entrenched attitudes of lecturers.

Content and language integrated learning (CLIL)

According to the educational unit of the European Union, Eurydice, 'the acronym CLIL is used as a generic term to describe all types of provision in which a second language (a foreign, regional or minority language and/or another official state language) is used to teach certain subjects in the curriculum other than languages lessons' (2006, p.7). According to this definition EMI is a type of CLIL which is the umbrella term for an approach to bilingual education in Europe (Llinares, Morton, & Whittaker, 2012). European CLIL is distinct from, for example Canadian immersion programmes or content-based instruction in the USA where a regional or minority language is used. However

there is blurring between some immersion learning contexts on the continent and CLIL (Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2010).

CLIL is a politically vetted educational concept which appears together with the EU's own European language portfolio or ELP, an instrument meant to encourage multilingualism over the lifespan (Martyniuk, 2008). The approach has been presented as a model approach to 'provide a safe and open learning environment in the classroom' in international higher education settings (Beelen, 2007, p 33) by the European Association for International Education (EAIE). The CLIL competences for international lecturers have been taken up by the Association. In the 2007 volume devoted to Implementing Internationalisation at Home, the Association proposes that CLIL should not be restricted to the training of non-native speaker teachers, native speaker teachers also need to learn to use this approach (Beelen, 2007, p.49).

A number of benefits of this approach are claimed by the EU commission. Of these, attitudinal benefits are the most numerous. CLIL boosts motivation, confidence, intercultural understanding and multilingual interest. However, organisational benefits are also identified. Policy makers are pleased with the idea that CLIL will bring cost efficiencies due to reductions in teaching hours. In addition CLIL lowers competition between content and language teachers (Marsh, 2002).

In an expert statement from the Netherlands, the rationale offered for implementing CLIL is the increasing demand on class time by content subjects which has caused less and less time to be devoted to language learning in the curriculum. The statement emphasises the need for authentic integration between content and language teaching. This will require a cooperative search for a new pedagogic approach which will do justice to both (de Bot, 2001, pp.29-30). The benefits of CLIL have been studied in primary and secondary education but research at tertiary level is scarce (Colman & Costa, 2010, p.20). Further, in contrast to primary/secondary educational settings, where CLIL was introduced generally by enthusiastic teachers from the bottom up, in higher education it is normally introduced top-down as part of a reform drive associated with internationalisation (Maiworm & Wachter, 2008). CLIL has been used as a strategy most consistently in Scandinavian countries. In spite of that, Airy, investigating the situation in Sweden, for example, was unable to find many studies of its use at pre-university or university level (2004). The two studies he eventually did find were inconclusive. In general researchers note that it needs to be investigated more extensively before the claimed benefits can be verified (Lasagabaster, 2008).⁴

⁴ For example in a recent major study of language aspects of CLIL in four European countries no mention is made of higher education only primary and secondary educational contexts (Llinares, et al. 2012)

Key Characteristics

There are a range of definitions, a recent one also produced in official EU documents is that:

CLIL is a dual-focused educational approach in which an additional language is used for the learning and teaching of content and language with the objective of promoting both content and language mastery to predefined levels (Maljers, Marsh, Wolff, Genesee, Frigols-Martín, Mehisto, 2010).

Many CLIL practitioners use the 4-C principles, developed by Coyle

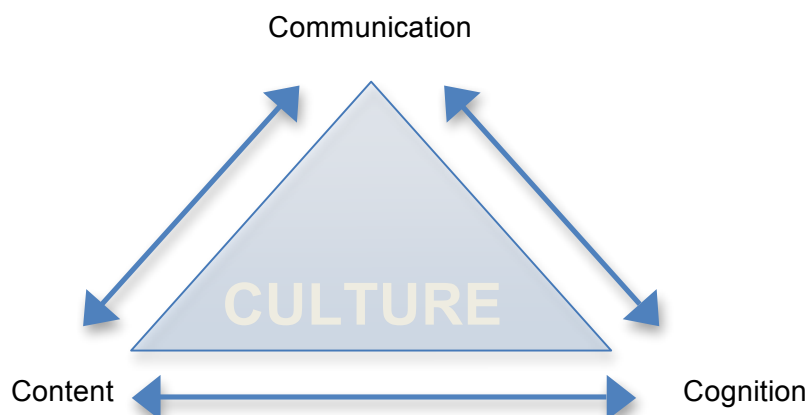


fig. 3 Coyle's model of CLIL concepts

CONTENT - Progression in knowledge, skills and understanding related to specific elements of a defined curriculum. Content matter is not only about acquiring knowledge and skills, it is about the learner creating their own knowledge and understanding and developing skills (personalised learning);

COMMUNICATION - Using language to learn - whilst learning to use language. Interaction in the learning context is fundamental to learning. This has implications when the learning context operates through the medium of a foreign language. Language needs to be learned which is related to the learning context, learning through that language, reconstructing the content and its related cognitive processes. This language needs to be transparent and accessible;

COGNITION - Developing thinking skills which link concept formation, understanding and language. Content is related to learning and thinking. To enable the learner to create their own interpretation of content, it must be analysed for its linguistic demands; Thinking processes need to be analysed for their linguistic demands

CULTURE (sometimes called **CITIZENSHIP** or **COMMUNITY**) - Exposure to alternative perspectives and shared understandings. The relationship between cultures and languages is complex. Intercultural awareness is fundamental to CLIL. Its rightful place is at the core. This is the basis for attention paid to global citizenship in CLIL (Coyle, 2007, pp.7-9)

University Teachers' competencies for CLIL

The European Association of International Educators (EAIE) identified a set of skills, attitudes and knowledge needed for the successful CLIL courses in higher education:

- Knowledge of field – this includes: language proficiency for speaking and interaction in both formal and informal contexts, good vocabulary for the field taught, good general lexical accuracy, ability to address and interact with audiences, good listening comprehension,

being able to outline problem and issues clearly and being able to analyse them in English, etc.,

- Teaching and Learning – competencies such as giving feedback in a supportive manner, etc.,
- Mentoring – competencies such as identifying common language difficulties, providing feedback that takes current language level of students into account, etc.,
- Learning aims – i.e. the ability to design learning experiences that integrate content and language, etc.,
- Teaching and learning strategies – plan, select, model good strategies, etc.,
- Assessment and testing – i.e. being competent in designing tests in English with instructions and question types that do not confuse students, etc.,
- Functioning within the school – which refers to have a good working relationship with language teachers, and finally,
- **Continuing Self Development – this is the ability to “establish own learning goals with regard to the practice of teaching in a second language and implement these in a career plan.”** (Teekens, 2007, pp.51-52, emphasis current researcher).

The university of Maastricht has been influential in propagating CLIL in higher education in Europe with a series of international conferences and publications proceeding from them (Wilkinson, 2004; 2006; Wilkinson & Zegers, 2007; 2008).

In studies based in the Netherlands, the debate regarding the impact of teaching through the medium of English (that is EMI) on students through CLIL approaches is far from over. There is an apparent contradiction in the literature on this subject.

According to Wilkinson, on the one hand:

Survey studies (e.g. Tella, Räsänen, & Vähäpassi, 1999; Hellekjaer & Westergaard, 2001) suggest that the effectiveness of English medium content teaching is influenced by language problems, in that the language seems to constrain teaching and instructional methods.

while

In contrast, both staff and students often rate English medium content teaching as ‘good’ or ‘very good’ (Hellekjaer & Westergaard, 2002) (cited in Wilkinson, 2005, p.1).

In his conclusion, Wilkinson notes that a number of variables can explain these differences. One, the levels of language proficiency will play a crucial role in how well students enjoy and benefit from EMI. Two, the quality and nature of the teaching by content teachers may not have been adjusted to the international student groups. Three, students reported that lectures in English are very dry and technical and lack sparkle, while instructors claim that the quality of communication is relatively poorer than in the native language. In an evaluation after two medical courses it was found that the majority of both teachers and students felt that the content had suffered somewhat but that their levels of proficiency in English had improved. This contradiction seems to confirm earlier findings. There is apparently an acceptable trade-off between a limited loss in precision and an international environment where language skills are enhanced. A possible form of compensation could be code-switching, where a difficult concept is explained in the first language of the class (assuming all the students have the same native language). Code switching for studying complex concepts in multiple languages is an interesting alternative, but to date no serious research has been carried out on this premise (Wilkinson, 2005).

Difficulties with CLIL

CLIL is a relative newcomer to teaching theories and models for English instruction to speakers of other languages. Jeremy Harmer asks if it is living up to its claims. Specifically, for CLIL to deserve the mantle of the preferred approach by this European group of

educators, it must consistently show that it is a) a better way of learning English or any given second language b) a better way of learning content (Harmer, 2011, *To teach English is human, to teach CLIL is divine?* Blog 25 January 2011, paragraph.3)² However, Gajo pointed out that while the core concept of CLIL seems to be 'integration' there has been little research into what integration means and how teachers make it operational in the learning/teaching process (2007). CLIL makes high demands on teachers which is one major aspect of the challenge of implementation it poses. The list of competencies above is a good starting point. For one thing, content teachers in countries all over the world simply do not have the linguistic abilities to include language learning in their lessons. Even in the Netherlands where the level of proficiency is quite high it was found that even rather effective teachers were often not able to explain complex concepts in different ways (i.e. redundancy) and/or that students do not produce much language (Colman, 2006; de Graaf, Koopman & Westhoff, 2007).

Problems with content aspects of learning

Research into the learning achievement levels of secondary school students who studied in an L2 in Europe have produced diverse results. Baker (2006) for example has shown that difficulties with language interfered with students' abilities to achieve in mathematics, in confirmation of Met's (1998) earlier research into problems with content areas (cited in Sercu, & Strobbe, 2011, p.15). On the other hand, recent investigation by Sercu & Strobbe into experimental projects in Flanders demonstrated sufficiently significant positive effects for these researchers to recommend implementing CLIL on a wide scale if certain pre-conditions, such as teacher training, were guaranteed (2011, pp.125-137).

Further the complexity of the approach has consequences for lesson and course planning. Llinares et al. (2012) identify three theoretical perspectives of CLIL with associated methods; sociocultural learning theory, systemic and functional linguistics (c.f.Halliday) and a family of theories from Second Language Acquisition (SLA).

The methods include recursive formative feedback, sharply pre-selected linguistic features, scaffolding of content, to name a few. The lesson must flow coherently between content and language so that learners can follow a line of argument or thought without being distracted by pre-set form focussed exercises. This requires a high degree of flexibility in CLIL lesson planning and makes classroom interaction particularly challenging. For example Jarvinen (2009) proposes an ecological approach to CLIL. She presents this as a contrast to a cognitive approach, which is generally accepted by content teachers. Her list of the key elements of the ecological approach appears to conflate learning a second language with CLIL, in other words it does not pay attention to the content learning aimed at.

2.3 Intercultural learning / teaching and the internationalised curriculum

The second domain of learning for teachers is that of intercultural competence. There is widespread agreement that the cultural aspects in student learning are important. Knight, links international education directly to intercultural education. For her, a way of defining internationalisation is as two processes. First:

The process of integrating an international, intercultural or global dimension into the purpose, functions or delivery of post-secondary education (2003, p.2).

where integrating, means,

The process of infusing or embedding an international and intercultural dimension into policies and programmes (op. cit. p.3).

However, she does not define the processes of infusing and/or embedding although she returns to this issue again expressing the need to address how internationalisation is to 'deal with the intersection of the international and the intercultural' (Knight, 2004, p.29). As Crichton et al. remark, 'These two terms are neither synonymous nor clearly understood' (2004, p.3). For teachers this is a crucial point. Anecdotal evidence provides examples of worst case scenarios in which an international or intercultural workshop or two are bolted on to existing courses in an unexplained add-on approach without either the teachers or students understanding what is behind the workshop activities or assignments.

A culturally inclusive curriculum is almost the same as a curriculum that welcomes diversity of ethnically, religiously and culturally 'different' people in the indigenous population (Caruana and Hanstock, 2003; 2005). From this perspective, internationalisation must move in the direction of cultural inclusivity to live up to its full potential. Many theorists have linked intercultural learning to global citizenship (Nussbaum, 1997; Ladson-Billings, 2005; Shiel, 2006). However it is difficult to arrange and difficult to assess.

Definitions often include affective and emotional aspects:

Intercultural learning is not just a topic to be talked about (thinking and knowing); it is also about caring, acting and connecting. It calls for the use of a number of learning processes (habitat learning, social experience, social conflict, etc.), each of which requires the simultaneous activation of the multiple learning modes that polyphasic learners (Henry, 1960) need to cope with the complexities of intercultural learning. It entails the discovery and transcendence of difference through authentic experiences of cross-cultural interaction that involve real tasks, and emotional as well as intellectual participation (De Vita & Case, 2003, p.388)

Characteristic models that have informed an internationalised curriculum

Two models relating to cultural difference have been used widely by Dutch international educators. The first of these is the theory of nationally-rooted deep seated cultural values that unconsciously direct the actions of members of that culture, developed by Geert Hofstede. Hofstede's research (1980) resulted in the identification of cultural dimensions falling into contrasting pairs such as individualism / collectivism, small / large power distance, feminine / masculine and weak / strong uncertainty avoidance. A majority of people raised in a culture will exhibit these characteristics. For example, the Japanese have a rather high tendency to avoid uncertainty. There have been criticisms of the dimensions in relation to higher education, for example for the relative rigidity and static nature of his understanding of culture and the emphasis on differences and de-emphasis on commonalities (Signorini, Wiesemes, & Murphy, 2009). On the other hand, an empirical investigation into one of the dimensions in Chile, Hong Kong, Sweden, Israel and Japan confirmed the dimensions studied (Merkin, 2006). Hofstede applied the cultural dimensions for teachers and students

in higher education (1986). Due to the differences derived from a particular position along the dimension-continuum, Hofstede identified four areas where miscommunication between teacher and students from various cultures could occur. They are differences related to:

1. Status between teacher and students
2. Teaching / Learning competencies such as giving feedback in a supportive manner, etc.,
3. Convictions on the weight given to the content of the courses, in terms of how relevant some parts of the curriculum are judged to be
4. Perspectives on cognitive abilities and expectations of how the interaction between teacher and students and between groups of students should be.

These dimensions are still being used in materials aimed at professional development in international teaching (Cushner, 1994). One of them was used in the interventions in the current study (Goodman, 1994). The competencies of the ideal lecturer of Teekens (2007) are built on a platform of Hofstede's dimensions. The dimensions are not, as noted, uncontested (see Sanderson, 2006, for an overview of criticisms of the dimensions).

Another model used by those who stress intercultural learning in the policies of internationalisation is Bennett's Developmental Model for Intercultural Sensitivity (Bennet, 1993; 2004). The DMIS has 5 stages from strong ethnocentrism to total ethnorelativism. Its developmental line makes it attractive for teachers and professional developers (Odgers & Giroux, 2006). The stages of the inventory are placed on a continuum which "represent a set of orientations or mindsets with successively greater ability to understand and have a more complete experience of cultural difference." (Intercultural development continuum..n.d., para. 4).

Denial> Polarization>Minimisation>Acceptance> Adaptation

Bennett (2009) also formulated a definition of intercultural learning specifically for exchange students which includes context as a key element:

Acquiring increased awareness of subjective cultural context (world view), including one's own, and developing greater ability to interact sensitively and competently across cultural contexts as both an immediate and long-term effect of exchange (p.2)

Some concrete suggestions for opportunities to learn in an intercultural way have been noted in previous discussions such as countering ethnocentricity of the teaching and assessment methods, enhancing intercultural appreciation in and through group work (Volet & Ang, 1998), sending out a strong message about equality, fighting cultural stereotyping, and promoting intercultural communication not as a nice module in a bubble, but as a 'critical process of making meanings, of sharing meanings, and of building bridges across multiple realities and multiple truths' (Fox, 1996; Hellmundt, 2003 cited in De Vita, 2007, p.165).

Challenges related to intercultural educational goals

As with English medium instruction, so too with intercultural learning, challenges for students and teachers have been recognised. Several overlapping language / culture problems have been identified. Problems with cultural stereotyping; language fatigue; the use of colloquialisms and other native speaker expressions can be seen as both linguistic and cultural (see Ballard & Clancy, 1997; Baldwin et al., 1998; De Vita, 2000; 2007). Problems related to academic literacy, especially in essay writing, also pose questions regarding the educational culture in which teachers and students were trained and socialised (Mullins et al., 1995; Kedwith et al., 1996; Bliss, 1999; Ryan, 2000; De Vita 2000 & 2005).

Echoing the potential tensions in teacher-student and student-student interaction of Hofstede, a clash in teaching and learning styles, especially around the degree of discussion required in class and in group work, is the third problem area which has been discussed by several educators. De Vita has written extensively on this subject (2001a&b; 2002a&b; 2005; 2007). Other difficulties are moving from dependence to independent and critical thinking and independent learning skills. These are due to limited language proficiency and academic cultural traditions that have not valued independence to such a high degree (see Pearson & Beasley, 2000; De Vita, 2007).

A strong critique is given of the policies for recruitment. Potential international students are often not given a realistic picture of the language problems they will encounter. Many universities offer some remedial help but this is a kind of sticking plaster that only covers over the deep difficulties of some international students (Handa, 2008). Teachers often give such students lower marks, by only awarding points for the content and not giving full credit to written work. Handa, who tutors students with language problems found that they have particular problems from their language and cultural background in subjects with a strong practice / professional component such as Nursing, Education, Management, Hospitality, Journalism etc.

This is recognisable from the NUAS teachers' experiences. What exacerbates the difficulties is that international students need more time to read English language texts and to do desk-research which means that they have little free time to devote to remedial learning. Handa believes that the intercultural goals of higher education institutes in English speaking countries cannot be reached unless there is a sea change in the understanding of and interacting with non-native speaker students (Handa, 2008).

Other kinds of problems can arise as the *intracultural* and *intercultural* policies of a non-English speaking university begin to take hold in reality. Diversity in higher education institutes brings costs with it which are often not articulated (Hermans, 2005). It is simplistic to think that simply 'changing the complexion of the population' will achieve the aims of intercultural inclusiveness' (op cit., p.2).

How the next steps are taken will determine if a real transformation takes place or not. It is not clear to what extent diversity is actually taken into account in the policies of internationalisation. Managing diversity is a core issue for organisations that wish to or must maintain focus' (2005, p.2). As diversity becomes part of the mainstream of the institution, it will automatically change traditional ways of managing, teaching and assessment but it is quite possible that the members of the university are not aware of the effects of these changes on themselves. This could trigger something of a backlash. The earlier rather passive tolerance of exotic others in their community may lessen and a critical view will strengthen. Since the old coherence and order are disturbed some may see the international students and staff as 'fremd körper' (op cit. p.3). A dualistic thinking can ensue with domestic students voicing views that the international students are 'them'. 'They' use up resources such as housing, extra tutoring etc. which 'we' must give up for 'them'. Hermans warns that this kind of dualism will not go away by itself. When management have a strong commitment to an inclusive worldview they can plan and direct policies that will diminish such tendencies.

One university that has forged a more concrete direction and a conceptual framing, is the University of Southern Australia. A team there has developed 5 principles for intercultural teaching (Crichton et al., 2004, p.60):

- Connecting the intracultural with the intercultural
- Constructing intercultural 'knowing' as social action
- Interacting and communicating
- Reflecting and introspecting
- Assuming responsibility

They have also developed educational materials, together with teaching and assessment guidelines to support a community of practice in the use of the principles. In spite of this clear conceptualisation and the provision of practical materials and ideas, not many universities have followed UniSA's lead. As Gallagher (2002, p.4) has warned, 'we have a long way to go' in regard to the cultural dimensions of internationalisation. Finally, regarding the method of teaching, it would be unhelpful for various reasons to dictate pedagogic models in university policy.

Cruickshank (2004) suggests the notion of cultural inclusiveness lies more in the willingness to negotiate learning and teaching strategies, to reflect on values and beliefs and to understand and embrace different ways of knowing, than in the adoption of any specific approach to pedagogy (Robson & Turner, 2008, p 48).

Individual teacher challenges in the intercultural domain

Added to the cognitive and disciplinary complexity of the innovation in regard to integrating international and intercultural dimensions into the learning environment is the challenge to develop an international mindset (Rizvi, 2000; Caruana & Hanstock, 2005). This includes developing expertise in intercultural communication which is not discipline specific. It can be a barrier to individuals as it has been recognised that intercultural learning is personally confronting and potentially fraught. Teachers must create and maintain a good learning atmosphere in multicultural classrooms. Those who have professional experience in intercultural training 'know that communicating and interacting with culturally different others is psychologically intense' (Paige, 1993, p.1).

Leask identified key competencies for teachers as 'Intercultural learners'. These apply to both native and non-native speaker teachers alike. While they represent opportunities for individual professional and personal growth, they are daunting in terms of the commitment and effort required to reach them. This effort level must be ever kept in mind. International teachers must be able to:

- identify and incorporate a range of international content and perspectives in the programme through examples and case studies;
- seek, evaluate and respond to feedback of different kinds (written, verbal and non-verbal) from students about the effectiveness of their teaching;
- change their teaching approaches to achieve different course objectives in different ways, depending on the needs of students;
- reflect on and learn from teaching experiences.

International teachers must also understand:

- that their own culture affects the way they think, feel, act, and interact with others;
- the social, cultural and educational backgrounds of students;
- the cultural framework of the discipline;
- how professional practice in the discipline is influenced by cultural and national contexts (2007, p.88).

If one compares this list to the list of causes of resistance of Bond a number of parallels emerge. Thus a trigger of resistance can just as easily be a source of learning. For example regarding the topics and issues covered in their teaching programmes, Bond notes that there is little appetite for modifying intellectual frameworks due to other priorities and pressures, while Leask states that teachers must make such modifications by incorporating international perspectives through case studies. It is precisely in this field of tension that professional development must place itself if it is going to be meaningful and effective. Finally, a prescriptive list disseminated at a recent conference aimed at members of faculty who are involved in international education is offered to show the detailed expectations on teaching staff, at least in the USA (see endnote no. 4).

2.4 Issues of international teaching

Responses to internationalisation of the curriculum by teaching staff

Research (Trowler, 1998; Gibbs, Habeshaw & Yorke, 2000) has shown that teachers in lower status universities generally take one of four positions in response to any major innovation brought in by top-down policies:

- sinking fatalistically;
- coping with the change but as a consequence performing less well in other aspects of their work
- seeing opportunities arising from within the change; and
- finding ways in which they could reconstruct policy relating to the change (Gibbs et al., 2000, p.369).

In one study (Bell, 2004), interviews with 20 academics regarding their attitudes towards internationalisation provide greater insight into the range of responses. The responses fell into four points along a continuum that has a 'great divide' between, on the one hand, teachers who in general have little interest in curriculum reform and systemic change and, on the other, those who are open to such change. The first group have a sharp awareness of obstacles, the second are milder about obstacles seeing them as relatively minor (Bell, 2004). (This divide was first identified by Ellingboe 1998, p.214). Bell concluded that her 'Spectrum of Acceptance of Internationalising Curriculum' provides a framework for further research. Several pertinent questions for research into teacher engagement are offered.

Three of them are particularly relevant to the present study:

Is pedagogy equally as significant, or more significant, than content for those who wish to internationalise curriculum?

How relevant is an academic's conception of teaching and learning to their acceptance or rejection of an international curriculum?

Are there disciplinary differences in perceptions of, and strategies for, an International curriculum? (Bell, 2004 pp.11-12).

This survey was small in scale but made clear that there is a continuum from total rejection to enthusiastic acceptance of IoC. The number of respondents on the positive side (13 out of 20) exceeded the negative side (7 out of 20). In contrast, much of the non-empirical literature only considers the negative side of the great divide. In fact, in that literature, there is a 'near urban legend of faculty intransigence' (Bond, 2003 Section 7.0). One reason for negativity is the tension between top down policies regarding internationalisation through marketing and managerial fiat. This has caused a gap between the rhetoric of policy makers and the real issues of how teachers and students need to change to make international education work (Dobbert, 1998). Based on previous studies⁵ Bond et al. (2003) have identified a number of causes of resistance, of which the most commonly identified were financial and work related constraints. These lead to the view that internationalisation is one of a series of undervalued and underfunded innovations, a view confirmed by Schapper & Mayson (2005) who point out that without sufficient funding, teachers cannot reach student centred learning goals with diverse groups so 'Taylorisation' and de-skilling take place. In fact, insufficient time to prepare and develop course materials (Engberg & Green, 2002; Ellingboe, 1998; Bond et al., 2003) is a constant challenge to teachers acting as individuals and in teams. Although

⁵ for example Bond & Thayer, 1999; James & Nef, 2002; Shute, 2002, Cleveland- Jones et al., 2001; Ellingboe, 1998; Dobbert, 1998 all cited in Bond, et al.2003

the literature referred to is from English speaking countries, time pressure is especially fraught for non-native speaker course developers who produce materials for EMI.

Other challenges that negatively affect commitment of teaching staff are restrictions on opportunities to go abroad (Carter, 1992) together with restricted learning opportunities on the work floor, both formal and informal, such as mentoring (Childress, 2007; Williams, 2008). Both Childress' and Williams' studies focus on what they frame as barriers to teacher engagement both individually and as members of departments. According to both of them, a lack of learning networks across the faculties is an obstacle to knowledge sharing and thus to organisation-wide knowledge management.

Another cause of negative response is personal / professional uncertainty related to the limited knowledge of many university teachers. It appears that being able to link knowledge of international approaches, models and theories to the practice of the teaching of the curriculum, in other words, how to infuse study programmes or courses with international and intercultural perspectives, is outside of the cognitive competence of most teachers, even of those who have had international experience (Leask, 2005a, Mestenhauser & Ellingboe, 1998; Schoorman, 2000a; Knight, 2003; Childress, 2007). Methods of infusing scholarship with international / global perspectives are not generally known (Leask, 2005b, Mestenhauser & Ellingboe, 1998; Killick, 2006; Solem, Chalmers, Dibiase, Donert, & Hardwick, 2006).

Yet another factor contributing to resistance was identified in Bell's question regarding the relationship between disciplines and levels of acceptance. Some of the literature of internationalisation positions disciplinary priorities as a barrier, mainly because teachers tend to focus on the issues currently significant in their disciplines (Bond et al., 2003; Bell, 2004; Mestenhauser, 2002). For example, in a qualitative study surveying attitudes to internationalisation of the curricula of teachers on off-shore campuses of an Australian university in Malaysia and South Africa, some evidence was found that teachers in the 'hard sciences' such as maths and physics were more resistant to changing their curricula than those of other disciplines (Clifford, 2009). However the concern of internationalists such as Mestenhauser and Ellingboe is different. The problem for them is the interdisciplinary nature of IoC and its transformational potential (Mestenhauser, 2007; Ellingboe, 1998; Caruana, 2009). From a systems perspective this makes sense, the need to structure educational activities for students across departments can be slowed down or made less effective by departmental boundaries. A holistic and organisation-wide interweaving of implementation is essential from this perspective.

Current scholarship leads to the conclusion that internationalizing the curriculum is not simply an adjustment, but rather transformation of the curriculum. As such, internationalization affects all faculty, not just those who teach internationally. ... Internationalization provides a unique world perspective that affects academics' view of their discipline, scholarship, curriculum, and campus life (Green & Olson, 2003, p.57).

Clusters of Competencies for teachers

As to criteria that teachers can use to measure their level of competence, a major framing concept is the list of competencies developed by Teekens (2001; 2003a; 2007) referred to previously as a 'profile of the ideal lecturer' for the international classroom. It consists of nine clusters of competences of which the second, third and fourth were selected for the interventions in the current study, as noted in the previous chapter. Teekens (2007) was the first to give high priority to both language skills and intercultural competence (Sanderson, 2008).

- 1. General competences*
- 2. Competences in using a non-native language of instruction/tuition*
- 3. Competences for dealing with cultural differences*

4. Competences in dealing with different teaching and learning styles
5. Intercultural competence in the use of media and IT
6. Specific competences in the academic discipline
7. Knowledge of foreign education systems
8. Knowledge of the international labour market
9. Personal qualities (2007, p.40-45).

Teekens had several aims in making this typology. The profile can be seen as an attempt to look at the international classroom holistically⁶. Interestingly, some of Teeken's aims are management tools for controlling and steering practitioners. First, she wanted to 'raise awareness' among managers about the qualities teachers need to have. Second, the list of competencies identified can be compared to existing lists of standards of competence for teaching staff. This comparison can throw up discrepancies that might help managers in 'future staff selection... and... further training. Third, the profile is meant to provide lecturers with an insight into the demanding role they have to play' (2003a, p.36). Teekens looks at teachers as individual professionals and has not dealt with the teacher as colleague except in relation to 'cooperation with colleagues at partner institutions abroad (op. cit , p.40).

Between 2008 and 2011, two senior staff members of the internationalisation team at NUAS developed their own HRM tool, 'The International Competences Matrix' (van der Werf, 2011). It incorporated aspects of Teekens' competencies. One idea behind the matrix was that teachers have multiple roles. They do not only work as individual lecturers / classroom teachers, but also as developers of new curricula and maintainers of relations with partners abroad. The second important idea behind the matrix, was that the English language skills of teachers needed to be identified in some depth and precision since it is believed that English language proficiency is highly important in working in an international environment. The HRM objective was to provide:

a practical tool which could serve to alert both teaching staff and their heads of department to the fact that working in an international environment requires new and additional competences and that training teaching staff in 'weak' competence areas may be necessary in order to make a university's internationalisation policy a success. Heads of department were advised to use the tool during job interviews with potential new members of staff, but also in relation to current staff, e.g. in job appraisal talks. (van der Werf, 2011, p.52)

Professional development for internationalisation

While the literature of internationalisation regularly criticises universities for not providing teaching staff with sufficient developmental support (Cleveland-Jones et al., 2001; Ellingboe, 1998; Harari, 1992; Knight, 1994, 2000; Paige, 2003; Taylor, 2004; Tonkin & Edwards, 1981, Williams, 2008), this same literature almost never discusses the actual nature of the internationalised curriculum (Clifford, 2009). However,

...every study, in every field, has to make assumptions about what to teach, how to teach it, when and to whom, in what sequence, and of what quality and quantity..(Mestenhauser & Ellingboe 1998, p.28).

Supporting lecturers and teachers in making sound choices through dedicated training or workshops is not unproblematic. When offered generically to all teaching staff university

⁶ Sanderson's deep investigation into the Profile produced several views on its aims. The most relevant at this point is that:

The Profile appears to be a normative claim for the development of multi-reference grid curricula in response to increasing cultural, language, and educational diversity of the student body. To this end, it subscribes to a hyperglobalist worldview which promulgates universal moral cosmopolitanism (Sanderson, 2006, p.iii).

wide, both required and voluntary staff development programmes have been recognised to have unintended consequences. On one side, if participation is voluntary the interventions tend to preach to the converted, with the majority not getting involved such as was the case at Delft university (Klaassen, 2000; with de Graaf 2001; Caurana & Handstock, 2008; Caurana 2009). However if staff development is made mandatory the majority of teachers will cope by responding in body but disengaging in spirit (Trowler, 1998; Caruana, 2009, p.19).

As it is at the level of the curriculum that highly sustainable gains in international dimensions in education can be made, failing to invest in continuing teacher development (CPD) within any delivery model that can effectively transfer to curricular reform, is a failure of no small proportions (Shute, 2002). For example, the National Association of State Colleges and Universities of Canada (1993) asserted that:

faculty can only play an active role [in internationalization] if an environment is created that ensures that professional development, scholarship, and public service in the international setting are valued (p.6 cited in Childress, 2007, p.7).

Thus the lack of provision for teachers at NUAS is a reflection of a common phenomenon. A more recent study by two PD experts who were attached to a large combined humanities & social science faculty in a research oriented university had important observations. They concluded that most lecturers were opposed to *any* kind of PD courses but rather were eager to have more opportunities for informal collegial discussion:

Participants were resistant to the idea of organised courses, resonating with wider views about the value of staff development programmes that impose a generic set of teaching skills (Ottewill et al., 2002; Brew & Peseta, 2004). However an encouraging number of participants valued the opportunity to take part in the discussion and the opportunity this study presented to reflect upon their experiences and understandings of internationalization. Concern was expressed at the lack of fora, outside of formal committee agendas, in which they could discuss learning and teaching issues or share good practice (Robson & Turner, 2007, p.50).

2.5 Conclusion

This chapter begins and ends with the same point, namely that internationalisation of the curriculum is a complex and contested innovation that throws up challenges for organisational management and practitioners. At the start, it was shown that internationalisation scholars agree that the innovation has multiple goals not the least of which involves global citizenship and inter / intra cultural inclusivity.

For these goals to be achieved a reform of teaching and assessment practices is required. It is possible to internationalise a university successfully by exchange and mobility of students and researchers, without recourse to these reforming goals but in that case it is a marketing reform to meet a globalising agenda. In the eyes of the scholars this means that ends have been confused with means and in effect internationalisation of the curriculum becomes another innovation that has failed to live up to its transformational promise in spite (because of) its success.

After this EMI is considered in relation to teachers. Claims of benefits, unique characteristics and required teacher competences are highlighted. Two intercultural learning theories and models, also supported by the European association are described in very short terms and educational goals for intercultural competence, and teacher required competences, are problematised. The relationship between intercultural inclusivity and the full implementation of an internationalised curriculum are identified. Finally teachers' responses to the challenges of internationalisation are considered. A majority of responses discussed by scholars are negative for reasons that are then identified. However not much of this literature is based on empirical studies, at meso level. That lack of findings about the cultural environment in the teacher's workplace is followed by and linked to a consensus in literature on professional development in regard to internationalisation. This consensus is that PD is sorely needed but not yet fit for purpose. Teachers who had taken part in such provision are said to prefer to exchange good practices or discuss issues in their own local fora above attending formal committee meetings or participating in existing forms of staff development. The following chapter will pick up on this last point by critiquing first professional development in higher education generally then offering specific analyses of several previous PD programmes concerning internationalisation.

Endnotes

1. Vinke's coding instrument used in her research at the University of Delft.

Vinke asked students and teachers to fill in various surveys that drew out this information.

I Behaviour dimensions Individual behaviour categories with category number in brackets

presentation of information	provides new content (1) structures (2) summaries (3) clarifies by restating (4) clarifies by examples (5) expands (6) uses aside (7)
interaction	solicits (8) prompts (9) elicits (10) student talks (11) reacts (12)
compensation	postpones or delegates reaction (13) reads aloud (14)
silence	administration or strategic silence (15) silence due to student activity (16) empty silence (17)
other	lecturer behaviours other than 1 through 17 (20)

(fig. 4.1:1995, p. 90)

2. Jeremy Harmer's Blog

CLIL is (supposedly) not like teaching ordinary EFL (English as a Foreign Language) or ESOL (to speakers of other languages). It is teaching the language and an academic subject at the same time, so that as you learn about physics you learn the language for physics. CLIL advocates dividing language skills into BICS (basic interpersonal communicative skills - that's familiar EFL territory) and CALP (Cognitive academic language proficiency - that's, for example, the physics bit!). You can have soft CLIL (that's a bit of teaching physics and English together) and hard CLIL (delivering a lot of the physics curriculum in English and vice-versa). CLIL advocates say that it is different from just bi-lingual schooling. It is new and shiny because CALP and BICS have equal billing. Many people have a big stake in promoting and supporting CLIL practice.] (Harmer, 2011, To teach English is human, to teach CLIL is divine? Blog 25 January 2011, paragraph.3)

3. The competencies of Teekens can be compared with another set of competencies, linked to the various roles of a university staff member in the Netherlands (Tigelaar, Dolmans, Wolfhagen, & van der Vleuten, 2004).

Domains expressed as roles Tigelaar et al.	Skills / Attitudes/ knowledge	Relation to the clusters of Teekens
1. Person as Teacher	Is skilled at communicating Has a positive attitude towards students Exhibits respect towards all students	Cluster no. 9: Personal qualities personal commitment to internationalism Intercultural -communication skills
2. Expert on content	Knows literature that suits educational goals Has a high level of relevant basic knowledge and is aware of new developments Is capable of using relevant specialist information for his/her own teaching	Cluster no. 6: Specific international requirements connected with the academic disciplines in international contexts
3. Developer	3a – has student centred / motivating aims when developing materials 3b – builds up the level gradually in a controlled and appropriate manner / can make exercises / can devise own teaching & learning materials 3c – can design activating materials	Cluster no. 4: Specific international requirements regarding teaching and learning styles & no. 2: Issues related to using a non-native language of instruction
4. Counsellor / Coach	Is capable of giving feedback Can motivate and activate students Puts students in central position Can steer the process	
5. Evaluator	Can judge own tests and commercially made assessments and can adapt materials on the basis of feedback Is able to design tests that are appropriate for the results	
6. Organiser	Can communicate effectively with colleagues Can coordinate effectively with colleagues Can contribute to the curriculum	The closest related cluster is no. 3: Factors related to dealing with cultural differences
7. Lifelong learner	Is open to innovations / Is able to reflect on own performance / Is able to draw conclusions from reflecting on own performance / Can use rational and reliable methods to analyse problems & develop solutions	Partially Related to Clusters 7 & 8: Knowledge of foreign education systems Knowledge of the international labour market and to Cluster 9: Personal qualities

4. Intercultural Competencies Essential For Teaching Across Cultures (Bennet, 2011, p.12)

The effective intercultural educator has the ability to:

- ◆ Comprehend the role of teaching in the learner's culture
- ◆ Communicate clearly to non-native speakers of the language used in teaching
- ◆ Facilitate multicultural groups (including turn-taking, participation, use of silence, etc.)
- ◆ "Code-shift" from one communication style to another
- ◆ Paraphrase circular or indirect statements respectfully for linear and direct group members
- ◆ Express enthusiasm for the topic in culturally appropriate ways
- ◆ Suspend judgment of alternative cultural norms
- ◆ Recognize and address culture-specific risk factors for learners (loss of face, group identity, etc.)
- ◆ Develop multiple frames of reference for interpreting intercultural situations
- ◆ Demonstrate good judgment in selecting the most appropriate interpretation in a transcultural situation
- ◆ Ask sensitively phrased questions while avoiding premature closure
- ◆ Avoid ethnocentric idioms, slang, and aphorisms
- ◆ Interview a cultural informant to obtain needed information on subjective culture
- ◆ Recognize ethnocentrism in goals, objectives, content, process, media, and course materials, as well as group interaction
- ◆ Motivate learners based on their own values
- ◆ Deliver courses in a variety of methods
- ◆ Interpret nonverbal behavior in culturally appropriate ways
- ◆ Monitor the use of humor for cultural appropriateness
- ◆ Display cultural humility
- ◆ Be culturally self-aware

Chapter three *Types of professional development & modes of delivery for teaching in higher education*

Introduction

Policy makers as well as the developers of learning opportunities agree that professional (or staff, educational, faculty or academic) development is essential for long-term success of internationalisation in higher education. However, professional development for international teaching and learning can only be as good as professional development in general at higher education institutes. This chapter first (3.1) identifies a typology of delivery models of continuous professional development. After that a critique of stand-alone, generic professional development interventions is offered (3.2), followed by a description and critique of several relevant exemplars of interventions. In section 3.3 a social practice perspective is presented as a conceptual framework for professional development interventions. A description of the middle-out approach to enhancement for university wide innovations is also offered in 3.3. The conclusions drawn are offered in 3.4.

3.1 Typology of delivery models of in-service professional development

Unfortunately, most teachers experience internationalisation unprepared and untrained (Haigh, 2008, p.432).

Even a brief look at the literature of professional development (also known as staff, faculty or educational development) in higher education will show that a serious focus on this field is relatively new. Professional development (PD) in higher education, in strong contrast to secondary or primary education, was in the periphery of research. PD has since moved from a rather 'low profile in many institutions to a more central and influential position' (Candy 1996, p.7).

The trend is towards a greater professionalization of the pedagogic aspect of the function of lecturer and even that of the professor. It can be seen to be a response to several of the same forces that are bringing internationalisation into higher education. Not the least of these is the New Public Management (NPM) drive. NPM embraces two idealised models of student success. In these, students must achieve excellence either in research or in vocational competencies. In both models, the pedagogy must be up to the task of producing these students who, although they come from an ever wider range of social backgrounds, are expected to be able to excel in their chosen ideal direction. What professional development should consist of in the context of these models is still unclear to many members of the teaching staff of higher education institutes (Marginson, 2010, p.5). The following identification of types of in-service learning support should make the range of possibilities clear.

Continuous Professional Development: delivery models

In-service support that is on-going for a certain period of time, is sometimes referred to as continuing professional development or CPD. A typology of CPD was made by Kennedy (2005, pp.236-237) who identified nine types or models:

1. training;
2. award-bearing;
3. deficit;
4. cascade;
5. standards-based;
6. coaching/mentoring;
7. community of practice;
8. action research;
9. transformative

The first 6 of the 9 are individually oriented (see endnote 1). The training model is associated with managers who dominate the agenda. It comes with strict outcome measurements and usually leaves no room for teachers to adapt in their own way or to use critical thinking. But it is reckoned to be effective and still takes place. The award bearing model is currently favoured in vocational higher education, where every teacher has been ordered to acquire a master's degree. The deficit model was noted in the introduction. Organisational or managerial failures that may cause deficits in teaching are not recognised in this model. Instead, the individual teacher is blamed. A deficit orientation is aimed at accountability and is part of the audit culture (Rhodes & Beneicke 2003, cited in Kennedy, 2005). Kennedy sees the deficit model as strongly linked to performance management.

The cascade model is usually found to work best for technical or skills learning. A core group of early adopters is trained in a new skill. These early adopters subsequently spread out to share what they know with colleagues. It is similar to a diffusion model of organisational innovation developed by Rogers (1967) as well as the stepping stones strategy of Havelock (1973, cited in Land, 2001). Current critiques of both cascade (Elmore, 1996) and change

agent models of professional development claim that they seldom work (Elton, 1995). In Havelock's theory, champions are nurtured and incremental improvements catch on as members of the institution at large see the successful exemplars. One of the problems with diffusion or cascade models is that, generally speaking, behaviours are disseminated or handed down but almost never values (Solomon & Tresman, 1999). Another is that this approach is almost totally decontextualised. The standards based model can be associated with a competency based approach. Next are coaching and mentoring models, these are clearly one-to-one approaches.

The last three models are all social approaches to learning. Communities of practice, action learning and transformative models will be considered later with the enhancement theories of development. Kennedy suggests that the typology can help professional developers in answering crucial design questions:

- What types of knowledge acquisition does the CPD support, i.e. procedural or propositional?
- Is the principal focus on individual or collective development?
- To what extent is the CPD used as a form of accountability?
- What capacity does the CPD allow for supporting professional autonomy?
- Is the fundamental purpose of the CPD to provide a means of transmission or to facilitate transformative practice (2005, p.247)?

Kennedy adds a rider to his typology:

While most CPD experiences might be considered as means of introducing or enhancing knowledge, skills and attitudes, it cannot be assumed that this is uncontested. For example, Eraut (1994) argues that it is not merely the type of professional knowledge being acquired that is important, but the context through which it is acquired and subsequently used that actually helps us to understand the nature of that knowledge. Eraut (1994) identifies three major contexts in which professional knowledge is acquired –the academic context, institutional discussion of policy and practice, and practice itself. Clearly, knowledge acquisition is not situated exclusively within any one of these three contexts (Kennedy, 2005, p.236).

Kennedy rightly recognises Eraut's concerns. The issues surrounding contextualisation and knowledge growth will be discussed further in Chapter four. Interestingly, the typology begins with a very instrumental model and ends with a transformative one, somewhat like the three tiers we have seen for the internationalisation of the curriculum.

The table summarising the typology can be found in the endnotes of this chapter.

Other typologies

Osborn (1999), in analysing PD models for higher education, was convinced that the embeddedness and collaborative nature of much teacher change has not been stressed sufficiently. She made a typology of models based on this conviction. In it, she identified three generations in models of professional development. The first generation is identified as 'work-ignored'. It was generic in content and focussed on individuals' personal growth with no attempt to engage with work-team or departmental needs. This generic intervention model, which still dominates PD in higher education, will be discussed below. The second generation is 'work-perceived', that is, the PD interventions still stand alone but they do 'investigate and direct' the work of teachers for professional growth that aims to transform or reform performance in the individuals and/or their departments (p.2)⁷.

⁷ The induction programmes for new lecturers at the NUAS appears to be a second generation type.

The third generation of PD interventions is, in contrast, 'work-embedded'. It uses different approaches, for example it integrates internal and external provision, and the time lines for PD activities are not pre-set but negotiated with the participants. Also, the focus is on learning through participation, and integrating formal and informal learning. This focus comes from the field of workplace learning that will be discussed in the next chapter.

A third typology sees four models of academic development delivery: 1. the traditional centrally delivered model, 2. the dispersed model which is informal and takes place between colleagues in departments (Boud, 1999), 3. a mixed model where central generic activities take place alongside embedded ones, usually characterised by duplication due to poor coordination and 4. an integrated model in which the work of PD experts is fed into and interrelated to the work of teaching staff (Hicks, 1999, pp.48-49). This integrated model can combine generic workshops with consultations:

at departmental level for restructuring, curriculum change, quality development, evaluation, fulfilling institutional requirements, helping departments explore the implications of strategic directions (Reid, 2002, p.9).

3.2 Critiques of stand-alone professional development

It has been said that lasting changes which improve the quality of staff learning in higher education are frustrated by the very nature of professional development offered to university teachers. There has been a failure to create a culture that encourages on-going development embedded in institutions (D'Andrea and Gosling, 2005). Considering the models of Kennedy (2005) it is not hard to agree. Such a developmental orientation has been called a 'professional culture of inquiry' (Zeicher 2001, p.279). One reason for this failure may be that the PD experts working out of a central department for teacher development, have, as the typology showed, mainly focussed on individual development with short term courses, workshops, newsletters, etc. These, even when they are 'extremely valuable and...highly regarded' (Boud, 1999, p.3), offer no guarantee of long term change (D'Andrea and Gosling, 2005).

Since the stand alone, generic, mode of delivery of professional development support is the most common, a critique of it will be given here. However before discussing the limitations of this mode of delivery it is important to keep its strengths in mind. As Kennedy's typology and Boud's comments showed, generic training or workshops using several different CPD models often reach high standards of clarity and focus when it comes to specific skills or knowledge that teachers need to become competent in. The training, standard bearing and award bearing models can achieve multiple aims. One is to ensure that particular skills such as how to use new technology is spread across the entire university. Other aims are strategic. These models are cost effective and transparent. In addition, policy makers can ensure that all teachers have been exposed to the same ideas and skills which is an aid to standardisation.

In spite of these positive aspects, the difficulties of university-wide, generic modes of delivery of professional development, have been commented on by many experts (Osborn 2002; Malcolm & Zukas, 2001; Rowland, 1999; D'Andrea & Gosling, 2005; Zuber-Skerritt, 1992). For example, in a wide ranging evaluative study of teacher learning, Berne and Wilson noted that a major challenge is 'rooted in the poor reputation of professional development workshops' (1999, p.197). Three aspects that contribute to the negative reputation are highlighted below. The first is the lack of relevance of topics and themes of professional development. The second is the lack of credibility of professional development providers and their messages, which leads to ambivalent attitudes by teachers. The third area is that, due to a lack of understanding of organisational characteristics, the sustainability of what is learnt during professional development programmes is weak.

Problems of relevance

A growing body of evidence shows that it is unrealistic to expect 'one size fits all' type training courses to meet the needs of teachers who are diverse in professional function, motivation, and level (Rust, 1998, Fletcher & Patrick, 1998; Knight, 2002; National Research Council, 2007). In-service training in schools is often short-term in delivery, fragmented, and not well aligned, a description which resonates with higher education (Ball & Cohen, 1999). This negative view is also growing in higher education where it is considered crucial to be relevant across disciplines (Hicks, 1999). It has not been at all unusual to hear anecdotally of disquiet that the development opportunities for staff are too generic in nature (Baume, 2003) and not necessarily transferable to different disciplines (Stefani, 2003, p.12). Key characteristics of generic PD delivery are stability and replicability (Bransford & Schwartz, 1999). However, in the dynamic environment of universities, being able to replicate content across departments may lead to a loss of relevance.

Problems of ambivalence

A second problem is the ambivalence of university teachers in regard to generic support for reasons unrelated or only partially related to content. This reluctance seems rather to be based, at least in part, in not wanting to give up control over what they consider to be their 'turf' (Blackmore, Chambers, Huxely & Thackwray, 2010). For example, while acknowledging that they were lacking important knowledge and skills to internationalise their courses, many faculty members at Canadian universities did not seek help from their universities' international offices. At the same time, the majority of faculty members, ironically, reported the lack of institutional support and of on-going professional development opportunities to help them internationalise curricula (Bond et al., 2003, p.4). Several sources, as mentioned, have noted that while teachers are eager to discuss the difficulties of their students and wider problems of internationalisation they were reluctant to take organised courses (Ottewill et al., 2002; Brew & Peseta, 2004; Robson & Turner 2007). Trowler points to the need to understand the scepticism of academics towards what is seen as 'platitudinous generic educational advice' (2009, p.20). The problem is not simply the general nature of that advice, but the insensitivity of the approaches and methods used to give it. It is not surprising that subject specialists prefer to talk with other specialists about their practices and not with educationalists who seem to come bearing educational doctrines that teachers are supposed to sign up to. That this might trigger some reluctance if not actual resistance among highly educated, experienced and respected professionals cannot be surprising. A very strong comment by Lindsay gives a flavour of some academics' opinions regarding such workshop providers.

The circumstances surrounding the birth of educational development centres, were to say the least, inauspicious. Their brief for quite some years was to deliver to a suspicious and resentful audience of academics a message that was usually found to be unpalatable...Many of the new educational developers...somehow had to achieve sufficient credibility to bring about change amongst a highly critical and articulate client group (Lindsay, cited in Trowler, 2004, p.196).

From another perspective, it may be that university teachers feel uncomfortable or even threatened by professional development that addresses areas of practice they know they are not strong in, or whose value they are unconvinced of. In a study of eight schools of medicine it was found that teaching staff members tended to join professional development activities on topics they already knew quite a lot about and valued. In one medical school students' evaluations consistently showed that there were problems with assessment and testing but almost all staff members put these areas on the bottom of their priority list for professional development. As one staff developer ruefully remarked, 'It is very difficult to get faculty members to give up time to participate and to devise meaningful agendas for them'

(Rubeck & Witzke, 1998, p.35).

A further difficulty is that PD providers are sometimes seen as an extension of the university management by teachers and therefore are not completely accepted, since it is assumed that they are carrying out the management's agenda (Gibbs & Coffey, 2000, p.39). It is, after all, the management that gives them their major assignments (Blackmore et al., 2010). These assignments focus on accountability issues, such as lowering drop-out rates or increasing standardisation in teaching methods. Teaching staff may experience this as performance management in an audit culture, especially if promotion, tenure or other conditions of employment are correlated with statistics about success rates (Marginson, 2010).

Problems of sustainability

Even when useful and relevant tools, guidelines or didactic approaches are provided in generic workshops, participants who learn and are enthusiastic find it difficult to put them into practice after they return to their departments. Workshop participants who attempt to introduce new ideas, such as student centred teaching, find that their 'initial impetus' for change is often 'lost in the increasing tide of competing and conflicting priorities of everyday academic life' (Leask, Treveaven, Freeman, Ramburuth, Simpson, Sykes & Ridings, 2007, p.10). Centrally delivered workshop or other PD programmes are often:

not sufficient for internalisation of new practice and implementation in another context to fully occur. There is often little opportunity to practice new skills or ways of working, the colleagues who can support or undermine initiatives are rarely involved in such programs and new practices are often insufficiently contextualised to work in what might appear to be an alien environment (Boud, 1999, p.3).

A major study of 22 universities in eight countries by Gibbs and Coffey (2004) confirms this tension. They concluded that overall generic stand-alone, training programmes had positive effects on university teachers in the areas of greater student centredness (that is a stronger degree of focus on students), wider use and variety in interactive methods, and greater student learning. At the same time they found that those who do not follow the training programmes offered tend to become even less student centred and more reliant on one-directional transmission methods like lectures. Training programmes are important because they provide an 'alternative culture' to the departmental 'pressure to conform' based on a 'marked difference in attitudes' between the ethos of the training programme and that of the rest of staff in the academic departments where

change was sometimes frowned upon and taken to imply criticism of more experienced colleagues (Gibbs & Coffey, 2004, p.98).

Finally, a problem with the nature of learning has been identified. In contrast to sharing practices with colleagues in an informal manner, conventionally delivered workshops

do foster teachers' awareness or interest in deepening their knowledge and skills. However, these approaches to professional development appear insufficient to foster learning which fundamentally alters what teachers teach or how they teach (Boyle, While & Boyle, 2004, p.45).

The three areas of difficulty highlighted here can and often do occur in combination with each other. They are not mutually exclusive. When the content of a programme is not experienced as relevant the participants may also begin to question the competence of the PD developer so that both messenger and message are rejected. When the PD intervention, due to its generalist goals and materials, cannot or does not address and seek to reduce the difficulties of follow up, the participants may be put in the frustrating position of being undermined by immediate colleagues or managers. This may cause them to question not

only the relevance but the capacities of the PD developers as agents of change.

An alternative approach that may be more effective is to support reforms within local teaching units (teams that develop a specific curriculum). In this way professional developers and the practising teachers can establish a shared language of reform (McKenny, 2004; Schroeder, 2007, p.6).

Downsides of embedded approaches

It must also be recognised that embedded delivery is not without drawbacks. It is generally a costly option. How long it will take is unclear. Because it is so flexible, it can be a disturbing element in the everyday routines of a department and even have unsettling effects on the very work that it is supposed to enhance (Illeris, 1999/2007). One serious difficulty is that allocation of learning opportunities is often not decided democratically. Illeris (1999/2007) notes that workplace learning favours the best educated, [or in a university setting the academic with the most intellectual or social capital]. Thus tensions between colleagues may possibly increase. Moreover the work itself always has a higher priority, making it likely that important learning goals do not get addressed simply because other tasks interrupt the learning sessions. There can be trust issues when an outsider needs to address uncomfortable realities within a close knit team.

There is a route for professional development used in quite a few universities that attempts to walk a middle path between these dangerous cliffs. Elton (2005) gives an example from the University of Oxford. He was wondering whether professional development should be delivered in a 'generic' or 'discipline specific' form. Elton suggests that the linking of a front-end generic programme, followed up by departmental or faculty specific action research projects is one way to overcome this conundrum. Both the strengths of a generic programme, such as expertise in educational matters which can be efficiently presented to many staff members and the strength of embedding the professional learning in the actual day to day work through action research projects, seems, at Oxford, to make this linked delivery model, a win-win option (2005, pp.115-116).

However before alternative models can be trialled, further research into stand-alone programmes is required. In the following review of three examples of programmes for teacher professional development a start is made at identifying strengths and weakness.

3.3 Examples and critiques of specific PD interventions for internationalisation

A number of existing interventions could have acted as guides or exemplars for the current investigation. There were many possible examples to choose from. The examples chosen needed to show some degree of relevance in regard to the core research question of the current study:

How can professional development interventions for teaching staff involved in internationalisation of the curricula at a university of applied sciences be designed and implemented to enhance English, intercultural and pedagogic learning in multiple modes of delivery?

The selected interventions:

- 1) were designed for a similar target group, that is, experienced teachers in higher education who were voluntarily involved in internationalisation;
- 2) addressed at least some of the challenges identified in the literature, as well as in this researcher's and other practitioners' experiences, such as the cognitive challenges of integrating an international dimension into their teaching and learning regimes, the differences in motivation and commitment in regard to internationalising their own

- educational programmes, intercultural competence challenges; and the language challenges of either native or non-native speaker teachers engaged in EMI;
- 3) demonstrated that they were intentionally informed by educational theories in contrast to many professional development interventions in higher education, which are theoretically weak (Cannon, 1983),
 - 4) discussed some elements of their modes of delivery so that it was possible to at least make intelligent conjectures regarding issues of flexibility, sustainability and resource demands.

The first exemplar to be discussed was developed by Schuerholz-Lehr, Caws, van Gyn & Preece (2007) followed by Odgers (2006) and finally Owens (2005). The first and second PD programmes were developed and offered in Canada and the last in Australia. Although these interventions were not developed for non-native speakers they fit the criteria above very well. An example of an investigation from a Dutch professional development perspective has already been given (Klaassen, 2000).

Course re-design internationalisation workshop – to stimulate ‘world-mindedness’ in curricula

The in-service development programme was a 5 day intensive workshop designed by Schuerholz-Lehr, Caws, Van Gyn & Preece (2007). It was an adaptation of a earlier highly successful intervention known as the CDW, that is the Course Design Workshop (Saroyan & Amundsen, 2004). Schuerholz-Lehr et al. call their intervention the CRIW, or Course Re(design) Internationalisation Workshop, for the purpose of training curriculum developers in internationalising their courses. Two theories that inform both the CDW and CRIW are Mezirow’s (1991) transformative learning and Ramsden’s (2003) theory of teacher growth (Schuerholz-Lehr et al., 2007, pp.70-71). In addition, the power of the concept of communities of practice (Wenger, 1998), Biggs’s model of constructive alignment (1999) and the intercultural sensitivity developmental model of Bennett (1993; 2004) were drawn into the programme to enrich the experience of participants. Van Gyn et al. (2009) identified the key distinctive features of the 5 day workshop after it had been offered several times.

These are:

- Current and engaging reading materials on learning-centred curriculum design to prepare the participant for each section of the workshop
- Task-specific collegial interaction interwoven with individual activities and in-depth interactions with facilitators
- Adequate time and sufficient structure for critical reflection on current assumptions and practice and for plans to revise current practice
- Sufficient documentation of participants’ contributions (videotaping of presentations and production of materials, e.g. concept maps, written learning outcomes) to provide participants the opportunity to reflect on the changes they were proposing
- Opportunities for collegial critique, particularly across disciplinary areas
- Inclusion of the four fundamental phases of aligned curriculum design (content, learning outcomes, instructional strategies, assessment methods) (Van Gyn et al., 2009, p. 31).

Ensuring that there was sufficient time for busy teacher-participants to create and present their contributions (some of which are written) and sufficient time provided for the workshop leaders to review those contributions (the oral presentations were taped) must have been costly. Getting a group of university teachers together for 30 hours contact time over 5 consecutive days, asking them to put in more hours of preparatory reading and writing before the workshops and two hours every evening during the workshops to prepare their course re-design for the next day is likely to ensure that the experience will be intense and the participants will be focussed, as the developers report. This is a highly demanding ‘hot house’ model of development. Before they take part, the teachers must fill in a questionnaire that shows whether they either have a disorienting dilemma in their current practice or have

a strong commitment to internationalisation and desire to improve their practices or both. Another prerequisite, not stated but clearly implied, is that the participants 'own' a course that they are free to re-design.

The interdisciplinary nature of the groups is reported to be a positive element as teachers hear about and thus learn different perspectives which they could use to 'expand their repertoire' of design responses and they find common ground, which is stimulating. According to Schuerholz-Lehr and Van Gyn (2006) perspective transformation was achieved. The teachers changed from a rather unproblematic view to becoming critical practitioner-researchers who, after three months, were still occupied and dealing with the complexities not only in the class or lecture room but also in themselves (Van Gyn et al., 2009 p.33).

Their only note for possible future adaptation has to do with time constraints. The workshops needed to include enough content knowledge about the complexity of internationalisation, and at the same time to have a sufficient knowledge and skill in course design, which is a second content domain. Especially the second area, that of pedagogic competence in course design, was found to be less advanced than anticipated. Thus, the developers are 'exploring alternative delivery schemes that may relieve some of the time pressure' (Van Gyn et al., 2009, p.36). In fact, it can be argued that the problem was not the workshops as mode of delivery, but knowing how to balance two content domains (see endnote 2).

Critique of the course re-design approach

There are many valuable elements in Van Gyn's et al.'s impressive work. However, for the purpose of advancing practices in professional development, it is necessary to point out a few aspects that were not explicitly covered in the studies of the workshop-week developers. In terms of the learning approach: while the developers (Van Gyn et al. 2009) do note that transformative learning has been criticised for privileging a rational approach over every other way of learning, they are convinced this did not happen in their groups, where the activities allowed for sufficient space to be creative, intuitive and collaborative. An important point about transformative learning as theory is not its lack of creativity, rather its disembodied, highly cognitive, individualistic, and decontextualised nature (see Taylor, 1998; Cranton, 2006 for overviews) and its wholly Western cultural values (Bowers, 2005).

The workshop targets individual teachers but does not explain how the revised courses are aligned to any other aspects of the curriculum in the faculties where the participants teach. A consequence is that any long term impact in teaching / learning regimes will be individual and potentially not well aligned with other courses. This is ironic considering that alignment was one of the distinguishing features of the programme. Schuerholz-Lehr et al. (2007, p.90) say that the pilot of their workshop acted as a catalyst for a process of 'incremental reform' which could eventually 'transform' students, teachers and the whole institute. How such a complex and demanding transformation would operate when resistance is encountered is not addressed. Also it was not clear whether this catalytic effect was part of the original design or an unexpected fortuitous positive outcome. It is therefore not easy to see how the programme, with its high resource and expertise demands, can be replicated elsewhere. However the programme did build on theories of teaching and learning. The observation of Schuerholz-Lehr et al. (2007) must be highlighted, that while there is much literature on IoC, there has been little study of approaches and methods to support teachers who are changing both themselves and their courses or curricula for international educational purposes. They come to the highly relevant conclusion that:

there appear [sic] to be insufficient theory, theory-guided methodologies, or both, and practices to fully understand the perspectives of faculty in the process of internationalization and their capacity for change. Therefore, many intervention initiatives, although well

intentioned, are rather piecemeal and have not yet resulted in the needed changes (Schuerholz-Lehr et al., 2007, p.70).

Bennett's intercultural sensitivity as professional development framework

Odgers (2006) gives a detailed and inspiring description of a successful professional development approach for internationalisation of the curriculum of individual courses at a university in Canada. He says that his approach is unique in that it combines the DMIS (Developmental Model of Intercultural Sensitivity) of Milton Bennett together with mind-mapping, has interdisciplinary groups and a transformative learning approach. Odger's purpose is to enhance the intercultural capacity of teachers as a 'crucial component' of re-designing the curriculum. In this Odgers used the same model of teacher development that Schuerholz-Lehr et al. had used, namely the Curriculum Design Workshop of Saroyan, Amundsen et al. (2004) and thus transformative learning was also influential in this case. In preparing the programme, Odgers interviewed several of the key thinkers in the field, and synthesised their views in the programme itself. The core structure echoes the 6 stage DMIS. It starts with topics and activities that are not very confrontational and moves towards a more personally challenging content. A notable feature is a stand-alone three hour introductory workshop. It not only acquaints potential participants with some examples of the cultural drivers behind international students' behaviours but also offered them some basic theoretical frameworks which they could use immediately. Of the 20 participants in the introductory workshop, 10 were allowed to go on to a three days retreat that took place several weeks or months later. Before the retreat each individual participant had a consultation on their own position on the ladder of intercultural sensitivity. The tool used for this assessment is the Intercultural Developmental Inventory (IDI), a test developed by Bennett (1993).

The outcomes of this assessment were used to fine tune the retreat in advance. The three days of the retreat were not consecutive. After the first two there was a pause of two weeks to give the participants time to reflect and to work on the course-curriculum design. On the final full day the participants gave presentations of their re-designed courses. One month after the final day a focus group of some former participants was held and their individual comments collected. All were busy working on what they had been exposed to and felt the need to continue meeting and sharing their new found insights and experiences. The aim of going beyond an add-on approach was clear to everyone. The need to find 'one's own way of meaning-making', an activity that exists on a meta-level, above the basic differentiation of cultural categories (Bennett, 1993, p.25) was also evident to the focus group. A strength of the design is that teachers are engaged in self-directed learning through a number of highly varied tasks and activities over the entire extended period. The design is thus characterised by a range of different PD activities, including an introductory workshop, followed by individual testing and feedback, followed by a retreat, followed by work embedded tasks.

One of the main results showed that teachers who participated in DMIS initiatives scored higher on a scale of perceived improvement in their intercultural competence according to the Intercultural Development Inventory test in comparison with teachers who had not participated. This suggests that teachers who take part in professional development activities related to Bennett's DMIS, in any case, consistently *feel* that they are more competent. It is unnecessary to observe that self-assessment of this type is not empirical proof of any significant changes in teacher's practices.

Critique of the interculturalising approach

The structural preconditions and resource affordances that made this approach possible are important for professional developers elsewhere but these are unfortunately not identified. It is difficult to see how more than a few participants can be selected annually. Also the highly individual approach is fitting for an intervention that aims to help individuals become less ethnocentric. However, as the critical literature on professional development has shown, individuals who take part in highly innovative PD programmes are often unable to maintain the new understandings and methods when they return to established departmental routines within an entrenched collegial culture.

Although Odgers (2006) states in his final guidelines that other universities should 'make intercultural training part of a wider institutional plan' (p.81), the manner in which this is to occur is not described. He ends by advocating that the institution continue to support this kind of programme on an on-going basis and that it must ensure that there are sufficient resources and opportunities in the long term. Odgers does not indicate how that is to be established. Both pedagogy and intercultural communication and competence are intertwined in this programme but the relative strength of the two is not clear. It seems as if intercultural attitude change must dominate since that is the main focus of Bennett. Also it seems that pedagogy takes second place because assessment issues play a rather small role in the programme while it has been established in the literature that the area of assessment is one of the most common locations of the intersect of intercultural miscommunication between teachers and students. The inclusion of work embedded tasks is one of the most interesting aspects of this programme but more needs to be known about how those tasks were carried out and what the results were for students and colleagues.

Intercultural communication workshops interlaced with action learning

The final PD programme to be reviewed was a doctoral research study at a small university by Owens (2005). She focussed exclusively on improvement of teachers' intercultural communication practices (In this her study resembles that of Odgers.). The main learning theories were derived from action learning theorists such as Carr & Kemmis (1986). The investigation was carried out through practitioner/action research, an important aspect of which was the management position held by the researcher herself. This is significant because a number of the teachers who volunteered to participate by carrying out action learning projects, were her immediate subordinates. First, the researcher designed workshop materials for simulations and role plays that the participants could use. An intranet forum was set up where these participants could place reflections and stories about how they were applying what they had learnt about intercultural communication to their interactions with students. All participants posted reflections on the intranet site stating that they were more interculturally aware and had more skills to deal with international students. As with Odgers, recommendations are given to policy makers for organisational change. Predictably one of these is that the universities should establish on-going intercultural training opportunities for all teaching staff starting at induction. These should include an 'examination of culturally different learning styles and preferences' (p.268). Further they all should establish a learning Support and Counselling Unit for foreign students (p.269) which is not surprising since the researcher was the manager of such a unit.

Critique of the action learning approach

Owen's study had resonance for design of the TIP because it employed action learning projects and because it aimed to support teacher learning for intercultural competence. Both theory and practice of intercultural sensitivity for classroom interaction were comprehensively investigated. Especially the surfacing of problems of international students is a contribution to the literature on this subject. A few more elements on this topic could

have been included such as how the domestic students experienced improved intercultural communication after their teachers had completed their projects. Also, there was no indication that Owens had considered concrete paths to implementation. As in the other examples, this programme dealt with the micro level of individual teachers and their immediate classroom environment. The cultural environment in which the participants operated was not considered. However, the most serious critique of this research is that the high levels commitment and engagement demanded of the participants are somehow suspect since some of them worked directly under the researcher. There is thus a question about how voluntary their participant was and how objective the evaluation of their learning could have been by their own superior in the role of researcher.

Concluding remarks on exemplars

All of the studies presented above are examples of very good and successful professional development, all have sound rationales and creative activities. Still, there are several gaps or limitations in the programmes in terms of learning approaches and modes of delivery. Odgers, and Owen's projects both combined workshops with embedded extension activities. Van Gyn et al.'s series of workshops is not third generation PD (Osborn) but second generation. In other words, it is work-related but not work embedded since participants had no say in decisions regarding, time investment, modes of delivery or content domains. At least two of the programmes (Schuerholz-Lehr & Van Gyn 2006; Odgers & Giroux, 2006) stated that transformative learning was a goal and part of their framework. But while teachers were able to carry out work either embedded or related tasks the actual level of self-directed learning was relatively low. This is because the trainers set the learning goals and structure of the entire programme in advance. It was not possible to make changes when and if the teachers discovered that their learning needs deviated from the programme. This was made explicit by Schuerholz-Lehr and van Gyn (2006) but can be suspected in the case of the training of Odgers. However, Cranton claims, 'Self-directed learning is a foundation of transformative learning,' (cited in Pilling-Cormick, 1997, p.69) and thus, Pilling-Cormick adds: 'theoretically, each concept builds on the other' (loc. cit). Mezirow has stated that the goal of self-directed learning in his view is to 'foster' transformational learning (Mezirow, 1985). In other words, Mezirow sees self directedness as a necessary and desirable means to achieving transformative learning in situations which confront the learners with disorienting events which require them to reassess their assumptions. Second, developers expressed a need for on-going activities or follow up but had no strategies or tools to stimulate sustainability. This is arguably in part, connected to the limited forms of embeddedness they allow.

Third, in regard to the range of content covered, and thus the degree of complexity for transcending domains, all of the exemplars were restricted to two content domains. One, (Schuerholz-Lehr et al. 2007) stated that they were not able to find a good balance or sequencing of those domains, while Odgers and Owens also seem not to have adequately addressed the issue of balance between intercultural competence and teaching skills. None of these PD programmes combined more than two domains. None considered professional development issues associated with English as medium of instruction. This may seem to be simply because they were made for native speaker teachers but Marsh and others have said that native English speaking lecturers in particular need to learn about the content and language integrated learning. This need to address the skills required to deal with international students' linguistic challenges has been amply demonstrated in the literature so the failure to include it is somewhat difficult to understand (Ryan & Carroll, 2005; Handa, 2008).

Finally, the conceptualisation of change is mainly restricted to the internal changes in individual teachers' attitudes towards their foreign students, or towards the integration of new

topics in their curricula. They do not deal with the need to establish a developmental culture between colleagues and with line managers. However, without a 'supportive culture' and 'substantial staff development' internationalisation as innovation is bound to come up against a lack of awareness and expertise in staff and 'charges of irrelevance in the face of an already overcrowded curriculum' (Caruana, 2007, p.43). Caruana states that this warning is a key message 'emerging from the literature' (loc. cit.). Clearly, a supportive culture must be part of a wider movement of change to improve the institute. It cannot long be sustained in a vacuum or as a marginal cottage industry no matter how encouraging and sympathetic it may be. One way of approaching cultural change is to engage in organisational enhancement.

3.3. Change theories and professional teacher learning support

Professional development as enhancement from a practice perspective

An impressive theoretical cadre has evolved over a decade in the work of Paul Trowler and associates (Trowler, 1998; Knight & Trowler, 2000; Knight, 2001 & 2002; Trowler & Cooper 2002; Trowler, Bamber, Saunders, & Knight, 2003; Trowler & Bamber, 2005; Trowler & Fanghanel, 2005; Trowler & Verity, 2008, Trowler 2010). That cadre consists of a group of theories that, together, comprise a 'conceptual underpinning' of enhancement interventions rooted in a coherent vision of the nature of change suited to specific interventions.

Social practice theories have influenced their definition of enhancement as, 'the production and maintenance of knowledge through situated work practice' (Bamber, Trowler, Saunders & Knight, 2009, p.9).

A 'practice' in social practices theory is different from *praxis*. A 'practice' (*Praktik*) has been described as

a routinised type of behaviour which consists of several elements, interconnected to one another; forms of bodily activities, forms of mental activities, 'things' and their use, a background knowledge in the form of understanding, know-how, states of emotion and motivational knowledge' (Reckwitz 2002, p 249).

This resonates with Huberman, who speaks of 'engrooved' practices (1993).

The practice perspective focuses on how a 'nexus' of such interconnected elements influences the way that something, for example teaching and learning, is carried out in a particular locale (Bamber et al. 2009).

According to this perspective:

Practices are not created in a void; they are localised and developed within a cultural field of meanings, rules, conventions and taken-for-granted-understandings. They are shaped by technologies and artefacts and underpinned by values, attitudes and ideologies (Trowler & Verity, 2008, p.4).

In an earlier essay Trowler, Saunders and Knight (2003) spell out what this implies:

Successful change must be sensitive to the histories and identities of those involved (as they will impact upon how innovations are put into practice) and recognise that change is a constructive process shaped by the heads and hearts of those involved.

... a change model based on social practice theory suggests that successful change requires "congruence between an innovation and the context of its introduction (though both will be re-shaped in the process)" (Trowler et al., 2003, p.18).

A cluster of relevant theories pointed out by the group are: Activity Systems (Engström, 1987); Soft Systems Methodology (Checkland & Scholes, 1991); the aspect of Communities

of Practice, i.e. CoPs that describe how groups learn (Lave & Wenger, 1991); the concept of the Implementation Staircase (Reynolds & Saunders, 1987); Non-formal and tacit learning (Eraut, 2004; Becher, 1989); produced and accessed as 'rules' (Blackler, 1995); and concepts of Translation and Reconstruction (Beach 2003; Tuomi-Gröhn & Engström 2003). This list is not exhaustive, but a selection used by practitioners and researchers in recent years that have been helpful. Certainly it is not necessary to use all of them when involved in a change process (Bamber et al., 2009, pp.9-15).

Trowler, Fanghanel & Wareham (2005) argue that a practice perspective is particularly suited to higher education change because the most significant aspects of change processes in teaching, learning and assessment involve social interaction at the level of the workgroup.

As workgroups engage in common projects associated with major tasks over the long term they develop ways of behaving (norms), ways of understanding their world (taken-for-granted knowledge) and ideas about what is good and bad (values). In short they are involved in the social construction of reality, at least in the areas of common engagement that they have. They develop a common discourse, a unique way of using the tools available to them and a context-specific understanding of aspects of the project that they are engaged in (2005, p.235)

In their advice to change agents in higher education, Trowler, Saunders & Knight (2003) point out that it is by working collaboratively (forming working groups) within practice that staff respond best to innovations. They summarise 'the quality of the social groups in which people work' in their capacity to feel that they can handle the changes. Thus, their level of confidence in their own expertise and in their resources (both material and social) is the key. It will involve building: Intellectual capital (knowledge of principles and evidence); Social capital (connections with others engaged in similar tasks); 'Tools', procedures or techniques; Expectations and other kinds of informal and formal rules and; Group working practices, notably understandings about who does what. (Trowler et al. 2003, p.11).

Professional / staff development departments of some universities that have signed up to the Bologna agreements have been evolving in the direction of programme and curriculum development expertise centres using this view of change theory (see Colet & Durand, 2004, for an interesting example). This means, for example, that PD staff are acting more as bridges between different teams of teachers who are occupied with different aspects and have thus different learning needs, within this university-wide innovation (Gibbs, 2004) and less as trainers of individual teachers (Gosling, 2001). The argument for the potential benefits of using a social practices approach to change is compelling under these circumstances.

In a study of a specific e-learning project (EQUEL) five categories of course innovators' conceptions of the change process were found:

1. Changes are stimulated by dissemination of good practices, i.e., 'practical embodiments of useful and interesting teaching' exemplars that act as beacons;
 2. The offering of resource incentives will bring about and support the motivation to bring about, changes;
 3. Taking advantage of the policy discourse, i.e., the institutional rhetoric to justify changes;
 4. Appealing to the academics' professional imperative to improve and enrich the learning experience of students to motivate them to take changes on board;
 5. Seeing change as embedded in and a direct outcome of ICT developments this 'technological determinism' means that learning and teaching processes will simply have to adjust
- (Saunders, Charlier & Bonamy, 2004, pp.5-6).

Meso level Approach

One example of how this model has been used can be seen in the 'Middle-Out Approach' of Marks-Maran, Hodgson & May (2008). It has 6 characteristics based on the Trowler, Saunders, and Knight advisory report referred to above (2003).

Characteristics of middle out approach include; that the process is as important as the change; that histories and contexts of departments undergoing them are significant factors; that change agents need to be sensitive to both individuals and groups and to both the cognitive and affective aspects of what they are experiencing. Further, that tools which are helpful in the process of innovation are more useful than time spent on changing concepts. Finally, the 'middle out' approach recognises that '*time* is an important dimension in the change process. In particular, frustration can grow if the timetable for change is unrealistic but, equally, participants need to see progress in order to maintain motivation and commitment' (Hodgson, May, & Marks-Maran, 2008, pp.535/536).

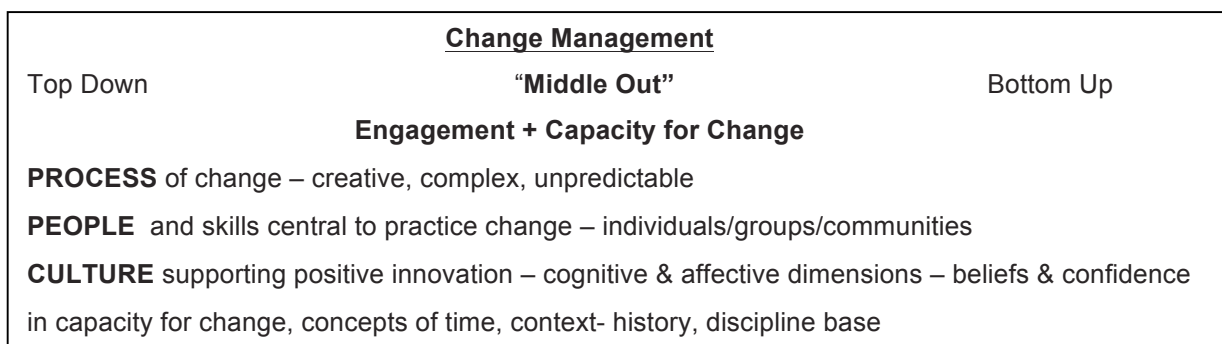


fig. 1 A summary of themes surrounding change management (From fig. 2 in Hodgson et al. 2008, p. 536).

It would be wrong to understand the middle out approach as ignoring or discarding top down or bottom up initiatives. On the contrary, good management driven policy pillars and exciting

local 'enclaves' of excellent practices for improvements can be drawn into it. One example (Saunders in Bamber et al., 2009, p.96) shows a sequential pattern for the implementation of an innovation, the Quality Enhancement Framework (QEF), in Scotland. The institutional mechanism for introducing QEF moved from:

- a. the top down dissemination of texts about the policy to
- b. the interaction of 'various types of presentational practice' such as workshops, seminars to inform and interest academic teaching staff in QEF to
- c. 'interactional practices' such as working alongside colleagues and working out enabling and constraining factors in context.

Saunders shows how this pattern, which can lead to marginalising of local practices, can be positively influenced by a 'series of engagements' from out of the enclaves to wider interactions across the university (Saunders, 2009, loc. cit.).

3.4 Conclusion

The review of literature in this and the previous chapter has explored the two research perspectives of this investigation. Internationalisation, it is clear from the literature, is a complex and contested educational innovation with strong political policy agendas. These agendas speak to different motives that are not always in harmony with each other. Especially difficult to harmonise are the desire to be branded as successful in the university market place and the desire to be inclusive. The main challenges facing teachers were shown to be linguistic (EMI issues), cultural (dealing with the cultural differences regarding educational norms) and pedagogic (especially regarding instruction in international classes). Further, a strong cognitive challenge was revealed in how to incorporate an international dimension into courses or curricula which it appears many teachers, both native and non-native speakers, are ill equipped to meet.

Many types of continuous professional development were presented and a critique of certain types of PD was offered. The literature made clear that only a rather small number of professional development initiatives have been undertaken. A number of exemplars were selected which were influential in the design of the interventions carried out in this research project.

These initiatives, in spite of their differences, had some common characteristics. Most of them were quite expensive, some even elaborate, with conditions that would be difficult to replicate in many institutions under current financial realities. Almost all were not oriented at groups, but at individuals. Most of them are not directly embedded, so that the limitations revealed in the literature regarding the problems with stand-alone PD can be said to apply. Furthermore, none of them combine more than two content domains without achieving a healthy balance between them.

The only Dutch example (Klaassen, 2000) had this difficulty when teachers refused to participate, avowedly because the relative importance of language skills improvement and pedagogic skills improvement was confusing for them. The Dutch example also had a rather negative deficiency approach.

Approaches to learning in the other exemplars were either, action learning, self-directed learning, or transformative learning. These tend to position the learner as a de-contextualised, rational, individual. Several modes of delivery were used although a series of workshops was the most common. Still, there were instances of retreats, accordion style programme options, pre-intervention tasks, and months-long action research projects among other types of delivery.

Theoretically, change is aimed at in the PD interventions described, but it is the personal changes in teachers, not the changes in practices within academic workplace environments that were the objective of professional development. The context in which the participants work played only a marginal role in most exemplars. It is not clear whether these limitations are inherent in a stand-alone programme or if the failure to grasp the implications across the system is responsible, a puzzle that was influential in the current study. Together, these exemplars revealed only partly answered design questions regarding:

- effective modes of delivery;
- how to achieve content domain balance;
- which learning approaches stimulate learning transcending contexts; and
- how knowing-in-practices might be included in professional development;

thus creating part of the research space for the current investigation.

The literature of change for innovation in higher education highlighted the potential of an

enhancement approach from the middle out, rather than top-down or bottom-up. In the exemplars the link to enhancement is rather tenuous. Either it is missing altogether or it is mainly focused on changing individuals through professional development training or workshops, or it is focussed on changing the whole institution but not particularly through professional development. The intentions and even actions of some PD centres are, as has been made clear, moving in this direction but there is little empirical evidence for these efforts as yet. These partially answered design puzzles and the questions of how to enhance the departmental culture from the middle out, which provided territory for an investigation into the design and operationalisation of a programme across multiple contexts. The approach to enhancement makes it necessary to reframe professional development as support of learning. The literature that explores this reframing is considered in the following chapter.

Endnotes

1.

Delivery model	Characteristics / Approach to Learning	Advantages	Owner of design	Main disadvantages
Training	Decontextualised/ Generally Central delivery or Off site Instrumental Individual focus Skills based Technocratic	Clear goals, easy to evaluate, reproducible (cost effective), Good for disseminating new knew knowledge	Expert owns the predetermined Content – power holders maintain control	Lack of connection to work environmental cultures/issues etc. Possible lack of relevance, flexibility, sustainability
Standards based	Decontextualised/ central delivery or Off site Instrumental Individual focus Skills based Technocratic	Modernising tool for quality enhancement since staff must all share the same goals and Keep to the same standards	Expert owns the predetermined Content – power holders maintain control	Lack of connection to real work environmental cultures / issues etc.
Award bearing	Central delivery or Off site Individual focus	Motivational – Quality assurance instrument Part of LLL [Lifelong Learning]	One appointed University; Reflects a dominant ideology	Accused of being too academic not practical or professional enough in focus
Deficit	Tailored or directed to a particular need On site Sometimes in Set courses if deficiency is a new skills	Gives the sense of proactive dealing with problems Focus on teaching performance has benefits Student evaluations can play a role Can be part of LLL	Management owned PD expert designed	Contested views of what is deficient from whose perspective – i.e. setting base line performance measurements can be a pitfall Tends to lay blame on individual failure rather than group failings or poor management practices
Cascade	Epidemiological Beacon Central delivery or Off site De-contextualised Generally technocratic	Cost effective Can encourage a collective sense of responsibility	From PD experts to chosen early adopters who take it over to their peers	Can be skills or knowledge focussed but cannot disseminate values.
Coaching mentoring	A range of structures and methods From informal peer support to Clinical supervision	Can be highly contextualised and tailored / can help novices to take on norms and culture Can be mutually challenging and or supportive	One-to-one relationship Sometimes peer more likely hierarchical	Can be used to either induct and socialise or as transformative Requires sensitivity and interpersonal skills to be successful Lack of connection to real work environmental cultures / issues etc.
CoP	Social theory, members learn through interaction Knowledge generation across the group	Develops group repertoires, attitudes, Fine tuning of actions, approaches, tasks	Members can support, inform, challenge each other	Questions of power are highly significant and often not well dealt with or understood. Not necessarily aimed at innovation of

				practices or finding new knowledge
Action Research (AR)	Can be done as community / shared learning in learning sets but can be individual Contextualised Focussed on a problem shared by the members	Grounded theory used by a group should lead to finding new and relevant solutions to complex problems which can be owned by all Staff members can find a voice to express critical views	Teaching staff members own the research into the problem and improvements that come of them	Time consuming, requires trust and skill to communicate effectively, Can have unrealistic goals, can be co-opted by management
Transformative	A combination of practices and agendas taken from all the above that aim to transform	Aimed at finding new knowledge Creates personal and group meaning to support innovation Can deal with wicked problems and complexity	Self formed inquiry groups more proactive than AR	

2.

In fact, this need had been recognised in earlier publications (2007; 2008). At that time, the workshop week had been carried out twice. In the first workshop programme the trainers had two content domains A) issues of internationalisation of the curriculum and B) issues of course-design for incorporating critical reflection and student centeredness into the participants' courses. The IoC domain was the lens of the design domain. However they soon had to abandon their working definition of IoC because the participants were struggling to understand its many different meanings and concepts. The developers realised that they had to give the teacher a dialogic space to 'problematise the dominant terminology' (2007, p.70). Thus they had to slow down the re-designing activities to create this space.

To compensate, it was decided that the second workshop programme would target curriculum revision and reform in the first place, either for internationalisation or for conditions that are needed to lead up to internationalisation (Schuerholz-Lehr & van Gyn, 2008). The authors report that the language of internationalisation seemed to dominate the first workshop-week and the language of teaching and learning the second. As the authors themselves observe, the shift in focus has not yet been well explained and needs to be investigated further. However it was clear that the task of re-designing in itself required more professional development support than they had thought.

Introduction

The limitations and critiques of professional development discussed in the last chapter are well recognised. Experts have come to a growing agreement on the characteristics of effective professional development for adults in work environments. PD needs to be more about learning and less about training it needs to be more holistic (i.e. that it is less instrumental and episodic) and it needs to situate development in local contexts (where workers are engaged with others on actual tasks or problems).

This chapter presents literature associated with the learning approaches influential in redirecting professional development learning in workplace settings which framed the designs of the current study. First (4.1) models of self-directed learning are discussed, followed by the concepts and model related to accommodative learning 'for working life' (4.2) followed by theories and models related to practice based, situative learning (4.3). Partly because the current investigation was originally planned as action research, literature of action research is considered and critiqued (4.4). Finally the three learning approaches of transcendence, independence and embeddedness are shown to fill a gap. That gap created the space for the research (4.5).

4.1 Self-directed learning (SDL) in relation to the concept of Independence

Perhaps it is apt to begin with a 'signature' learning theory of adult educators, namely self-directed learning. One of the three key concepts in the design of the TIP programme was independence which SDL addresses.

Knowles first set out the proposition that adults have a self-concept which they can use to direct their own learning as the first principle or assumption of andragogy (1980, p.74). Since then the literature on self-directed learning has grown greatly (for overview see Merriam, 2001; Ellinger, 2004). It has been noted in that literature that there is a crucial link between being self-directed and being motivated. The main motivation is the direction which the course is heading, that is the goal or goals. Ford (1992, cited in Gibbons, 2004) refers to research findings that show that not much (else) matters if there is no goal in place in a learning project. As Gibbons (2004) quipped "Self-direction is immobile without self-motivation, and blind without self-assessment" (para. 22).

Another interpretation of the dual aspect of SDL is, that it is, on the one hand individual but situational, i.e. dependent on factors such as the level of cognitive challenge. On the other hand, it is a 'personal attribute that develops in stages' including deep personal traits such as 'persistence' (Grow, 1991, p.128). The issue of motivation of teachers has been studied and discussed in the literature on internationalisation by Bond (2003) and Bell (2004) already discussed and others (for a recent empirical study: see Arenas, 2009). For example, interview data on the teacher's motivations to first become involved in internationalisation revealed two dominating drivers. One of these is based on personal life experiences, another on personal convictions concerning the value of international education. These individual motivators are illuminated by Self-Directed Learning (SDL).

Self-directed learning has been defined in various ways. In fact a continuum of definitions can be identified ranging from the rather superficial descriptions of self-directed learning as a way of learning on one's own in informal settings without a teacher (Conlan, Grabowski & Smith, comparative aspects 2003) to an extensive definition by Tremblay (2000):

Self-directed learning may be defined as a pedagogical or andragogical situation, taking place in a school or out of school context, favourable to the fulfillment of a learning project in which the main motivation of a person is to gain knowledge, to master abilities or to make lasting changes. In order to do so, the person controls one or more of the following aspects of the project: content, objectives, resources, process, and evaluation (p.210).

Self-Directed Learning and personal responsibility orientation

In a table comparing 'key differences in beliefs and approaches' between 'Adult education' and 'Instructional design', Brockett & Hiemstra stress that adult education is founded on an individual focus and on using the experiences of individuals in building courses. Core beliefs include allowing time for learners to work at their own pace and that their prior knowledge be actively used as a resource. They suggest that a humanist, 'andragogic', approach to instructional design, stressing the teacher as facilitator and the process over the outcomes, helps learners to take increased responsibility for their learning (1994).

The design process Hiemstra & Brockett suggest is close to the iterative approach taken in the current study:

(c) developing the instructional plan (with active involvement of participants in assessing personal and relevant group needs, ascertaining the relevance of past experience, and prioritizing knowledge areas to be covered); (d) identifying the learning activities (determining learning activities and techniques); (e) putting learning into action and monitoring progress (formative evaluation) (1994, fig. 2 p.14).

The question of responsibility is crucial. To clarify the dimensions of the concept of SDL Hiemstra and Brockett developed the Personal Responsibility Orientation model (1994, p.11). The most important aspect of the orientation is that learners' must take ownership for self-directed learning in social contexts for it to be effective. Responsibility is the driver behind both self-directed learning as an element in the interaction between learner and teacher, and as a characteristic of the learner himself or herself.

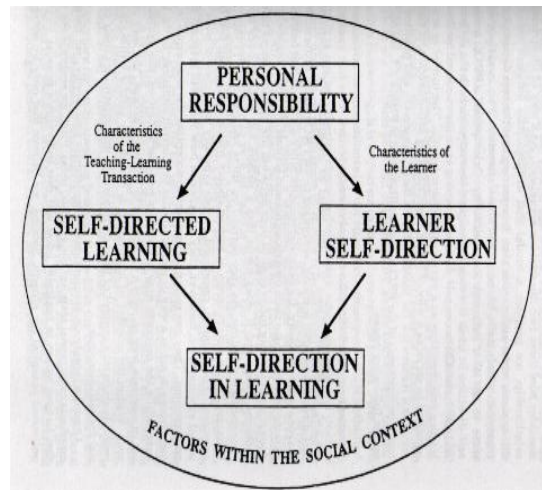


fig. 1 Hiemstra & Brockett's personal responsibility orientation model (1994, p.11).

Self-directed learning is thus characterised, by Brockett & Hiemstra as well as Trembley, by some degree of learner control or ownership of the project such as its 'content, objectives, resources, process, and/or evaluation' (Trembley, loc. cit). The process required to realise these forms of control are often not precisely identified.

An example of a professional development programme that was based on 'social constructivist, interactionist' approaches operationalised self-directedness by having a procedure for participants to decide on the sequence and direction of sessions. Participants were required to individually choose the next task or issue to cover and subsequently to negotiate their choices with the developers and each other (Brew & Barrie 1999).

Challenges inherent in Self-Directed Learning

Some of the 'tough' issues that educators face in stimulating self-directed learning have been asked by Caffarella & Merriam (2000). One is, 'how the process changes as learners move from novice to expert in subject matter and learning strategies' (cited in Merriam 2001, p.10). A corollary of the stages in learning styles is how educators go about matching the teaching style to the stage of readiness to learn in a self-directed way. This problem has been highlighted by Grow (1991) who has developed a model of harmonizing the style of teaching to the 'readiness' of learners to be self-directed. Another question for researchers that is pertinent here is, 'how contextual factors interact with the personal characteristics of self-directed learners' (cited in Merriam, 2001, p.11).

These questions are, in the view of some theorists, rooted in the weakness of conceptualization. Self-directed learning has been shown to be a confused term that includes both instructional methods as well as personality characteristics (Brockett & Hiemstra, 1991; 1994). Developing the consequences of this dichotomy, Candy (1991) has argued that researchers and educationalists who have been arbitrarily using one of several distinct concepts to define SDL, have been unhelpful to both educational research and to the understanding and stimulating of learning opportunities. Two of these confusing concepts in

his view are activity-concepts, namely SDL as autodidaxy and SDL as engagement in seeking and participating in learning opportunities outside of formal educational institutions. Other confusing concepts he mentions are personal qualities, similar to those indicated by Brockett and Hiemstra. One such quality is the idea of general personal autonomy, i.e., being an independently minded person, which generally implies a sense of self-efficacy. Self-efficacy may be considered part of a competency model, that is, SDL as the capacity to manage one's own learning and to exercise independence in any kind of learning situation (Candy, 1991). In addition, Candy wants to see more stress given to social and cultural factors, in the 'making of meaning' in the learner's life, than to the amount of knowledge gained. It is thus the significance of what is learnt for the learner that should be the measure of effectiveness, rather than how much 'knowledge, how many skills or attitudes were learnt. This significance cannot be divorced from issues of age, gender, ethnicity or class/status. Self-directed learning as concept in adult education is far from straightforward. There are confusing areas such as the cultural dimensions of self-directedness, which are considered 'contextual imperatives' in the learning process (Brookfield, 1995; 2000, p.2). Addressing this confusion from a dialectic perspective, Brookfield proposes that

We also need to know more about how adults engaged in self-directed learning use social networks and peer support groups for emotional sustenance and educational guidance (1995, p.1).

SDL's influence on this research

Self-Directed Learning was important in illuminating teachers' motivation and commitment to change (Trowler, 2010) as individuals and in groups. An individual application of SDL concepts, for example, was the pre-programme self-assessment and learning contract tools. A group application was the experiment with negotiation of the three domains during iterations one and two. When a PD programme stimulates and facilitates independence there is a good chance that the participants will take ownership of parts of the programme. Independence was linked in this way, to the goal of sustainability.

4.2 Accommodative learning related to combining domains and transcendence

Learners constructing meaning cognitively to acquire new content knowledge or new skills, use dispositions they have built up, called schemes or sometimes mental patterns. Different types of learning are triggered by the different ways that these patterns are structured. As the complexity of the mental schemes required to achieve successful learning increases, a typology of increasingly complex learning types can be identified. The typology of four levels that Illeris maintains is based on the work of Piaget in this area (Illeris, 2002; 2003b; 2007).

Type of learning	Level of complexity
Cumulative learning, for example rote learning, learning by repetition	The learner has no existing developed mental schemes, adding something new like a string of words or a telephone number
Assimilative learning, this is the most common form of knowledge acquisition in schools	Adding new knowledge or skills or attitudes to an existing pattern or scheme, atomistically, bit by bit. It is relatively easy to recall and apply new learning within an existing scheme or known subject but hard to access or apply in a new or different subject or context
Accommodative learning, re problem solving, taking on complex challenges, changing attitudes, breaking patterns, etc.	The whole or partial restructuring of existing schemes (see below for details). New learning can be accessed in different subject areas or contexts, new connections are forged
Transformative learning, psychological roots in catharsis	The whole person changes, a restructuring of multiple schemes at once

table 1 increasing complexity of learning tasks (Illeris, 2007, pp.42-47; 2003b, pp.402)

Accommodative learning is transcendent. Transcendence in this context is not to be interpreted in the sense of being supreme or in any spiritual sense. Transcendent learning occurs when patterns that are in place are broken down and contexts and domains are reconstructed so that new links can be fitted in both cognitively and psychodynamically as table one shows. It requires a great deal of energy and engagement. 'In particular, breaking down or giving up an insight we have worked hard to gain and have become accustomed to building on' is ... 'a process characterised by anxiety, bewilderment and confusion and requires a certain amount of strength' (Nissen, cited in Illeris, 2007, p.43). This is a kind of 'complicated demolition' (loc. cit). Because the process is individual, the leaning that goes with it will also be individualised. The result is that learners, even highly specialised experts, who have studied the same field, will have different conceptual and emotive schemes.

According to Illeris (2003b, p.402) in order to learn transcendentally:

One must cross existing limitations and understand or accept something that is significantly new or different. The result of the learning is characterised by the fact that it can be recalled and applied in many different, relevant contexts. It is typically experienced as having got hold of something which one really has internalised.

Moreover, transcendence / accommodation of existing mental patterns is related to concepts of reflection and critical thinking, both of which stretch the learner outside of their everyday interaction with the surrounding environment. Accommodation is thus a positive and fruitful basis for action across contexts, such as openness, flexibility and creativity (Bjerg, 1972, in-citing Illeris, 2007 p.44).

Transcendence can be stimulated when the learning is conceptually difficult, counter-intuitive and 'troublesome'. This offers learners an opportunity to 'cross a conceptual threshold' that is irreversible (Meyer & Land, 2005). In the context of adult learning, engaging with wicked (see Chapter one) problems (Trowler 2012) is a good example of a potential boundary crossing moment. Threshold crossing is not simply taking on something new. It has

ontological as well as epistemological aspects. In other words, what is becoming known is affecting what the knower is becoming. The stimulus can also come from a learning experience that is less confronting, but still has the potential to 'open up a new border across the 'lifeworld horizons' or to lead to a new capacity to interpret what is seen (Killick, 2010, p.61). This can be a positive experience.

Meyer and Land describe a third type of stimulus. That is when something triggers learners to start to see the 'interrelatedness of concepts' they had previously considered to be separate. This emerging insight into interrelatedness is stimulated when 'bounded disciplinary knowledge' is crossed (Meyer & Land 2003, cited in Killick, 2010, p.62). This third type of stimulus is highly relevant for the current research, because this aspect of transcendence is about the internal changes in the learner which are directly derived from the nature of what is being learnt. This aspect of transcendence directly influenced the choice of the multiple content domains.

In summary, a simple one-dimensional challenge will not urgently require a major restructuring of one's mental schemes. Only a multi-dimensional challenge, one that combines cognitive, social and motivational issues, will be complex and compelling enough to drive the learner to give up long-held insights and practices. It has been argued by Killick (2010) and other scholars of intercultural learning, (Sanderson, 2008; Odgers, 2006) that challenges of developing the intercultural mindset are perfect examples of such complexity. That argument is not contested here. However, in this investigation the stimulation for transcendence was not only to engage in intercultural learning but in the first place to engage in combined learning across three domains. It is not that any combination of domains would automatically stimulate accommodative learning. The claim made here is that the specific combination of academic English language skills, intercultural competences and the skills of teaching international groups together create a fertile opportunity that is well suited to stimulating accommodative learning, where attitude, knowledge and skills will synergise. That synergy can be more long-lasting than learning achieved in any one of the three domains on its own, even the intercultural learning domain. English meta-teachers and PD providers who have to offer programmes or courses with only a limited degree of contextualisation, or workshops consistently express frustration at not being able to cover areas in more than one domain. In fact most meta-teachers try to include all three if they can. In the exemplars studied Schuerholz-Lehr et al. also found combining even two domains difficult but necessary.

Second, the pedagogic approach of CLIL is *prima facie* 'multi-domained' because it requires teachers to combine content and language. Therefore the professional development paths that such teachers explore should also be multi-domained. Because the learners are experienced and educated professionals, combining language with two kinds of content instead of one (as is typical in CLIL) is appropriate. Third, the second object of this research was to design and trial professional development materials and approaches relevant to individuals and groups that could be applied in multiple contexts across the university and at a manageable cost. Incorporating multiple domains in the programme made the possibilities for adaptations sensitive to different needs in different contexts more likely.

Workplace learning model

For the workplace context, research carried out during a long term project into 'learning for working life' in Denmark (Warring & Jorgenson, 2001) was adapted into a learning model by Illeris (2004). This model allows for tensions between the technical – organisational learning environment and the social – cultural environment. At the core is an overlap between the 'work identity' of the learner and 'working practice' in which he or she is engaged (Illeris, 2004, p.438). The individual identity influences and develops the practices of the community and the practices of the community contribute to the individual work identity. The duality of

identity and practice is an 'integral part of generative social practice' (Lave & Wenger, 1991, p.35).

The workplace learning model:

recognises that learning is a complex and multilayered process and that it "also involves complicated patterns of motivation, understanding, meaning, emotions, blockings, defense, resistance, consciousness and subconsciousness." Thus learning wraps around several dimensions that include social and individual levels; cognition and emotions; and technical-organizational and socio-cultural contexts (Illeris, 2004 pp.435, 440). This analysis can help reframe future approaches to work-and-learning (Bishundayal, 2009, para 6).

4.3 Professional learning, a continuum from informal to formal related to the concept of embeddedness

Eraut: professional learning: a continuum from formal to informal

Another core theory that influenced both phases of the TIP is, as noted, 'informal learning at/in the workplace', although this designation does not actually adequately cover the breadth of the contribution of one of its leading theorists, Michael Eraut. His theories have been included in the enhancement group of Bamber et al. (2009) which was presented earlier. The body of his and his team's work over decades is rooted in empirical research in companies, hospitals, engineering firms etc. as well as universities and vocational schools. This makes their concepts strong in inferential power. Because one can see how concepts are built from the research, the resultant concepts and models can aid practitioner-researchers in forming their own hypotheses and challenging them. Eraut is a cognitive-constructivist by discipline. He has done some of the widest and most comprehensive studies of how, why and when professionals learn and continue to learn after their initial education/training from entry level to highly experienced staff members. He believes that knowledge in a professional cannot be divorced from performance. A good knowledge-base is only really good when it is tapped into effectively in ways that are appropriate to the role of the professional and to the situation at hand. In this interaction, the using of knowledge and the learning of knowledge conflate into one process (1994, p.25).

He also suggests that there is a direct link between time and cognition. A shortage of time 'forces people to adopt a more intuitive approach' (2004, p.261). Even when there is no urgent time pressure, experienced workers prefer to work quickly using their routinised understanding, confident in their proficiency. They are more able to cope with stressful situations because they can work to such a routine. However, quality will decrease in any case when time pressure goes beyond a certain limit, even the most experienced staff will not perform as well under those conditions. However, also the need for sufficient time to process tacit knowledge in moments when experienced staff members face a difficult change, is highlighted. In such situations they are again in the position of novices. This kind of change

involves a period of disorientation while old routines are gradually unlearned and new routines are gradually developed. During this period practitioners feel like novices without having the excuses or discounts on performance normally accorded to novices. The pain of change lies in the loss of control over one's own practice, when one's tacit knowledge ceases to provide the necessary support and the emotional turmoil is reducing one's motivation. Hence the need for time and support is an order of magnitude greater than that normally provided (Eraut 2004 b, cited in Eraut & Hirsch, 2008, p.14).

Eraut's theories of professional learning: beyond duality

In investigating not only what learning is, but also how often it occurs, Eraut's research results showed that 75% or more of learning amongst professionals, like engineers and nurses, is a 'by-product of the work' (Eraut, 2007, table 4 . p.15).

Work Processes with learning as a by-product (80 to 90%)	Learning Activities located within work or learning processes	Learning Processes at or near the workplace
Participation in group processes Working alongside others Consultation Tackling challenging tasks and roles Problem solving Trying things out Consolidating, extending and refining skills Working with clients	Asking questions Getting information Locating resource people Listening and observing Reflecting Learning from mistakes <i>Giving and receiving feedback</i> Use of mediating artefacts	Being supervised Being coached Being mentored Shadowing Visiting other sites Conferences Short courses Working for a qualification Independent study

table 2. Eraut's work / learning activities in the workplace

One who learns effectively in professional contexts gains expertise. Ways that experts carry out the processes above are by: replication, application, interpretation and association (Eraut, 1994). Moreover, Eraut says that a certain type of expert can handle the most difficult problems; has a wide knowledge base; has a critical approach; has the ability to solve complex problems and to develop multiple representations of complex problems. Finally an expert has relational skills to work with clients or other (types of) experts (2007, p.2). The table also shows a series of stages or levels of formality, which confirms Colley et al.'s (2003) view based on a meta-analysis that informality and formality in learning express a 'relational continuum rather than dichotomous categories' (2003, p.1). For example, in a proposal to develop learning centres in work settings, especially for e-learning in an industrial company, Svensson et al. (2004) make the same point.

Eraut's Context & Learning Factors

Eraut and his associates have been conducting research in organisations for some years on the factors that have strong enabling or constraining effects on learning. They evolved a model that shows the factors and how they are interrelated. Eraut's research on mid-career learning in professional work contexts showed a three way relationship between a) the nature of the work or task(s) b) relations to 'others' involved and c) certain personal qualities or characteristics. The learning factor's triangle has these three elements as does the context factor's triangle. The three elements are mirrored in the two triangles. When these 6 elements are present, learning has a good chance of happening:

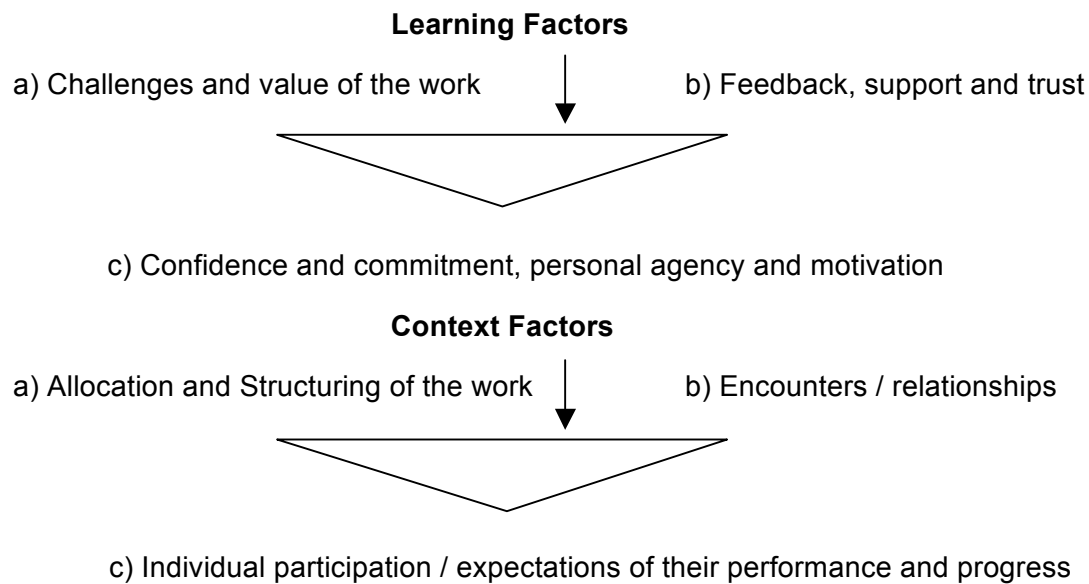


fig. 3 context & learning factors (Eraut, 2007, p.22).

The elements of each triangle are also not separate but affect each other. For example, the learning factor's triangle includes a) the degree of challenge and the value the work has from the perspective of the learner: Is it a new responsibility? Does it bring new pressures, etc.? That degree of challenge in turn has a major influence on b) the personal characteristics of confidence, commitment, and motivation. However, especially mid-career professional need to feel confident not only in themselves but also in their colleagues and line managers. Will they try to throw up obstacles out of jealousy or rivalry? Will they be open to the changes the learner proposes? In other words, the relations they have with others b) must be of trust and support. Also, for learning to be successful, feedback from clients, colleagues and managers is as crucial as support.

Eraut takes pains to make clear that by far the most important factor affecting learning at work is confidence. One reason for this is that it takes confidence to be able to be proactive and being proactive in seeking learning opportunities is an aspect identified in much successful workplace learning (Eraut, 2004; 2007). Mid-career respondents to Eraut's surveys show that what the term 'confidence' means to most of them is self-efficacy (Bandura, 1995). This finding confirms the view of Trowler, Saunders, & Knight (2003), who also stress that confidence is the key to successful change processes. In the literature of teacher development, efficacy has been identified as a stabilizing factor (Connelly & Clandinin, 1999; O'Connor & Scanlon, 2006; Clark, 1997). Studies of academic identity (Henkel, 2000) and teacher thinking (see overview in Clark & Yinger, 1977) have made a similar point.

Ellström (2001) combined the results of a significant number of contemporary researchers on workplace learning to create a set of five constraining and facilitating factors in the integration of learning and work. They are:

1. The learning potential of the task;
2. Opportunities for feedback, evaluation, and reflection on the outcomes of work actions;
3. The formalization of work processes;
4. Employee participation in handling of problems and developing work processes
5. Learning resources.

There is considerable overlap with Eraut's six factors, although the dual triangle set of factors is a more nuanced instrument for analysis.

Ashton (2008) offers a critical comment on Eraut's model. He finds the account of the process of learning in two sets of factors 'excellent' in explaining the significance of the relationships that support learning, but once having identified them the factors are taken as given and are no longer questioned. He asks why those contextual elements have the form they have and why some organisations manage to have more factors in place than others (p.33).

Eraut on the individual vs social dimension of learning

Eraut also deals with the conundrum of individual/social learning which was brought up earlier in the discussion of self-directed learning. It is noticeable from the table that the learning processes that are derived from the work are a mixture of individual and social acts. Eraut believes that the individual and the social in learning can be compared to the 'particle and wave theories of light' (2004, p.263). Studying learning from the individual perspective helps to bring to the surface the differences in how people learn and how they interpret what they learn. The social perspective on the other hand, makes it possible to understand the 'social construction of knowledge' as well as the contexts in which people learn. In addition this perspective allows for study of 'a wide range of cultural practice and products that provide knowledge resources for learning'. Eraut also states that by now it is generally agreed that 'much uncodified cultural knowledge is acquired informally through participation in social activities' (2004, p.263). Further, much of this knowledge is acquired without people being 'aware of its influence on their behaviour'. This learning is greater and deeper than what is usually understood by socialization. It is 'a prominent feature' of educational institutions and occurs in both formal and informal situations (2004 p.263).

Enhancing university teaching staff development through professional learning

At least one leading staff developer in higher education, Sharpe (2004), has taken ideas from workplace learning experts in her approach to helping university teachers to grow, applying them to her own model. In this model, Sharpe has divided professional learning into four areas. The first is what professionals learn, including the competences, values and the characteristics of their specific type of 'knowledge'. Concepts on 'applying professional knowledge in practice' (Sharpe, 2004, p.134) derived from Eraut, were incorporated in this area. The second area is how professionals learn. In this context she critiques Schön's conceptualisation of reflective learning (1989) using Eraut's questions (1994;1995) about Schön's theory of reflection-in-action and reflection-on-action. The third area is where professionals learn, for which the communities of practice idea of Lave & Wenger (1991) is used (as well as the contextualisation focus of Boud mentioned in Chapter three.) Finally, Sharpe identified when professionals learn, for which several professional / educational development experts are used along with Eraut.

This important model and the way Eraut's ideas, criticisms and insights are used in it demonstrates that Eraut's work has had both a challenging and illuminating power for this professional development expert. The fact that Kennedy recognises Eraut's critical views of making types of PD is also illustrative of the significance of Eraut's views in the field of professional development in teaching.

Workplace learning associated with teacher learning in other sources

Teacher development in secondary and primary settings has been looking at workplace learning for some time. In her review of literature related to lifelong learning for teachers, Tara Fenwick (2000; 2001) notes the trend towards integrating the personal, relational and practical in contemporary teacher development that supports the constructive process of change involving 'heads and hearts' pointed out above (Trowler et al., 2003).

Sociocultural views understand teachers' learning as inseparable from systems of relationships and interactions in which they participate (Davis and Sumara, 1997). Their growth is interconnected with the discourses, meanings, desires and opportunities surrounding them (Garman, 1995) some overall themes of teacher learning may be argued to include the integration of various knowledges [sic] (personal, practical, relational) with teachers' participation in various communities of the school; the embedding of learning in practice; the important role of intentionality and reflection in learning; and the significance of both internal personal conflicts and external culture and relationships on teachers' learning. Inspired by these emerging understandings of teacher learning, professional development initiatives in schools have employed a combination of approaches (Fenwick, 2001, p.4).

Influence of workplace learning on this research

In conclusion, Eraut's contribution was first, his and his team's demonstration of the high level of learning as 'by product' of the work of experienced professionals. Second, Eraut deals with the reality of time pressures in his investigation of the effects of time on cognition and performance. This realisation was important in the analysis of digesting what was going wrong during the TIP in prototypes 1 and 2 and thus what had to change in the final template. Third, he has identified processes and activities conducive to learning as well as those factors that can stimulate or constrain it. Eraut demonstrates that different kinds of confidence are arguably the most important learning factor for experienced professionals. There is not only self-confidence but also trust in colleagues and confidence in the value and quality of the challenges and tasks which they are asked to participate in. This makes it essential for a PD programme aimed at meeting the needs of such professionals to be flexible and relevant so that they can feel confident in engaging in it. The particle / wave metaphor for the social / individual distinction has strong rhetorical power which aided analysis during the operationalization of the TIP. Finally, he stresses the importance of taking part in social activities on the behaviour of professionals in their workplaces which influenced the selection of activities in the TIP programme.⁸

Learning from and in practice 1: Socio-cultural paradigm

As stated earlier, in the enhancement / change orientation to development, the work of certain theorists, including Eraut, were tapped into by Bamber et al. to privilege 'practice' as source of knowledge and learning. Practice, for these enhancement theorists, includes: learning processes, concepts of knowledge and how knowledge is produced and accessed through rules. In this approach formal, explicit and technical knowledge are found at one end of a knowledge spectrum and informal, social, cultural, tacit and discursive knowledge at the other (Bamber et al., 2009). Socio-cultural theory, which acts as an umbrella paradigm for Bamber et al., finds its roots in Russian theorists, most notably Vygotsky, Luria and Leont'ev. The literature on them individually and collectively is substantial. Wertsch (1985,1998) Bruner (1985), Cole (1985, 1995, 1996) are perhaps some of the best known scholars of Vygotskian theory in English. In brief, socio-cultural theory posits that

⁸ Eraut, however, is not supportive of front-loading of theory in vocational education (Eraut, 1994, p.13/14) (see Chapt. 3.2)

organisational or social learning, that is the *interpersonal*, precedes individual psychological, that is, *intrapersonal*, learning. This came to apply for individual learners as well as whole cultures. Learning takes place through interaction and mediation by more learned others and by potential psychological tools & artefacts, such as number systems, language, works of art, maps and so on. But these only can be tools when the learner is engaged in a goal oriented event, or activity or task (Cole, 1996).

Learning from and in practice 2: Epistemology of practice

Embodied Realism / Embodied Cognition

Learning as constituted from and reconstituting in, actual physical contexts in practice, is the epistemological stance of change agents whose interventions are rooted in social practice theories. This view of learning can be related to the paradigmatic approach of embodied realism (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980, 1999; Lakoff & Turner, 1989). Several characteristics have been proposed to define embodied realism or cognition. First, cognition is situated, it takes place in real world contexts second, it is time pressured third, we use tools to lower cognitive overload onto our environment fourth, the environment is part of the cognitive system fifth, cognition is for action. The final claim is that: *...cognition is body based...the activity of the mind is grounded in mechanisms that evolved for interaction with the environment- that is, mechanisms of sensory processing and motor control* (Wilson, 2002, p. 635).

Researchers and scholars from several disciplines are working towards a new 'practical knowledge tradition' within this paradigm. There is not one definition of the theory of practice but thinkers of the second generation (Schatzki, et al., 2001; Reickwitz, 2002; Wagenaar & Cook, 2003) would [probably] all identify 'practice' as 'purposeful variable, engagement in the world' (Dunn 1993, cited in Schwandt, 2005 p.321). Further, Schatzki et al. (in their treatise on the 'practice turn in contemporary theory') defined practices in the plural, as 'arrays of activity in which the body is the nexus' and the social (life) world as 'a field of embodied materially interwoven practices centrally organised around shared practical understandings' (2001, pp.2-3).

There is a chronology of the major thinkers who have contributed to practice theory. (Postill, 2010). The first generation includes sociologist Bourdieu (1977), who developed the concept of 'habitus' for the internalisation of the social order in the body. The human body is the nexus of peoples' engagement in the world. The concept of habitus includes more, especially in Bourdieu's later work (1992; 1993; 2005), where it is expanded to 'fields', a kind of specialists' domains. Social capital is another important aspect of practice from this thinker. Giddens' and Foucault's work are also foundational in practice theory. Giddens started from looking at the history of philosophy and social theory (1979; 1984). The structuration theory he developed states that 'agency and structure form a duality whereby structure is both the medium and the outcome that it recursively organises' (Giddens, 1984, p.374). Foucault is also interested in agency but uses 'discipline' as a major concept. Discipline combines structure and power, a combination impressed on the body (Postill, 2010).

The second generation of practice theorists are more relevant for this study. In fact, it is Reckwitz in particular who has been influential in enhancement theory for educational innovation and reform, as described in the introduction. Reckwitz (2002) combines strands from a selection of foundational thinkers such as Schatzki, Bourdieu, Garfinkel, Latour, Taylor, late Foucault, and Giddens to build an 'idealised model' of practice theory (Reckwitz, 2002, p.244).

In this ideal, it can be said that Reckwitz took a cultural turn in the practice turn, making his version of social-practice theory a part of wider socio-cultural theory. (He states, in fact, that the philosophic underpinnings of these units can be traced back to Wittgenstein and

Heidegger.) Part of his aim is to lift practice theory up from being too deeply embedded in empirical social and cultural analysis without 'falling into hyper intellectualism' through a more robust philosophic analysis (Reckwitz, 2002, p.258-259). In this, he appears to have been rather successful. Based in part on his version of practice theory, the social perspectives for enhancement focus 'on the way 'practice' itself yields knowledge and learning' (Bamber et al., 2009, p.9).

Schwandt, in contrast is not identified as one of the theorists of this paradigm by Bamber et al., but Schwandt's work on practice theory is particularly helpful for advancing an insight into the epistemology of practice for practitioners of education or health services and studies.

In his view of the ways developers can understand knowledge, Schwandt (2005) shows that practice as the focus of learning has long been marginalised because practices are seen as subjective, contingent and thus not generalisable. But practices of groups must be understood for any intervention to connect with them in a meaningful way. Schwandt's view is inspired by the Greek concepts of praxis and phronesis (see Kessels & Korthagen, 1996 for confirmation of the Greek roots of human resource development). They involve judgments which are 'engaged, embodied, and enacted' (Coulter & Wiens, 2002, cited in Schwandt, 2005, p.321).

Knowledge as manifested in practice is 'contingent, socially enacted and constitutive of the self and others' (Schwandt, 2005, p.321). Teachers, social workers, counsellors, public health and public services workers of all kinds are working in the practice tradition. Practitioners in these traditions are engaged in developing and maintaining shared understandings that can be expressed in communication and dialogue within everyday life experiences. The ways people interact with each other and with tools are part of this engagement (Blacker, 1995). Language is another, since language is used in directing what we do with each other, making sense of actions, to help 'move' us to do new things (Shotter, 1993). In the conventional scientific tradition, which Schwandt calls Model 1, knowledge is valuable to the extent that it is universal, logical and orderly. Learning is principally cognitive and certainty is the norm. Ambiguity is to be avoided at all costs.

Schwandt's specific interest is into educational and health sciences where practitioners face a 'disorderly world' (p.317). Judgements and decisions must be made in the midst of complex situations with contesting values. Often, he notes, information is incomplete or unreliable, or it is not clear how to use that information. In such situations, conventional scientific wisdom is to turn to universal, non-contextual theories for stable, clear and consistent strategies. The concept of knowledge that supports this advice to the practitioner is 'about some object' which can be 'obtained' and 'applied' (loc. cit). These verbs reveal that Schwandt views the conventional assumption of knowledge as acquisition.

He does not stop with this description of his view of knowledge in the 'acquisition paradigm'. Other elements are that knowledge should reach an understanding of the phenomenon that is complete, there should be no surprises, a totally satisfactory explanation should be the result. Also, full command of the knowledge is a goal. Finally, the knowledge produced should be explicit, systematic, universal and general (author's emphasis p.318). This type of learning is cognitive, decontextualised and cerebral.

However, the norms of what constitutes knowledge from the practice knowledge tradition, which he calls Model 2, may well include that which is disorderly, ambiguous and/or uncertain. In fact, challenges that practitioners face, finds Schwandt, are often more in the form of dilemmas, not problems to be solved by gathering enough evidence. A predicament can best be approached with a position or a stance, not a solution. This kind of positioning is not so much about a theory / practice divide as about being able to make ethical and appropriate judgements.

In this framework practices such as education are dynamic, they are changing and fluid, and indeterminate. For example, practitioners in a resource rich environment like a doctor in a well stocked hospital, will make quite different choices from exactly the same kind of practitioner, like a country doctor in a poor environment. Practices are concerned with the particular, not the general.

In Model 2, practitioners learn to make sense of their messy realities while engaging in them. It is almost a mirror image of Model 1. In Model 2 not certainty, but uncertainty is normative. Inquiry is not out to reach total explanations, it 'supports practical deliberation of means and ends' (2005, p.318). Knowledge is not manifested in propositions, it is embodied in action. It must have 'plasticity' (p.324) because of the indeterminate nature of practices. Learning is not de-contextual but situated and activist and constructive. Learning in practice is situated action (p.326). Action and thinking are intertwined and are purposeful and intentional.

Knowledge is more than simply being pragmatic, it is 'best characterised as 'action, participation, and transformation of individuals within specific social and cultural contexts' (Delandshere, 2002, p.1473 cited in Schwandt, 2005, p.328). It is not a phase of doing, followed by a retreat into deliberation. There is change in the practitioner's identity and 'way of being' as well as in the situation (Schwandt, 2005, p.328).

The conventional view of knowledge sees the researcher providing theory or models for the practitioner to apply to his/her messy practice. In contrast, in Model 2 the researcher begins with reality of the practitioner and scientific knowledge can follow from, rather than lead, practical activity. Schwandt relates his view of situated action learning to various socio-cultural theories such as Communities of Practice.

If we recall Reckwitz's purpose in developing the culturalist version of practice theory, it was in part to get beyond a superficial approach in which practice is equated with empirical but a-theoretical research. This is no whim of his. Tight (2004) has shown in a major study that a high proportion of research articles on higher education are without sound theoretical framing. Silverman (2000) found the same in a study of journals of nursing / health sciences research. Thus, the need to harness the power of the knowledge-as-practice theory for research purposes is evident.

Schwandt adds another layer of significance to this by having a moral and political aim (see Nussbaum for an influential approach to ethics, 1986). He is concerned that practice is too often understood in a mechanical and technical manner. This is the case whenever a practice is evaluated as effective simply because 'it works' according to narrow, empirically gathered evidence. This fits with the management drive for auditing and performance that has been noted in relation to higher education for the 21st century, and in relation to professional development deficit models. If 'whatever works' is the standard, there is no way to maintain the need for normative standards. There is no drive to aim for wisdom in judgments, which must include intuitive and tacit, local and contextual knowledge.

The practice turn in knowledge management

Practice perspectives have been becoming more interesting to those who study organizational life for some time (Marsick & Watkins 1990; Marsick, 2008; Poell, Chivers, Krogt, & Wildemeersch, 2000). But the field of knowledge management has been less involved. However, this is changing. In recent years, a growing number of experts in knowledge management have started looking at the problems they encounter in analyzing learning at work using practice theories as frameworks (Brown & Duguid, 1989; 2001; Cook & Brown, 1999; Rowland, 2004).

An example of how a researcher can use knowledge management theories in an empirical study can be found in Orlikowski (2002). She was looking at how ‘knowing in practice’ was evident during globally dispersed product development work in a multinational software company. Starting with a theoretical framework, including Giddens and Lave, Orlikowski agrees with Eraut and Schwandt that when knowing is seen as enacted practice(s), not as ‘fixed and static’ objects that can be ‘spread around’, the focus on transfer is misguided. Instead she defines competence generation as (2002, p.251)

a process of developing people’s capacity to enact what we may term “useful practices”—with usefulness seen to be a necessarily contextual and provisional aspect of situated organizational activity.

Her five practices and accompanying activities, captured in the following table, show how important interaction, participation and sharing tools are. But also the common socialization and identification with the organization matters. Finally, the company stresses that instead of giving share options or large bonuses it provides generous and high quality professional development opportunities.

Several of these practices resonate with the theorists and researchers of workplace learning. For example, some of the context / learning factors of Eraut overlap, with the practices identified by Orlikowski, such as the significance of commitment (here: interacting); the expectation of professional progress and support for learning (here: learning by doing); engaging with colleagues & clients; the importance of the challenge of tasks and their structuring (here: supporting participation). In relation to the model of Illeris there are also common elements such as the importance of identity. Finally, there are overlaps with the Trowler and Fanghanel’s findings on the effectiveness of working-groups who share tools and practices presented in the introductory chapter.

Repertoire of Practices, Activities, and Knowing within Kappa

Practice	Activities Comprising the Practice	Knowing Constituted in the Practice
Sharing identity	Engaging in common training and socialization	Knowing the organization; Using common orientation to do development work
Identifying with the organization	Interacting face to face; Gaining trust, respect, credibility & commitment	Knowing the players in the game; Sharing information; Building & sustaining social networks
Aligning effort	Using a common model, method & metrics	Knowing how to coordinate across time & space; Contracting for expertise annually; Using standard metrics
Investing in individual development	Learning by doing	Knowing how to develop capabilities; Mentoring employees in their careers; Rewarding not punishing effort
Supporting participation	Globally distributing product development work	Knowing how to innovate; Involving participants in projects; Initiating & supporting overseas assignments

table 4. repertoire of practices & knowing (Orlikowski, 2002, p.257)

4.4 Action learning / Action research in work environments

O'Neil and Marsick have been facilitating action learning in workplace settings for some time. A definition by O'Neil

Action learning is defined as an approach to working with, and developing people, which uses work on a real project or problem as the way to learn. Participants work in small groups or teams to take action to solve their project or problem, and learn how to learn from that action. A learning coach works with the group in order to help them learn how to balance their work, with the learning from that work (O'Neil, 2000, p.44).

The type of problems is essential. Zuber-Skerritt says that this type of learning is only suitable for working on messy and complex problems, not simple difficulties that can be solved with instrumental approaches. In addition she stresses its cyclical nature. Therefore, planning, doing, observing and reflecting are iteratively carried out in a responsible and systematic manner. It also requires a deep commitment on the part of participants (1992). Another essential aspect of action learning is 'engaging in discourse'. This is demonstrated in Zuber-Skerritt's own definition of action learning within organizations which is, 'learning from concrete experience and critical reflection on that experience through group discussion, trial and error, discovery, and learning from and with each other' (2002, p 115). Action learning is a contextual process of learning that has a transformational or emancipatory goal. The process includes linking problem solving skills and methods to real problems, discussing them with peers and doing reflective evaluation afterwards to make new plans.

Action research as approach for professional development

Because it involves embedding in practitioners' real situations, action learning is considered to be highly suitable as an approach in professional development programmes. It fits coherently with new paradigm thinking which is emerging in organisational learning and in some educational institutions. These are converging on the combining of formal and informal learning in a practice based approach to staff development (Beckett & Hager, 2002; Billett, 2001; Cole, 1995; Eraut, 1994, 2000, 2004, 2007; Marsik, 2008).

Based on an earlier review of several educational action research projects for professional development, Zeichner (2001) identified 5 conditions that are commonly found in close association with positive outcomes. These are:

- a) *professional culture of inquiry*
- b) *teacher's control of over most aspects of the process, including whether or not to get fully involved in problem definition, data collection and analysis methods*
- c) *intellectual stimulation about their practice that goes beyond problem solving*
- d) *sufficient time to create a safe and environment and for the establishment of rituals and routines*
- e) *voluntary participation (p.279).*

One can assume that failure to meet the common themes or typically positive outcomes will result in poor action research. Thus they represent a warning of sorts. Zuber-Skerritt is more direct in this regard. She stresses the high demands made on all participants in that it usually requires;

- a. *time where the long term benefits are not always obvious in the short term*
- b. *developing a team spirit, group collaboration and consensus*
- c. *breaking old habits, tradition, inertia and hierarchy*
- d. *getting support from top management (Zuber-Skerritt, 1992, p.215).*

The potential for failure is thus significant. Having said that, Dall' Alba has been able to use action learning projects as a way of turning the attention from skills' enhancement to

enhancing ways of 'being university teachers' (2005, p.361).

Critique of educational action research

Gibson, one of the first and most outspoken critics of the approach had difficulty with the 'critical theory' roots of action research. As with certain Marxists theorists, action researchers can become convinced that they are on the right and righteous path. He refers to the critical and emancipatory rhetoric of action 'science' as 'hubris' (Gibson, 1985). In other comments he compares some action researchers' reforming zeal to evangelicals. Criticisms of such rhetoric have been expressed more often. For example when Carr & Kemmis (1986) describe action science as utopian, several negative reactions followed. One wrote

It is certainly Utopian in the sense of being of doubtful feasibility, but whether it is Utopian in the sense of being desirable is another matter (Hammersley, 1993, p.226).

Webb (1996, p.59) asks serious questions about Zuber-Skerritt's criteria. Why must action research be carried out in groups and why must those groups reach a consensus? It is not possible to disagree on the social or political context and still work together well as colleagues in teaching? What does rational mean here? Is it not contestable on various grounds, such as being a form of positivism? How are differences of opinion handled in such a group? Most of the books and materials about action research while prescriptive, do not prepare novices, for example PhD students, for the 'praxis' of action research. This is true even though they make very clear that it's difficult to carry it out (Levine, 2003, 2007, 2008). Even when books such as McGill and Beaty's action learning guide (2001) do seriously attempt to show how to go about developing the skills required to address these problems, they are often too generic to be able to be used effectively by the inexperienced action researcher. Glass, (2002) in reviewing Coghlan & Bannick's (2001) *Doing action researching your own organization*, discusses the lack of realism and detail in the guidelines. Particularly, power and politics within organisations are dealt with inadequately. Glass is convinced that the authors give novice-researchers a misleading sense that if they follow the guidelines and strategies set out in the book, all will be well. Glass (2002) finds this naïve. It is likely to lead novice-researchers into disappointment.

The influence of action learning / action research for PD on this research

The strength of the theory of action learning is that it can take place in the immediate work environment. It was used in the design of the core programme because ideas initially introduced during the group sessions could be applied individually by participants in their own teams after the sessions. Thus action learning was incorporated to stimulate embeddedness. It was not the only learning approach employed with that concept in mind. Also informal, workplace learning and learning in and through practice were used in the design of the programme in order to stimulate the embedding of the learning in the working environment of the participants.

Summary

This chapter has covered learning approaches that influenced the research. It introduced, self-directed learning, accommodative learning, workplace learning, learning as and in practice, and action learning. Certainly they have elements in common. One overarching theme in them all is confidence, another is that individuals and groups are always involved in learning with inherent tensions and benefits for both. Illeris's conviction that all learning is situated and all learning involves a psychological, a cognitive and an interactive dimension leads to the conclusion that learning of professionals must be viewed holistically in both immediate and wider contexts or environments. These approaches together form a framework for the investigation of experienced teachers as learners in a novel situation where they must be willing to give up certain practices as well as take on new ones.

Summary of part one

The previous sections have looked at a number of theoretical approaches and frameworks to the topic at hand. An attempt was made to distil the main insights derived from the literature of the many disciplines reviewed, and to reflect on why these insights or ideas are significant for the current research.

The first issues of significance concerned the question of how policy makers at universities were engaging with the demands of internationalisation. There is a similarity not only in these demands but also in the reactions and plans of management such as the demand to produce graduates who are skilled in operating in complex international environments and the demand to achieve a status as a respected university abroad. Universities from Minnesota to Australia employ approaches such as new public management to implement policies to meet these aspirations. The NUAS conforms to typical university patterns of managerial innovation, for example by establishing quantitative performance indicators. Such managerial initiatives are critiqued by experts in the field of internationalisation, mainly because they are aimed at external changes that will not alter the educational experience of students on emotional and deep cultural levels. As the literature revealed internationalising educational programmes means to be open to hosting international students and to recognising that traditions in the national culture need to adapt accordingly. The top-down character of management was significant enough to be explored in depth in the predesign phase.

The literature of English as a medium of instruction, especially CLIL, demonstrated that a great deal is being asked of content teachers and lecturers if both content and language are to be learnt simultaneously. There is clearly a strong drive to establish CLIL as a default approach in higher education but the evidence of its success is far from clear. Many factors other than simple language proficiency play a role. This lack of clarity is important for the current study in several ways. One of these is that the widely held conviction that a straightforward translation of existing Dutch courses will result in international modules has to be challenged and a new conviction regarding the relation between language and content in teaching/learning has to be instilled if loss of quality is to be avoided or at least reduced to an acceptable level. The struggles of international students have been highlighted in this area as well.

As noted in the context of policies it is a matter of concern amongst experts in internationalisation that universities often do little to address intercultural issues. The reason given in the literature most often is that monocultural communities are simply blind to the implications of this influx of culturally different students. Another reason is that it very difficult to change cultural dimensions or patterns as the models of Hofstede and Bennet demonstrated. Because it is psychologically demanding and difficult to evaluate intercultural learning has been put at the forefront at few universities with Australian universities as the most notable exception. This intercultural challenge is significant because the failure to achieve deep understanding is a barrier to the richer experiences that are inherent in intercultural interaction.

In terms of teaching, the requirements on teachers to adapt and the phenomenon of resistance to this requirement are often the subject of discussion and opinion in internationalisation circles although the amount of actual research into resistance is limited. The nature and causes of resistance have been identified, with the lack of time and resources to implement changes seen as a major barrier to acceptance. Other causes of resistance have to do with the cognitive challenge of successfully incorporating an international dimension in the disciplinary body of knowledge and in dealing with issues of assessment in international classrooms. These findings are important for the current research because the motivation of teachers is crucial to their success in learning.

Thus issues from the areas of English language instruction, intercultural awareness and communication and issues of international pedagogy were all important for the upcoming design of learning opportunities.

The essential need to understand teacher learning was explored in two ways, first by mapping the types and modes of professional development provision currently offered to higher education teachers and lecturers and second by using different learning approaches in the design.

PD has been rather marginal in higher education worldwide and also in the Netherlands in contrast to secondary and primary education. The types or models of PD can be clustered by certain characteristics such as whether the content is contextualised to specific workplaces so it differs somewhat each time or whether it has a standardised content that can be offered repeatedly in many places without adaptations. Different types of learning have been associated with these different types of PD. Instrumental learning goes well with a training model for example. This linking of a model or type of PD with a type of learning was extremely important for the current research as will be described in the following chapters. The most important point is that combined content domains are not well suited to simple training or dissemination models. Thus the research aim to combine three domains led to the decision to have a certain type of PD which set out the parameters of the design.

The strengths and limitations of the different modes of delivery, both the stand-alone mode and the embedded mode were introduced because they are essential for exploring the second research perspective, that is in exploring the possibilities of designing effective and inexpensive interventions. The difficulties with relevance, ambiguity and sustainability were identified. These three aspects were used to evaluate the final design of the interventions in this research. A number of previous examples of professional development interventions showed that each of them has something to offer to the current researcher but that none of them met all of the criteria. Either they were costly and could never be offered to more than a handful of teachers annually or they focussed on one or two domains only. In the Dutch example a deficit approach to learning was employed which was deemed de-motivating. Others used a transformative learning approach which was not proven to be truly transformative.

In the discussion of learning approaches the key outcomes were that self-directed learning as 'signature' approach in adult education was shown to be open to various interpretations including one that takes into account that self-directedness has a social dimension. This social aspect became important in understanding the results of the interventions and in devising solutions. Independence was important enough to become one of the key concepts of the research in terms of learning approaches.

The accommodative learning approach is characterised by learning which requires set patterns or attitudes to be broken open and realigned with new insights and knowledge. It is uniquely suited to the combining of disciplines and the applications of insights from this complex combining process in different contexts. The link between accommodative learning and the combined domains English, intercultural and pedagogic enhancement was thus made. The term transcendent learning was also identified as a characteristic of accommodative learning and transcendence became one of the core learning concepts of the current research.

Another learning approach studied which became vital to the current research was tacit learning in workplace contexts. This form of learning was shown to be not only highly relevant to the current research's target groups it was shown to have been effective in understanding the nature of learning in empirical investigations where learning was identified, not as intentional/explicit activity, but as 'by-product' of the work. Also this approach had cognitive aspects that help to explain the influence of time on learning in

workplaces which affects choices made by professionals on what to commit themselves to in professional development. The previous research on professionals learning 'in-situ' also threw up the fact that experienced and competent professionals who have to face many new challenges are put into a novice position but this is seldom recognised by their colleagues, PD providers or managers, making their learning tasks in reality more challenging than that of a 'real' novice. The factors in workplace learning were significant for this current study as discussed in this chapter. Supplementing the model of workplace learning were social-practice perspectives identified as a nexus of elements that include embodied learning and learning-in-and-from-practice identified in the literature as *the practice turn*. This perspective turns conventional approaches to knowledge and learning upside down. While conventional knowledge must be objective and decontextualised, practice knowledge is embedded in elements such as contexts in which it occurs. The practice constitutes the knowledge as much as the knowledge is constituted in the practice. This type of learning led to the focus on the concept of embeddedness in the research framework.

Looking forward, the issues of content domains and learning approaches were used in the design of the prototypes which will be set out in the next chapters. For example a proposition in iterations one and two is *"Providing opportunities to combine domains of content and approaches to learning in tasks related to contested aspects of IoC would stimulate learning which was dialogic and transcendent."* Such propositions were essential to the analyses of candidate explanations in the enactment of the interventions.

Chapter five *Research Design and Methods*

Introduction

As the previous chapters have shown, this investigation arose from an insider practitioner's awareness of the challenges teachers encountered in providing international dimensions to the courses and programmes which they develop and teach. The context of the investigation was sketched in chapter 1. The literature study in the previous chapters has established that concepts of domain transcendence, independence and embeddedness, had not been investigated comprehensively in earlier examples of professional development for internationalisation of the curriculum, creating a research space for this study. An open-ended approach to the investigation into teacher PD for internationalisation was adopted. It was decided to study the phenomena by combining fundamental research with iterative designs and trials of a PD intervention. Such a combination is consistent with educational design research approaches. Section 5.1 covers aspects of the research design. It includes a recap of the goals and core question of the investigation.

The next subsection presents key general characteristics of educational design research, offering a set of labels relevant to this investigation. As this is an explorative case study, its characteristics are summarised. Since the designer and researcher is a member of the teaching staff of the university this study is also a form of insider practitioner research, a not uncommon situation in small scale formative / innovative design studies. Therefore relevant aspects of practitioner research are briefly identified. The last subsection offers a progression chart of the research design, setting out its sequential steps. Finally the research questions and scope are set out.

Section 5.2 introduces the methods of data collection (including types of participants, materials, instrumentation and procedures) and methods of data analysis used to carry out the research. In 5.3 these methods are identified for each phase as methods vary somewhat during the research trajectory in alignment with shifts in research questions. However, the in-depth descriptions and analyses of methods per phase are given in the next chapters (6, 7, 8 & 9) which present the design narratives of each phase.

Section 5.4 covers validity criteria and limitations of the research.

5.1 Research Design

Long range goals and research question

One goal of this investigation was to explore how a professional development programme could facilitate teacher professional learning by combining multiple content domains, to see whether these combinations were effective and why. The three significant domains were identified as English, intercultural and pedagogic enhancement. In the discussion of IoC in Chapter 2, and again in the previous chapter, arguments were presented justifying why specifically these three domains were chosen and why specifically that combination created a new research space.

The current investigation also intended to explore how various learning approaches facilitated teacher learning for the purpose of internationalisation of the curriculum and why. Again, in the previous chapter it was claimed the transcendent aspect of accommodative learning was especially appropriate for interventions with multiple domains. In addition, to achieve learning with whole teams rather than only with individuals, embedded learning opportunities and thus tacit and informal learning were shown to be essential. Finally, the chances to determine parts of the learning path by the participants themselves were argued to be important for tailoring the interventions for experienced professionals so that independence was chosen as the third learning approach.

Another research goal of the investigation was to discover if and how a professional development programme could be designed and conducted in such a way that it could be used effectively in multiple contexts, either as a generic intervention or as a basis for contextualised interventions. The chapter on PD demonstrated that both modes have potential, but that there were more opportunities for relevant and sustainable learning to take place in PD embedded in faculties or in the case of this university, Schools.

Having thus made the arguments for the choices of domains, approaches and modes of delivery, this chapter sets out how the goals were reached to some extent through empirical research. From the start an insider-practitioner approach was used, In addition, it was decided that the best way to achieve the goals was to employ an educational design/development research approach, in spite of the researcher's initial unfamiliarity with it. The investigation, it will be remembered, was limited to a series of four interventions in one higher education setting.

Following the procedures familiar to educational design / development research (Van den Akker, Branch, Gustafson, Nieveen & Plomp 1999; Van den Akker, Gravenmeijer, Mc Kenney & Nieveen, 2006) several questions were formed which influenced the conceptual framework behind the programme and the selection of empirical data gathering techniques. They were incorporated into a core question:

How can professional development interventions for teaching staff involved in internationalisation of the curricula at a university of applied sciences be designed and implemented to enhance English, intercultural and pedagogic learning in multiple modes of delivery?

After that the phases of Educational Design Research (EDR) were followed, starting with a pre-design phase, as set out below, but first a discussion of design research's characteristics is offered here, as well as the research design framework.

Design based / development research definitions & characteristics

Although educational design has a long tradition (Rowland, 2004), the understanding of educational design or development *research* (especially in higher education) is relatively new. The current movement began in the mid-1990s. This helps to explain the multiplicity of

descriptors it has accrued in a matter of a few years. Of these labels, *Development or Design Based Research (DBR)* were favoured by Van den Akker (1999), Reeves (2000a & b) and others prominent in this movement (special issue vol. 32, *Educational Researcher*, 2003). In the last few years, however, the term *Educational Design Research (EDR)* has been gaining wide acceptance (Wang & Hannafin, 2005; Van den Akker et al., 2006; McKenny & Reeves, 2012) and this label will be used most often during the current investigation although the other two are still used when (slightly) older sources are discussed. Educational Design Research can take many forms, one of which is:

A situation in which someone is performing instructional design, development or evaluation activities and studying the process at the same time (Richey, Klein & Nelson, 2001, p.1099).

A definition precise enough to be distinctive but broad enough to encompass the family of design and development research is:

A series of approaches with the intent of producing new theories, artifacts, and practices that account for and potentially impact learning and teaching in naturalistic settings (Barab & Squire, 2004, p.1).

Finally, a definition from Wang and Hannafin (2004) is offered for comparison:

Design-based research is a research methodology aimed to improve educational practices through systematic, flexible, and iterative review, analysis, design, development, and implementation, based upon collaboration among researchers and practitioners in real-world settings, and leading to design principles or theories (page 2).

In care and welfare contexts, development research is undertaken with the aim of developing a plan, a method of treatment, a tool (such as a protocol), a training programme (or other type of intervention), or some combination of these (Michelbrink, 1996/2007, p.145) and is often used by organisations that provide public services (such as investigated in Kouwenhoven, Kruk, and van Wijk-Bouwland, 2003). Design researchers investigate and map the needs for that which will be developed, what is required to develop it, and once it is developed, how it can be evaluated (Michelbrink, 1996/2007 p.145/47). The research can, but does not have to, include the actual constructing, offering and evaluating of the tool or plan. It can be limited to a situation and needs analysis accompanied by an advice on how to carry out the development in future. It can either take place when a new intervention, method, or tool is to be developed, in which case it is seen as innovative research, or when an existing intervention etc. must be improved (Michelbrink, 1996/2007, p.148).

According to Van den Akker (1999) development research can be either formative or reconstructive. If the study is undertaken after the development process 'of several interventions', it is reconstructive. Formative research, on the other hand, covers:

activities performed during the entire development process of a specific intervention, from exploratory studies through (formative and summative) evaluation studies; aimed at optimization of the quality of the intervention as well as testing design principles (p.6).

He further explains that in his view exploratory studies should be undertaken before the intervention project. However it is possible that an exploratory study can 'convert' into a formative one (1999). Clearly the design of a hitherto unknown form of professional development like the TIP is exploratory in nature. Carrying out the iterations converts it to formative research.

Key Labels of EDR relevant to the TIP

In the following investigation certain specific terms or labels from EDR were employed. They are described in general below, then linked to specific aspects of the current research. The seven labels are: 1.Iteration, 2.Artefact 3.Prototype, 4.Collaborative, 5.Mapping, 6.Narrative and 7.Framing Theories.

1. **Iteration**: This is a term used to refer to the recursive systematic method of investigation. An iteration is a single or individual step in a cyclic process of interventions and refinements (Jones, 2007; Cobb, Confrey, diSessa, Lehrer & Schauble, 2003). This includes the development of a design in real time and real location as well as the enactment of the design, and the analytic and evaluative tracking of the events. In this research three iterations were carried out although there were four interventions. The first and second iterations consisted of one intervention each but during the third iteration two interventions were carried out simultaneously.

2. **Artefact**: An artefact is a label employed to identify that which is going to be designed or which may be designed if the explorative study reveals the need and value of it (Cobb, et al., 2003). It can for example, be a guideline, a protocol, a measuring instrument, an IT programme, a score-card for reflection to name a few. It can also be an intervention such as an educational programme or curriculum. An intervention can be an entire programme but it can also be a single workshop or series of workshops.

3. **Prototype**: In this study, various terms were used to refer to that which was being designed and tried out. One term is **prototype**. It designates draft versions of the constructed solutions to the design problems (McKenney & Reeves, 2012, p.125). A prototype can include multiple artefacts and components and must not be confused with a skeletal design (planned solutions) of the intervention. The prototype can have product components (direct learning materials made for participants); and policy components (indirect documentation); a programme component (used to set out logistics, agendas); process components (like a facilitator's guide for PD providers, (McKenney & Reeves, 2012, pp.125-126).

In the TIP it consisted of a teacher-participant's file including the topics; learning materials; intended learning outcomes and schedules of the intervention as well as an intranet site with many more documents for self-access; a forum location for discussion and locations for submitting work online.

The first TIP prototype, 1.0, was tried out during iteration 1. It was subsequently adjusted on the basis of the activities and responses of the teachers who participated in it and on the basis of consulting the conceptual literature to make the revised TIP prototype 2.0 of the TIP for iteration 2.

The **TIP core-course map/template** is a related but different artefact. It can be seen as the stabilised version of the programme that the prototypes led to. Selected elements from the course map provided the basis for two sets of workshops that were designed for two Schools. These are presented as Interventions 3a and 3b. Another important artefact that was not planned at the start, evolved during the study. It is referred to as **translation/contextualisation tool** (see Annex p.98) and was used during Interventions 3a and 3b.

4. **Collaborative**: (Cobb et al., 2003) Design research is interventionist but the nature of the interventions is not such that the designer can work in a vacuum. The designing process must involve the participants or learners as end-users in evaluating and helping in developing the solutions. In this research participants were consulted not only about content but also about the overall structure of the interventions, especially in the pre-design phase when team leaders were interviewed as well as two representative teachers.

5. Mapping: Mapping is a stage imperative whenever there is as yet no artefact. Although various terms are used, all sources (Michelbrink, 1996; Van den Akker, 1999; Cobb et al., 2003; Shavelson, Phillips, Towne, & Feuer, 2003; Joseph, 2004) refer to the study of literature and the carrying out of a situation mapping of the context in which the decisions are made about the design of the artefact or instrument. Because this is not a summative evaluative design study, but a first attempt to develop a repertoire of professional development interventions, it began with mapping, including interviews with teachers and team leaders, the study of university policy documents and the study of comparative interventions as discussed in chapters 2 and 3. The situation analysis was condensed in chapter one and expanded in chapter six.

6. Design Narrative: Because design research is iterative and rooted in organisational and cultural contexts, it shares the challenges and values of ethnographic research. In both approaches, description over time plays a vital role in accurately communicating complex processes and/ or phenomena under study. Ethnography uses the concept of *thick descriptions* while a number of design researchers refer to the 'design narrative'. According to Hoadley:

Narrative is a structure for conveying a series of related events, a plot. Narrative may omit details, but important agents, events, causes, and results are relayed. A design narrative describes the history and evolution of a design over time. It may not be as complete as, for instance, videotapes of the entire design process and all uses of the designed artifacts, but it does communicate compactly and effectively how a design came into being. By relating the design's changes over time, a design narrative can help make explicit some of the implicit knowledge the designer or designer-researcher used to understand and implement the intervention. Would that all interventional research included this kind of rich description of the "treatment" so that one might infer whether the results were applicable elsewhere (2002, p.2).

In the current research, the narratives began with a description of the context, including details of participants and setting and also including the propositions of that particular stage in the process. The narrative then gave the programme characteristics, that is, the design of the prototype as it was constructed at that point and key events during the enactment of that particular iteration. These key events were data inputs collected through the methods of interview and participant observation.

The data were then tentatively interpreted using the data analysis methods. These analyses discussed what worked or did not work and why in relation to the propositions about learning approaches and content domains. This took the form of candidate explanations and candidate solutions. The narration ended by identifying what changes were made on the basis of these analyses for the next iteration.

7. Framing Theories: EDR must include formulating design principles beyond the immediate targeted users (Shavelson, Phillips, Towne, & Feuer, 2003). Design principles are described as a way of integrating different kinds of theoretical understanding, including 'descriptive, explanatory and predictive understanding' which guide the designing process (McKenney & Reeves, 2012, p.34). The principles need to make active use of previous experiences, models and theories. As stated earlier, they help to initially inform and progressively refine the design. In this case, the pre-design phase led to the early identification of the following four clusters of concepts, shown in figure 1, which framed the emerging design principles. As Van den Akker points out, 'theoretical embedding' can 'increase the transparency and plausibility of the rationale' (Van den Akker, 2007, p.46).

The four framing theories are described below.

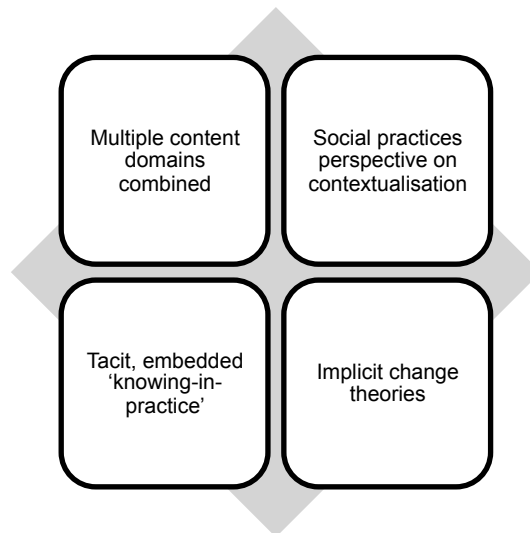


fig. 1 framing clusters of concepts

Framing theory 1: Multiple content domains combined

Because teachers had to face the challenge of new environmental demands, it seemed clear that they would need to accommodate to new ideas. After a study of learning theories, the most appropriate way of achieving that seemed to be through interaction with other participants and *with content* in a novel manner. In this way teachers would bring different environmental realities as well as different content expertise with them. This meant that the learning required of them was not only interdisciplinary in an intellectual sense. In addition to cognitive challenges, it meant that the multiplicity of content needed to be complex enough to challenge them in the ‘social, linguistic and cultural acts’ that characterise ‘all learning across disciplines’ (Crichton & Scarino, 2007, p.4.13). Furthermore, the domains could not be addressed sequentially or separately since they operate with and on each other. To illustrate, teachers who switched from Dutch to English medium teaching were required to become competent in more than one disciplinary area in order to adequately address the challenges of incorporating an international dimension in their teaching. They could not focus exclusively on linguistic competence in their interactions with students. They could not restrict their focus to the disciplinary content of their subjects. They certainly could not be mono-cultural in their ways of interacting. That situation also applies to native English speaking teachers who work in international programmes in an English speaking country.

The groups of teachers in this situation however have the added challenge of not being native speakers, not working in English speaking environments and of having been trained in continental educational / pedagogic traditions. Certain groups of teachers had a mixed membership of people from the mainstream Dutch culture and sub cultures like Frisian. Other groups or teams had a mixed membership with international and Dutch teachers. They had to interact and interrelate over intra/intercultural boundaries. Teachers as well as students, for example, while reading and discussing texts in English, were sometimes simultaneously processing the content in Dutch or another L2.

Framing theory 2: Tacit, embedded ‘knowing-in-practice’

Professionals can best accommodate new ideas when they have a degree of independence, i.e., when they have chances to make decisions about their progress, which can only happen when learners take responsibility for some aspects of the learning. Concepts of *self-directed learning* are associated with this (Hiemstra & Brockett, 1994). Also the ability to

transcend what is learnt from one setting to another, requires a significant degree of confidence (Eraut, 2004, 2007). Moreover, if independence is vital for learners to transcend their learning across contexts (making the learning deeper and more-long lasting) it is 'targeted learning measures in close connection with the work' (Illeris, 2007, p.226) that will ensure that such learning and knowledge are sustainable for the individual whose practices change. In terms of design of the TIP, this observation led to the concept of less formal and more tacit learning, embedded in the actual workplace. The learning needed to be active and social (Webster-Wright, 2009). *Action learning* activities for both for individuals and groups were designed as part of the 'stand-alone' interventions, aimed at anchoring learning in the realities of teachers' work with international groups.

Framing theory 3: Social practices perspective on contextualisation

More than a decade ago David Boud (1999) described the chronology of shifts in approaches to academic professional development since the 1970s. All of those approaches undervalued the intensely *collegial* nature of teacher's work. However, situating academic development in professional work is now becoming recognised as essential for new practices to be internalised and implemented in the long term.

As observed in Chapter two, the practices of teachers including their attitudes, experiences of international teaching and support for curricular reform, especially IoC are influenced by their environments and their environment gets changed by their attitudes and practices. Trowler et al. present a model of a change process, based on social practice theory that could help department heads, programme leaders and change agents (2003, pp.18-19) responsible for driving innovation. There are nine points in that model of which the first four are particularly relevant the present research.

The first relates to how individuals make sense of changes for themselves:

... any innovation will be received, understood and consequently implemented differently in different contexts. (no. 1 of 9, p.18).

The second points out the importance of the location of the innovation:

The important contextual differences that affect the reception and implementation of an innovation relate to a) discipline and b) departmental context. Obviously these two factors inter-relate - but departments in the same discipline in different institutions will be different in important ways (no. 2 of 9, p.18).

The third refers to the 'local' cultures:

The history of particular departments, the identities of those within them and the way they work together are very important in understanding, and managing, how innovations are put into practice (no. 3 of 9, p.18).

The fourth relates to the affective factors in change. It warns innovators working with academics that:

Successful change, like successful learning, is a constructive process – the change is integrated into the heads and hearts of those involved. Like learned 'knowledge', the change is uniquely shaped during this process - which is sometimes referred to as acquiring 'ownership' of change but is actually broader than that (if ownership is understood as the feeling that this innovation is 'ours') (no. 4 of 9, p.18).

These points were influential especially in the design of a contextualisation tool for the third iteration in two Schools.

Framing theory 4: Implicit change theories

The broader understanding of 'ownership' mentioned in the fourth point of Trowler et al. (2003, p.18) above, was important for this research. What could 'ownership' mean in relation to the TIP? What would stimulate ownership of internationalisation of the curriculum and what role can a professional developer play?

Five categories of change theories, commonly held by innovators in higher education (Saunders, et al. 2004 pp.5-6), were introduced in chapter three (see chapter 3.3). These change theories are often implicitly held by early adopters, policy makers, managers and PD intervention designers (when part of their role includes being agents of change). Teachers participating in IoC programmes and team leaders as well as this researcher at NUAS fit these conceptions of change. The researcher's own change theory was closest to category four: *Appealing to the academics' professional imperative to improve and enrich the learning experience of students to motivate them to take changes on board.*

Quite a number of activities were designed to engage teachers in, and convince them of, the added-value that international dimensions could have for their own courses and for stimulating higher level cognitive and affective competencies in their students. What would stimulate the kind of dialogue needed for this type of engagement? Team leaders were also asked to articulate their implicit theories when planning each of the interventions.

Orientation of investigation

Educational design research generally follows one of two different orientations. One is research conducted *through* interventions, the other is research conducted *on* interventions. In the first case, a phenomenon is revealed by the responses that the intervention stimulates. The intervention is more of a means to understand the phenomenon. In the case of research *on* an intervention the inquiry is more focussed on 'characteristics and functions of particular intervention types (McKenney & Reeves, 2012, p.24). McKenney and Reeves give an example of a research question that falls into this orientation: 'How effective are the scaffolds and prompts in this serious game about computational chemistry and why?' (loc. cit.). The findings of this orientation can be helpful to others who are designing similar types of interventions. It is well suited to inquiry into curriculum designs and 'professional development e.g. environments and processes to support teacher reflection' (loc. cit.). In reality, the two orientations are not mutually exclusive, inquiry *through* interventions might be the focus in one iteration and inquiry *on* the intervention might be the focus of a later cycle (op. cit., p.160). In the case of this investigation both orientations apply. The inquiry into the domains and learning approaches is *through* the interventions but the investigation into the two modes of delivery is *on* the interventions.

Case Study

This dissertation employs qualitative case study research, defined by Merriam (1998) as 'an intensive, holistic description and analysis of a bounded phenomenon' (p.xiii).

As noted earlier, the present study is a single, embedded, exploratory study, as identified by Yin (1989). The justification for a single case study is that a deep understanding of teacher learning is best carried out with a fine grained analysis of not only interview generated insights but also data from actions (Trowler, 1998). It is also the best type of design for a research approach 'with implementation in mind' (Hakel, Socher, Beer, & Moses, 1982, title). Yin (2003) provides specific boundaries for a case study. According to him, it is an empirical inquiry that,

- 1) *investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context, especially when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident;*
- 2) *cope with the technically distinctive situation in which there will be many more variables of interest than data points: and as one result relies on multiple sources of evidence, with data needing to converge in a triangulating fashion; and as another result, benefits from the prior development of theoretical propositions to guide data collection and analysis.* (pp.13-14).

The design phase iterations and the pre-designing, design and post-design model can be interpreted as 'sub units' in Yin's terminology. According to him,

The ability to look at sub-units that are situated within a larger case is powerful... [since] data can be analysed within the subunits separately (within case analysis), between the different subunits (between case analysis), or across all of the subunits (cross-case analysis). The ability to engage in such rich analysis only serves to better illuminate the case (Yin, 2003, cited in Baxter & Jack, 2008, p.550).

Practitioner research

Because the researcher is an insider who, just as the participants, is a member of the teaching staff, the investigation has some, but not all, of the characteristics of practitioner research. A common definition of practitioner research is ... 'research carried out by practitioners for the purpose of advancing their own practice' (McLeod, 1998, p.8). It is most often associated with education or health practitioners. Practitioner research in these fields focuses on particular contexts to reveal how the practitioner's 'praxis' is

infused with complex and multilayered understandings of learners, culture, class, gender, literacy, social issues, institutions, communities, materials, texts, and curricula' (Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 1999, pp.290/291).

Such discoveries can make a 'small contribution to the human condition in that context' (Dadds, 1998, cited in Groundwater-Smith & Mockler, 2005, p.6). In practitioner teacher research, teachers and their work are themselves the basis of the investigation. Critical reflection and a systematic approach are required and the practitioner has control and ownership of the research. Practitioner research can use a range of methodologies from the family of action research. However it can also use other methods, such as case study, or narrative approaches. In fact it is 'eclectic in terms of methods' (Campbell, McNamara & Gilroy, 2004, p.80).

In this study, the researcher is a novice practitioner of professional development but an experienced practitioner of teaching. As noted in chapter 1, this difference in professional skill and competence necessarily led to tensions. However, it was possible to reveal the complex realities of the cultural environment of the NUAS in regard to internationalisation and the fields of action of the teachers primarily because of the insider position. This ability to understand contexts resonates with the signature contribution of a practitioner researcher.

Overview of the investigation

Educational design research is characterised by three phases. The first is a period of exploration and analysis known as the pre-design phase. In this phase both a situation analysis highlighting the real world problem, and a theoretical framework which will guide the process of construction, are carried out. Propositions made about the design as solution to questions and problems determine the specific artefacts.

In the TIP research, this phase lasted quite a long time because there were many disciplines involved. After the rounding off of the pre-design phase the TIP was carried on in two iterations of prototyping to groups of teachers outside of their work teams to reach a stable template. After that, there were two iterations in which aspects of the template were applied to specific work team contexts. Each iteration, as noted above, considered the propositions about design principles in terms of the components, participants, events and formative evaluation linked to theoretical considerations. Between iterations an intermediate analysis took place during which adjustments to the design and refinements of principles were made. The series of iterations was followed by a post-design phase in which a reflective analysis was carried out across the iterations and a final refinement of the principles forged.

The process was systematic although it was messier than this short description makes it appear. What must be emphasised is that analysis and evaluation alternated with actions in the sequential design phases. This interweaving led to the a) gradual refinement of the design and b) progressively clearer design principles manifested in the final heuristic. The following progression chart shows the phases of the entire TIP professional development intervention study. This research design contains the same elements that can be found in the generic model for educational design research (McKenney & Reeves, 2012, p.77). The methods identified in the next section will refer to the phases and elements of this overview.

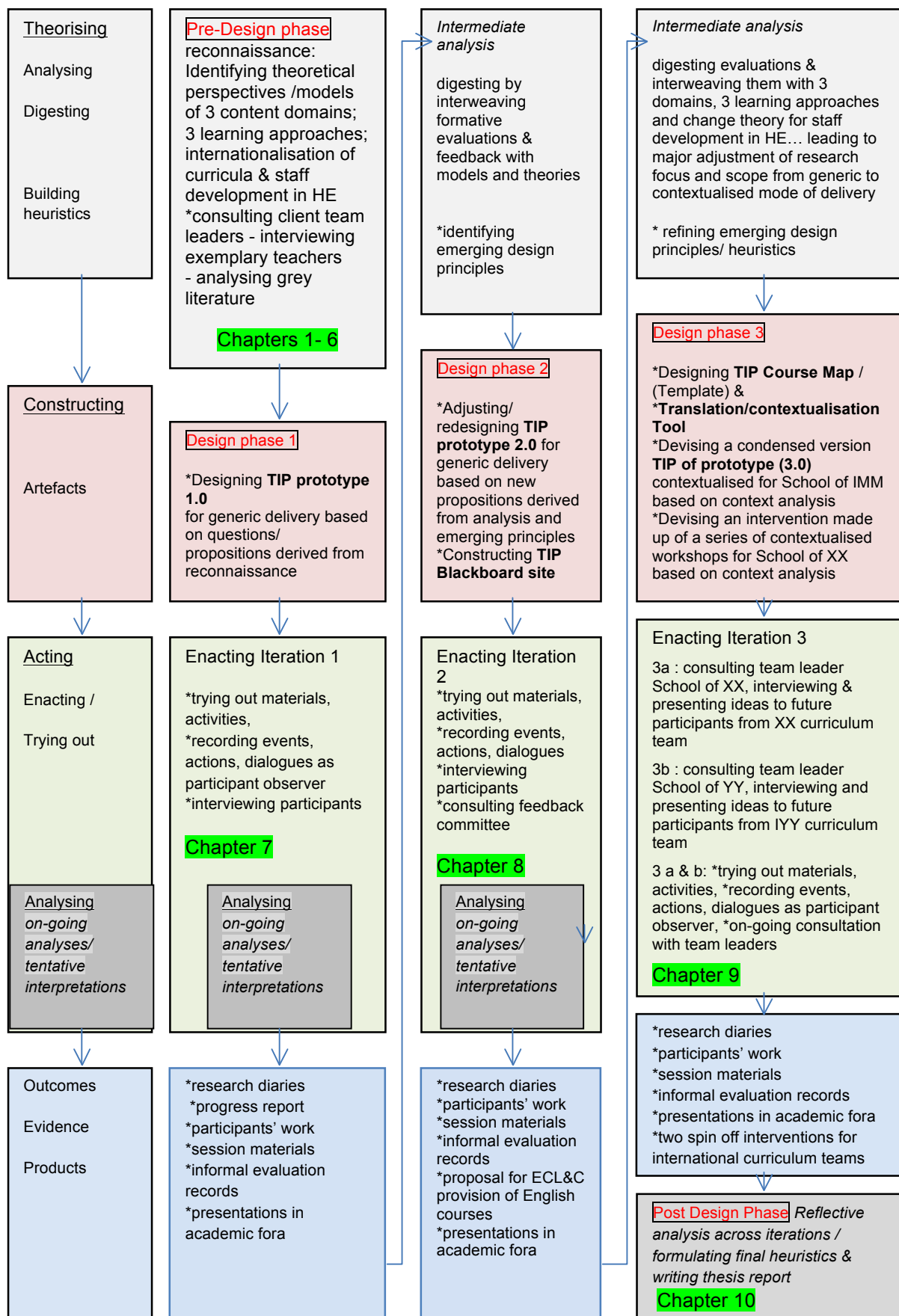


fig. 2. TIP research design progression chart

Research Questions & Scope

Research Questions

As we have seen, the aims of this study were multiple. Some lines of inquiry were focussed through interventions and others on interventions. This is a not uncommon combination in educational design studies. The phased nature of the research trajectory shown in fig. 2 allowed for 'multiple strands of inquiry' (McKenney & Reeves, 2012, pp., 185/186). To align these lines of investigation, different research questions and sub-questions were formulated in different phases.

Thus starting inductively, the sub-research questions emerged concerning multiple areas such as the current situation regarding the implementation of policies for internationalisation at the NUAS, the current situation of internationalisation of the curriculum at other universities, the initiatives to meet teachers' learning needs in particular content domains in regard to the implementation, existing learning approaches that could facilitate effective learning during a professional development intervention and existing modes of generic and contextualised delivery of professional development.

Research questions aligned to phases in the research

RQ1 How might an innovative in-service programme for internationalisation provide experiences that enhance teacher professional learning and why? (strand A: research through interventions)

Pre-design phase - Analysis & Exploration: What challenges are teachers facing and what motivates them in meeting them from their own perspective and from the perspectives of other stakeholders? What are the policy goals for successful internationalisation of the curriculum and what theories of change underscore the policies? What domains of content would be needed to meet teacher professional learning needs for internationalisation? What types of professional learning could be appropriate to support enhancing the competencies?

Design and Construction phases 1, and 2: What materials, events and activities could be provided in a programme to stimulate enhancement of the linguistic, intercultural and pedagogic competencies and how can they be sequenced and combined? What materials, events and activities could be provided in an intervention to stimulate self-directed, transcendent and practiced engendered learning in an intervention and how can they be integrated?

Post design phase - Analysis & Evaluation

Which characteristics of the in-service programme stimulated or constrained teacher professional learning for internationalisation?

RQ2: What might be a template design for a generic intervention aimed at teacher learning for internationalisation that is capable of being effectively contextualised for integration of domains and learning approaches and how might that contextualisation be carried out? (strand B: research on interventions)

Pre-design phase:

Exploration & Analysis: What existing professional development interventions could be used as models? What were the current practices in regard to professional development interventions? What characteristics might an innovative programme have?

Design phases:

Interim analysis between phases 2 and 3: Why should a programme design evolved out of stand-alone interventions be re-envisioned for embedded delivery modes?

Design and construction phase 3:

How could a programme design evolved out of stand-alone interventions be re-envisioned for embedded delivery modes for use in Schools' curricular reform or innovation? What theories and practices of contextualisation of professional development can facilitate implementation of parts of the generic intervention with curriculum teams in specific work environments?

Post design phase - Analysis & Evaluation:

What are the relative strengths and limitations of stand-alone / non-contextualised and embedded / contextualised interventions in regard to the criteria of viability, legitimacy and efficacy?

What principles can be identified for the design and implementation of sustainable, relevant and practical professional development interventions for enhancing internationalisation of the curriculum in multiple modes of delivery?

Scope & time scaling

The entire investigation process covered a period of four and a half years from late 2006 to mid 2011, as shown on table 1 below. This includes the early situation analysis and literature study at one end and the reflection and writing process at the other. The participants in the four interventions number 21 in total. The longest intervention was during iteration 2.0, which lasted for 6 months and the shortest was intervention 3A in iteration 3, which lasted 3 months. More details are given in the overviews of the data collection and analysis methods in 5.2.

Pre-design Phase Mapping the situation, formulating conceptual framework Oct 2006 to September 2007 (1 year)			
Design Phases September 2007 to June 2010 (3 academic years)			
Design Phase, Iteration no. & name	no. of participants	no. of sessions	Dates of enactment
Design Phase 1 Iteration 1 analysis from outcomes pre-design phase / first design September 2007 to June 2008			
TIP Prototype 1.0 referred to as the TIP pilot (TIPP) intervention	6, from 3 Schools Generic mode	11 content sessions of 2 hours, mostly weekly	March 2008 until June 2008 enactment
Design Phase 2 Iteration 2 intermediate analysis - second designing & intermediate analysis / final design September 2008 to April 2009			
TIP Prototype 2.0 referred to as: Corporate Academy TIP (CA TIP) intervention	6 from 4 Schools Generic mode	12 content sessions of 2 hours, mostly weekly - 6 sub-group or individual sessions	November 2008 to March 2009 - sub-group or individual sessions until mid-May 2009 enactment
Design Phase 3 Iteration 3 Interventions 3a & 3b Design of contextualisation tool & final template May 2009 to June 2012			
Three A (3a) referred to as: TIP elements in School of XXX intervention	7 from School of XX Contextualised mode	4 sessions of 3 hours Several weeks apart	November 2009 to February 2010 enactment
Three B (3b) TIP version 3.0 referred to as: TIP in School of IYY intervention	2 from School of IYY Contextualised mode	8 sessions of two hours, mostly weekly	November 2009 to April 2010, enactment plus knowledge sharing group to June 2010
Post-design Phase reflective analysis / formulating heuristics, giving workshops June 2010 to August 2011 (14 months)			

table 1. scope of the research

5.2 Data Collection & Analysis Methods

As the research questions show, there were shifts in the focus of the investigation over the phases. In this section the methods are described generically as they were used in all phases. Later, in section 5.3, an overview is given of research questions connected to the specific methods used to explore the data for each phase as they will be dealt with in the Chapters 6, 7, 8 & 9.

Participants and selection; generic view

The core participants were all experienced university teachers, while other members of the university were less directly involved but still active as stakeholders in the research. These non-core participants included team leaders who are the direct line managers of the teachers, functionaries of three central staff offices (of HRM, Academic Matters & Research, and Internationalisation). The students enrolled in international programmes were also, of course, important stakeholders. Members of the university who may be regarded as experts were a few of the educational advisors from the office of Educational Matters & Research, who provide professional development interventions. In addition a number of teachers of English who conducted Classroom English courses for teachers may be considered experts as well.

Regarding selection, the TIP was not an official professional development programme. No teachers were obliged to take part and no rewards, such as an end qualification, were offered. Under these conditions it was decided to hold a series of informative presentations to attract voluntary participants. Two of these took place within two Schools, and one university wide through the Internationalisation team's open staff study day. Therefore recruitment was pragmatic. This had advantages since it meant that the TIP would need to stimulate interest and engagement for completely unselected learners. This provided an opportunity to be inclusive and to investigate differences between teachers of any type. The negative side of such an open policy was that the presence of learners with greatly different levels of commitment to the internationalisation of the curriculum in the same group was a possibility. In the next chapters the actual participants of each iteration are identified in detail. What is important to note here is that the pragmatic recruitment produced a rather strongly positive group of teacher-learners in the first iteration. The majority of them already knew the researcher and several had followed a 'Classroom English' course with her, while the teachers of the second iteration were from farther afield. None of them were acquainted with the researcher in advance. The smallest set of participants, in intervention 3b, consisted of two teachers who were colleagues of several teachers from iteration 2. Their team leader supported their involvement strongly. The curriculum team of intervention 3a decided as a group to accept an invitation to follow several workshops focussed on internationalisation of the curriculum.

During phase 1, a feedback committee of 10 was formed. Some of the members were policy staff officers from the HRM, professional development and internationalisation teams. A student was also asked to be on the committee, as well as a fellow international teacher. The two team leaders who sponsored the TIP were on the committee as well. The supervisors of the dissertation also sat in the committee. The members were identified by the researcher as stakeholders whose reactions and suggestions would be valuable for the TIP as project and for the dissertation process. This was explained to them as the purpose of the committee when they were invited to join, and they all agreed to this purpose.

Instrumentation

Studying professional development on a small scale in one site, as the TIP was studied, is a good example of both a formative development research and an explorative case study. As

Yin (2003) makes clear case studies use multiple sources of evidence, another way of describing instrumentation. The sources identified as common in case studies by Yin are: documentation (participant or indirect); interviews and observation. It is perhaps not surprising that these three were the main data collection instruments in this study.

Documentary Data: Primary and Secondary Sources

Primary Sources

This being a single site investigation it was essential to collect as many relevant primary sources as possible. In the pre-design phase relevant primary sources produced at the university, starting in 2003, were collected. Other primary sources were articles in the university newspaper related to internationalisation. The base line survey and data of two Schools were studied.

Another source of documentary data were materials developed during the design. The TIP design was based on traditional learning materials, such as designer made activities and exercises, self-assessment forms, commercial materials for learning from the disciplines of the domains and the like. Over time an intranet site (Blackboard) made almost all the materials available to any staff member of the university. In this phase prototype 1.0 was used. This included a study guide with an overview of the goals and topics of the programme. Also learning materials were either made or taken from published sources relating to internationalisation of the curriculum, exercises on English language skills, intercultural communication and awareness workshop exercises and discussion pieces on pedagogic issues using authentic cases. Specific materials will be identified in the design narrative.

Secondary Sources

Because this phase was crucial to the evolution of the conceptual framing of the investigation it may be redundant to list the secondary sources found and consulted. However, it may also not be amiss to state again what areas were studied. Research reports, books, analytical articles in academic journals from several academic and scientific fields were collected. These focussed on internationalisation at the national and supra national level, internationalisation at curriculum level, and more specific studies of internationalisations such as those highlighting the situation of students. Further studies from the fields of higher education professional development, intercultural communication and awareness, English as language of instruction, pedagogic issues of international teaching were consulted. Works from the fields of workplace learning in the widest sense, and organisational cultural change were also collected and studied. As many similar interventions as could be found in reports on research into such interventions, numbering less than 20, were collected.

The externally accessible webpages for staff development of three Dutch universities were consulted to find out what kind of professional support was offered and if there were required competences or qualifications for academic staff regarding international stream programmes.

Empirical Data: Interviews

Teacher-participants, numbering 21 over the three iterations, were interviewed using a protocol (see endnote) based on Fanghanel (2007) who employed a sociocultural approach. Fanghanel identified 'agentic behaviours' as missing factors in the theories about university teachers. She identifies seven filters to this agentic behaviour in all. Four of these operate at

the macro level of practice: the institution; external factors; academic labour and the research-teaching nexus; while two others operate at the meso level: department (or equivalent); and the disciplines. The final filter works at the micro level of individual pedagogical beliefs. These were semi-structured interviews lasting one hour.

Other interviewees were approached as respondents and informants. The first were the team leaders involved in the phases. Thus the two team leaders who sponsored the programme were interviewed in the pre-design phase and again in the first design phase. Thereafter as many of the team leaders of the participants as possible were interviewed during the relevant phase. Also in the pre-design phase two colleague teachers were interviewed.

Empirical Data: Participant Observation

Participant observation has been used by sociologists and anthropologists since the 1940s. It is becoming increasingly common in education studies as it allows for naturalistic data collection. It has been said that participant observation is more of an approach than a method as there are a range of techniques to carry out observations. In this investigation field notes were the primary, but not the only, instrument of collecting observation data. The sessions were not videoed or sound recorded (except for 5 presentations during phase 2). However after each session and when possible, during a session, immediate impressions (snapshot notes) were written down, incorporating vignettes of practice and direct quotes. The aim was for them to be neutral, letting the facts speak for themselves. After the snapshot notes, a reflection was written attempting to make sense of what had happened.

Data collection Procedures

Specifics of procedures are given as part of the narratives in Chapter 6 – 9. Here the basic procedural approaches are given only.

Empirical Data Procedures

Interviews

Teachers were asked to come at their convenience. It was not possible to conduct the interviews before the interventions except for intervention 3b. Pre- and post-interview notes were made and interviews transcribed. They were digitally recorded. An exception was that several of the interviews in intervention 3b were in Dutch and were not recorded or translated, at the request of the interviewees. The transcripts were sent to the teachers involved for their correction. One draft of an article using comments from the interviews was sent to the relevant interviewees, no one had objections or corrections to the article or transcription.

Participant validation / evaluation procedures

Halfway through an enactment of iterations 1, 2 and 3 (intervention 3b), when the TIP programme or a variant of it was being followed, the participants were asked for an informal evaluation of their programme. The trigger questions were: 'What have you liked so far?' and 'What should be adjusted for the second half?' Also a final evaluation was asked for during the last session. The trigger questions were 'What did you, as a group, do to make this programme work?' And 'What needs to change for the next group?' In both evaluation moments field notes were taken in real time. After the first intervention only, a proposed re-design of the programme was shown to the teachers a week after the last evaluation session and their reactions to it were recorded in the diary afterwards and used in the intermediate

analysis between iterations and after the end of the design phase. The formative feedback from intervention 3a when the TIP programme was not being followed, came during the second session, thus also halfway through the intervention.

Minutes were distributed after each of the feedback committee meetings and members had the opportunity to respond. Transcripts were made of the first two meetings only.

Participant observation procedures

Entries into the research diaries were made immediately after every session, capturing from memory as many elements of the session as possible. Some quotes of teachers were written up in real time while the teachers were having a discussion amongst themselves. Otherwise they were written later the same day, sometimes from short notes made during the sessions. The sessions were held weekly, the diary entry, which included a record of the session plan, the actual events of the session and any quotes, was completed by the following morning. Between any two sessions a re-reading of the diary was carried out. This activity ensured that before each new session, data from the last could be taken into account and it generated a habit of reflection. Comments and observations about problems and effective activities or materials were added as marginal notes.

Data Analysis Methods

Although data collection and analysis are presented sequentially (in the conventional manner) it must not be forgotten that this research approach intertwines data collection and data analysis in a process that is recursive. Data collection in case studies is emergent. Thus, data collected at one point must be stored systematically as it may influence decisions of later data collection (Dooley, 2002). Below the main methods of analysis are given as they applied generically to all of the iterations. The methods can be considered to fall under the category of comparative triangulation, that is, comparing outcomes across iterations and on-going consulting of sources. Thus propositions derived from one intervention, like the claim that offering mini self-study programmes for English would stimulate self-directedness, were compared with the frequency with which users took advantage of such mini-programmes in the next iteration, allowing such claims to be analysed as the events evolved. This is pattern identification to 'articulate rival theoretical propositions in operational terms' (Yin, 1984, p.105). The alternating approach helped to challenge the designer's strategies and to maintain a degree of vigilance about realities on the ground (Bogdan, & Biklen, 2003). It also helped to triangulate theories and voices in the analysis.

Documentary Data Analysis

During the pre-design phase content analysis was used for primary sources. One focus was on changes in the way that key terms were defined or described in successive documents, for example, the term, 'international dimension'. Another focus was on the different types of performance indicators (PIs) used by different Schools in their annual progress reports. Analysis of secondary documents was based on content within and comparison between articles. The research reports of similar interventions were compared and a selection was made. These became exemplars that were consulted during the design process. They were discussed in chapter three.

Analysis of documents in the subsequent design phases built on the analyses carried out in the pre-design phase. That is to say, certain models, for example, the model of complex learning of Illeris and the model of context and learning factors of Eraut were identified in the pre-design conceptual framing. After an iteration was over these models were used to analyse the outcomes of the iteration's enactments. For example, it became clear that the

model of Illeris was accurate in showing how the complexity of a certain task carried out by participants in iteration 1 stimulated accommodative learning. It was therefore possible to confirm the model and feel confident to use it in the revised design. The context and learning factors of Eraut on the other hand were difficult to evaluate. The details of this analysis are described in the design narrative of iteration 2.0.

Empirical Data Analysis

Interviews Analysis

The teacher-participant interview transcripts were analysed on the basis of the 7 filters to agentic behaviour identified by Fanghanel (2007). The filters revealed that teachers' self-constructs regarding their level of agency differed for the micro level of their own teaching, the macro level of the university's policies, the meso level of the pressures of work in their teams and finally, a wider external macro environment relating the interviewee's area in global educational markets. These self-constructs were collected across the interviews and clustered thematically. The main themes were 'Personal triggers to initially take part and continue to take part in international teaching', 'Effectiveness of Classroom English courses', 'Relative work load of Dutch to English streams', 'Critical incidents in assessment of international students', 'Experiences of support by management' and 'Perceived learning needs'.

Analysis of the team leader interviews was different. These were unstructured and opportunistic interviews that sometimes were combined with consultation about the programme. There were recordings and transcripts of several of these interviews but not of all. When a recording was made selections were transcribed and analysed for common elements such as attitudes to when and how teachers were permitted to participate in professional development, or what their personal vision was for internationalisation of the curriculum.

Participant Observation Analysis

In the intermediate analysis that took place immediately after an iteration's enactment the memos were important in decisions taken for the revised design. For example a 'methods memo' (May) summarised all of the logistic problems experienced in relation to both the action research projects and the self-study opportunities. This memo was used to decide on a longer programme in the next iteration during which group sessions would precede smaller, more individual, sessions. The description of the failure of the self-study component and the non-realisation of action research projects in iteration 1 and how they were analysed is found in the design narrative of iteration 1.

Participant validation and/or evaluations Analysis

The main method was reflective analysis which "involves a decision by the researcher to rely on his or her own intuition and personal judgment to analyse the data rather than on technical procedures involving explicit category classification systems (Gall et al. 1996, cited in Dooley, 2002, p.343). In other words, when formative evaluations were made they were first recorded in the diary, and then the researcher's personal judgement was set down in marginal comments as well as in a personal memo.

The feedback committee meetings were analysed by a personal memo written by the researcher. These memos summarised the key positive and negative feedback offered during meetings.

5.3 Data Collection & analysis methods per phase

The following break down into phases and chapters is based on the research design of Kouwenhoven (2003).

Pre-design phase: The TIP tale: Mapping the situation

On the following page, the research questions and sources of data are set out on table. The narrative recounts the period of the academic year of 2006/2007. It describes the reconnaissance of the situation at the NUAS. The focus is on understanding the complexities of what teachers were facing in regard to the innovation of internationalisation and the responses to that complexity offered as solutions both in the organisation itself and in the literature of professional development. In this phase the designing had not yet begun but elements that influenced the design were identified. The main results of the literature study which directed the design were presented in Chapters 1, 2, 3, and 4.

In mapping the situation, a platform of ideas evolved. The platform 'provides the terminology and concepts to pose issues, to describe alternatives and to frame arguments' (Van den Berg, 1999, p 72). It included ideas derived from several sources such as experiences of classroom English course teachers that highlighted strengths and limitations of existing PD, interviews with two teachers that revealed their lukewarm affiliation to official policy and what actually motivated them to be engaged, a series of meetings and consultations with the sponsoring team leaders which provided insights at the management level as well as feedback on ideas for the programme. More informal sources of information were conversations with students and colleagues throughout the period. These were sometimes jotted down in the field notes diary as illustrations of opinions.

The informal interviews/consultations conducted with the two team leader were summarised immediately after the meetings. The summary was recorded in a research diary. There was no formal analysis. The summaries were compared and key strategies of the two team leaders were identified. These strategies were used in subsequent interviews with team leaders in 2009. The data from the two 'colleague teacher interviews' on the other hand, were analysed using a coding paradigm taken from the grounded theory approach. This included 4 'axial' categories of: Causal condition; Context; Action/Interaction Strategies; Consequences of Strategies (Corbin & Strauss, 1990, p.96). These axial categories formed the basis of a mind-mapping tool designed for use in sessions (see Annex p.15). The policy documents were analysed for content as described on page 126. Both of the main strands of the investigation were addressed.

Pre-design phase Research Sub-Questions	Analysis of data from primary sources	Analysis of data from actors
1.1 What challenges are teachers facing and what motivates them in meeting them from their own perspective and from the perspectives of other key stakeholders?	-University policy documents	-Interviews with 2 teachers -Interviews & informal consultations with other teachers and students -Comments from other Classroom English teachers
1.2 What are the policy goals for successful internationalisation of the curriculum and what theories of change underscore the policies?	-Base line survey 2006 -policy documents -reports from Internationalisation team	
1.3 What domains of content would be needed to meet teacher professional learning needs for internationalisation?	-Base line survey 2006 regarding personal qualities and English proficiency levels	-Interviews with 2 teachers -Interviews & consultation with team leaders -Comments from other Classroom English teachers
1.4 What types of professional learning could be appropriate to support enhancing the competencies?	-Same as 1.3	-Same as 1.3
2.1 What existing professional development interventions could be used as models?	-University policy documents with PIs -Report on Classroom English	Interviews with 2 teachers -Interviews & consultation with team leaders
2.2 What were the current practices in regard to professional development interventions?	-Annual reports of Deans on IoC activities in relation to PIs	-Field notes after university wide workshops -Comments from other Classroom English teachers
2.3 What characteristics might an innovative programme have	-Previous exemplars	Same as 2.2

table 2. data collection and analysis during the pre-design phase

Design phase 1, Iteration 1: The TIP tale: Piloting the routes

Having identified the conceptual frames with the domains and learning approaches in the pre-design phase, the narrative of the first design phase offered analysis of the setting and participants of the first iteration in Chapter 7. The period covered was from September 2007 to June 2008. The characteristics of the prototype of the programme TIP 1.0, (see Annex pp.92/93) were described including materials, learning goals, and activities in relation to propositions derived from the situation analysis and concepts of domain transcendence, independence and embeddedness.

Key events of the sessions of the intervention were analysed on the basis of the observation tools, that is, the diary, memos, and participants' work already described. These tools recorded answers to the questions regarding what activities and materials were used to stimulate combined domain learning and different learning approaches (Sub RQs 1.1. and 1.2 on table 3 below). They did this by means of providing quantitative data on how often activities and materials of a particular type were used but also qualitative data such as participants' comments or examples of participants dialogues, illustrating whether the propositions were working or not working. The comments were analysed in relation to the propositions by linking them to candidate explanations. The interviews were analysed using the six themes identified on pages 122-123. The outcome of the interview-analysis was a matrix clustering the themes quantitatively. This matrix was added to the research diary as an aid to understanding of the contexts and motivations of teachers who had all volunteered to teach international stream programmes. Formative feedback of participants on the first prototype was analysed by clustering and counting the types of comments according to how positive they were regarding the learning experiences of teachers. The chapter analysed these results in terms of both the learning approaches and the 3 domains. The sub-research questions for the first main question are given in table 3 below, which shows data for analysis used during the first phase. The data in the columns of: programme materials, field note and actors are not aligned horizontally with each other. Further there is no priority of the types of data in each column vertically.

Piloting the routes- Design phase 1 Sub- research Question	Analysis of data from programme materials	Analysis of data from field notes	Data from actors
RQ 1: How might an innovative in-service programme for internationalisation provide experiences that enhance teacher professional learning and why?			
1.1. What materials, events and activities could be provided in a programme to stimulate enhancement of the linguistic, intercultural and pedagogic competencies and how can they be sequenced and combined?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Outcomes English exercises -Intercultural articles and exercises excerpts from articles about IoC -Self-study materials -Self-assessments 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Field notes of sessions & observations in diary -Personal memos 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Consultation with professional developers -Teachers' work
1.2. What materials, events and activities could be provided in an intervention to stimulate self-directed, transcendent and practiced engendered learning in an intervention and how can they be integrated?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Self-study materials -Programme description & outline 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Field notes of sessions & observations in diary -Progress report 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Interviews with teachers -Meetings with feedback committee -Written reflections from teachers on their learning

table 3. data collection and analysis during design phase 1

Design phase 2, Iteration 2 The TIP tale: From Piloting to a full trial

The second design phase lasted from September 2008 to April 2009. The actual intervention sessions started in November. The setting had changed considerably because the TIP was not simply a free voluntary professional development avenue but offered for a fee through the university's official professional development site, the Corporate Academy. Thus the narrative sets out some of the background to the Corporate Academy. It also recounted how the 6 participants came to join the TIP. Then changes in the characteristics of the programme in the second prototype are given (see Annex p.94/95). This iteration was the last trial of the programme in stand-alone form. The narrative of the sessions illustrated with examples taken from the research diary into how theories of embeddedness, self-directedness and transcendence were tried out in a real world environment of challenging group dynamics and difficult logistics.

The data that this environment generated were captured in the diary, in teacher presentations, in interviews and in a number of occurrences of informative feedback, once in a group session, once with the feedback committee and three times in individual post-session one-to-one conversations which the results of the narrative show. The tools and methods of analysis were the same as those used for iteration 1.

Sub-research questions for each of the two main questions were answered using data collected for analysis during the second phase, as shown in table 4 below.

From piloting to full trial-Design phase 2 Sub-research Questions	Analysis of data from programme materials	Analysis of data from field notes	Data from actors
RQ 1: How might an innovative in-service programme for internationalisation provide experiences that enhance teacher professional learning and why?			
1.1 What materials, events and activities could be provided in a programme to stimulate enhancement of the linguistic, intercultural and pedagogic competencies and how can they be sequenced and combined?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Outcomes from English exercises -Intercultural articles and exercises excerpts from articles about IoC -Self-study materials -Self-assessments 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Field notes of sessions & observations in diary 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Consultation with professional developers -Teachers' presentations -Teachers' session records
1.2 What materials, events and activities could be provided in an intervention to stimulate self-directed, transcendent and practiced engendered learning in an intervention and how can they be integrated?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Self-study materials -Programme outline 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Field notes of sessions & observations in diary -Personal analytical memo 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Interviews with teachers -Meetings with feedback committee -Teachers' action research plans

table 4. data collection and analysis during design phase

Design phase 3, Iteration 3, The TIP tale: Going local, contextualisation of design and delivery in Schools

The third design phase narrative recounts the shift from the stand alone programme delivery to the design of embedded delivery. This shift allowed for the exploration of the second aim of this research in the period from spring (May) of 2009 to the end of the academic year in June 2010. It began with an evaluation and analysis for the purposes of research of both of the first iterations as a model of a stand-alone delivery. This analysis used theories, models and literature from the fields reviewed earlier, linking them to the experiences of the first two iterations. The evaluation led to the decision to shift the research focus to an embedded delivery model.

The final stabilisation of the three domains resulted in an integrated template (Annex, pp.96/97). This template was able to be used for either a stand-alone delivery programme or as a platform of materials and activities that could be selected for highly targeted interventions. In order to understand the traditions and practices of the members of each team in their own setting it was necessary to develop a new tool (Annex p.98). The analytical justification of the tool was recounted together with its outcomes in the setting and participants of each intervention. The sub-research questions for each of the two main strands are answered using data collected for analysis during the third phase as shown in table 5. The informal interviews with two team leaders were conducted and analysed using the same method as had been used in the pre-design with the two sponsoring team leaders in 2006/07. Results of the interviews with teachers in both intervention 3a and 3b were added to the matrix based on the six interview themes already identified.

Going local-Design phase 3 Sub-research Questions	Analysis of data from programme materials	Analysis of data from field notes	Data from actors
RQ 2: What might be a template design for a generic intervention aimed at teacher learning for internationalisation that is capable of being effectively contextualised for integrated domains and learning approaches and how might that contextualisation be carried out?			
2.1 Why should a programme design evolved out of stand-alone interventions be re-envisioned for embedded delivery modes?	-Data from Secondary sources literature from Chapter 3 on -Professional development -Typologies	-Research diaries of interventions 1 & 2	-Teachers' formative feedback from iterations 1 & 2 -Consultation with feedback committee -Consultation with educational advisor
2.2 How could a programme design evolved out of stand-alone interventions be re-envisioned for both generic and embedded delivery modes (for use in Schools' curricular reform or innovation)?	-Suggested programme outline 3b -Plans & materials 3a	-Research diaries and Results of literature study Chapter 3	

table 5. data collection and analysis during phase 3.

5.4 Issues of validity & limitations

Insider practitioner bias

As a rule design researchers work in teams. Teamwork is to be recommended for several reasons. One of these is logistic, in that design of a curriculum at a large educational institution is simply too great an endeavour for one researcher. A major innovation may involve multiple sites, hundreds of end-users and it may take many years. From a research perspective there are also reasons that teamwork is preferable. Even when individuals construct components on their own they 'collaborate to generate, connect and refine ideas' because working together 'stimulates convergent development' (McKenney & Reeves, 2012, p.112). As Joseph observes, design research projects in education commonly have three types of front line actors, 'designers, researchers and implementing teachers' (2004, p.236). By way of contrast, she presented an example of a project which she designed, (partly) conducted, and investigated by herself. This created 'a unique opportunity for observing the ways that design questions, research questions, and questions of practice can feed and flow into one another' (Joseph, 2004, p.36). In effect because the feedback loops are small, here too, synergies are stimulated. There are more examples: Van den Akker stated (1999) that especially in formative development research, a single designer who also implements the trials as practitioner is not unknown. Despite the convincing case that Joseph makes, it cannot be denied that a lone designer-researcher-practitioner's project has strong limitations and particular threats to validity.

As practitioner research is carried out more often by a single insider researcher the literature concerning the difficulties is quite extensive and sophisticated. The most commonly voiced criticism of insider practitioner research is that it has an unquestioning insider viewpoint that limits its objectivity (Herr & Anderson, 1999). An additional criticism is that practitioners are often too close to their clients. A review of five major studies of higher education innovations notes that many of the interviewees were too close to the policy elites of their universities, giving these results the flavour of an 'insider case study'. The reviewer remarked that such studies' 'pitfalls are now becoming increasingly well known' (Fulton, 2001, p.82).

Within social work and health studies research Shaw (2002, p.1233) identified several potential pitfalls of practitioner research, one of which echoes the already identified bias concern:

It often has a client-donor relationship to social service agencies, and hence a restricted notion of usefulness. This is true even when the research is 'practitioner-owned' ...More generally, even when free of this relationship it has a too unquestioning insider standpoint.

Steps taken to deal with insider bias in this study were first, asking members of the team of professional developers from the staff office to act as sparring partners or critical friends. One member of the team committed himself to this task when he was able to find time for it. The few consultations with him helped to identify blind areas in the structure of the programme. However the meetings were never arranged on a structural basis. Second, insider bias of the type that leads to an unquestioning stand point was mitigated by the researcher being something of an outsider within. This is partly due to the researcher not being a native of the Netherlands or a member of the Professional Development team. Third, the feedback committee was set up to challenge the researcher's unspoken assumptions.

Finally, that the TIP might be unsuccessful was anticipated. Following the principles of development / educational design research meant that identification of heuristics for teacher support for internationalisation were more important than the success of the intervention itself. In this way, bias towards success was lowered. The aims in this case were to understand teacher professional learning and try out modes of delivery, not to make a highly acclaimed and popular programme although that would have been a welcome spin off.

Validity challenges in formative developmental research

A formative developmental research has its own particular areas of concern. These are problems consistently encountered by researchers or are researcher generated dilemmas (Van den Akker, 1999, pp.11-12):

a) Tension in the role division between development and research

Some of the difficulties encountered filling multiple roles were noted in the first chapter and immediately above. Van den Akker notes that the desire to create a good design can take over from the researcher's need to step back and be critical. It is the creative perspective of the research that is most important in the early stages and the critical perspective in the final or latter stages. In this context the 'critical friend' from the PD team already referred to was important. In addition to his comments, the constructive feedback of the participants themselves helped not only to develop the programme but to stimulate the wider research as well. After all, they were experienced practitioners who develop modules and courses themselves and they understood the tensions very well.

b) Isolating critical variables versus comprehensive and complex design

The flexibility required for iterative development demands there be 'less strict methodological precision' than maintained in experimental research. However, especially with a long trajectory there is a real concern that organisational pressures, new events or other changes taking place during the data collecting phase may require a change in foci or procedures. In this case, although many changes indeed took place during the iterations and new artefacts and revised research questions evolved, they did not require the greater aims of the research to change. In fact, ironically, the strongest threat would have been a very successful second iteration (which did not occur). Even the modest success that it did have triggered pressure to offer the TIP again as a generic PD course through the Corporate Academy.

c) Generalisation of findings

This is a tension encountered in various types of interpretive research, not only EDR. Simply put, the data collection samples are too small for statistical validity. Van den Akker et al. (2006) agree with Hoadley in that they also advocate for careful, 'thick' descriptions of the process and a 'clear theoretical articulation of design principles'. This will go far to mitigating against the difficulty of generalisation. As seen, the solution applied to this project was to record each phase as a narrative.

Limitations

There are several areas in which the research was constrained or less than optimal. First, the lack of a connection to an EDR research community meant that a novice had few opportunities to learn from experienced researchers. Added to this was the researcher's position within the organization as a teacher of English, with no formal attachment to the professional development staff already mentioned. Both of these seriously limited this project. If the investigation had been less marginal, more embedded in the organisational structures, other problems would no doubt have arisen but the inability to acquire sufficient time and resources for the teachers to be able to carry out individual projects meant that only future research can investigate their value. Not only that but it was not possible for them to be co-researchers or collaborators in the development of the TIP to the extent that they could have been. Other limitations are perhaps more prosaic, such as the lack of recording of sessions. Video recordings would have been a better way to capture the process.

Validity criteria of the TIP investigation from the perspective practitioner research

Regarding validity, Herr & Anderson pointed out that the criteria for practitioner research are still in flux (1999, pp. 15-16). They suggested a fivefold validity criteria check list. Each research project should be judged by at least some of the following but which are essential depends on the particular project.

- 1. Outcome validity.** When practitioner research results in actual solutions to the problems posed this can be a criterion for success. The solutions should be relevant to those who had the original problem.
- 2. Process validity.** Is there evidence for the claims made? Is the process transparent? Were mainstream qualitative criteria like triangulation used? Simply employing the correct methods is not sufficient. The reconstruction of the process must be authentic as well.
- 3. Democratic validity.** A practitioner research that does not take stakeholders into account and does not try to involve them as much as possible is not good research. It also implies that the solutions are appropriate to those involved in that particular context.
- 4. Catalytic validity.** How far has the research stimulated those involved to look at the issues or problems with other eyes? Everyone should have a deeper understanding of the social reality in question and some must have the urge at least to do something about it. Also changes in the practitioners own understanding is part of this criterion.
- 5. Dialogic validity.** Insider research needs to be critiqued as we have seen. Critical friends, a feedback committee, presentations in open arenas, all of these contribute to dialogic validity.

These criteria will be discussed in the final chapter of this dissertation.

Validity through feedback

Elliott (1991) has given guidelines for insider research, such as cross-checking eye witness accounts, giving individuals opportunities to reply, presenting alternative descriptions, monitoring evidence by using a range of techniques from a range of angles and distinguishing intended from unintended effects. (p.76). The current research included many types of data collection such as macro level stakeholder interviews and documentary analysis in addition to the participants' authentic spoken and written communications in order to address the need for triangulation

A summary of feedback structures

Feedback on thesis research

1. The findings from the pre-design phase and the first iteration were presented publicly in the form of a progress report. This included preliminary results of interviews held with the participants, and the first capturing of what happened during pilot sessions. The report itself was discussed with supervisors and a reflection based on it was presented at the Society for Research in Higher Education conference in 2008.
2. As noted earlier the feedback committee was consulted on 5 occasions the first time during iteration 1 and the last during iteration 3
3. Students' perspectives on how international their teachers are, was investigated and findings presented in an open sessions to which TIP participants were invited.

Feedback on the Programme

1. The TIP had an intranet site in which major stakeholders were enrolled. All significant documents were freely accessible on it. Stakeholders were able to give their responses to these documents in a discussion forum on the site.
2. The training materials developed were offered to the Corporate Academy coordinators and the members of the Internationalisation Team for their feedback.
3. The various Institutes whose teachers took part in the TIP were offered workshops during faculty study days.
4. On two occasions there was a chance to show the programme to a member of the PD team. His comments were very critical and very helpful.

Conclusion

As many researchers have experienced, and as Hodkinson, Biesta, Gleeson, James, and Postlewaite (2005) remark in a rueful marginal note, “there are ethical and epistemological tensions in any project that, on the one hand, is serious about conducting rigorous independent research but on the other hand, remains dependent on a close collaboration with particular interests that are at the same time, subjects of the research, in this case practitioners (page 8). This tension was a factor throughout the current study. The on-going consultation with supervisors, the TIP participants, the feedback committee and the students were essential to achieving rigour in this context.

One term could perhaps serve as a red thread through the convictions of the many researchers and scholars of practitioner research and educational design research. As one after another have stressed, it is not this or that method, this or that procedure that makes an inquiry successful. The term is ‘goodness of fit’ a term first used by Myers (1985). When there is goodness of fit, the product of an inquiry is presented in an open dialogue in which the suitability of the inquiry is vigorously and convincingly argued (Herr and Anderson, 1999, p.16). It means that the appropriate methods have been used. It also implies that changes should, or at least can, be made during the process of the inquiry when the ‘fit’ requires it. Goodness of fit as umbrella concept of validity can mean that the institution and the greater (professional) community can accept the researcher’s findings and process.

It was Stake who reminded researchers that evaluation of qualitative research can be more thoughtful, experiential and holistic (2002). Discernment of the good is what he wants to be made central to the judgment of an investigation. The division of evaluation into formative and summative is starting to chafe. A better way to see the different forms of evaluation is related to its purpose. If the aim is to satisfy a client, then an audit evaluation that accounts for what happened is most appropriate. When the research is undertaken as a form of consultancy, as a critical friendship, then it can be a kind of formative evaluation aimed at improvement. It finds missteps and inconsistencies. The third type of evaluation is one that most suits academic inquiry. It is evaluation, not to audit or to improve but to understand. This is the kind of evaluation that puts research as the core of any development project (Baume, 2003, pp.89-90).

Endnote

Interview protocol

Generic Introduction:

This interview is part of my own research, your task is simply to answer questions as objectively and fully as you can, primarily as respondent but also a bit as informant, telling me about your experiences and views on the internationalising of the curriculum and how it is affecting your work and the work of colleagues in your teams. It should last about one hour.

Guarantee of anonymity:

Everything I am recording is only for my own better understanding of teachers' situations and I will not show it to anyone else. I may of course use excerpts in the final thesis. Further, I will give you the recording as soon as the interview is over if you would like to have it. Also, I will present you with a draft of the final thesis and any interim reports which makes use of data from this interview in order to let you read it and make adjustments if you wish them before you approve of its contents, on request. Only after you understand these terms and agree to them, will I start the interview.

Method: The questions have been arranged into 7 areas, called filters, according to the model developed by Dr. Joelle Fanghangel. (2007).

Filter 1. teacher beliefs and perspectives – micro level

1. How did you come to participate in an international programme? What led up to it? What triggered your decision? (language...experiences...etc.) What motivated you then and has that motivation changed?

1a. What are your experiences, both positive and less positive for you personally, so far? Can you connect them to your personal motivation?

1b. What, if any, changes in your ideas and beliefs about 'good teaching' have you noticed since teaching in international settings?

1c. What differences, if any, have you noticed in your ability to teach Dutch students compared to teaching international students?

1d. What are the reasons you personally would choose for including international elements into educational programmes, if at all?

Filter 2 University wide contexts – macro level

2. What do you think about the university strategy and policy towards internationalisation? What are the main characteristics and rationales of the internationalisation policy as far as you are familiar with them? Are these rationales and characteristics as set out in policy statements the same as your personal ones? (For example, do you think that prestige, marketing, social and cultural diversity, creating a more dynamic student population or other aims are important to the B of G?)

2a. Have measures taken so far by the central management, including the internationalisation team of the central office, been enabling or constraining for you and colleagues in your experience?

2b. What kinds of support have you been offered thus far to you and your colleagues from central management? Did these forms of support meet all your needs?

Filter 3 Discipline - meso level

3. What changes have you noticed in your own discipline due to internationalisation? Are new theories and approaches, new insights etc. coming up?

3a. What changes has internationalisation made to the students' career prospects, if any and how does that affect your teaching?

3b. What factors have helped you in adapting your discipline to international groups?

3c. What opportunities have you had to engage with international colleagues?

Filter 4 current language / culture nexus – meso level

4. How much does intercultural competency have to do with internationalisation in your opinion?

4a. How have you been able to incorporate intercultural aspects in you teaching, if at all?

4b. What are your experiences with intercultural project groups? Can you describe any particular incidents that have stayed in your mind?

4b. What is the role played by English language in your work with students, colleagues, etc.? What learning goals do you have regarding English, if any?

4c. What opportunities have you had to improve or make adjustments to teaching in international programmes? Were they sufficient? Have you been given the support you need to meet your learning goals regarding English and intercultural skills?

4d. If you could choose any form of learning to reach your goals what would you choose?

Filter 5. Institute / School – meso level

5. What are the rationales and characteristics of the international elements in your School's study programmes as far as you know? Do you think your School should be working on international education at all? Should it be doing more or is what the School is doing now enough?

5a. How have the team dealt with the implementation of internationalisation policies into actual practice? (As far as you know is there a model such as : add-on, infuse or transformation?) What has worked to enable it to be successful and what has blocked or constrained success, in your opinion?

5b. What opportunities have been available to get support for yourself and others at School level?

Filter 6 Academic Labour

6. Is it more effort and does it cost more time for you to teach in an international programme than in the Dutch stream? How much more effort is it, in you estimation?

6a. How does your work load affect your efforts to adapt to internationalisation in your department?

6b. What opportunities have been offered to you to support dealing with extra work load, if that is the case?

Filter 7 Factors from the external environment

Some people think internationalisation of the curriculum is mainly driven by the need to compete in the globalising (21st century capitalist) economies between nations. Since universities are public institutions, in part paid for by citizens of one country, is competition in the global marketplace for jobs, business etc. a major factor in your own work in teaching and developing programmes?

Freely adapted from Fanghanel, J. (2007). *Investigating university lecturers' pedagogical constructs in the working context*, The Higher Education Academy January 2007 (pp.1 – 19). Retrieved from, <http://www.heacademy.ac.uk/assets/York/documents/ourwork/research/fanghanel.pdf>

Chapter six: The TIP tale: Mapping the situation

Pre-design phase: Initial orientation, exploration of the problem and framing of concepts for the design, September 2006 to September 2007.

RQ1 How might an innovative in-service programme for internationalisation provide experiences that enhance teacher professional learning and why?

1.1 What challenges are teachers facing and what motivates them in meeting them from their own perspective and from the perspectives of other key stakeholders?

1.2 What are the policy goals for successful internationalisation of the curriculum and what theories of change underscore the policies?

1.3 What domains of content would be needed to meet teacher professional learning needs for internationalisation?

1.4 What types of professional learning could be appropriate to support enhancing the competencies

RQ 2 What might be a template design for a generic intervention aimed at teacher learning for internationalisation that is capable of being effectively contextualised and how might that contextualisation be carried out?

2.1 What existing professional development interventions could be used as models?

2.2 What were the current practices in regard to professional development interventions?

2.3 What characteristics might an innovative programme have?

Introduction

As McKenney and Reeves (2012, p.89) point out the pre-design phase consists of various activities: initial orientation and situation mapping, literature review and field investigations, all of which are synthesised to address the design problems and potential solutions. Critically and respectfully engaging with stakeholders is vital as well. In this chapter, early experiences of Classroom English revealed the initial problem question of the research was worth investigating (6.1). Next to find out how the management approached the problem the policy context was explored (6.2). The following section (6.3) highlights a few important findings about the actors' context of the problem from teachers' own perspectives through two early interviews with teachers. More discoveries about actors' contexts were brought to light in informal consultations with two line managers of teachers who were sponsors of the current investigation (6.4). As a complement to the interviews, actors' contexts were further revealed in a major survey into how far the teachers at NUAS were competent to function as international teachers (6.5). These discoveries combined with the relevant literature led to a tentative identification of content domains and approaches to learning of the programme. In section 6.6 what has been found out and where that got the researcher at the end of this phase are set by identifying the four 'products' that resulted from the predesign phase (revised problem definition, long-range goals, partial design requirements, and design propositions). A synthesis of overall goals and design requirements as discovered in this phase ends the chapter. The specific characteristics of design are reflected in the design propositions presented in chapter 7.

6.1 Early experiences and questions

One aim of this phase was to sharpen the problem formulation. To do that the first question asked in this phase was : "Are the forms of PD being offered to teachers meeting their needs and if not, why not?" The following vignette illustrates an answer based on experience as meta-teacher.

On cold January evening in the small northern European university town, a group of Dutch higher education teachers had stayed on after work to follow a course in "Classroom English". None of them had ever studied in a foreign country or in another language. They were clearly tired from the day's tasks and energy levels were not high. The group of 10 could be divided into a small sub-group who had been working internationally for some time and had considerable experience using English and a larger group who had little experience abroad. The teachers in the second group only used English for a fixed period such as one block of ten weeks in an academic year. The aim of this part of the lesson was to listen to a mini lecture about 'Shape Memory Alloy' and answer questions in pairs. After three attempts the activity was abandoned since only two teachers were able to concentrate sufficiently on the task. The next activity was individual presentations of a teaching experience of the past week. Now there was no lack of concentration. One teacher told how she had given feedback to an international student who was upset by her, that is the teacher's explanation of how the grade was arrived at. The group consensus was that international students are rather often emotional and unpredictable in their reactions to assessment.

This vignette from 2006 (only mildly adjusted from real time lesson reflection notes) illustrates several of the challenges for the provider of a Classroom English type of professional development. In short, these are: the wide diversity in language proficiency in English and in levels of professional involvement with international teaching, the timing of the course and its effects on motivation and concentration, the balance between language and content domains, and the need to address cultural attitudes through exploring and learning about intercultural awareness and communication.

After providing this course for a group of teachers from one School, a brief analysis was carried out after informal evaluations of the course were collected. A report was made for the team leader, who was the client, and the head of the then newly established Expertise Centre for Languages and Cultures who was the supervisor. It was found that the group of 15 teachers had such widely diverse levels in English that very few activities were suitable for all of them. At one end of the spectrum were teachers with advanced levels in terms of grammar and vocabulary, at the other end were teachers who had not used English since high school and whose level was barely intermediate. The stronger members of the group not only had higher levels, they also had much more international experience. This difference in experience was especially difficult as one of the intended learning outcomes (ILOs) was to share experiences of international teaching or research. Success factors identified were:

- A. *The degree, amount and quality of discussion that took place (this is no mean achievement for such tired people). The classes were lively with debate and some in-depth exploration of serious and more light-hearted topics.*
- B. *The increased confidence of all of the mid and weaker members of the group.*
- C. *The one-to-one feedback given to individuals on their teaching materials.*
- D. *The range of vocabulary items that students found by themselves.*
- E. *The fact that everyone did either a prepared or a spontaneous presentation and was given feedback, also by their peers.*
- F. *The usefulness of the functional areas covered and the back-up materials offered.*
- G. *The blackboard site (which is still active).*
- H. *The fact that one student was able to influence the method of giving feedback in a way that all students appreciated. He suggested using a feed back form "classified*

observation notes”, which each student-teacher tried to fill in for other student-teachers. They also received feed back from the professional development meta-teacher. The last three sessions were devoted to these 'speaking with instant feedback' activities.

Constraining factors identified were:

- A. *the group was too diverse in terms of language proficiency*
- B. *each individual had a full working load of tasks making it difficult for them to take on the role of materials developer*
- C. *they were not prepared pedagogically for such an innovation which required them to take on a lot of responsibility*
- D. *the teachers of different majors did not know each other well which engendered uncertainty in how to act collaboratively*

In addition, the report offered a number of recommendations. It was sent to the team leader who had authorised the Classroom English course and to the Head of the Centre for Languages and Cultures. Neither of them ever responded. The mixed outcomes, the analysis of them, and the failure to hear from the relevant members of the management helped in the initial orientation to the present study. In addition, informal conversations with fellow teachers of English, teachers who had attended Classroom English courses and other team leaders, together with more personal experiences such as those sketched here, led to the drafting of an open problem statement. It was: "The challenge to provide, adequate, appropriate and effective in-service support opportunities to the teachers was not being met adequately. Across the organisation, support provided did not appear to sufficiently stimulate the development of a repertoire of approaches needed. Manifestations of this inadequacy were for example, the sometimes rather irrelevant content and inflexible delivery of professional development (PD) opportunities offered. Teachers committed to enhancing their practice were often not well served by these forms of PD support, while other teachers were not inspired to take up the support at all". Having formulated the statement, new questions for the eventual design emerged such as: "Does this apparent inadequacy continue because of policies regarding PD for internationalisation?" and "Can any subject or disciplinary areas beyond English be distinguished in policies?"

6.2 Policy Context

As chapter one revealed, internationalisation as innovation was a 'spearhead' of policy for several years at NUAS. A NUAS research report (2003) observed that the aims of the policy needed to be more clear and concrete and that successful implementation across the whole university 'can only be successful if there is an explicit corporate steering / management' (*Beroepsvoorbereiding in een internationaal perspectief: Hoe internationaal zijn de... curricula?*, p.3).

Most interesting for the upcoming design was the second element in the strategy of corporate steering:

'Culture, e.g. attention to cross and interculturalism' and 'Content, e.g. attention to international professional aspects'.

For the TIP design-orientation, two points at least were significant. The strategy indicated that the policy was aimed at the domains of intercultural, content and English language learning. This strengthened the emerging conviction that combining these domains in the design of the intervention would be in alignment with management directions. Such alignment is important for change agents according to Trowler et al. (2002). The framing of the intercultural domain as equal to the English language and content domains was also a confirmation of the research of Klaassen (2000) and Teekens (2001, 2003b).

At that time concurrent reading about the five typical implied theories of change agents identified by Saunders, Charlier & Bonamy, (2004, pp.5-6) reviewed in Chapter three,

showed that two of those theories were applicable to the NUAS. One was the 'technological determinism' theory which, in short, states that teaching and learning regimes will have to adjust to keep up with ICT and social networks. The NUAS document refers to the goal of offering parts of the curriculum online. The other implied theory of change is 'taking advantage of the policy discourse, that is, the institutional rhetoric to justify changes' (2004, pp.5-6). This was clear from the repeated statements regarding the necessity for the policy of internationalisation to be clear and concrete. It is a top down approach in that central management's intention to keep control over the process through steering mechanisms is stated openly.

A number of policy agreements (36 in all) were given as appendix to the document. Number 36 stated that 'schooling' for language and cultural differences would continually be paid attention to. The consequences of this policy agreement in the following three years, that is between 2003-4 and 2006-7, were the support for Classroom English courses referred to in Chapter one and the intercultural workshops offered by some Schools. There were however no PIs on the subject of professional development. In all phases it was found, through conversations with team leaders over the years, (and documents made available by the internationalisation team) that the effects of the PIs were substantial. Therefore more will be said about them here even though some of the information surfaced later in the design phases.

Performance Indicators under the loupe

As we have seen, PIs for the so called 'international dimension' of the studies were made by the university's central team for internationalisation. In the early period of 2006, 30 European transfer credits (ETCs, each credit worth 28 student work hours) provided in the English language were set as a requirement for each School. Although this PI was subsequently dropped, it had naturally led management teams of Schools to associate internationalisation with English. The PI used to measure outward exchange study by Dutch local students was a source of some confusion as it did not cover exchanges of less than 3 months; also the Schools were required to measure the number of outward exchanges per year and not per study. Further, very short trips to a neighbouring country, especially two or three day trips to Germany or Belgium were not registered. There was a need to define what the educational aims and characteristics were of such short exchanges.

In a later report, (2008) the central office internationalisation team noted that the rather disappointing outcomes of the PIs for internationalisation were not unconnected to resistance or at least reservations within the Schools about the value of the PIs but *not* to the value of internationalisation itself. In fact, the attitudes gleaned by educational advisors were that Schools wanted to be able to integrate international dimensions into their professional profiles and qualities for graduates rather than place so much emphasis on different types of mobility and scores that had to be reached for inward and outbound exchange. (There is a parallel in this type of measurement instruments with measuring the degree of absence due to illness with the degree of study success.) Thus the fact that the PIs are quantitative and are about activities, not about the content of the activities, had a negative effect on the Schools. The internationalisation team asked itself if it would not be better for the Schools to find ways to recognise and register what students are *learning* from international educational activities and the value this has for them in their future professions. Parallel to this was the assumption that the internationalisation skills' enhancement of teaching staff could be quantified on the basis the number of English courses or international conferences attended or the number of staff members who acquired a higher qualification or who published in international journals. These were actually PIs for professional development and they were, just as the PIs for students, quantitative. As with the PIs for students the nature and degree of teacher professional *learning* is not recognised. In relation to the literature reviewed in Chapter two, this shows that NUAS PI policies conform to the 'technical observance' side of the development continuum rather than the 'relational perspective' side (McTaggart, 2003;

Caruana & Handstock, 2005). Even more important for the present research was the understanding that a focus on learning was strongly needed. The one instrument developed by a member of the internationalisation team that does address issues of language and intercultural learning (a matrix) has been discussed earlier in Chapter two. It was a hopeful development but in the period of 2006 to 2009 the matrix was not yet actually being used by management teams. In terms of understanding what was significant for the TIP design the focus on PIs also led to the recognition that any professional development that could not be quantified and that would take longer than a few workshops or lessons was going to face challenges of credibility about its worth.

6.3. Actors' context 1: Views of teachers

In the pre-design phase along with initial orientation and identifying gaps and building a framework through literature study, some degree of field investigation is required. In the current study field investigation was rather simple to arrange as the researcher was an insider. One way of refining the insight into the problem was to carry out interviews. In 2006 during the orientation phase two teachers, who were close colleagues of the researcher, were interviewed extensively. They were chosen partly pragmatically and partly because they fit the profile for upcoming participants of the TIP in that they were highly experienced staff members in the Dutch stream who had chosen to work full time or almost full time in an English stream degree programme. By the time the interviews took place the theoretical interest in the design had already settled on the three content domains. However the approaches to learning were still not completely clear. The interviews, then, were conducted with several aims in mind. One was to understand the motivation of teachers to participate in an international stream full time as this was a challenge and a substantial change in practices, mid-career. The challenges and the changes needed to be brought to the surface in order to decide which learning approaches would be suitable in the upcoming intervention. Also the areas of contestation regarding the nature and direction of internationalisation were important to understand better so that relevant materials and activities to stimulate dialogue could be found. Further since the concepts of self efficacy and self-confidence had already been brought up in the quantitative data and in the literature the interview questions aimed to follow up on these concepts.

Personal motivation & confidence in English skills

Personal positive motivation was often based on previous life experiences. For example, one of the two teachers grew up near the German / Dutch border and thus had an international orientation from childhood. Both of the teachers stated that they made the decision to teach in the English stream almost instantaneously. When asked if they had thought about the challenges of teaching in English both replied that they did not doubt their ability to do so. The lack of hesitation regarding the switch to English was linked in both cases to personal memories or significant life experiences from the past. When asked how long it took her to decide to teach in English she replied:

Teacher B: When [name of coordinator for the international study programme] asked me to teach in English I didn't think about at all. I did not make a conscious choice, I did not think about the consequences. I just thought 'I'll do it.'I was really easy about it, I had studied English, so it should have been possible.

Regarding motivation, the interviewees seem to confirm the finding that positive motivation to get involved in the first place was often based on previous life experiences. This was behind Teekens' statement that typically, lecturers are 'drawn into it [IoC] as a result of personal or professional interests' rather than through a 'deliberate choice' (Teekens, 2003a,

p.35). Research from the fields of organisational psychology into the importance of personality at work (Nicholson, 1996) and workplace learning (Hodkinson, Hodkinson, Evans & Kersh, 2004; Illeris, 2004) have shown the tendency to choose based on personal interest to be a quite common pattern.

Another point that came out of the interviews is that the almost instant decision to take up international teaching does not mean that the interviewees were overly sanguine about their English language skills. In fact, both had taken in-house 'Classroom English' courses in the past. They expressed satisfaction at having done so, at least for a year. In addition, both of them continued to voice concerns about how well they wrote in English and demonstrated a clear motivation to improve at least in this area of language.

Teacher B: *...and ...ummm when I was writing the introduction to the XXX study guide I noticed that I write in a kind of Dutch / English but I don't know how to improve it or what proper English is, and when I am reading students' work ...it seems like some of them write in a way that is unreadable but I can't tell if that is a question of language or their way of structuring* [transl. MT]

Still, having followed an English course was not the best way for this particular teacher:

Now my experience (with the in-house course) and that is why I did not ask XXX to give me hours for it this year, was that there was such a wide diversity of people in that class that I got kind of bored. Yeah? And no one did their homework...

The other teacher also expressed hesitation about English courses or indeed any courses. The teacher was offered a list of 20 forms of professional development and asked to choose 3 that would suit him.

Teacher A: *(long pause while he reads the list) Okay. The things that won't help me very much are the things that I have to do on my own. Like a distance course and a self-study course in academic skills... and there is another one... where is it?yeah, buying and using language learning materials from internet. No. That's not for me. I'm too lazy. (laughs) And it may not be obvious but the one about joining a social club would also not work for me. I would not like to go because it would feel like doing something phony, unreal. So those are the three that won't work. That's a negative start isn't it?*

What really helped me, was that conference in [Asian city]. (pause) And may be after I have been to another one I will say, 'now I have seen it' and I won't want to go to any more but at this moment it really helps me. (pause) I can imagine that working with a counterpart from another country would really help me. I would like to go a little further and have a teacher exchange. I was talking to a woman in Austria, she had invited C. and me. That way would be the best. It would also give me experience that I do not have yet. Most of things are too technical. I think this one 'inviting an English teacher to your lesson' could also be beneficial. That would really help me. Let's go through it and see if maybe I have to wipe one out.. (reads again) no, nope no..

Because the literature of adult education stresses the need for adults to be independent, this rejection of anything the learner must do 'on his own' is remarkable. It would appear that the findings of adult education experts are simply ill conceived in this case. In the interventions of the following years, independent learning was also rejected by the teachers as we shall see (Chapters 7 & 8). Perhaps these interview answers should have been taken more seriously as a warning of the difficulties to come. However, on second reading another interpretation emerges. As Zuber-Skerritt (1992) observes, 'While our behaviour may be determined by our situation, it is also true that we can make choices which determine the meaning of our situation' (p.92). She elaborates on this by explaining '...in most cases, there is a dialectical relationship between intentional, strategic action, personal responsibility, involvement and self-direction on the one hand, and certain constraints, within an institutional framework on the other' (1992, p.93).

These teachers were keen to join the international stream, they stressed activities like going to conferences or having international colleagues above going to 'phony' or 'boring' classes or working online. It could be argued that because they are keen to use their learning opportunities effectively, teachers see the limitations of courses with mixed ability groups. Thus personal responsibility is being taken by teachers for selecting the specific areas of English they want to learn about. That seems to be the message of teacher B who wants to work on writing better Study Guides for example.

6.4 Actors' context 2 - Quantitative data on teachers' motivation and competencies

In 2006 a survey to which 40% of the entire teaching staff responded was carried out at NUAS. The survey claims to show the competencies of teachers to function in international educational programmes. Unfortunately for the purposes of understanding the situation of teachers at NUAS, it was flawed on several levels. To start, assumptions were built into the construction of the survey that lowered the usefulness of its results. For example, international teaching was equated throughout with teaching in English and teaching international groups. The possibility that international teaching can take place in Dutch as envisioned in 'Internationalisation @ Home' was not considered as practice in the survey questions. Other flaws have to do with how statistical analyses were handled. The report summarised that 75% of teacher respondents were willing to provide educational activities in English. This was an impressively positive result. However, looking at the break down of the responses a less positive picture emerges. In fact, only a rather marginal degree of engagement was desired by most of this group. The highest percentage expressed a willingness to provide no more than 20% of their educational activities in English (40%). This means that most of them were indeed willing to teach in English but only occasionally or for a small part of their working week. In fact only 10% were willing to work in English stream programmes for 80 to 100% of the time. In absolute terms, of the more than 500 respondents, less than 50 expressed a desire to work full time in EMI programmes, which is lower than the number of teachers who were actually teaching full time in EMI programmes at the time. It was therefore difficult to assess how accurately the survey reflected motivation of teachers.

The survey should have provided good data on capacities to teach in English. However here, again, the nature of the survey questions lessened their value for mapping the situation. It asked teachers to estimate their own levels of English according the Common European Framework with very brief descriptions of what the levels meant. Further it asked if teachers thought that they could lecture for an hour in English successfully and if they could write tests in English that would not confuse students. The results, aside from the difficulty of being self-estimates, were contradictory and inconclusive. There were ten 'can do' statements of aspects of language proficiency for respondents to agree or disagree with. This was calculated to result in 45 % of the respondents having the framework's advanced level of C1 in English (agreeing to 8 out of 10 of the can-do statements). C1 is the level generally recognised to be necessary for successful teaching in English by non-native speaker teachers in post-secondary education. However, a significantly higher number, representing nearly 60% of these same respondents, expressed confidence in their ability to lecture for at least one hour in English successfully and were also confident in their ability to write instructions for assignments or tests in clear and unambiguous English. Thus more teachers stated that, in their eyes, they could handle challenging tasks such as lecturing and writing instructions than expressed confidence in their all- round ability to use English. Without further data is difficult to understand what these results mean. In the report itself the responses are taken at face value. Thus the report states that 60% of teachers are able to write materials in English successfully.

Only one question was asked about professional development which understandably was important for orientation into the problems of this research. Asked whether they had

discussed their desire to be involved in an international programme during job appraisal interviews with line managers (where plans for professional development are discussed) 33.7% answered yes, 45 % answered no and 21% didn't know.

The report interprets the finding as follows:

The positive attitude of the teachers is translated into the wish to be active in regard to internationalisation. According to the survey, in the context professional development over a third of the teachers explicitly indicated that they are now or would like to become, active in field of internationalisation (Kosteljik, Jusling & Versteeg, 2006, p.5).

However, the outcome can be seen as neither positive nor negative. How many of the teachers were simply indicating that internationalisation had come up as a topic during interviews with their line managers? That the topic of international teaching and teachers' PD needs came up is not the same as stating that PD opportunities were provided. How are the 20% of respondents who seemed not to know what the question meant to be regarded? Nearly half of the respondents had not talked about international educational activities with line managers, which was not encouraging but may well have reflected the fact that these teachers were *not* highly engaged with internationalisation.

Finally, six competencies taken from psychological research into multicultural personality traits (see Van der Zee & Van Oudenhoven, 2000) were 'tested' through a battery of questions built into the survey. The six traits and the general results are:

- Cultural empathy - the capacity to empathise with the feelings, thoughts and behaviour of members of another cultural group than one's own. Almost 70% of the teacher-respondents identified themselves as having either a good or a very good degree of cultural empathy (54 % good and 15 % very good)
- Open-mindedness - tolerant of norms and values of cultural groups other than one's own, 35% of the respondents thought they were sufficiently open minded and 16% thought they were very open minded making a sum of just over 50% who responded positively in this area of competence (this was the second lowest score of the 6)
- Social initiative - defined as the inclination be active when in another culture for example to seek contact with members of another culture, 56 % of the respondents thought they possess either a good (45%) or very good (11%) level of social initiative
- Flexibility - defined as being able to change behaviour to fit novel contexts where people from different cultures mix, just over 49 % judged themselves to be either sufficiently (41%) or very flexible (8%)(this was the lowest score of the 6)
- Emotional stability - the ability to handle the high stress of working with international students and colleagues, just under 70% of the respondents said they had either a good (57%) or a very good (12%) level of stability
- Self-efficacy measured as the courage to give an hour long lesson in English – about 60% responded that they would be good (40%) or very good (22%) at lecturing in English.

The report broke these general results down into the results per School. A profile of the personality traits of the teachers of each School could thus be compared to all other Schools. While the profiles are interesting to look at, there was not much that could be done with them to throw light on the challenges facing teachers. The only result that was directly relevant was trait number six, regarding self-efficacy. The outcome shows a very high level of this trait which confirms earlier research findings about high levels of self-efficacy of Dutch lecturers (Vinke, 1995). The results of the survey for each School were given to the Deans.

The data collected in this survey did provide insights that helped in the orientation of the TIP design. First, the confirmation of literature in regard to self-efficacy in regard to English was not insignificant. The concept of self-efficacy was explored with teachers during interviews at a later stage in the present study. The fact that a majority of teachers did want to be involved but *not intensively* was quite important although this was not immediately evident. The differences in traits per School had some influence on a tentative research question about them made in the pre-design phase, namely, 'What are the identity challenges teachers face

concerning their own convictions about good teaching?’

6.5 Actors' context 3: line managers' views on the interventions main aims & challenges

Consultations with the TIP's two sponsors were carried out in this phase. Multiple conversations were held with them over a period of several months. A few highlights of those conversations are given here.

Team leader A was the head of a study programme that included several modules devoted to intercultural competence. It was therefore not surprising that she was open to including intercultural learning in the TIP programme. She focussed on the international nature of the School and university environment during the conversations. Questions included 'How can the TIP address the problem of just having Dutch courses translated into English and having international students come who are forced to adapt to Dutch ways?' 'How can the TIP stimulate teachers to a more intercultural mind-set?' 'Would a portfolio in the TIP be a good tool for job appraisal?' She referred to a common misconception that providing courses or assignments in English equalled internationalising the curriculum. Offering English language opportunities was seen as sufficient.

Still, her most often repeated question revolved around what it takes to make an international environment and what role the teachers have in that. In an interview published in the university paper several years later, in response to a complaint of a Dutch and International student in the University Magazine (see endnote 1) she said:

The question is: what kind of school are we? Apparently there is some confusion whether we are an international school or if we are [sic] a Dutch school with a few international students. If we are an international university we should better have our stuff ready in both languages, Dutch and English! You have to talk to people face to face because some are not aware that there is a problem.[with the lack of English being used by staff and Dutch students MT] If we don't solve this problem we are going to limit our internationalisation. That's why I think we should decide to become a completely bilingual institution. If you take internationalisation seriously you need to create an environment in which everyone feels at home. We are collectively responsible for everyone feeling good at the university (Praetorius, 2010, p. 4Int).

This conviction lay behind the generous opportunities to improve their English offered to teachers who worked in this leader's team. At that time the idea of including a teacher's portfolio was not only considered, several documents were collected or adapted for such a portfolio. Eventually the idea was dropped mainly because such portfolios were associated with initial teacher training at NUAS where new teachers must acquire a basic teaching qualification within two years. However, the problem of how to ensure that complex and challenging learning could be asked of teachers without offering a qualification or sufficient time to strive for such a qualification, remained.

Team leader B had, in the past, been part of the central office's internationalisation team. In 2004 in that capacity she had produced a document with a proposal for internationalisation at the university (see endnote 2). It included setting up a 'Community of Practice' (CoP) for the internationalisation of the curriculum (IoC). In the proposal it is suggested that members of the central staff (acting as account managers) would give information sessions to management of Schools about this CoP. Then at the end of the academic year the School management would produce a report on IoC as part of the evaluation of the Community. This indicates that she was a proponent of collaborative learning.

Regarding the added value of the yet to be designed TIP programme over existing Classroom English courses, she stated on more than one occasion that teachers needed to learn 'more than English alone'. In a conversation about what might be included in the TIP,

she agreed that the aim of the English materials could be more confidence building than proficiency enhancing. She was naturally interested in the logistics and structure of the TIP itself. Even in this early phase before the programme was designed, the ideas presented to her caused her to think that the demands might turn out to be too high. How were the teachers to meet such high demands within the constraints of the kind of PD that could be provided in terms of costs?

In addition, she said that while it might not be possible, it would be good to have some concrete outcome that could be evaluated. The time investment needed to be accurately estimated in her view. When she was asked about the degree of attention between an action research project in relation to language skills and intercultural communication skills' improvement, she suggested that the action research project would receive maybe half of any evaluation and the other half divided over intercultural learning and English.

A consequence of the conversations with team leaders was to focus on the 'middle out' approach to professional development from the literature of higher education reform (Hodgson, May, & Marks-Maran, 2008; Trowler, Saunders, & Knight, 2003) reviewed in Chapter three. These mid-level managers were also innovators and working with and through them seemed to follow this approach. Further the discussions about the evaluations, effective use of teachers' time and balance of topics, fit in well with the areas of validity of design noted by Van den Akker, (1999) and discussed in Chapter five, especially 'practicality' of the design. These conversations and the reading had a fairly direct influence on the emerging platform of ideas for the TIP prototypes. Another consequence was to consider the forms of delivery in terms of flexibility and cost effectiveness of the upcoming programme.

6.6 The four products of the predesign phase

This phase was one of exploration. It covered a great deal of territory and led to several discoveries. These discoveries resulted in four 'products',

1. a core problem definition
2. long rang goals
3. partial design requirements and
4. initial design propositions (cf. McKenney & Reeves, 2012, pp.104-108).

Problem definition

The initial orientation began with informal conversations with stakeholders and recording and analysis of experiences as meta-teacher of English to teachers. It also included field investigations in which a number of core stakeholders were interviewed. Those conversations, interviews, consultations and meta-teacher experiences showed that the problem of inadequate PD for teachers who were involved in internationalisation did exist and that the inadequacies indeed mattered to the stakeholders. It pinpointed the discrepancies between the needs of teachers for competency enhancement in several domains and the actual professional development support offered to them. Also the discrepancy between the corporate strategy and the need to focus on teacher learning was uncovered. Further the experiences highlighted the difficulties of logistics in Classroom English courses delivered, a finding confirmed by several other meta-teachers. The findings from the baseline survey regarding intercultural personality traits made clear that in the area of intercultural flexibility teachers, from their own perspective, had far to go to achieve the competence needed to act confidently and appropriately in unexpected situations with people from other cultures, a finding that confirmed views from the literature which strengthened the decision to have the three content domains which have been discussed extensively already. It also showed serious issues regarding teacher motivation and

commitment that were hitherto not addressed in any forms of PD. In this way, the two research perspectives of a) professional development improvement and b) competency enhancement improvement were clarified and confirmed. Therefore the dual focus was found to be crucial to solving the problem, which was shown to be worth trying to solve. This made it possible to identify the core problem statement.

Goals for professional development provision

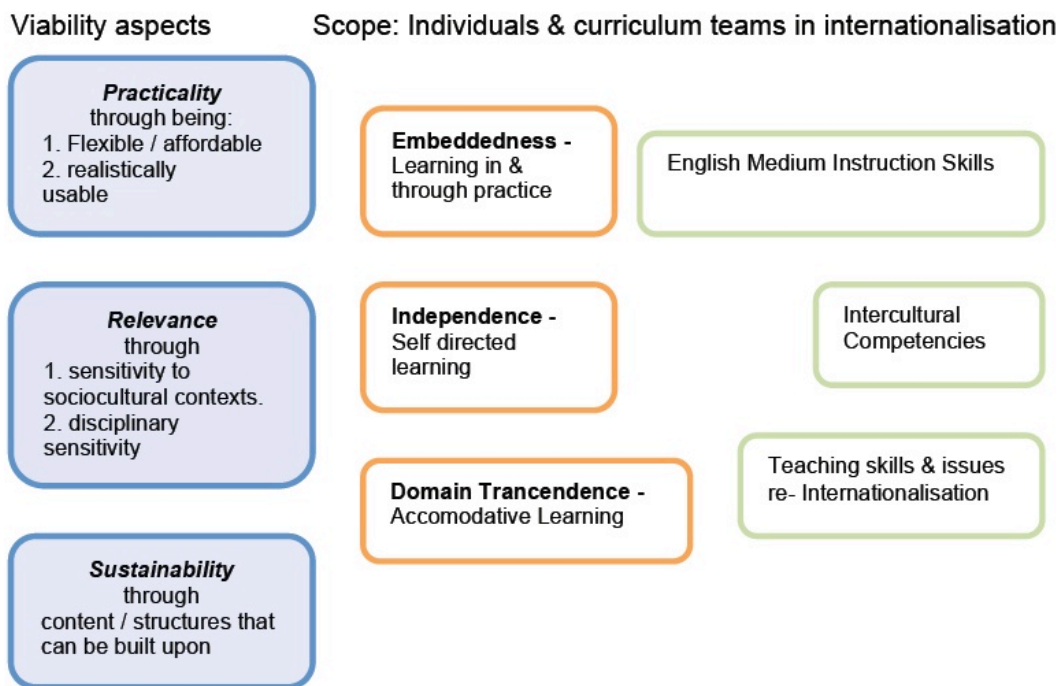


fig. 1 Synthesis of concept goals and design requirements discovered in the pre-design face

Long range goals

As a rough sketch, figure 1, shows the goals of the current research, which were identified by the end of the exploration phase. It also shows design requirements to reach these goals. Internationalising-teachers, their line managers, and other meta-teachers all were concerned that PD needed to do more than just work on English. The client sponsors expressed a desire for the interventions to be traceable in the long term so that changes in teachers 'performance' as curriculum developers and as classroom teachers could be brought to the surface. Also the teachers expressed dissatisfaction with the short term orientation and content limited nature of the interventions they had attended. This helped to identify *curriculum teams*, as well as individuals, as essential for the scope of the research. This, in conjunction with the literature of enhancement from the middle out, led not only to the goals of combined content and multiple learning paths, but to the intention to experiment with both stand alone modes and embedded modes of delivery. At this point in the pre-design phase, no timetable or schedule was made for how long the interventions would be offered generically and when and how they would be offered to teams. It was too early in the research to make such decisions, but the aim to do both was established.

Partial design requirements

The consultations with the clients also started to make the design requirements start to become clear. Cost effect, sustainable and flexible PD interventions were clearly required by

those clients. The consultations showed that the programme had to be practical, not taking too much of teachers' allotted hours for professional development. Also the design was going to have to be sensitive to differences in levels of teachers both in terms of their content knowledge and in their preferred ways of learning that content. Freedoms and constraints on the design were not made very clear but at least they were starting to be set out. Freedoms on the designer were that no hard evaluations were required. The clients agreed that formative evaluations based on informal feedback sessions would be sufficient. Further the clients agreed to take responsibility for recruitment, freeing the researcher from this task. As the scope was to cover both individuals and teams the modes of delivery were considered changeable aspects while three learning approaches and three domains were considered unchangeable although the emphasis on one or the other domain or approach could change in accordance with changed contexts. Offering the exact same intervention in every iteration was not required. The strength of the design would be in this flexibility with very small groups. This would at the same time be a potential weakness.

Initial design propositions

For teachers to be able to adapt to international teaching they need to not only have chances to improve their level of English proficiency, they also need to have chances to improve their intercultural and pedagogic skills using their own learning approaches. In order for the NUAS to be able to support them in their enhancement goals more flexible and sustainable PD needs to be offered in different ways. The figure above captures the goals and concepts that support this proposition.

Endnote 1

Letter to the editor [4] 14 OCTOBER 2009 *HANZEMAG* vol. 7, p.4 INT

Dear Management of [name of School] dear fellow students of [name of School] dear international students at NUAS,

We are two students in the [name of international degree programme] program, one international and one Dutch student. A couple of weeks ago we were talking about the [name of international degree programme] Cultuur week". I (Wieke), being a Dutch student, brought up how nice it was and I (Thomas) was totally surprised that such an interesting event could slip by without me noticing it. Suddenly it became clear to us that the whole event was only advertised in Dutch. This event, as well as the International Student Barometer, made us think that it was time to speak up.

We have often experienced similar situations, i.e. at the front office, announcements, e-mails, whole parts of Blackboard, in which I (Wieke) had to act as an emergency translator, and I (Thomas) felt not very welcome at the Institute. We have to keep in mind that, especially for the incoming students and the junior staff members of the [name of School] faculty, this is a tremendous hindrance.

We were wondering why so much information is only distributed in Dutch. How come international students and staff have to find their way around getting information in English? Does Hanze University expect all students to learn Dutch? In case they do, it should be considered that Hanze University advertises the international study programs all over the world, and the fact that they are taught in English.

This is how we started talking about the issue of having Dutch as the Institute language. The most logical way to overcome this issue is to add English, in addition to Dutch, as an official language. There are several reasons for this change. Let us look at the [name of School] policy, which is clearly emphasizing the internationalization within the institution. Does this not also include the distribution of information understandable for ALL students and staff members?

We have often experienced that international students felt left out, because the information was only available in Dutch. In order to provide equal opportunities for the Dutch and international students, all information should be available in both Dutch and English. Therefore, we think it is important that English should get the status as an official language at the Institute of [name of School]

What do we mean by that? We think it is only fair to our international students and staff that all the information is available in Dutch as well as in English. We still acknowledge that [name of School] is a Dutch institution and we do not want to eliminate the Dutch culture of the Institute of which we recognize the language is a big part. We want to enrich and broaden the culture by adding English as an institute language.

The Institute for in particular should represent itself as a role model within Hanze University by eliminating the possibility of not offering information in English, by making English and Dutch the official languages.

With kind regards, Wieke and Thomas

Endnote 2

Barents, H. (1/12/2004) *Internationalisering en OZ een voorstel binnen OZ (Team OI)*

[Internationalisation and the education department, a proposal inside the educational department (Educational Development Team)] proposal to establish a community of practice for internationalisation, to introduce within one year, the EU language passport portfolio, and to attempt to combine internationalisation with 'diversity education' in contact with secondary schools to target ethnic minority students.

Chapter seven: The TIP tale: Piloting the routes

Sub RQ 1.1 What materials, events and activities could be provided in a programme to stimulate enhancement of the linguistic, intercultural and pedagogic competencies and how can they be sequenced and combined?

Sub RQ 1.2 What materials, events and activities could be provided in an intervention to stimulate self-directed, transcendent and practice engendered learning in an intervention and how can they be integrated?

Introduction

Researchers have to start with hunches. Often the study involves areas of knowledge and skills that they don't have yet. After the analysis and exploration phase the first trial of the TIP programme took place. It was the first iteration and should be seen as a pilot. The process of devising prototype 1.0 (Annex, 92/93) started in earnest in September 2007. The sessions ran from March to June 2008.

In section 7.1 the participants and setting of this design narrative are presented, followed by the characteristics of the programme related to the four design propositions (7.2) derived from the research questions. The key events and developments of this iteration are given next in a short chronology (7.3). The results section highlights what did and did not work in relation to the propositions (7.4). Section 7.5 offers the immediate analysis in the form of candidate explanations and candidate solutions.

7.1 Participants & Setting

As this was a pilot phase the recruitment process was informal. The six core participants were recruited on a pragmatic basis.

Number

The group started with eight but ended up with six participants. One effect of the group size in the prototype was that certain plans for group events were cancelled because six members was too small a number to carry them out. In addition, due to the informal rather ad hoc manner of recruitment the interviews which were planned to be pre-sessional, were conducted after the intervention started so they did not influence the skeletal design although they were influential later. There were two exceptions. One concerns a teacher who was an internationalisation coordinator at one of the many engineering studies at NUAS; another was the colleague who had been interviewed in the pre-design phase in 2006.

Recruitment

The internationalisation coordinator had found out about the TIP when he attended a workshop about it given in the first semester of 2007-2008. (This workshop was offered during an open 'study day' for teaching staff organised by the central office's internationalisation team.) The majority of the group, four out of six teachers, were colleagues of the researcher, members of the same School although not necessarily in the same curriculum work-team. The sixth member of the group was offered release hours to follow the programme by the TIP's sponsor, the head of the Expertise Centre for Languages and Cultures, [ECL&C] whose subordinate he was. Thus more than half of the group knew the researcher personally. Two of these had attended 'Classroom English' type courses taught by the researcher in the past.

Areas of expertise

The participants taught courses in various subjects such as engineering, library science, media skills, marketing and foreign languages. Two of them taught a subject in one of the three content domains areas. One of these two teacher conducted workshops in intercultural aspects of conflict management and the other taught a module in intercultural communication in business contexts. In fact, the participants of iteration one were well suited to participating in a pilot as many were early adopters of IoC. Most of them had been working as teachers, coaches and counsellors in international programmes for at least two years, with the exception of one, who had plans to move into the international program in quite a significant way in the near future. Three of them worked internationally full-time. Others worked internationally only part of the time but when they did it was quite intensively such as for one whole academic year. Two had been developer or co-developer of the exchange programmes in their curriculum teams.

Functions and stage in professional career line

The participants in the enactment of iteration one can be characterised as experienced teachers who had taught in Dutch stream programmes for between 3 and 20 years. Five of them were in a period of transition regarding the functions they carried out in their work. Three of the six were about to start advanced degree programmes which would eventually lead to altered responsibilities. One switched to teaching in the international stream in the next year and one took semi-retirement.

The setting

The teachers were given release time but no fixed schedule for sessions. Meetings times and rooms changed throughout the period. It was difficult to arrange a fixed meeting space and the group members often had difficulty finding the room of the week. The sessions were generally held for two hours once a week. Attendance was generally good for the first half of the period but more absences occurred towards the end of the academic year. The programme had no official status, that is to say, it was not embedded in any organisational structure at the university. Teacher-participants were given no dispensation in regard to teaching duties. The teachers' participation was 'paid for' by their personal budgets for professional development, (usually between 39 and 49 hours per year). People came if they wanted to, if they were interested, and that was all. This had an effect on what could be asked of them. Because their teaching workloads had not been reduced, the majority of the teachers were not willing to do much outside of the two hours a week. Some funds for resources such as files and a PD booklet on action research in higher education were provided by the Expertise Centre for Language & Cultures.

7.2 characteristics of the design in relation to design propositions

The propositions formed in this phase were more concrete than the research questions but are directly linked to them. The propositions of this iteration are the same as those for the next iteration.

Proposition 1 A sub-component of self-study and self-assessment materials for English and teaching would facilitate tailoring of English practice to individual needs and stimulate independence. [re sub Research Question 1.2]

Independence was stimulated in the design of prototype 1.0 in several ways. The first was through the provision of self-study opportunities for English. Thus the programme offered

- a range of self-assessment tools for evaluation of competencies in English, intercultural sensitivity, teaching and other professional roles (such as research) (Annex, pp.5/14)
- a learning contract that could be used to negotiate PD hours and funds with line managers / supervisors
- English language learning objects for a parallel self-study in a specific skill area such as academic writing, pronunciation, etc. (Annex, pp.16/28)
- a wide variety of language exercises, guidelines and tips combined in a *Teachers' resources bank* of more than 100 pages (digital document sent on request, later on Blackboard)
- a template for keeping a personal learning log (Annex p.19)

The assumption was that offering a wide choice in English language learning materials (ranging over all skills and from very short to up to 10 hour activities) to participants would strengthen individual tailoring for English within the programme and make it likely that participants would take responsibility for their learning (Tremblay, 2000; Hiemstra & Brockett, 1994). The pre-programme diagnostics were not required and no tests of English proficiency were taken.

Proposition 2 Requiring the teachers to make decisions about which of the domain areas to focus on, in what order, would make them act together to take responsibility in directing their own professional development path as a group and so take partial ownership of the programme. [re sub Research question 1.1.]

Self-directedness also was stimulated by asking the teams to make decisions about the content and direction of the interventions. Specific reading texts were set for homework so that participants could discover / identify their own goals for the innovation and choose what they wanted to concentrate on (at first distributed in hard copy later available on Blackboard). These readings were therefore aimed at giving the participants a basis (together with the self-assessment tools) for negotiating their own curriculum with the professional developer and each other. This aspect of the programme was based on social constructivist, interactionist approaches.

An important element was a lack of requirements. As described in the previous chapter, it was agreed in consultation with the head of the Expertise Centre for Language and Culture not to have formal assessments. Although the participants were expected to carry out an action research project, they were not obliged to do so. Nor was there a requirement to make a portfolio of assignments, reflective logs or any other products identified in the programme description.

Proposition 3 Providing opportunities to combine domains of content and approaches to learning in tasks related to contested aspects of IoC would stimulate learning which was dialogic and transcendent. [re sub Research questions 1.1 and 1.2]

As the programme (Annex, pp.92/93) shows, the design was complex, consisting of several routes and several content areas. Parallel group and self-study, excursions, a learning community, critical stances, etc. were supposed to allow participants an excitingly new kind of learning experience. The content was intentionally rich, combining issues derived from IoC with two recognised areas of competence (that is the intercultural and linguistic) together with pedagogic implications of all three. A conversational space in a safe environment was aimed at. It was explicitly stated that different and even conflicting views on internationalisation and intercultural learning would be welcome.

Proposition 4 Providing materials and guidelines for an action learning project would facilitate individuals in learning in situ, from the practices in and traditions of their own Schools. [re sub Research question 1.2]

A significant part of the plan was focussed on teachers carrying out a small research project in their own department. The aim was to link the topics being studied and practised during group sessions with individual action learning in-and-from practice, similar to Elton's front loaded programme at Oxford (Chapter three). The combined materials included an introduction to the concept of action research, a model with supporting guidelines (Ponte, 2005), an instruction for a meeting of critical friends and several schemes for arranging the research and writing it up (Annex, pp.83/86).

Materials delivery and use

Many materials were distributed in hard copy at first. Each participant was given a file binder which included the table of contents and basic study guide. A set of file dividers was provided numbered as in the Table of Contents. A starting set of materials for each specific area was provided and new materials were added continually as hand outs.

7.3 Key Events – short chronology

Input phase – sessions 1 through 6 – Group activities and discussions of English language, Intercultural values and internationalisation issues

A selection of materials was distributed during the first session, including those for independent learning (Annex 5/28). The first and second sessions were devoted to sharing experiences of internationalisation from the three Schools that the teachers worked in using materials taken from Business English books which focused on topics like organisational change, innovation, communication etc. (Annex 35/37) and international teaching issues (Annex 68/70). In addition, intercultural sensitivity activities were carried out (Annex 49/52 & 56/57 & 59/60). Also how to carry out an action research project was explained (Annex 83/90). A lecturer in intercultural competence was invited to give a guest seminar on the approach he used to teach his students.

By the fifth week, it became clear that the teachers could not in fact undertake an action learning project due to logistical constraints. This was something of a crisis moment.

An alternative was used to replace the real time action learning project with a retrospective action learning report, based on reconstructing a critical incident in the past year. The only teacher who had not yet taught in an international programme, was an exception. She did find it possible to carry out a truncated version of an action learning project, which did not include all of the steps in the model for action research presented to the group.

Work related reporting / presenting phase – sessions 7 through 10 – pedagogic issues explored through individual retrospective cases

In the weeks that followed five participants gave a retrospective presentation of a critical incident and what they learnt from it. Three of these presentations and the feedback discussions that followed lasted the whole two hours. The other two took one hour each during one session. Three of the participants submitted a written version of their presentations using the Situation/problem/solution text guidelines (Annex 41/42)

Evaluation and social extension phase - sessions 11 through 13 – social learning & feedback on the programme

Session 11 consisted of attending an evening lecture on international affairs in English at the university. The sessions ended on 4 June. The penultimate session was a group evaluation, targeting problems in the pilot. Two outcomes of this discussion were a condensed verbal evaluation of their learning process in relation to the set-up of the pilot and a draft of the programme for next year. This revised programme was presented to the group for validation in the final session.

Variety and relative proportion of content areas

Of the seven 'input' sessions, two were primarily focused on English. Intercultural issues were the main focus of three sessions including one with a guest lecturer who presented a teaching programme (The Cultural Detective) based on Bennett's model and two that explored the Hofstede model. The first session was about personal significance of internationalisation and the nature of the PD programme. One session integrated all three domains with equal attention (session 5).

7.4 Results of Use of the artefact / programme: What worked? What did not work?

Proposition one

In relation to self-study materials, the uptake was poor. Almost no one used any of them. When asked in a session everyone said that they had looked at them but that the five or ten hour tasks seemed too big to start on. (Some offered the possibility of doing some of the self-study mini-programmes later.) Participants did use the self-assessment forms provided to get an idea of their levels of competency and language proficiency. In follow up one-to-one consultancies it was clear that the materials were appreciated. However, the self-study materials were only used by two teachers out of six (Teachers F & G). Two teachers stated categorically that they had not joined the TIP to study English. No participants made personal learning goals although a personal learning goal 'contract' was provided.

Proposition two

It will be remembered that the programme was complicated. There were timed phases and routes, there were references to learning logs and portfolios and case studies, there were various self-study lines and group outings and of course there were many disciplinary areas of content. When the first set of documents were handed out participants were told about the possibility of forming a kind of expertise group of their own by choosing what to focus on from these areas and by arranging visits to other universities, going to seminars and inviting guest speakers. The response was sceptical. More than one participant expressed a view that the aims were overly ambitious. This evaluation proved to be accurate. Considering the constraints on time and resources it was not realistic to expect teachers to be able to carry out elaborate learning projects and form a community of practice. Nor was 90 minutes of self-study a week, required in the TIP description, a reasonable expectation to make.

Negotiation of the sequence

Concerning the order of topics from the various domains, the teachers did not attempt to agree on what they could and would have liked to do. For example when offered a choice about the content focus and tasks for the following week, there was no consensus and no attempt to find a compromise.

Question:

We have done some English practice and homework now from Market Leader. What should we do next time? What about some intercultural exercises? Some people did homework some didn't. Should I assign something or not?

Replies:

Participant F: If you all want to have assignments it's ok with me but I probably won't do them. My English is good enough, the students do not complain. I like to learn by chatting, it is not necessary for me to do homework.

Participant E: I am sorry, I know myself, I need structure so I like to know in advance what we are going to do next time so I can prepare.

Fortunately, these were not the only responses to the challenges of an open-ended structure. Certain teachers did at times make suggestions about how to pilot the group through the sessions. One of the participants asked if the group could devote three consecutive sessions to one domain instead of combining topics from two domains during a given session. The group agreed to this suggestion. It was however logistically impossible to

block off three entire sessions for one domain. A compromise solution was to focus on only one domain per session whenever possible. Towards the end of the intervention this became less of an issue since the last sessions were taken up with the participants' presentations (four sessions altogether) which, with the ensuing feedback and discussion, took up an entire two hour slot.

A completely satisfactory balance of the domains in terms of programme structure and sequencing was not achieved. Teachers reacted by having ambivalent views. On the positive side the variety of items covered provided an interesting and valuable PD experience in the views of participants. On the other there was discomfort at the lack of a proper structure through the materials, that is an explicit sequence, as well as the sheer number of documents. This is an example of a view from evaluations.

It started out chaotic and late. Then we got lots of material, so much that I gave up on it. I do not know how to use all of it; you are the leader you should tell me. You did in the beginning but not later. Because it was so open and we had lots of discussions, with X, (named) it came to be something like cabaret. It was fun and enjoyable but I would have liked a programme. I will tell my replacement to come to the next TIP though because he will learn a lot that he needs to know about.

Another member of the group also reflected with some ambivalence, although this individual appeared to have a greater awareness of the purpose of the lack of structure:

For me this was a different way of learning. I had to figure it out for myself. It was challenging. I never knew what was going to happen. I think the idea of the material was to make me find what I wanted by myself. I would like to have some kind of structure though....I am especially interested in understanding better how things go wrong in international / multicultural groups. The research I started and the chance to tell you all about it was really helpful although I would need a lot more time to finish my study of the incident.

The final example was more positive:

The program was very flexible (another would say chaotic). But I do not have any problems with that. It also gave me the feeling that I could have a voice.

A reflection from two years after the intervention shows what the valuable element was in the eyes of one teacher.

It is difficult to properly to indicate where my learning experiences were. What I think I have learned has little to do with knowledge. Because there were many opinions given (I was surprised how many things everyone had an opinion about) and there was much discussed about international and intercultural experiences, I became particularly vigilant in my dealings with others. Now I pay more attention! Not only in my dealings with foreign students but also with Dutch ones: I see several 'cultures' within the Dutch groups too. Again, I cannot name one clearly defined learning outcome, but it did put an awareness into motion.

In short, the openness of the design-structure did allow some participants to direct the programme towards their particular interests with agreement from the group which stimulated the group's collective self-directedness. At the same time, the participants experienced the wealth of materials and lack of a structured and timetabled programme as out of balance with their expectations and time constraints which was disempowering for some.

Proposition three

The results of combining the domains within the teaching challenges of internationalisation produced several positive products and activities. The dominant activity that combined these elements was the use of an English language rhetorical structure for organising retrospective presentations. Early on, the "Situation/Problem/Solution" mode (Annex, pp.38/42) was introduced and practised, showing how this rhetorical mode can aid analysis in regard to

intercultural sensitivity issues. An example was given of a student writing on the issue of a buddy programme (Annex p.40). Teachers identified the structural elements of the case as a 'sit/pro/sol' text, found errors in the English and speculated on the causes and effects of buddy programmes at NUAS and how they could be improved.

After the analysis of the students' text, the 'situation/problem/solution' mode was linked to the participants own intercultural experiences with international students. The teachers' enjoyment in discussing some rather difficult issues and also their confidence in being able to tackle such problems heuristically was apparent. They decided at that moment, to each give a presentation concerning the reconstruction of a critical incident involving international teaching using the Sit/problem/solution mode. A five step instruction was offered as a guide:

1. Describe the incident; explain why it was a trigger
2. Analyse the causes and effects, to bring to the underlying issue to the surface
3. Describe the actions you took
4. Identify the outcomes of your actions
5. Suggest what steps you either will or might take in future.

One teacher disagreed with the fourth and fifth steps. He said that in his opinion those last two were going too far, too quickly. He suggested that the group members instead, after step 3, proceed to identify where they can find sources for further **research** into the issue and then suggest an investigation route for the future involving those sources. Some teachers agreed to follow his steps; some wanted to keep to the original five steps. Both variations were eventually used in presentations.

By the fifth week of the 16 week period, (as mentioned in the short chronology above) it became clear that the teachers could not, in fact, undertake an action learning project. This was a serious negative development as action learning was a pillar of the TIP design. It came about during one-to-one interview sessions when the possibilities regarding action research projects were being identified by teachers. However, at this point, all of the teachers, with one exception, said that they had ideas about a project but did not see how to carry them out because they did not have enough time to investigate the situation around the problem, devise some kind of improvement, do one or two cycles to test the improvements, and then write up an analysis of what had happened by the end of the academic year. After a round of consultations, it was agreed to use the critical incident presentation as a substitute for the action research project.

The retrospective presentations using the Situation/problem/solution mode as structure were quite successful. An example of one of the presentations shows the type of sharing of ideas engendered, illustrating how the intercultural and the pedagogic were integrated. During this presentation teacher A expressed puzzlement over 'Asian values' as expressed in the literature such as Hofstede. He related a critical incident with an Asian student who blew up during a project group meeting, accusing the non-Asian students of discriminating against her. She said that she was smarter than most of them but they treated her as if she was 'dumber' because she did not speak up at meetings or when she tried to speak they ignored her.

Teacher A had tried to deal with this, he explained the actions that he took and also his later reflections. But he was still left with the feeling that he could and should have done more. He asked the group for ideas on how to make sense of the whole event. Teacher C asked him some sharp questions about the incident and suggested what she thought might have happened. In her opinion he could not have handled it much better than he did. She added that, according to the Hofstede model, the western value laden students may well have misunderstood the Asian's students silence in meetings for a lack of interest or ideas. The only thing that could have been done was hold a meeting later to discuss cultural differences. Another member of the group disagreed and pointed out that waiting for a

reflective meeting later was not a good idea. It is better to act immediately if such an incident flares up: the sooner the better, strike while the iron is hot!

Teacher F said he should have taken everyone out for a day trip and cleared the air that way. Teacher G told him that he thought the Asian student was maybe too emotional but was probably right in thinking that she was being discriminated against. He said that sometimes there had been discrimination like this in project groups in his School. As he had related the same experience during his interview the transcript of his words, which were similar to what he said in the session, are given:

If they come here they want to be international. We have had problems in the past with German students who discriminated against Polish students. It can be a problem. My advice is that the students should be mixed. They have to learn to organise their project well. They have to make the reports in good English. They divide the work among the group members. Then they turn in the report with all different levels of English because they did not read and check each other's work. So I told them you have to make this one report and have the same level. This is something they have to learn.

It is not just about completing a project! Organizing and working together is what they are here to learn as well. They had never organised a meeting before. They did not know how to make a meeting and make an agenda. Now they do. Make clear rules and stick to them, it is hard in the beginning but in the end they learn it.

This example is given rather extensively as it illustrates the type and quality of the interaction that took place during iteration one. After two other presentations, spontaneous and rather heated discussions broke out about the value of internationalizing the curriculum. Most participants agreed that, strictly in terms of knowledge acquisition and knowledge transfer, the coming of English stream programmes threatened to lower standards. At the same time, they observed that even if knowledge levels decreased there were compensations. Dutch domestic students were enriched by experiencing working with students from other countries (comments that it may be remembered, are in line with findings from the small amount of research on this subject in the Netherlands, see Wilkinson, 2005, Chapter two). Teachers found that international students were often more demanding and thus more challenging to teach.

Also there was disagreement on how to integrate international dimensions in educational programmes. Some teachers thought a 'stand-alone course' in intercultural competencies was sufficient and as much as could be realistically achieved at this time while, for others, this was a cause of frustration. Examples of worst case scenarios were described, in which an international or intercultural workshop or two are bolted on to existing courses without either the teachers or students understanding what is behind the workshop activities or assignments.

A final example of a retrospective presentation using the Situation/problem/solution guide was based on an incident concerning assessment. It was also written up as a reflective memo. This teacher's evaluation of the intervention after two years shows the value that a study of intercultural models combined with a pedagogic challenge had for her. First the 2008 memo is given, then the later reflection:

Retrospective action learning memo

1. Describe the incident; explain why it was a trigger

Well, they weren't happy with their grades. It was a stupid mistake because I didn't check with J. [a colleague who was teaching the same course to another class MT] before I entered mine...his grades were lower than mine, but it also raised other questions about our grading system.

2. Analyse the causes and effects, to bring the underlying issue to the surface

*The experiment with the score forms for media skills (goal: make students understand their grades better) ended up in strange grades such as 8.2, 9.1 and 6.4, which implied an exactness that was ridiculous for a practical assignment. But they got me thinking that grading, especially in my field of classes, a ten is **not** impossible. With what I want them to do, if they meet all the criteria, they should be able to get one, while we think that only a professional should get a ten. That's more the way the international students think of it and I found that interesting. It is so very non-Dutch, when you look at our scales. But it also has to do with the foreign students being used to getting better grades where they come from.*

3. Describe the actions you took

But now for the next block I came up with a better system, also partially acquired by your input, that can lead to a ten and some points that lead to a minus

4. Identify the outcomes of your actions

....and that seems to work pretty well for us. I haven't had any complaints since then. I have now simplified the form, making it more about the feedback than about how the grade comes about.

5. Suggest what steps you either will or might take in future

As long as it keeps working I won't change the score card but I might show it to the Dutch teachers since it could be useful for the Dutch students as well.

Later reflection:

Your input on creating these evaluation/feedback forms was very helpful. I like to share ideas with students and they respond very well when I sometimes express my uncertainties. Especially in my field of expertise I can learn almost as much from my students as they can learn from me. I love it when they come up with something that I don't know about yet. I express that openly in class, because that is exactly how I learned (and am learning) what I now teach. I encourage them to find their own resources and share them with me so I can share them with everybody. However, this does probably not apply to most things my colleagues teach....
Also when I present "my" problem as "their/our" problem, it is easier to reach a consensus on how to deal with certain matters. This is probably in all textbooks on teaching, but I tend to learn these things by experiencing them. So there you go, my learning curve is still curving, as it should be.
What I got most out of it [the TIPP] was talking about dealing with people from different nationalities. During this TIP period I finally took some time to look into the Hofstede dimensions and some other similar models...

A discussion of a text about the communication problems in a newly merged organisation in an English business text book turned into a spring board to talk about the way management at NUAS had introduced changes which illustrates how teachers see innovations like internationalisation as contested issues with regard to the management.

Teacher F identified the case in the text as a problem for employees who were suffering from a 'fear factor'. He compared the situation in the text to the coming of 'Competency Based Learning' at NUAS several years earlier. Teacher G agreed that it was similar, recounting the top down approach to the change over at his School.

It's just like the time we had to change to competency based learning. No one told us anything, we just had to change everything, all the courses and all and we got no training. It's the same with the international courses.

This led to a discussion of the introduction of IoC and the management's policies compared to participants' experiences. Teacher A said that it brings a new richness to the curriculum but the 'status-oriented' policy of the Board of Governors means "Nothing to us." F agreed that it can be enriching but wondered if his colleagues were willing to consider what it meant to think about their 'Dutchness'. He said that some teachers were getting very, very stressed by the changes. D agreed that this was a problem and added that depth was lost in teaching in English. G was not sure this mattered so much in his field which is not so language dependent. There was only a partial consensus about the quality issue.

This example has been selected because the topic of management in relation to internationalisation was often brought up in the interviews. Those parts of interviews influenced the latter sessions in that the topic was deliberately introduced by the designer during the presentations.

Proposition four

The action research project was envisioned as the main form of embedded, practice based learning built into in the programme, as we have seen. The task was sufficiently challenging to have been a vehicle for sustainable change in specific teachers' practices. As it turned out though, only one person managed to do a truncated action research mini-project while the others all carried out the retrospective action learning task described above. The plan of the mini-project, in contrast to the Ponte model, shows no actual reconnaissance stage, nor was there a procedure to reflect on actions taken:

- TIPP⁹ assignment - May 2008

Goal Orientation on how to transfer my current competences in teaching communication skills to mono-cultural (Dutch) groups to teaching international classes in future.

Key Questions: What can I transfer? What is common to both situations? What is different?

Observations of differences in terms of ...

1. Content What new content would I need to learn? What is the same and what is different in terms of content? Attention paid to how home culture plays a role in the topics, focuses etc.

2. Classroom interaction

Is it any different due to diversity? If so how? How do I prepare myself to deal with these differences?

3. Assessment

How would I need to adjust my approach to feedback and assessment, if at all?

Methods - Interview H. B. - Create a simple observation schedule (at least 4, 2 with each first year teacher) - have a Post observation talk with each of these two teachers – show them your findings for approval and feedback

This teacher did indeed sit in on two classes with each of two teachers of intercultural competence. She presented her findings orally to the group stressing the difficulties she saw with assessing IC skills. She asked both of the lecturers of IC about assessment and was not completely reassured by what they told her. (In the following year, the teacher went on to do successful workshops in intercultural conflict management in English.) In conversations since, she has indicated that her small project in was an eye-opener, especially observing two teachers of intercultural competence was valuable. During the evaluation session she commented:

I have learned a lot and from my project I am getting new insights, it is giving me ideas for my teaching in future and I enjoy it a great deal. In fact, I have now got the chance to actually teach in (School Z) so my work will change next year. I have especially got ideas about assessment from what I observed. My way of assessing will be different than what I saw.

⁹ TIPP = Tip Pilot

7.5 Analysis: Why did it work or not work?

Proposition one: Candidate explanations

A possible explanation is that this self-study line suffered from a planning bias (see Trowler, Knight & Saunders, 2003, axiom 10) in which the planner is so focused on making an inspiring plan he or she loses sight of the down to earth realities of logistics, departmental cultural / political tensions etc. If that is the case this is a significant result because it demonstrates a common and recurring difficulty in designs as process. It must also not be forgotten that two of the six had no real interest in any kind of English in the TIP. This means that one third of the population (and the strongest third at that in terms of language level) were not particularly interested or motivated. How a designer can solve this problem is not immediately clear.

A theoretical explanation is possible as well. It is possible that some kind of self-directed learning was implicitly operative during the iteration but not in external actions such as taking responsibility for self-study of English. In Chapter four, the difficulties with the term self-directed learning were set out. One problem that Candy (1991) highlighted was the confusion between SDL as 'autodidaxy and SDL as engagement in seeking and participating in learning opportunities'. In proposition one, and in the self-study line in the programme the understanding is that independent learning of English is a form of autodidaxy. It can be said that the motivation, expectations and actions regarding English in general were ambiguous. Here, any mixed signals came from participants, not from the design's mixing of the two definitions of self-directedness. First, as advanced learners of English the participants all have an aptitude for having a well organised and flexibly accessible English language knowledge base. Learners of English who work at a professional level are arguably not in urgent need of broadening their linguistic knowledge base, instead they need to target individual gaps in their knowledge and skills, filling them in preferably by a combination of just-in-time consultations with language advisors and peer feedback with colleagues. Perhaps the teachers were more interested in engaging in English enhancement practice in these kinds of interactive, informal ways.

There was further evidence suggesting another explanation, namely that the self-study materials were conflated in the participants' minds with the other materials offered as part of the sessions. A conviction that the programme was overloaded was formed very early on and was never dislodged. The presentation in the teachers' file was misleading in that the self-study materials were together with the in-session materials in the file and this may have at least reinforced the sense of overload.

Candidate solutions

Since there are several explanations there are also multiple possibilities to solve the problem of poor uptake of self-study. One possibility was to accept that this was a crucial weakness in design so the most rational option would be to drop this line of inquiry altogether. This could be justified on the basis of the many difficulties, for example the fact that some teachers had no intention of working on English. The aim of stimulating independence would not have to be lost since being self-directed in terms of engagement with aspects of the TIP can also be considered a kind of independence. However since one of the aims of the TIP was to avoid the 'one size fits all' approach to English and since there was to be another iteration it seemed there was nothing to lose by trying one more time. A solution needed to take the communication issue seriously so that future participants would see the difference between the self-study line and the other English materials so that they would not feel overwhelmed. The nature of that solution is developed in the next chapter.

Another possible solution would be to regulate the English learning. This could be done by ensuring that intake interviews were conducted and a pre-sessional test required and perhaps by other similar means. This sounds at first hearing like a sensible plan of action. It is not as straightforward as it seems though. Several of the teachers had followed English courses in the past and no team leaders or Deans had shown particular interest in the outcomes of the courses in terms of concrete assessments. It did not seem likely that managers wanted to make language requirements a part of job appraisal which makes testing quite arbitrary and uninteresting for the learners. Furthermore, regulation changes the ethos and the relationship between teachers in the group and between teachers and the PD provider that are unhelpful if democratic collaboration and shared responsibilities are aimed for.

Proposition two: Candidate explanations

A way of explaining the weak sense of ownership was given already. It is that both the self-study and the openness made the sheer number of choices too great for comfort. This is a cognitive explanation supported by the findings of Eraut. More important though were the psychosocial challenges. The attempt to transfer responsibility has a built in paradox, namely, it is 'top down'. In other words, the designer / PD provider made the decision that they should be making decisions. It could have created a tension in the teachers who had not been prepared for these innovative elements. They choose to join quite rationally mainly on the basis of the topics that attracted them, especially the intercultural aspects of the TIP. They did not know they were signing up to an experiment in being self-directed. They were familiar with the typical practices of most PD interventions but not with this practice. Had they been asked in advance, their reaction may have been to not join.

It demanded a certain level of mutual trust and familiarity to take ownership which some of the teachers did not share. This is a social / environmental explanation. Thus proposition two rested on a high risk strategy from a design perspective.

Another candidate explanation was offered in a model by Grow, referred to in Chapter four, who experienced similar kinds of resistance when he placed responsibility for large parts of a course on the shoulders of his students. In some classes the students resisted strongly. In seeking to clarify the outcome he developed a model about learner readiness for self-directedness. This is both a cognitive and behavioural explanation. An analysis of the situation in iteration one using the principles of Grow's Staged Self Directed Learning Model (1991), would show a discrepancy in the design. Grow made a table identifying the level of readiness and the appropriate teaching approach:

Stage of learners' readiness	Corresponding teaching method
1. Dependent	coach / authority
2. Interested	motivator / guide
3. Involved	facilitator
4. Self-directed	consultant / delegator

When the teacher who needed help making a plan for the action research project was interviewed she repeated that she 'needed direction'. This does not mean that she, as a person, is a 'dependent' learner.

What Grow shows is that an adult can choose which level of readiness he/she has in relation to different learning projects. Due to the high cognitive challenge of internationalisation of the curriculum in a foreign language it is quite logical that the TIP teachers did not choose the most advanced levels of readiness. Because so much was so new many of them acted rather like stage 1 learners. Certainly if the teachers did not understand the programme, then their lack of motivation to be responsible for it is not difficult to imagine.

Candidate solutions

A design principle began to emerge from the experiences with the open structure in which the concept of ownership played a role. In short, it was that such openness had to be tempered with a greater understanding of the contexts of the participants. In this case, the traditions of teachers for professional development meant that they expected to have a learning route that was already mapped out for them. In order to address this expectation a short venture solution was devised. It consisted of incorporating a procedure for choosing a domain that would be the main focus of session. The procedure is developed in the next chapter. What was *not* chosen as a solution was to make a detailed sequence for the entire programme. A degree of openness is essential to exploring the concept of ownership.

Proposition three: Candidate explanation

Engagement with the contested issues surrounding internationalisation contributed to teachers' looking closely at assumptions they held and assumptions held by colleagues they knew well. In creating a dialogic approach to learning, it proved effective to first, stimulate teachers to identify their views on the purpose of internationalisation and subsequently, to engage in discussions on the ambiguities of this innovation including ethnocentricity (Otten, 2003). In fact, the nature of the learning challenges themselves plays a role. Wihlborg found (2009) that teachers' experiences of the contexts of internationalisation were varied and their approach to evaluating and understanding those experiences were 'ambiguous and difficult to grasp' (p.117). This seems to have been the case in the critical incident presented above. Having a wide range of topic domains provided rich content to discuss internationalisation. These different areas made it easier to approach key issues from multiple perspectives, which suited that ambiguous nature of experiences.

Candidate solution

This proposition was fairly successful. In this it appears to confirm Brislin (2002) who claimed that critical cases are a good approach for in-depth learning for intercultural issues rather than superficial comparative presentations of the characteristics of cultures. However the retrospective nature of the case reports made it difficult, if not impossible, for teachers to plough the insights back into their workplace duties. The solution was to alter the assignment from a retrospective presentation to, as much as possible, a prospective one. This is a solution both *on* the intervention and *through* the intervention. According to Eraut (2004) when work related learning tasks appeal to personal confidence and agency together with opportunities for professional progress in specific contexts there is a strong chance that enhanced skills available for performing in future contexts will occur. The details of the solution will be discussed in the next chapter.

Proposition four: Candidate explanations

The failure of a chance to do such a systematic project for self-improvement that also improves the experience of students is certainly regrettable. A supplementary unintended outcome of the lack of action research projects and case studies, was that knowledge and insights that the group were beginning to have were not known outside the group itself and the members had nothing tangible to show for their 15 week engagement. Stigmar (2008), in discussing results of several educational action programmes, stops to consider teachers' motivations to commit themselves to carrying out the programme. He points to the importance of incentives. In the context of the TIP this could mean that although there were design issues in terms of logistics there may very well also have been motivational ones and a sound explanation may have to include both.

Teachers who have tenure will not become committed because of policy statements or because the PD provider is inspiring. Stigmar claims that 'gaining credit for educational development efforts is crucial' (p.118). He suggests that linking successful engagement on professional development trajectories to salary scales and financial support for attending conferences abroad would help a great deal. Naturally these kinds of incentives were missing in this instance. There was a consensus among the participants that the pilot was too free of requirements. An adult learning principle is that adults are 'goal-oriented' and that a lack of concrete outcomes often leads to a lack of motivation (see for example Lieb, 1991 the *Principles of Adult Learning* for a standard list).

Coming back to the stated problem, that is logistics, the overly ambitious estimation of what the TIP participants could achieve can potentially be explained as the novice researcher's overreliance on the success stories in some of the literature of action research. This literature does recognise that time is a serious challenge. Sufficient time is essential for various reasons. Zeichner notes that time is needed to 'create a safe environment' and to establish 'rituals and routines' (2001, p.279). In her summary of the difficult side of carrying out action research Zuber-Skerritt says, first, time is a problem because the 'long term benefits are not always obvious in the short term'. Second, 'time is crucial for developing a team spirit, group collaboration and consensus, breaking old habits, tradition, inertia and hierarchy and in getting support from top management' (Zuber-Skerritt, 1992, p.215).

Often, the researchers also demonstrate that the time issue can be overcome. Examples of successful action research for professional development reported in publications, had been carried out on very different basis than the TIP.

Zuber-Skerritt (1992) based two volumes on the success of the programme she devised for university lecturers. She led projects of so many teachers that it is safe to assume the university provided substantial support (which she noted as a requirement above). Kember's initiative (Kember & Gow, 1992; Kember & Kelly, 1993) was generously supported by the Ministry of Education in Hong Kong. On the other side of the issue, Glass's critique of certain action research guidelines for novice researchers (2002) was noted in Chapter four. He thought that they tend to underplay the realities of organisational power structures and the barriers that novice researchers can face.

Caruana remarks that action research publications about internationalisation have in general not been good at disseminating what did *not* go well. Rather, they provide success stories of individuals or 'quick fixes' as outcomes, with little use of critical analytical frameworks (Caruana & Spurling, 2007, p.81). Still, ultimately the responsibility for the design rests with the researcher, not on the advice or stories of others. More troubleshooting in advance would perhaps have brought this weakness to light, although that is not certain.

Candidate solution

The solution for the lack of action learning projects is a design solution, not a theoretical one. In order to address this problem it was necessary to look at the hindrances in the professional development environment realistically and take steps to reduce them. Adjustments could be made to the programme to meet these realities. These are described in Chapter eight.

7.6 Conclusions

No one can deny that this narrative has brought problematic issues of the research design to the surface. It has succeeded in showing what did not go well and why. The logistic, relational and design problems have been made clear so that, as Sitkin believes, (1992) slow (evolutionary) learning can come from quick losses.

At its most positive, the intervention has demonstrated that participants showed strong problem solving tendencies which incorporated reflection in presentations. Most of the teachers told stories about overcoming problems linked to their practice as teachers of international groups. Teacher A spent real efforts on trying to puzzle out what had gone wrong with the Asian student in her project group and the other teachers were clearly absorbed by the problem presented. Teacher B was stimulated to join the TIP in part by her concerns about discrepancies between her own values coming from the Dutch traditions of grading and a genuine surprise at how different the values of her international students were. She came to realise the validity of those other values, which represents a shift in her meaning scheme (Illeris, 2007). Two more participants had strong narratives of intercultural encounters including misunderstandings and how these were overcome. In fact, if there is one disposition that seems to characterise these teachers it is being occupied with overcoming problems, which appears to confirm one of the work processes that generate learning in Eraut's research (see Chapter 4 table 2). This is such a strong result that it may perhaps be a common characteristic among Dutch teachers. This result demonstrates that it is worth considering that experienced practitioners as these prefer to solve educational problems through informal learning. That may help to explain why there was little enthusiasm for independent learning objects, portfolio tasks and homework assignments, which was already signalled in one of the early interviews with teachers in 2006. The benefits of tacit learning that were evident to some extent in the TIP occurred through:

- a) the process of creating a conversational space for engaging in discourse on internationalisation and
- b) facilitating the process of problem solving through retrospective analysis.

However, at the same time, the findings have revealed that in other areas, learning was not notably successful. The inhibitors were logistic problems of various kinds and specific problems of implementation associated with practitioner-research carried out by a novice such as having an open programme structure to allow for negotiation without clear enough goals and not successfully aligning tasks to concrete outcomes. Regarding the emergence of final design principles two propositions were especially significant at this point. The proposition that providing multiple but combined content leads to dialogic learning (prop 3) revealed that it was possible to tap into the existing problem solving dispositions of teachers. If this outcome were to be confirmed in the next iteration, then there would be good cause to anticipate a design principle along the lines of this particular proposition after further refinement. This proposition was derived primarily from the first framing theory concerning multiple content domains.

On the other hand proposition 2, which states that requiring teachers to take more responsibility for the programme would strengthen self directed learning as a group did not prove encouraging as noted above. Therefore this proposition, at this point, seemed unlikely to be developed further into a design principle if this outcome were to be confirmed in the next version of the TIP. The proposition was derived from an aspect of social practices theory (framing theory 2) in which teachers can be expected to operate from traditional patterns.

Thus the next iteration picks up where this one leaves off and carries the investigation forward on the basis of the propositions forward offering the TIP as a programme to all teachers at the NUAS through its official PD site, the Corporate Academy.

Research Question 1 How might an innovative in-service programme for internationalisation provide experiences that enhance teacher professional learning and why?

Sub RQ 1.1 What materials, events and activities could be provided in a programme to stimulate enhancement of the linguistic, intercultural and pedagogic competencies and how can they be combined?

Sub RQ 1.2 What materials, events and activities could be provided in an intervention to stimulate self-directed, transcendent and practiced engendered learning in an intervention?

Introduction

Iteration two started in November of 2008 and ran into the late spring of 2009. It carries over the propositions that steered the research in the first iteration.

In the first section, 8.1, the major changes to the participants and setting are given. This is followed by the description of why and how the programme characteristics changed related to the solutions found for the four propositions at the end of iteration one. These consisted of both revised and newly developed materials and structural changes (8.2). A short chronology is then given in section 8.3. The results section highlights what did and did not work in relation to the propositions (8.4). Section 8.5 offers the immediate analysis in the form of candidate explanations and candidate solutions. The concluding section presents a short summary of the propositions and a number of discoveries this intervention (8.6).

8.1 Participants and setting

There were significant changes in the setting as the participants had to sign up for the TIP through the Corporate Academy. The Corporate Academy (hereafter C.A.) is the name of the service portal for professional development of NUAS staff. It was created two years before the TIP was first offered (2006). The C.A. had a dual goal. First, the university staff of professional developers (that is the educational advisors) could offer university wide trainings through it. Second, interesting and valuable training workshops or courses offered inside of a particular School could be 'opened up' for enrolment by staff members from other Schools by offering the workshops through the C.A. In establishing the C.A. the Board of Governors aimed at bringing together all the forms of professional development under one umbrella, including those that had been hidden in Schools previously. This is a model of 'open service' provision used in universities to modernise, simplify and make their PD support provision more user friendly, efficient and transparent. Organisational knowledge management can be considered an objective of the Board of Governors.

This new location seriously affected the ethos of the TIP. The Head of the Centre of Languages and Cultures who, it may be remembered, sponsored iteration one, wanted the TIP to be offered through the C.A. She was again the sponsor of this intervention and was responsible for the logistical tasks such as recruiting potential participants and finding a room for the group to meet. Because it would last many weeks, it was calculated that the TIP would cost a teacher much more than one year's worth of his or her professional development budget.

Participants in the TIP through the Corporate Academy

The head of the Expertise Centre for Languages and Cultures anticipated that up to 15 teachers would sign up for the TIP. In the end only six did. The story of the recruitment that did not succeed will not be recounted here as it has nothing to add to the understanding of the research questions. This does not mean it had no effects, only that this story of how the situation came about is merely anecdotal. In fact, the effects were significant for both design requirements and design principles as will be shown. The first of these effects is that three of the six teachers who eventually participated in the TIP full trial in this iteration came from the same School. The balance between the six participants was weak because of this. Another unintended outcome of the recruitment process was that only one of the six teachers could be interviewed before the programme started. The failure to hold intake interviews was unhelpful for the research into teachers' motivation to participate in international education and into their learning orientations and dispositions. Furthermore, it was hoped that during the intake interviews the pre-sessional materials which had been poorly used in the last iteration could be introduced directly to individuals so that, at the start of the programme, teacher participants could be prepared to share their self-assessments. In fact, at this point, aborting the research project was briefly considered.

School of YY participants

The TIP was the first ever professional development intervention for internationalisation offered at the NUAS. That was partially why one team leader wanted to send quite a few teachers to follow it. This School's international stream, that is, its four year EMI bachelor curriculum, had been experiencing a drop in enrolment for some time. Further the Dutch stream lacked internationally oriented modules although there was an international dimension in skills training. Moreover the central office international relations team had commented negatively on this situation. This gap between the two study streams had been identified as an area that needed to be improved by the management of the School itself. Thus the team leader was experiencing a degree of pressure from his own targeting of goals

as well as 'top down' expectations from the B of G to improve the international level and standing of the EMI programme and to introduce internationally oriented modules into the Dutch stream. He had asked the head of the Expertise Centre for Languages and Cultures to arrange for six teachers to be enrolled. However she had not been able to achieve this due to logistic difficulties. Thus he told three teachers who had no timing conflicts, that it would do them good to follow the TIP. Two of these teachers taught or were going to teach in the international stream for one half of a semester only. In effect they were teachers of the Dutch stream. The third was interested in intercultural competency as she was developing a course in Dutch in it for the Dutch stream. Of the three teachers who had wanted to follow but could not attend because they had other commitments, two did follow it in the following year during iteration 3.

Internationalisation Officers / Coordinators

Two other teachers signed up to participate out of a desire for professional development directly and intensely related to internationalisation. They were from different Schools but had a similar function as internationalisation co-ordinators responsible for integrating international education within their Dutch School curricula. One of these coordinators was the only person directly recruited through the C.A. He worked at a School which had been highly active in carrying out the B of G's policy for internationalisation and was doing well with its PIs. For example, there were substantial credits set aside in the curriculum for internationally oriented study programmes or accredited projects. He was planning a major new project with a partner in Scandinavia that year and wanted to improve his English and get new ideas about experiential learning approaches for international groups of students.

The other coordinator had wanted to join the pilot a semester earlier having attended an informative presentation at a university wide study day. Her School was going to host an intensive international course under the Bologna operated SOCRATES programme in English and was planning to introduce English language modules. The School had strong ties with certain African countries and sent a few students a year to these countries on work placement. The School had not yet developed a mission or vision regarding internationalisation and was somewhat hindered in this because the Dutch professional field did not see the necessity to have an international line in competences. This teacher was responsible for developing the policy vision and goals. She was the only participant who was interviewed before the TIP started.

A language teacher

The final participating teacher was a subordinate of the head of the Expertise Centre for Languages and Cultures. She was sent by the Head in order to improve her English and to be able to give her impression of the TIP back to its sponsor. It appears that she was not 'charged' the full fee which meant that she was participating on another basis than the rest.

8.2 Characteristics of the revised programme in relation to the propositions

The first intervention was, as we have seen, a pilot. The programme was deliberately highly open in structure and heavily loaded in content. A programme as multi-faceted and multi-layered as the one made for the first iteration would normally be considered too ambitious and unrealistic even as a prototype. However, this multiplicity did make it possible to investigate the propositions such as the nature and degree of transcendence across content areas, the degrees of individual and group self-directedness and the degree to which extension activities could form a bridge to the workplace. The following were the constructed solutions to the mixed outcomes of the first iteration.

1 A sub-component of self-study and self-assessment materials for English and teaching would facilitate tailoring of English practice to individual needs and stimulate independence. [re Research Question 1.2]

The first adjustment to the programme was to marginalise the self-study line for English and at the same time increase the variety of English exercises that could be done interactively. This change was influenced by the failure of the participants in iteration one to take up the English mini-programmes. It was also influenced by adult education principles. One of these is that independence does not equate with isolation. In fact, a long held principle of self-directed learning indicates that self-directed projects involve an average of 10 other people as resources, guides, encouragers and the like (30 things we know for sure..Zemke, 1981/ Roueche, 2007). In other words, adults like to learn on their own but not be pushed off a deep end and left to their own devices. The mini learning programmes of 5 or 10 hours may have felt too isolating. Paradoxically, putting all the self-study and other materials onto a Black board site which was supposed to make the material more accessible may have increased the isolation. Making them optional in iteration two meant that the mini-programmes were available to the teachers who were strongly interested in this form of learning. Other teachers who wanted a more interactive way of improving their English were going to be provided with more in-session and integrated activities. These teachers would, it was presumed not feel that they had failed in some way if they did not take up the self-study line.

2 Requiring the teachers to make decisions about which of the domain areas to focus on in what order would make them act together taking responsibility in directing their own professional development path as a group and so take partial ownership of the programme. [re Research question 1.1.]

This proposition was shown to have been flawed during the first iteration. Most of the participants had found the large number of choices unhelpful for them. Also it was not always possible to agree on the next domain. The changes to the programme were designed to increase the level of structure but still allow the learners to make some of the decisions. Three adjustments were put in place as concrete manifestations of this goal.

First, in the adjusted structure, (Annex pp.94/95) participants were asked to decide which of the 3 domains should be the focus of a block of sessions once a month. The aim was to raise the level of involvement and increase the sense of responsibility and ownership of the learning routes, thus supporting greater group coherence and independence. More restricted choices on how much time to devote to English in the sessions were offered compared to the earlier iteration.

Second, the first four sessions were planned and prepared in advance. This reflected a desire to restrict the degree of frustration voiced in the pilot by allowing participants more time to get to know each other and the PD designer before they were forced to make decisions together. The improvement is theoretically driven. In the approach to instructional design with a personal responsibility orientation of Hiemstra & Brockett (1994) this easing into the independent decisions falls under the category of 'putting learning into action'

Third, the teachers were required to keep sessions records, that is, one teacher was asked to make a record of the session and post it on the blackboard site before the next session. This idea was inspired by Brookfield's observation that self-directedness in group situations needs to be studied more closely. The participants were given a template to help them in writing up the session record (Annex p.82).

3 Providing opportunities to combine domains of content and approaches to learning in tasks related to contested aspects of IoC would stimulate learning which was dialogic and transcendent. [re Research questions 1.1 and 1.2]

The aim of these adjustments was to increase the depth of the discussions by having more provocative material both through texts and through presentations by outsiders and by face-to-face encounters with the most important stakeholders, namely students. The concrete adjustments consisted of

- a) preparing the reading texts that would sharpen debate (Annex pp.71-75)
- b) inviting students to share views
- c) inviting an outside expert on intercultural dimensions of international education.
- d) a mind map (Annex, p.15) which asks for, causes, conditions, strategies and consequences of involvement with international teaching. [which was not in fact used] The aim was to use the map first for self-reflection and then as a mediating tool for the group to discover what they shared and how they differed, which is important for developing a group dynamic. The ideas of Illeris (2007) concerning interaction for complex learning inspired these changes.

4 Providing materials and guidelines for an action learning project would facilitate individuals in learning in situ, from the practices in their own Schools. [re Research question 1.2]

Adjustments to the action learning projects were made in two areas. On the one hand the individual presentations were re-structured and on the other the timing and facilitating of the action research projects were changed. The teacher presentations in the adjusted TIP programme, prototype 2.0 were not going to be retrospective as they had been during iteration one. Instead, teachers were instructed to present something of current interest. They had a free hand in choosing what they wanted to present. It could be a rehearsal of a presentation phase of a lesson in which a theory or model was set out for students, or it could be a presentation of a current curriculum development activity regarding internationalisation of a course or programme. The aim of this change was to redirect the learning experience from retrospective reflection towards productive reflection, a concept that fits well with the design aims of the TIP and of the theoretical framing of the research. One feature of productive reflection is that it has a collective orientation and an organisational intent. Another is that

it has a developmental character...designed to simultaneously contribute to solving organisational problems of today while equipping members of the organisation to be better able to deal with challenges that face them in the future. It does this through building confidence that those reflecting can act together in meaningful ways and develop their own repertoire of approaches to meet future challenges. It needs to nurture the group if it is to be sustainable. (Boud, 2006, p.7).

By designing the presentations to focus on current and near future activities and projects, it was hoped that the teachers would gain confidence and support each other so that they could grow into an action learning group.

The second adjustment was the earlier introduction of action research materials, more support and emphasis given to making the starting plan and setting a deadline for completion of the plan (Annex pp.87-90). Also, the programme was extended from 15 to, in principle, 30 weeks. As the prototype schedule shows, the programme was broken up into a number of group sessions that would be followed up by small group or individual meetings to share and support each other during the action research projects. The aim of the

adjustments was to offer more clarity in this challenging task and thus increase the chances of success and to strengthen the bonds between the group members so that they might create new communities of practice that could be sustained after the TIP.

8.3 Key development, short chronology of intervention two

The intervention is framed by two non-events. The first was referred to above; the pre-session activities did not take place. The first encounter with five of the six participants was during the first session. At the far end of the programme the other non-event was that the last 12 weeks that were supposed to be devoted to carrying out action research. These two negatives are the bookends between which the truncated programme took place.

Phase One Sessions 1-6 focussed on internationalisation primarily combined with English language exercises, action research was introduced in week 6

Non-event: there were no intake interviews and no pre-session self-assessments

There were 12 input sessions over a five month period. Attendance in this period was quite regular, in fact, up to the end of February it was very good.

The first weeks were focused on what internationalisation means with reading texts and students who were invited to give their opinion. The participants took turns in writing up the session records. In the 6th week, action research was introduced. Action research plans were made by all participants by the end of week 10.

Phase Two Sessions 7-11 were teacher presentations combined with English or Intercultural exercises

Every participant gave such a presentation. They ran until the end of February. All of them were recorded on video. English language feedback was available after the presentations and DVDs were made for the participants. Certain participants began to show a lower motivation after giving their own presentations. One failed to attend regularly or came unprepared. Two others often criticised what was happening. As a first response to this development three external experts were consulted about how to deal with the tensions. The next step was to send a letter to everyone asking for an evaluation at the next TIP meeting.

Session 12 (5 March) was a formative evaluation and feedback session and the last presentation (details are given in results sections).

This session combined a group intervention with a formative evaluation of the TIP structure. After the intervention the group only met twice. The session had revealed a split in beliefs about the best way to organise their learning among the members of the group.

Phase Three Sessions 13-16 consultations with pairs or individuals

Non-event: there were no completed action research projects - 2 teachers decided to leave at the end of March

For the rest of March and April there were two guest sessions and one intercultural exercises session. After that, one or two participants came each week in order to deal with their needs more individually. There was no formal ending of the C.A. TIP.

8.4 Results: What worked and what did not work?

Proposition one

Making the self-study materials into an optional line (adjustment to proposition 1) did not have the aimed-for effect. It was not the case that one or two highly motivated self-directed learners would use them and the others would not notice or feel uncomfortable about not doing them. In fact, all of the participants stated, when asked for an evaluation, they had not done any of the English mini-programmes. Instead of doing them, other ways of learning independently were mentioned. One teacher said that he liked talking with other people, preferably native speakers. Others favoured watching TV or films as ways to improve their English. One enjoyed reading romances. Half of them also asked to be given specific assignments and to get feedback on those assignments from the designer/researcher. None of them however were attracted to separate self-study in the manner offered to them in the mini-programmes through the Black Board site.

Proposition two

Concerning the changes made to the sequencing of the topics of the programme (proposition 2) the adjustments also did not have the aimed for effect. The first session threw up issues that remained throughout. After the first hour of the first session, one of the participants asked what the letters 'TIP' meant. He had been advised to sign up for the programme by his team leader but had not taken any steps to find out what it was about on his own. He clearly had not read any of the information (available on the Corporate Academy website) that prepared teachers for the novel aspects of the programme. Two more teachers came with serious questions about whether this was a programme for them. One of these later said in a one-to-one meeting that she had doubted whether she belonged in this group from the start. These three doubtful and doubting teachers were the ones whose engagement with international education was rather marginal.

The change to having a discussion after three sessions to decide on the topics for the next three sessions was devised during iteration one and would possibly have suited the former group as one of them had suggested it. But it did not work in the new 'population'. The teachers never decided on a three week block. After the first four sessions which had been prepared in advance for them, several teachers asked the researcher to continue to make the programme. They wanted to be told in advance what was expected of them.

The introduction of required session records had somewhat more positive effects. Even though they made no decisions on the sequence of topics, teachers were content with the three domains. They were also aware that they were expected to take on some responsibility for the TIP. Evidence that the issues were important to the group is found in a session record written by one of the teachers after the first 4 sessions.

What did we do, these first weeks? We looked at

- *Hofstede's five dimensions of culture*
- *we made a little test concerning our own position*
- *we had the session with H B [an expert in intercultural communication MT]*
- *we looked briefly at the so called 'Classroom English'*
- *and of course, we thoroughly discussed the different angles of this wonderful term 'internationalisation' . . . Marion literally has tons of literature on the subject*

This led to a discussion about the hits and hints of the first weeks of the TIP course. I think we all agreed on two things: first, that the three focuses (English, Intercultural Competencies and Internationalisation), all deserve their fair and equal share of the time available and secondly: there

definitely is room for more effort and impetus from our side: Marion really has been taking the lion's share of the work in the TIP so far . . .

Still, the issue of who was responsible for decisions concerning the English language component was a source of divisions between teachers. It is clear from the excerpt of an evaluation session (number 12) that certain members of the group wanted a kind of classroom English approach while others either rejected it or wanted some compromise.

Teacher A: Ok, we all have individual needs for English, so Marion can give us each a list of what we need to work on and what we should do for homework.

As a formative evaluation everyone was asked to choose between two options regarding the way English language learning materials would be handled after this session. Did they prefer:

- A) A fixed and regular time slot for English during every session, for example 45 minutes , to practice specific functions or skills, like using phrasal verbs, or improving pronunciation or writing letters.
- B) Focussing on English on a 'just in time' basis, i.e. when errors of choice of verb tenses occur during say, a presentation, a mini 'tense review' workshop , would be given during the following week.

In response, two teachers wrote or explained orally that they preferred A but sometimes liked the idea of B. Two preferred B but would like more structure somehow. One would not choose but complained generally about the lack of structure. The last one did not want either A or B, he only wanted to improve his English by talking to native speakers or as a second choice, other Europeans.

Proposition three

The adjustments to the programme (incorporated to stimulate interactive, dialogic and accommodative learning that could cross domains and contexts) did produce some interesting outcomes. Concerning the first and second adjustments, the sessions that followed the assigned reading about internationalisation and university policy (Annex, pp.69/75) and which also included the participation of a panel of students, were more urgent and polarised than during the earlier iteration. One of these sessions can serve as an example of how the changes stimulated greater depth. It is offered in more detail than others. In a design narrative it is not always necessary to present 'raw' data. However in this case a close description of one session is exemplary for many other sessions.

Before this session a text was sent out by email to prepare teachers (Bell, 2004). It included a worksheet with a summary and quotations from another writer to make it more interesting. There was also a series of discussion questions that they could use to prepare their own part of the session (Annex page 69/70). Teachers were asked to choose words and phrases they wanted to learn and to think about their responses to the 'trigger' questions. This activity was planned for the first hour. In the second hour a panel of four students from most of the Schools of the participants were invited to join in the discussion. They had not been given the hand-out text. The students had their own questions and interests to share with the teachers. After a general introduction, it was decided to offer them the empty classroom next door during the first hour so that they could brainstorm what they wanted to tell the teachers and what they wanted to ask.

While the students prepared a presentation in the next room, the teachers went over the trigger questions. Some had prepared others had not. A few were able to make a strong case for the pedagogic 'added value' of international dimensions. For example one teacher argued that secondary vocational schools offered one perspective on professional competencies to pupils but tertiary vocational (or applied sciences universities) should offer

two or more perspectives. Internationalisation is a logical and fruitful way to incorporate this plurality of perspectives in the educational programmes. This was offered almost as a debate argument. Not everyone supported it. There were few solid counter arguments, rather an emotional undertone of impatience. For example in the heat of discussion a teacher remarked:

I am beginning to get sick of that word 'internationalisation'.

Another teacher seconded her although she softened it a bit to make it sound like a joke. It was not taken as a humorous remark by everyone however. Later on, in the second hour, when student E. was talking about diversity, one of these participants interrupted, saying,

We already have programmes for that... for diversity. When people work internationally there is a kind of professional atmosphere between them that is familiar to them.

The summary of points discussed during the session below, taken from the session record (literally made by one of the participants), notes that the negative emotion was not restricted to one teacher alone. In fact according to the students many of the Dutch students in their classes were similarly short of patience when it came to the interaction with international students.

After an introductory round, we discussed some topics based on the material of M. Bell. The discussion that followed will not be reproduced in the following text; I will only describe the most remarkable points:

- It is notable that the integration of the I-stream students is marginal in the perspective of the regular students of the NUAS. Ghettoisation of foreign students (cliques) is a consequence of that development. It is conspicuous that no student of the I-stream joined us in thinking about internationalisation at the NUAS. That has to be changed. At ZZZ (School name MT) the integration is certainly there in a hosting-project. Research must be done on what the distinctive aspects are in the integration procedures.*

- Certainly there is a top-down-philosophy at the NUAS. Internationalisation is not a firmly rooted principle inside the Schools.*

- The on-going discussion about the concrete meaning of the term Internationalisation keeps our minds busy: the exchange of research findings and knowledge about goals and needs in local contexts is an important activity in thinking about Internationalisation. For example, at CCC the contact with the patient is of great importance. At YY the contact is with foreign managers. It is memorable that the role of the study of intercultural aspects at BBB is not as big as one should expect.*

- I@H (Internationalisation at Home, that is making international aspects a part of every student's learning programme, not just the foreign students, and the students who go abroad for study exchange) can be important in the thinking process. How do we make the education at the NUAS ready for the next generation? A generation that will be more globally oriented (internet, globalisation).*

- At the NUAS using English language literature in all academic fields should be stimulated more.*

What happened in the second hour session? What points did we cover?

- We continued in searching our way to a satisfying and complete definition of the main subject, Internationalisation. Unfortunately it has become a container-term in which the multicultural aspect has sometimes been filtered out. We train professionals who are employable, but for effective cross cultural management, we need more.*

- To find the right solutions we need to open the international arsenal of solutions to find the most fitting strategies. In order to solve the problems we need to prioritise our educational programs.*

- Then we went to the students to hear what they have been through in the past hour of thinking about Internationalisation. We enjoyed a fascinating presentation about:*

- a. *Cultural competences versus languages.* The awareness that cultural differences are so diverse is not common property in the world of all (NUAS) students. Student E. demonstrated this to us clearly. Most of their colleague students in the opinion of this panel are much too convinced that foreigners must adapt to 'our' standards and values ...
- b. *Intercultural competences:* by encouraging the I-students to participate in the process of realisation the whole I-process. (presentations, ask for their wishes)
- c. *Working in study groups* can also be a welcome supplement in the strategy.
- d. *Buddy-programs* can be studied as a serious option, compared to the method in international student housing.

We can conclude that we had a very animated meeting, with thanks for the students for their impassioned input.

The record and observation notes together make clear that there were opposing views on the attention that staff should pay to international students and to the relationships between the international and Dutch domestic students. The disagreement as well as the fact of real or potential 'ghetto' forming were both highlighted in the literature review in Chapter two (Hermans, 2005; Leask, 2007a; Da Vita, 2005; 2007). Interestingly, the Dutch students stand closer to the teachers who want to take intercultural communication more seriously than they do to the teachers who seem to want to minimise the importance of the issue, for example by conflating it with an existing policy for diversity. An additional point of interest is that teachers from the different Schools were finding out about the activities of other Schools. This interdisciplinary dialogue was seen as crucial by both Mestenhauser (2007) and Caruana (Caruna & Spurling, 2007) as well as other leading thinkers in IoC.

Proactive reflection

Another outcome of the adjustments was the change in orientation in the teachers' presentations. As noted the aim was to use the presentations in a forward looking manner. The first two teachers gave a trial version of a part of an upcoming lecture. It turned out that both of them framed and illustrated a concept or model exclusively in Dutch terms. A policy of a Dutch multinational was used throughout as typical of corporate social responsibility [CSR] during an explanation of the concept, and a problem in economic decision making used as its main example, whether a husband would be better off not to live up to a promise to take his wife to an opera when he preferred to watch football on TV. After each of these presentations quite long discussions on their content took place, followed by a short feedback moment focussed on English errors.

In terms of content, the choices of Dutch situations or companies as examples were queried. 'Why not use a company from a BRIC country?' asked one teacher. 'Don't they have any responsible multinationals over there?' 'What if the marital relations on decision making are different in one of the international students' cultures so the dilemma makes no sense to them?' asked another. During the language feedback, teachers helped each other by giving their impression of the mildly Dutch sounding pronunciation of the speakers and were generally highly supportive although they did point out a few small errors. The teachers were given a DVD and feedback sheet to consult before they gave the actual lecture. In contrast to the narrow range of corrections given by peers, the feedback sheets were quite extensive. Whether the sheets or the videos were used by the teachers is difficult to evaluate. One of the two described here did report orally that her lecture was very well received and that students had complimented her on her English. Also she had added another example from a developing country to the Dutch one.

Other teachers used the presentation slot differently however. They did not give a mini-lecture as a rehearsal for what they would say in a classroom. One person explained his teaching philosophy, based on constructivism. He did this interactively rather than as a

lecture and explained how he was planning to use the material from the TIP in a joint project with a sister School in Sweden, connecting his philosophy to his action research plan.

The other internationalisation coordinator talked about the proposal she had made to her School for internationalisation of the curriculum. She especially wanted to share a model she had found, called the Volcano Model of Intercultural Competence (see Campinha-Bacote, 2002, http://www.transculturalcare.net/Cultural_Competence_Model.htm). The teachers were quite interested in the model and discussed whether it could be used in their Schools as well. In her proposal this teacher used materials from the TIP blackboard site such as the definition of internationalisation from Jane Knight, which the group had studied in the first week. Because her approach was more transformative than add on, (these approaches to implementing IoC were also covered in the first three weeks of the TIP) the management team had not yet agreed to it. After this presentation there was a kind of brainstorm as the colleagues of this teacher tried to help thinking of ways to ensure that her proposal would be accepted (which it was eventually).

Proposition four

Regarding the adjustments made to the facilitation of action research project (proposition 4), some progress was made over iteration one but the actual projects were, once again, not executed. When a booklet on action research was given and a reading assignment made, the three participants from the same School were reluctant to start on a project. They wanted hours from their team leaders and a commitment that whatever they produced would be used. In spite of this hesitation four plans were drawn up (as the three teachers just mentioned made one plan to carry out jointly). The plans were discussed by the group which had not happened in the earlier intervention. The participants did benefit from making them because they at least had to engage with situations in their workplace to do the reconnaissance for them. This was evident from their comments at the time and later on, after the programme was over. In addition, it was evident that they were becoming engaged by their reactions when it was made clear that their line managers (explicitly in two Schools) were not willing to allocate resources for the execution of the projects.

In one case, there was even something of a small crisis when the team leader was unwilling to provide support. It appeared that there had been a rather uncomfortable meeting about the project, later cleared up to everyone's complete satisfaction. All participants agreed that they could not do their projects without being allocated resources from management. This is a short transcript of the end of a conversation between one of the three (D) and another TIP teacher (B) in which D had explained the negative situation.

Teacher B: Why did your team leader send...you [to the TIP MT] if he had no thought of using what you learnt?

Teacher D: Well it doesn't matter anyway; there won't be new initiatives because there's no room in the budget.

B: But internationalisation is a strategic goal, how can your team leader deal with that? This course [the TIP MT] is aimed at making a change. If you are not allowed to do that you cannot continue. Maybe the TIP should be for coordinators of international aspects of the studies only.

D: Well I think if you're interested and do teach in the international programme you may not be able to use it so quickly but you can build up your expertise for later.

A different type of outcome is evident from a feedback interview, two years later:

I could not do my project because the team leader we had then and I had problems. Lots of people had problems with him and he finally left in July but it made it impossible to do any project before then. Later, I used the materials, like the AR plan [from Petra Ponte - MT] and the other stuff you gave

us and taught my students how to use them for projects. I still have students who do these kinds of projects. They like it and learn a lot. So it was not for nothing in the end.

A third response comes from a formative evaluation at the end of the input phase. It bundled questions about the combining of English and internationalisation with the a question about ambitions of the action research project

I would like to end with a more general remark: at the beginning I thought that the lessons would be all about learning English. I then found out that it was also about 'internationalisation', which made it even more interesting. But now I find myself wondering what position we have in that; should we also think of the possibilities for our own school? Do they expect that from us? In what way are we using our knowledge on this subject? I do have some ideas on the subject by now, but does my 'dean' want to hear them?

One possible result of the disappointment about the projects, coupled with the successful presentations, was that two teachers decided to leave after phase two. All of the teachers had had their presentations by then and had been able to benefit from them in their workplaces if they wanted to do so. This does not mean that the positive effect of the presentations and the failure to be able to do their projects were the direct reasons for them to leave. It would be simplistic to make such a linear cause/effect analysis. The teachers left for various reasons. One said that she had no more release time from her manager. Another said that she did not have an international teaching for the rest of the year and wanted to focus on more pressing tasks.

8.5 Analysis: Why did it work or not work?

Proposition one

Candidate explanation

Implied in the teachers' comments is that they wanted another kind of English practice. The isolation identified after iteration one was not actually addressed by making the learning line optional. Just as in the first iteration the self-study did not seem to have added value, so there was no incentive. In this iteration the teachers did not seem to conflate the English materials with the openness of the structure in the same way. Rather there were as the results for proposition three show, disagreements about how much English to cover in the controlled way. One explanation for this lack of enthusiasm can be sought in the research into blended learning, which is coming to agree that tasks offered digitally will be more attractive if connected to face-to-face activities. At the end of the first year of a five year study, Heinze and Proctor (2004) identified some of the same arguments for blended learning, as used here for the TIP English and self-study materials through the blackboard, namely that it 'is compatible with working life' it 'suits different types of learners' and is 'flexible' (2004, fig. 5). Some of the weaknesses are that blended learning does not provide 'enough guidance' and that 'Blackboard usage technical issues (access, navigation, etc.)' are demotivating (2004, fig. 5). They also note that the materials are sometimes too prescriptive. Their interim conclusion was that the crucial factor in success was communication. Unless there was combination of face-to-face, online discussion, moderator support online and other forms of interaction, learning from 'blackboard' or any virtual learning environment invariably fails to excite or in any case to maintain interest over time. At the start of iteration two, all teachers were asked to put up a photo of themselves on the blackboard site and to refer often to what was stored there not only for themselves but also to inform others. Only two of the six teachers did this. Therefore, as explanation, the failure of the designer to provide the kinds of communicative interaction needed was a powerful disincentive to use the materials.

Candidate solution

If the TIP is offered as a stand-alone programme again, adjustments could be made by incorporating aspects from the guidelines for success in digital learning currently available. In addition a colleague more experienced in blended learning could be asked to help out. The question remains if the effort to make these changes would be worthwhile. The teachers were not dissatisfied with the amounts of English offered so offering more does not seem to be the answer. It was mainly that the group could not agree on the types of English practice they wanted. Perhaps it would be easier for a generation of teachers more familiar and comfortable with blended learning to see and accept the benefits. In case such a cohort or group signs up for the TIP the adjustments could be made. Even then making completion of a certain amount of timed tasks or a certain number of mini-programmes a requirement with a digital portfolio to collect the evidence of having met the requirement might be a way of ensuring that the teachers do work on English at their own pace with a range of areas to choose from. This does mean that the degree of independence is restricted. If the TIP were credit bearing this restriction on independence could be justified.

Proposition two

Candidate explanation

One of the adjustments made in relation to this proposition was to incorporate a structure of three week blocks for determining the order of topics and domains to study. However, the three week block as object, was an arbitrary invention meant to fill a gap in structure in the first intervention. Considered without reference to that motive it becomes difficult to justify this adjustment. Its aim was to aid the teachers in making their own learning choices. But in order to choose well, one needs reasons. The choice of a domain after three weeks had no relation to moments on the academic calendar that teachers are used to, nor was it linked to any internal turning points or milestones of the programme. For example, if there had been a group assignment it would have made sense to the teachers to choose the topics most pressing or interesting for their individual and group tasks. If there had been defined assessments the teachers could have argued for the English or the intercultural or the pedagogic domain with an eye to the 'test'. As it was there were no consequences for *not* taking responsibility. These are reasons to doubt the efficacy from the learners' perspective. Further, the problem with negotiation is that it works best within a 'proper' curriculum so that the participants actually have a grasp of the outcomes they negotiate about. Brew & Barrie describe a teacher development course they made that included negotiation as a core aim. Their course, in contrast to this intervention, led to an official qualification. It had four assessed components, as well as non-assessed reading and session preparation tasks. The four were: attendance at workshop style sessions; keeping a journal; assessed projects; and teacher improvements activities. Both peer feedback and self-assessment were included (1999, p.35). It would have been unrealistic to expect such a wealth of work in a non-credit bearing form of PD. In Barrie and Brew's course, the final general outcomes needed to acquire the qualification that had been set in advance. However, teachers could prioritise the general outcomes in relation to their particular needs.

Another possibility is to look at this reluctance in relation to the practices of teachers in professional higher education (in contrast to academic universities). Teachers have to decide on topics and activities every day in their classes. The students are waiting, the students want direction, guidance, steering. It has been noted in PD circles that these professional decision makers like taking a holiday from the burden of choosing what to teach or what to learn at particular moments and that one of the charms of PD workshops is that one can leave all that to the trainer. All in all a case can be made for stating that the psychological conditions were not favourable to an injunction to make choices.

In order to be in time to get feedback from the members of the first iteration, the revision to the structure of the TIP was forged in about one week. The participants of that iteration stated their approval of the new set up which had after all been a suggestion of one of them. This group was different. Senge would call this a quick fix that backfired (1990). Quick fixing is one of the most common pitfalls of taking on problem solving as a professional identity and professional practice.

Candidate solution

The case needed to be made for the learning value of taking on the responsibility of choosing. One of the teachers stressed in several quotations given above that they were offered choices but without their own learning goals there was no star to steer by. So one rather modest solution is to explain what the benefits are and be polite but firm. Another is to create reasons for choosing such as having a group project. These are solutions steeped in practice rather than theory. If a credit bearing option were offered the situation in regard to this proposition would be different. Then essential conditions would be in place to expect the kinds of choosing that the teachers in Brew & Barrie's PD course did.

Proposition three

Candidate explanations

That the group members could not come together about how much they wanted to practice English and what the role of the designer as teacher of English should be can perhaps be explained by their wide diversity in educational backgrounds. Their understandings of what constitutes good learning activities for English are influenced by their life experiences with English classes in the past both positive and negative. The data here show that even when the topics generate long and lively discussion about the impact of internationalisation, as was the case with the Bell and Bond texts, some participants still wanted and expected more explicit language practice. This applies to four out of six in this iteration (and half of the teachers in the earlier group as well). These four teachers were aware that they had weaknesses in English but they had not previously followed Classroom English courses through the Language Centre. Thus their experiences with English were from their own secondary school period. In contrast, two of the six participants (one third) in both stand-alone interventions, had not wanted or expected English in this internationalisation programme at all, as they thought earlier English courses had helped them to reach an adequate level, which was indeed the case. Considering these experiences and the divergence in levels, the patchy response to doing homework assignments and the demand for more attention on the rare occasions when it was done, are not hard to understand.

Another possible explanation is best expressed in the Dutch term '*vrijblijvendheid*', which can be defined as 'permissiveness' or 'lack or absence of obligation' (lit. remaining free). It is difficult to translate the shades of meaning of the term which often has a pejorative ring. Certainly in discussions in both versions of the stand-alone TIP, teachers referred to *vrijblijvendheid* as a weakness. This is reflected in the Dutch literature as well. For example, Keesen and de Vries (1997) state that at most Dutch universities the accepted view of lecturers as educational professionals (as well as discipline experts) was not helpful for introducing systematic professional development in the area of teaching. The prevailing assumption was that lecturers would automatically take responsibility to be continuously improving themselves in response to student evaluations, feedback from colleagues, and external review committees. Therefore, all that the university needed to do to have an efficient and effective support system was offer a safety net of training activities. Lecturers, it was believed, would voluntarily and pro-actively seek out the appropriate form of PD to meet their needs. Unfortunately (and predictably) the reality of practice, did not fit the espoused theory. Even where a range of support was provided, it appeared to have gone unnoticed by most of the faculty members. According to the researchers the permissive atmosphere that made no demands on the lecturers to account for the steps taken to improve after criticism, was a part of the problem.

An example from the NUAS is also revealing. The Staff bureau suggested that there be a pilot professional development trajectory called 'Reciprocal learning' which would create an intensive collaboration between pairs of experienced and beginning teachers. Interestingly, the staff white paper that proposed it had doubts about it in one area, namely its lack of accountability:

De pilot 'Wederzijds leren' zal (extern) begeleid worden, omdat de ervaring leert dat anders de vrijblijvendheid te groot is en de samenwerking tussen beide docenten al snel in het slop raakt. (C. Hoeksma, 20 augustus 2008)

The pilot 'Reciprocal learning' will be externally guided, since experience has shown that otherwise the degree of permissiveness is too great and the cooperation between the pairs of teachers will quickly peter out.

The HRM staff clearly is convinced that teachers cannot be trusted to carry out professional development without supervision over an extended period. They believe that an external

guide or trainer is required to keep teachers on track. This was published in a document that anyone could read in the Blackboard environment so there was no hesitation in publicly labelling teachers in this way. Here the non-Dutch background of the researcher may have led to an intercultural misunderstanding within the TIP. Permissiveness is a loaded concept in Dutch culture with troubling issues around double standards. It was perhaps not surprising that the assumption that teachers would be glad to have choices, based on the researcher's own, more achievement-oriented culture, was found to be naïve, although it must not be forgotten that for one third of the participants the chance to choose for themselves was appreciated in the manner anticipated.

Candidate solutions

In the case of the TIP, information offered to potential participants made clear that the programme was not an English course but a form of PD that included English. Teachers can be forgiven for finding it difficult to understand this and for falling back on their knowledge of English learning from the past. However the pragmatic solution must be sought in better communication. The intake interviews that did not happen could well have lessened this misunderstanding. In terms of theory one must again refer to self-directed learning in groups as described by Brockett and Hiemstra. Steps must be taken to develop a good group dynamic so that the idea of choices is welcomed. A return to a more prescriptive approach has no pedagogic justification.

A second possible solution not to be used as an alternative but as a supplement is to achieve greater levels of integration between the domains so that it is not necessary to demand that teachers make choices.

As to the depth of discussion, the outcome was satisfactory. Interaction can be said to have been dialogic and complex. Combining visits from outside experts and especially inviting students to the sessions gave them a rich dimension. There is no need to offer solutions, just recommendations to build on what has been designed. One recommendation is to make student involvement an integral part of the TIP in future. If TIP groups of teachers would organise events and invite students to have a say in what they arrange, deferring to the students as 'experience-experts' the depth of learning about the intercultural with international education can only increase.

There were however, tensions over IoC. One explanation is that the make-up of the group itself led to the tensions. This was the explanation given by one of the more 'engaged' teachers as several excerpts have shown. At first, a 'practice' area explanation, not a theoretical one, seemed to be required. Looking more deeply, the tension demonstrates an aspect of change theory. It can be said that cultural patterns are difficult to change and if the innovation does not link up to the current practices it will encounter more resistance (Trowler, et al. 2003). This does seem to fit the current situation where there are two 'patterns of practice' one of the teachers who occasionally teach in an international stream course and another for the teachers who bear responsibility for curriculum development for an entire bachelor study. From a social practice and systems perspective change theory states that resisters should be listened to, not marginalised. They will be around to cause difficulties in any case so ignoring them is not a clever option. Besides they may well have a point. This less positive result is actually another reason to be open about the issues and carry on with the TIP aim to present provocative and contested material to the attention of participants. Still, if a large enough group from one circle of practice would like to do the TIP this should be encouraged. A simple divide into novices at internationalisation and old hands at it would be helpful if there are no organisational impediments.

Proposition four

Candidate explanation

There were two adjustments in this area, the second of which will be considered first. The improved structure for the presentations proved to have certain positive effects. One of these was that a number of the teachers saw the presentation as a trial run for a lesson. This was a good strategy for professional development. They were able to practice and get feedback before the workplace 'performance' of the task. This can be explained as workplace learning that is not a by-product but is strongly related to the work. In Eraut's model this relates to the factors that make the professional feel more confident and to expect better results in their work. Strengthening self-efficacy is also important for independence. The pro-active orientation or productive reflection as Boud and Cressy, call it (2006) could perhaps be strengthened next time with more tools for the post-presentation such as a peer feedback form and a personal reflection memo. Also a way of approaching the feedback on videos would be good to have. All of these are practice solutions not areas of theory.

The final explanations concern the action research projects.

First a design explanation; action research was planned but the understanding of the cooperation needed by the management of the teachers had been underestimated. The designer's mistake was in not consulting the management in advance to make sure that such projects could be carried out. The theoretical aspect of this is about innovation approaches. Action research is a grass roots or bottom up approach which proved to be ineffective in this particular situation. It may well be that action research could be effective but as a part of a programme offered outside of Schools it is extremely difficult to arrange within Schools. It can then also be seen as too alien to the established practices in the axioms of Trowler et al. (2003)

Another explanation for the failure is that action research is very difficult to set up and organise. It requires a great deal of the teacher (see Stark, 2006) but also skills of the action research leader. The lack of experience of the designer programmer is a factor. The level of experience of the designer is not significant theoretically but could rather be seen as an essential condition for success in future. In any case, it is not a design element that can be improved though design means.

Candidate Solution

The solution cannot easily be found. The pre-conditions mean that the middle management will need to agree to support action research which is unlikely without some visible outcome that is demonstrably useful to the organisation. Even then, the organisation's lack of familiarity with this type of research will make it challenging for teachers and management. If students can be involved in action research projects there would be less resistance all round. Student involvement is then an approach worth considering seriously. One possibility is to break the programme up into two components and make the second one optional. The first could then incorporate extension tasks to come close to the workplace in a more limited and less time consuming way.

8.6 Summary & Discoveries

After the second iteration it is possible to use insights from outcomes of the propositions of both TIP interventions to identify design principles. Regarding proposition one, offering an optional digital learning path needs to be linked in a form of blended learning, that is, it needs to connect to topics or themes that are being covered in face-to-face meetings. Simply offering online self-study materials misses important aspects of the practices and learning traditions of teachers. Therefore at this point there is insufficient positive evidence to develop this proposition into a design principle on the basis of the current investigation.

Proposition two develops tools further after iteration one. After iteration two, it became clear that in principle, participants will take responsibility for the sequence of topics only if they are in a context where it pays off to do so. If there is a benefit such as a degree or qualification then such a system of involvement is possible (see Brew & Barrie, 1999 and Dall'Alba, 2005). This, while it may well be the case, is a speculative conclusion not based on any evidence from the enactments thus far. Therefore as with proposition one, it would not be possible to develop this proposition into a design principle.

Proposition number three had to do with balancing the domains and with proactive reflection. It was, as we have, seen inspired mainly by framing theory one about the stimulating effects of combining content towards dialogic and transcendent learning. It was seen that the backgrounds of the teachers were diverse concerning how much English they had studied in the recent past. Those who had not studied Classroom English courses appeared to want more of this type of practice, others did not. One lesson that the designer could learn is to insist on in-take interviews in advance of an intervention, which failed to happen in this case. Regarding the proactive reflection, there was an encouraging outcome. Teachers were able to use the presentations in their lessons making a bridge between the TIP and their practices. It would therefore be useful to always include proactive reflection. Together with the positive outcome regarding this proposition in iteration one, there is sufficient evidence to refine it into a design principle which will be done at after the last iteration.

In relation to proposition four, it was not possible to formulate design principles yet since there had not been sufficient informal and tacit learning opportunities to provide evidence to evaluate this proposition.

Discoveries over the phases

Looking at the propositions across the phases reveals patterns in outcomes that analysis in one phase does not reveal. For example, proposition 2 claimed that teachers could have a greater degree of ownership over the programme. As it turned out in both iteration one and in this iteration the outcomes of this proposition were mixed at best. The nature of the difficulty becomes more clear when the outcomes are compared with the predesign phase. It was discovered during the predesign phase that Classroom English groups were sometimes highly diverse in English ability levels and in degree of experience with international teaching. This C.A. iteration showed these same characteristics. This was in contrast to the first iteration where most of the teachers were quite experienced in international teaching. This was an interesting finding, for it meant that the difficulties encountered in this iteration might be expected in future iterations offered in the same, generic manner. This observation played a role in the decision concerning the mode of delivery of the TIP in the next iteration especially since ownership was an important aim of the TIP.

Another discovery has to do with the paradoxical nature of improvements. To illustrate, the changes introduced in this iteration made procedures and activities less vague and more demanding but this clarity seemed to have led to more disagreements. Also, changes to the

procedures led to more discussions to agree about how much time to spend on the different learning domains, but reaching agreement was difficult and sometimes not even possible.

In terms of content, a similar trade off took place. The greater accessibility of the materials used for the internationalisation discussion, including policy documents, discussion questions, previous research literature and visits from external experts and students made it possible to engage with multiple perspectives on IoC on a more sophisticated level than in iteration one, which paradoxically seemed to have triggered greater dissonance. This more nuanced grasp of the contested nature of internationalisation was carried over into discussions in the participants' own work-teams in three of the four Schools involved, as reported or stated by participants after the end of the TIP. The obvious lesson for the designer was that improvements do not necessarily lead to better outcomes. How to avoid this effect was part of the interim analysis after this iteration.

As noted, a degree of disengagement took place during this iteration when team leaders did not agree to the action research project-plans or because situations in the workplace made execution of the projects impossible. This was a major constraining factor on learning at least in the short term. Looking back to the pre-design phase the PIs that line managers had to meet were not related to the types of learning that those projects represented, making it unsurprising that the line managers were reluctant to offer resources for them. During interviews with the early adopters in iteration one, the lack of support of managers for innovative projects was often noted. Comments from interviews such as "I had to do everything by myself and got no support from my team leader" or "They [that is the management MT] said, 'as long as the students don't complain you can do what you want', that was the only support I had from them." were common. This tension between professionals who need support for innovative projects and the reluctance of managers was identified in the 'technical-organisational learning environment' of the social level of the Illeris model of learning for working life (2004). What the designer discovered was that the power structure of the environment in which the participants work had to be taken into consideration in the next iteration.

RQ 2: What might be a template design for a generic intervention aimed at teacher learning for internationalisation that is capable of being effectively contextualised for integrated domains and learning approaches and how might that contextualisation be carried out?

2.1 Why should a programme design evolved out of stand-alone interventions be re-envisioned for embedded delivery modes?

2.2 How could a programme design evolved out of stand-alone interventions be re-envisioned for both generic and embedded delivery modes (for use in Schools' curricular reform or innovation)?

2.3 What theories and practices of contextualisation of professional development can facilitate implementation of parts of the generic intervention with curriculum teams in specific work environments?

Introduction

*In May 2009 the second iteration was essentially over. There were still some consultations with individuals or pairs. These were meetings to facilitate certain individual international educational tasks and were not used for input for the TIP. In this period it was necessary to decide whether to carry out the TIP one more time through the Corporate Academy or shift the research into another type of setting with a more concentrated focus **on** the interventions than **through** the interventions. The decision required an extended interim analysis which took place between May 2009 and November 2009. This interim analysis bridges iterations two and three. From early May to the end of June the decision on the direction for iteration three was made and presented to the feedback committee. From September to November 2009 the re-design of the TIP as a course map / template was part of the analytical process carried out with reference to the theoretical framework of the research project as a whole. The design of a contextualisation tool and the skeletal designs for the third iteration interventions were completed as well.*

In this chapter section 9.1 presents an analysis of the advantages and disadvantages of the generic and embedded modes of delivery based on literature and experiences from iterations one and two. This analysis resulted in the decision to shift the research focus from a stand-alone delivery mode to an embedded one. Then the final version of the TIP design as a template is explained (9.2) including the new TIP structure in thematic blocks. The new procedure for contextualizing the TIP for specific groups and the design narrative are set out in the following section (9.3) including the participants and settings of the two interventions, 3a and 3b, of the third iteration. The key characteristics of interventions 3a and 3b are described in 9.4 in relation to new design propositions together with key events summarised in short chronologies. After that the results concerning what did or did not work in relation to the propositions are set out (9.5). The immediate analysis of candidate explanations is also offered. No suggestions for design solutions are proposed.

Part I. Contextualisation of design

9.1 Research question 2.1 Why should a programme design evolved out of stand-alone interventions be re-envisioned for embedded modes of delivery?

As we have seen, problems occurred within the groups who participated in the generic interventions of the TIP during iterations one and two. In spite of these problems there were good reasons to continue offering the TIP through the Corporate Academy. First, continuity was expected by managers and staff officers who had sponsored or enabled the earlier iterations. Second, after two interventions several potential solutions had come to light which could adequately address some of the design weaknesses, such as better integration of the three content domains with better preparation of texts and activities. Third, the TIP 'brand' would be better served by continuity, steps could be taken to make it more widely known, perhaps to arrange promotional activities, to be entrepreneurially successful and thus have a greater impact.

On the other hand, the reasons not to continue were compelling. First, in both the first and second iterations, bridging the learning activities in the programme to the work place of the teachers proved nearly impossible. In the first iteration the reason given was logistic, and indeed, due to time pressures, only one project was carried out. In the second iteration the logistics had been improved in the design. However, in that intervention too the projects were not carried out even though project plans were completed in good time and could have been executed during the time frame of the programme. The most common reason given by participants was a failure to obtain sufficient support from line managers. This kind of difficulty is documented in the literature of professional development both for internationalisation of the curriculum (Leask, 2007a) and for generic types of professional development in higher education generally (Boud 1999; Boud & Brew, 1996). Second, the tensions that were felt between the participants who were heavily engaged in internationalisation and those who were marginally engaged caused certain difficulties for all participants during iteration two and were also present in iteration one, although less acute in that case. As long as the TIP was delivered as a generic course to teachers with different levels of commitment and engagement, it was difficult to see how the tensions would be reduced by changes to the design or content. One alternative would be for the TIP to be offered as a generic programme but with a specific group of participants in future.

Regarded as a practice of professional development for internationalisation, there were good arguments for both discontinuity and continuity of the stand-alone programme. However once the TIP was considered as a path of discovery for design and research objectives, it became clear that continuing the stand alone delivery model of interventions would lead to ever decreasing returns, mainly because of the insurmountable gap between the group sessions and the workplace settings. This negatively affected both the design goal of discovering if and how different delivery modes could be realised across the university and the research goal of exploring learning in-and-through-practice at the meso level of working teams. In effect, the choice was made for the wider research goals over the short term success of the programme. Before explaining the actual changes made to the design, it is pertinent to take a step back and consider the theoretical influences on the re-design of the TIP in the form of a review of the advantages and disadvantages of both modes of delivery.

Avoiding disadvantages of generic modes of delivering interventions and identifying potential advantages of embedded modes of delivery for the TIP

The advantages and disadvantages of the various modes of delivery were recognised for professional development in general in higher education in Chapter three. To remind the reader, that chapter started with the warning that the quality of professional learning is not

exclusively a matter of a mode of delivery. The contexts need to be considered as well. In this case the 'policy and practice' (Eraut, 1994) contexts at the institutional level of the NUAS must be taken into account. Also, the practices themselves which Eraut refers to, must be considered. At NUAS this means taking seriously the distinctions between the principles of teaching that the different Schools are operating from when they develop study programmes and the principle of devolution of implementation of policies to individual Deans within Schools, as noted in Chapters one and Six.

Considering the relative autonomy in management of the Schools, it is difficult for any generic PD intervention at NUAS to be close enough to the actual work of the learners to take advantage of learning opportunities as 'by product' of on-going activities except in the instrumental forms of training made to ensure that staff have the skills to implement technical changes such as re-writing course goals as learning outcomes to comply with Bologna policies. The more informal end of the formal / tacit learning continuum has a better chance of being utilised in embedded PD interventions that are not instrumental. Creativity and engagement are needed for innovations to take hold in the long term and both of these require at least some degree of autonomy and tacit learning. And as Tulley pointed out there is a paradox in this as 'Opportunities for engaged learners are inversely proportional to the knowability of outcomes' (cited-in Thacker, 2012).

In the case of incorporating or integrating some kind of international dimension into existing curricula there is more opportunity for both novice and experienced teachers to address the same issues in the same spirit with their various skills and insights. Very often for example, novice teachers have better levels of English and are more flexible in terms of joint-projects with institutions that require travel and activities undertaken outside of regular office hours. This means that the PD activities can benefit from the experiences of novice staff in ways that are not common in generic modes. It also means the productive reflections in the interventions can be used in the actual changes taking place.

As described in Chapter three, the relevance of the internationalisation learning opportunities can be missed if the groups to whom they are offered do not see their relevance. Especially in groups where there is strong doubt about the value and meaning of the innovation of internationalising the curricula this lack of relevance can be a powerful hindrance. Stories from teachers in iteration two, where the Dutch stream teachers were not convinced of the value of the international stream, are an example of the resistance that was perhaps dormant but awakened by the stories the TIPers were telling at general team meetings. This polarisation or tension between early adopters and resisters is well documented in the literature (Caruana, 2007; Bond et al. 2003; Bell, 2004). It also echoes the literature of innovation in higher education more generally where the resistance to change of some staff members is always evident during major innovation drives (Trowler, 1998; Fullan, 2007).

Another of the possible disadvantages of generic PD programmes discussed in Chapter three is the lack of credibility that such an intervention has and the ambiguous reaction it engenders. This was seen in iteration one, where PD for competency based learning had been experienced with scepticism in the past. This scepticism occurred when the training was top down and underfunded so that teachers, according to their own recollections, felt that they had been forced to 'swim' in a new form of teaching and testing without being sufficiently prepared to make changes that gave them confidence. This was the view of all the teachers about the PD workshops related to competency based learning. The rather bitter after taste of that experience acted as a demotivation force for some teachers when the idea of doing PD for internationalisation came up.

In spite of the many objections to a generic and top down approach Chapter three also noted its strengths. Generic workshops and training models are the most popular forms of professional development because the content of the workshops can be very well prepared by the best trainers available and subsequently disseminated by others. In this way the PD

provisions are cost effective with a guarantee of a basic quality in content and consistency of message or skills, which are brought to every corner of the university. Another advantage is that the trainers can become highly skilled in delivering these generic workshops, so that they can allow themselves the space to make sensitive adaptations for each group if they feel the need to do so.

Linking PD opportunities to curriculum or departmental reform

The downsides of a consultation or embedded approach must also be kept in mind. Embedded PD providers can find it difficult to set a wider standard of performance or achievement. The training can be tailored to the degree that important aspects of the innovation are left out. The most influential members of teams can have the loudest voices in the decisions on what kinds of PD to have. The advantage of hearing novel views, which takes place when teachers from different Schools exchange experiences and interpretations, is not available. This lack of outside voices can, in extreme cases, lead to PD forms that support group think. These concerns had caused several prominent professional development experts to advocate for interdisciplinary professional development as the gold standard (see for example Gibbs, 2003; 2004). Also recent research has begun to dispute the previously accepted dominance of 'epistemological determinism' typical the elitist academic tribes of a generation ago (Becher, & Trowler, 2001; Blackmore, Chambers, Huxely, & Thackwray, 2010).

In spite of these concerns the case for embedding is very strong. In contrast to generic interventions, an approach that stresses seriously devising modifications to address context specific factors offers opportunities to link institutional aims to individual professional growth (Kahn, 2009, p.203). If team leaders pay attention to the personal ambitions of their teachers and encourage linking those ambitions to a major policy spearhead teachers can voluntarily 'hitch their star' to an innovation like internationalisation. This is strategically important as funding for staff development must be more targeted to meet organisational goals due to a more corporate orientation and the devolution of funds from the central university development service department to the individual Schools as is the case here. Also a major innovation can take many years to implement and having a few dedicated members of the team who will stick to the project over an extended period is a significant advantage. As Allan concluded, a subject orientation in dedicated PD subject centres can 'achieve maximum buy-in from targeted users' and 'would prove most sustainable over the long term' (Allan, 2009, pp.25-26).

In addition, a curriculum reform or new curriculum development project, because it involves activities of teaching and learning, can "almost inevitably" include teachers' gaining "new skills" and thus be a form of informal professional development (Blackwell, Gibbs, & Shrives, 1999, p.24). Any new skills acquired in this way are very likely to be relevant, contextualised and sustainable. Baillie (2003, pp.146-47) identified four reasons for locating PD within the disciplines that are appropriate to this case:

- a) Teachers' ways of thinking are influenced by their own disciplinary traditions which may differ greatly from an educationalist's stance (Rowland, 1999). This divide can be bridged more easily if links are made to teachers' cognitive and epistemological constructs, which are rooted in local contexts and cultures....thus by linking professional development practices to change agendas of institutions, "a shared language about learning" and "connective tissue" is engendered (Schroeder, 2007, p .6).
- b) Tacit knowledge that builds through everyday practice (Eraut, 2004) is difficult to distil into formal training or courses but when within their discipline it is easier for the developer to get teachers to explore their disciplinary understanding of, for example, their students' needs, and thus help to reflect, collaboratively, on these understandings.
- c) The nature of the problems are different in different departments, a department with too few international students has to engage in a rather different line of thinking about improving

their practices than one with (too) many international students.

d) Real life cases and real stakeholders can be used in the professional development more easily than in interdisciplinary PD courses. Two reasons not given by Baillie, are the greater flexibility available in working within departments and the fact that students from different disciplines often learn differently.

However, it is not simply a matter of a straightforward alignment with the nature of a discipline. First, because many disciplines are also shifting and studies are increasingly multi-or-interdisciplinary. Mestenhauser (2002), as we have seen, maintains that internationalisation cannot be adequately carried out without being multidisciplinary. Second, the richness of the working environment cannot be captured in disciplinary terms alone. As Fanghanel (2007) showed, other factors play a significant role in enabling or constraining university teachers in their personal and professional development, such as the department as the territory in which conflicts and collaboration happen, the weight of the workload, etc.

9.2 Research question 2.2: How can a programme design evolved out of stand-alone interventions be re-envisioned for generic and embedded delivery modes?

A set of four workshop type sessions, made up for a programme for internationalisation PD for lecturers at an academic university in central Holland, was made available to this researcher at the time of the shift to the embedded mode of delivery. The PD provider of that series of workshops sequenced the same learning domains as the TIP originally covered and in the same order. The designer of the workshops started with debates on internationalisation in her first workshop, followed by attention to intercultural issues in the second. The third focussed entirely on English language challenges, strategies and tips. The series was completed by a session that dealt with issues and guidelines of learning and teaching internationally mixed groups. This sequence was logical and manageable. It was clear and unambiguous for the teachers taking part. There was also no choice since the progression and order were fixed and identical for every group. Putting the content domains into a linear sequence offered clarity but not creativity, dialogic user collaboration or flexibility.

Having discussed this sequence with its developer and considering the outcomes of iterations one and two, a search for an alternative TIP design that would meet several goals began (Meijer, 2009 personal conversation). This sought-for-design of the TIP had to do more than create a clear progression through the domains. It needed to incorporate solutions to design research and practice challenges from the propositions of the first two iterations in any case. But that would not be sufficient. The redesign would need to have a kind of flexibility that could make it adaptable in multiple contexts and locations for varying lengths of time. Such adaptability could only happen if the internal logic of the structure was strong enough to maintain a degree of integrity even when only parts or subcomponents of the programme were selected for use. In other words the re-designing needed to result in a modular approach with subcomponents that could be stacked up in different ways and still be recognisable and coherent.

In the first two prototypes, coherence had been interpreted as coherence between content domains which would stimulate learning by multiple approaches. As the first iteration showed, when the English guidelines for situation/problem/solution/ rhetoric had been put together with a task that required understanding intercultural interactions in a critical case derived from real workplace actions with real actors, a kind of integration in learning seemed to be achieved. This learning took the form of retrospective reflection and group dialogue and sharing. (This was in relation to proposition three which stated that when the domains were combined a more long lasting kind of learning would take place) Another example comes from iteration two. In the session which was presented rather

extensively in the previous chapter, the students who were invited to the session presented certain challenges to the teachers. These can hypothetically be framed as questions for an integrated approach to professional learning. One question would be “How do we as teachers provide learning opportunities for mixed Dutch and international project groups so that the intercultural interaction between the two groups is greater than usual?” (Combining pedagogic insights with intercultural competences.) Another question would be “How can we use insights from the Hofstede or Trompenaars models or the Cultural Detective to stimulate this greater interaction and how do we assess the outcomes?” (Combining intercultural theory with pedagogic competences.) A third question would be “How does the use of English among these students affect their interaction and what can we do to improve that if necessary?” (Combining English language competence with pedagogic skills.) In this way, the three questions could be a strategy for an integration of the content domains. If teachers were to work on finding solutions as a group, their learning would be collaborative and dialogic, if however they would choose to find solutions on their own by consulting their own students or doing their own literature search, then a form of self-directed learning would ensue.

An alternative strategy for integrating the domains and types of learning would not focus on balancing the domains. In the example given immediately above, a different approach to asking emerges when one realises that all of the questions asked were ‘How’ questions. Because they are all asking how X Y or Z can be done the questions could easily be clustered into a thematic group based on this ‘how’ characteristic. In other words, all questions that combine finding out how to solve a teaching/learning issue could be put together irrespective of the content or disciplinary perspective they come from. The individual domains would be used as conduits to find solutions but they would be subordinate to the theme of teaching/learning challenges. In effect the four areas highlighted by Leclus and Volet (2008) to understanding workplace learning: adult learning, organisational learning, informal learning and sociocultural perspectives on learning, would be combined in this theme.

Another theme that could be used, based on the issues that came up during the first two interventions, is the relative value and the meaning of internationalisation of the curriculum. An example out of many was the second session on the first iteration when the teachers used an English language exercise out of a Business English class book to go into a deep discussion of typical management strategies for implementing a university wide innovation in teaching. Another example was the session mentioned above in iteration two when the research of Bell (2004) was the stimulus of a very heated debate on the merits and characteristics of internationalisation.

Instead of seeing these as questions of language or intercultural or pedagogic skills enhancement in the first place, they can be clustered into one thematic area; namely, ‘Why’ questions. “Why has the Board of Governors made internationalisation a spearhead of policy in a five year strategic plan?” “Why does it matter for your department, aside from the necessity to comply with the management?” “Why are there so many different interpretations and definitions of internationalisation of the curriculum?” “What rationales are given by other universities and which of them would apply on your study programmes?” “Such questions would necessarily make use of the three domains but rather more implicitly than hitherto. In order to understand the ethos of internationalisation at their own School teachers would spontaneously turn their attention to intercultural issues, as indeed happened in the first iterations. Because they and their students (and often academic counterparts) are non-native speakers they would almost invariably discuss the position that English plays as a medium of instruction and what EMI means to them as the participants in iterations one and two did during interviews. Because they have experienced major innovations introduced in a top down manner in the past, it would only be logical for them to bring up examples of similar innovations, just as the participants of the first two iterations did on more than one occasion.

The follow up activities and materials designed to exploit the learning opportunities for this cluster could be aimed at using the domains and the learning approaches in ways that are appropriate for and supportive of understanding this theme.

Finally, when teachers discussed critical incidents and what they wanted to learn from them, during their retrospective presentations in iteration one and in their prospective presentations in iteration two, the perspectives of the various actors involved were necessarily identified. To bring to the surface the distinct needs and expectations of other actors in the professional 'field of action' the concept of stakeholders could be helpful. Returning to the session with students in iteration two, the questions could be "Who is involved most in the issues concerned here?" "What are the views and wishes of Dutch students and what are those of international students?" Wider questions can be asked such as "Whose expectations are dominant when managers are involved in the internationalisation process?" "What are the expectations of the members of the professional field who may employ your students?" In short, this set of questions leads teachers to put themselves 'in the shoes of others' and see how their work as instructors and curriculum developers looks through the eyes of those others. The thematic cluster can be called 'Who' questions.

Thematic clusters as an alternative for the linear sequencing of topics directly related to individual domains offer many advantages. A sequence of Why-Who-What & How themes is cognitively pleasing as a form of organisation. The sequence is quite explicit. These characteristics make it easier for the participants to follow than the original 'open choice' structure in which the sequence had to be discovered and negotiated among the members. It lowers the chance of cognitive overload and affective filtering.

Furthermore, the blocks of clustered themes can be separated out when, for example, only one stand-alone workshop is required. To illustrate this point, imagine that a group wants to do some professional development especially in regard to their own motivations for changing their curriculum. In the original design it would not have been impossible to accommodate them but it would have been difficult. This is because there were no clear cut components or sections of the whole design that could have been lifted out for this specific goal without quite a lot of loss of integrity of the design aims and learning aims. However a thematically clustered programme could address the concern of the client learners by selecting the 'Why' cluster out of the programme. In that cluster, elements of all three learning domains will be found. Also activities that would stimulate the most suitable learning approaches would be incorporated. Thus professional development learning opportunities for the one issue of concern for the group embedded in their own environment could be offered without loss of integrity in design or learning principles.

The re-envisioned design

The analysis of the prototypes of iterations one and two led to the solution of arranging the domains under overarching thematic clusters. There were now three sub-themes, all related to the umbrella theme of internationalisation of the curriculum.

A design process approach (Knight, 2001) was followed in re-envisioning the generic TIP programme as a course map or template. This process approach does not set out tightly defined outcomes but identifies learning encounters and activities that fit with learning aims instead. Good curriculum-making has been characterised as a concern for coherence manifested through attention to processes, messages, and the quality of communities and environments. It is offered as an alternative to outcomes-led curriculum planning.' (Knight, 2001, p.378). Progress and coherence are achieved by scaffolding of the encounters in relation to learning aims. Learners must know clearly what the aims are so that they can make claims to others to have reached them. The aims in this case are to explore the thematic questions described below.

Sub-theme 1: Why Questions

The trajectory started with a set of 'Why and What' questions to explore the meaning of internationalisation for the participants. This was put first since it was most important to pay attention to the personal meaning of the innovation (and the changes it brings for the teachers. How experts define internationalisation engages teachers in looking at the issue from multiple perspectives which stimulates transcendence as multiple mental schemes are activated. Examples of English language domain in the Why theme block are exercises in composing definitions in academic and scientific English (Annex, p.44/46). There are also exercises where disciplinary teams formulate their interpretations of internationalisation based on terminology from the specific field involved. Intercultural domain learning in this theme can be combined with English when a phenomenon like acculturation is explored using the language of cause and effect and the language of process taken from academic English. A pedagogic exercise regarding the 'Why' theme could be a lecture which convinces students of the added value of a model or theory which has international implications or significance. Intercultural exercises aimed at experiencing the many meanings of intercultural difference are included in this thematic block. This cluster can be used with any specific group; it can cross disciplinary boundaries for example because it deals with the 'subjective meaning of change' (Fullan, 2007) which affects anyone involved in major changes.

Sub-theme 2: Who Questions

The second sub-theme consists of materials and activities to address the significance of international education from the perspective of various stakeholders in a set of 'Who' questions. These challenge teachers to consider their practices of internationalisation through the eyes of others, which also stimulates reflection from and with multiple perspectives. In this theme, individuals and groups must ask themselves where they stand in relation to significant stakeholders. Questions and joint decisions on how to address the expectations of others stimulate practice based cognition where the knowledge is not a commodity but is generated through the activity of sharing ideas and experiences with others. Included in this cluster are activities that require participants to use 'managerial English' in order to view their teaching and curriculum development actions and decisions from the point of view of managers in professional fields. Also the intercultural models of Hofstede, Trompenaars, TOPOI (Hoffman, 2002) etc. are used in this block to support the teachers in imagining IoC from the position of other stakeholders. This cluster too can be used across boundaries since no single group in a university can avoid engagement in the long term with other groups in other functions or disciplines, however more tailoring may be needed than when WHY questions are being adapted.

Sub-theme 3: What and How Questions

The final sub-theme is about solving problems that teachers experience in carrying out the changes. It consists of a set of 'What and How' questions. These focus on specific ways in which teachers' professional practices are affected by internationalisation such as how they coach multicultural teams or how they deal with the issues of feedback and assessment with international students. Heuristic approaches, using critical cases are used. This theme engages curriculum teams in the examination of their common use of instruments, language, pedagogic practices as a community. It is thus highly stimulating for practice based learning. It also leads to teams taking ownership of the pedagogic concerns so that they can change their practices. This requires independence. In summary, the revised structure aims to stimulate all of the concepts developed in the original design but to privilege the concepts related to embedded learning. Transcendence is still addressed in the arrangement of domains and the depth and range of internationalisation issues. Independence is still stimulated but it is approached from a view of the group dynamic which supports individual learning. With this theme crossing disciplinary boundaries is more problematic.

For each of these thematic blocks, there are, first, materials for discussion of complex issues

with models, examples of trends, etc. Second, skills' practice materials for English language, intercultural sensitivity and communication, are offered. Third and finally, work embedded extension activities are provided that can be carried out by small groups or couples or individuals. There are more activities, materials and exercises than any group would actually want to do, so that choices are always available. This range of learning materials meant that themes could be expanded or contracted, depending on the group's interests and requirements. In principle the order could be shuffled although this did not happen. The order of the themes was always the same but the emphasis they received was not always equally important.

There was a second component of the revised TIP core programme which consisted of a chance to carry out an action learning project. In contrast to the two earlier iterations the action learning component was now optional (see table 2, section 10.3) . It was only to happen if there was sufficient time and motivation. It consisted primarily of individual projects that were to take about 10 weeks to carry out. A presentation in a public arena was envisioned for the projects. The core-course map/template can be seen in the Annex on pages 96 and 97.

9.3 Research Question 2.3: What theories and practices of contextualisation of professional development can facilitate implementation of parts of the generic intervention with curriculum teams in specific work environments?

Design Narrative: Contextualisation procedures

The TIP template was a generically designed intervention that could be used together with a systematic and rigorous form of contextualisation, one which captured the contingent and situational aspects of multiple learning environments. The adaptations were not restricted to some marginal alterations but could change any aspect of the generic design before delivery and during delivery. The first requirement was that the intervention would not be offered to any and all potential users in the university but to specific users in specific settings. It was essential, if the many potential benefits of bringing development to specific groups were to accrue, that a different premise than straightforward transfer was devised. Especially since the programme aimed to stimulate and support changes, the awareness that change is 'always inserted into a context, never into a white space' (Trowler, 2009, p.144) was crucial.

To ensure that knowledge, skills and attitudes presented and exercised in the template were sensitively translated, (Trowler speaks of *domestication*, a form of taming) a series of coherent steps was undertaken before the interventions in iteration three. Also, a heuristic, communicative and flexible approach during the in-School interventions (resonating with Kessel's relational approach, 1999, see in particular the list of competencies p. 66) was part of the developer's plan. It anticipated that adaptations in relation to emerging issues, themes, and interactions might be necessary. In this way complex learning could be stimulated in a highly educated and diverse group (Knight, 2001). Systematic adaptation is derived from the social practices perspective described in Chapters 3 & 4. An important pre-intervention step was to foreground key aspects of the contexts of the upcoming interventions. A protocol or tool was designed based on several sources to help structure the procedure (Trowler, 2009 pp.143-146; Knight, 2001, p.377; and Eraut 2004, p.225). It consisted of four steps (see Annex p.98 for the complete protocol).

- 1. Describe the key elements of the existing programme or intervention*
- 2. Profile the local context in which the intervention will be used*
- 3. Predict possible paths of implementation: Identify ways the programme might be refracted or domesticated in this context*

4. Identify changes to the programme to make it a better fit with the environment (alternatively or in addition: consider the possibility of changing the environment towards a better fit with the programme)

As a result of the procedure, a profile of each context was produced including facilitating and constraining factors. Predictions on what would be beneficial in terms of changing the core programme from the template were made. The profiles and predictions helped to adapt the elements from the course map of the TIP to interventions 3a and 3b of iteration three.

Part II. Delivery in Schools - Iteration 3, Interventions 3a & 3b

Design Narrative: Participants and Settings

Participants & Settings 1: Intervention 3a - A recalibration project with a development team at the School of XX

Main task of the group: The team of 7 teachers, needed to recalibrate the third year of their curriculum. This was their only international year. Years one and two were taught in Dutch with no international students, but the third year combined an exchange programme open to international students with the main bachelor degree programme. It was naturally taught in English. The international year had first been offered four years previous to the recalibration project. This combination was undertaken because there were neither enough domestic Dutch students to have a stand-alone third year in Dutch nor enough international students to offer a stand-alone exchange programme at a third year level. Combining the two groups of students was therefore a pragmatic choice in the first place, undertaken for logistic reasons. It was made clear to all team members in documents from management that having students from abroad was not under discussion, it was a fact of life. International students would continue to participate under any circumstances. However it was recognised that along with the successes booked hitherto there had been some problems and in any case more richness and depth were needed in the way that the two groups cooperated. A curriculum renewal project was awarded by the School to carry out a review and revise the curriculum for this one year only. This project's main goals were not to consider its international character but to make the study more flexible to address the diversity for a wide range of Dutch students as well.

Key Facilitating factors: An area of the existing programme, relevant to internationalisation, had been identified as weak. This area related to intercultural competences which offered a natural link to a major TIP dimension. Also the recalibration project approach made it possible to get involved in some aspects of curriculum design rather smoothly.

Key Obstacles: Discourses of sustainability in a global context were not prominent while the international literature in this discipline stressed sustainability. It was clear from interviews that the reason for the lack of focus on this issue was at least in part due to unfamiliarity with literature in English. Several teachers asked about the possibility of setting up a reading circle so that they would be stimulated to read more widely. No defined requirements or structures were desired by the team members to improve their individual skills in English or Intercultural communication competences. There were stories about earlier experiences with Classroom English by teachers who were not keen to have any kind of required language component.

Participants & Settings 2: Intervention 3b – Stock-taking with two senior teachers at the School of YY

Main task of the group: Two senior members of the English medium degree programme of a type of management study were following on from three colleagues who had taken part in the TIP programme in the previous year. In the first place they had individual motives for professional growth in deciding to join the TIP. This meant that English language was important to them but also stock-taking, grappling with trends and issues in their School. One issue that was reaching a tipping point (according to the team leader) was the attitude of the Dutch mainstream degree programme (YY) towards the much smaller international English medium stream programme (IYY). Initially, the establishment of an English medium study appeared to be a quick and relatively inexpensive (in time and resources) solution to deal with the requirement to implement a policy of internationalisation. During interviews with various members of the international English medium stream over two years it was apparent that after a few years, some Dutch mainstream teachers were suggesting that the international study, which had not attracted many students, had been, ironically, a costly initiative. Whether the investment in resources had been worth the candle was, at times, questioned. In general, staff of the Dutch stream were characterised as being more reactive than proactive. In this context the task of the IYY team members could include addressing the value of having such a special study. The innovative approach to the type of management that this study provided as profession was source of pride. However the TIP participants were concerned that this approach was either unknown or rather unattractive to other YY educators abroad. Thus how to communicate their own programme was at least, from their perspective, a part of their task although they were not officially responsible for these areas of concern.

Key Facilitating factors: Two factors could prove to be helpful. One was an understanding of the department derived from having worked with teachers from the Dutch stream who taught marginally in the English stream, during iteration 2, in the previous year. This knowledge made it easier to select aspects of the TIP that would be interesting and appropriate. The team leader also had seen the effects on the three teachers who had followed the TIP before. This is, in a sense, similar to Kessel's (1999) relational approach. This resulted in the three of them having been put forward as people with a special insight into internationalisation. (They later acted as a kind of consulting panel to inform the senior lecturer for internationalisation when he was developing a new policy for the whole School.) This experience made the new TIP participants and the team leader quite relaxed and rather confident about the value of what the TIP could offer them.

Key Obstacles: The resources offered were limited. Further the fact that interaction was restricted to only two teachers was potentially both a hindrance and a help in terms of structuring and the range of issues and tasks that could be handled.

Prediction of possible paths of implementation: Areas of the generic (core) programme that were capable of being refracted or domesticated in each intervention. This was a speculative step based on the pre-session contacts, observations and reading of primary documents.

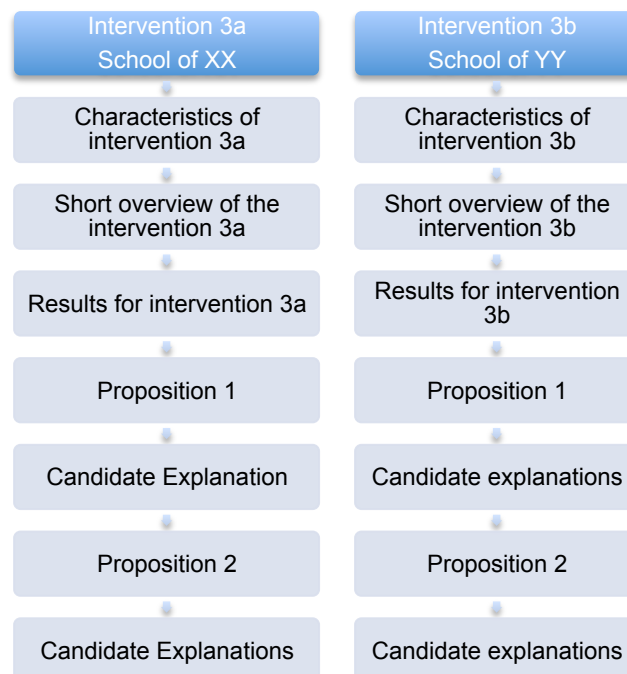
Prediction 1: Intervention 3a - School of XX

In the case of 3a, an explicit reaction influenced the predicting process. After initial meetings with the team leader and his assistant, a draft of a modified TIP programme for this team was drawn up (Annex page 99/102). It had all of the same themes as the generic programme but the emphasis was on the third thematic block of WHAT & HOW questions focussing on teachers' experiences and how to deal with problematic issues. However, when the teacher who assists the team leader saw the draft he reacted negatively. His main concern was that the programme was too formal and explicit. Both he and the team leader

asked that name 'TIP ' be dropped altogether. “If the team sees this name they will resist. They do not want another programme layered over the project.” The team leader made clear that it was up to the team members to accept or reject the intervention. According to them a weekly programme offered to the team at the start would have been premature. Thus it was not difficult to predict that the implementation of the TIP would be subordinated to the project goals. This meant that it would be necessary to react to the on-going issues and concerns that emerged during the project study day sessions. In other words, the team’s concerns would lead them to pointing out areas of emphasis from the TIP materials. Further, it was predicted that the disciplinary understandings would be a strong element to link the TIP international education themes to this group. Finally, the group’s task was so clearly focussed on the internal reform of the study that it was safe to predict that the part of the sub-theme of WHO questions focussing on external stakeholders might be less interesting for them.

Prediction 2: Intervention 3b - School of YY, degree programme International YY

In the case of 3b, it was possible to predict more confidently that much of the existing programme could be used. This was in part because the generic programme had been revised after feedback had been obtained from the earlier participants. Also, after the interviews, it was not difficult to predict an interest in the area of teachers’ attitudes to internationalisation. This topic had been discussed the year before to good effect. Especially how the international stream could break out of its relative marginalisation and contribute to the international dimension of the education in the Dutch stream was bound to be a topic of interest at the least. In fact it was reasonable to predict that these teachers would bend the path towards activities that they might be able to use with their Dutch stream colleagues. From the interviews it seemed safe to speculate that personal growth of each of these teachers would be linked to their desire to improve their English and that this area of the TIP would have their strong attention.



Reading aid for Iteration 3, consisting of two interventions that took place simultaneously. (The build-up of the chapter is identical to that of Chapters 7-8)

9.4 Design Narrative: Key characteristics of the interventions in relation to the new design propositions

Introductory Remarks:

The propositions that were going to be explored during iteration three were:

Proposition 1. Materials and activities must not only mimic the language of the specific community they must 'speak' convincingly to the pressing and difficult issues and concerns facing the group and offer reliable and useful added value.

Proposition 2. A wide grasp of context factors and social practices are essential to refract or bend the generic design to local contexts and communities while maintaining its core values and principles. The bending artefacts should be 'environmentally friendly' for members of the community.

Both of these propositions were influenced by more than one framing theory. Proposition 1 related to that aspect of the social practices perspectives on contextualisation (framing theory 3) is concerned with how a change agents can 'bridge' their messages to the disciplines of the teams they are working with. Trowler (2009) used the term 'refraction' when he advised matching the language of the team's discipline(s). Proposition 2, focuses more on the departmental contexts, which is another aspect of framing theory 3. This inspired adapting the same components of the TIP core programme differently in the two different Schools.

In addition proposition 1 was also devised with tacit and informal learning (framing theory 2) in mind. That theory concerns harnessing such informal learning to professional development. Professional development which ran parallel to curriculum reform took place during intervention 3a. This was the closest that the current investigation got to discovering the potential of informal and embedded learning, which was not sufficiently explored in iterations 1 and 2. Finally, making the implicit theories of change of participants (including team leaders) explicit in order to bring the innovation home and 'integrate change' into the 'hearts and minds' of development teams (framing theory 4) was a part of the inspiration of proposition 1.

The designing and constructing of these interventions were steered by both design requirements and by design theory (McKenney & Reeves, 2012, pp.112-113). The design theory, as we have seen, led to the re-envisioning of the TIP with three thematic blocks under the overarching theme of internationalisation with the domains and learning approaches integrated within the themes. Even though both interventions used the template as a jumping off platform, and both started in November 2009, the characteristics of the programmes were very different. This is quite understandable considering the settings and population of each team. The different characteristics are set out below.

Characteristics 1: Characteristics of intervention 3a

The team leader's goals of reviewing the curriculum and in that review considering what teachers themselves needed and wanted to learn (he had held individual meetings to discuss the professional development goals of each member of his team) dominated over learning goals for internationalisation per se. This dominance of the team leader and his assistant seemed to place the researcher/designer in a consultant-client relationship with them. In fact this intervention might be described as a form of consultancy. In other words, in intervention 3a the key characteristic was that the professional development goals were subordinate to a process of curriculum reform as noted. Therefore the sessions or workshops had primarily a process focus and were not particularly oriented towards concrete products. The decision on how many sessions there would be was not made by the

designer. Only four sessions were requested. This meant that the design requirements were heavily determined by the logistics. The way in which the core programme was adapted to these requirements consisted of maintaining the themes as themes but devising or selecting materials and activities that were more specific to this disciplinary area than the ones developed for the generic interventions such as the exercises for practising writing definitions in English (Annex pp.44/46). About half of the materials and activities came from earlier interventions. Whenever possible they were used with little or no changes made. The earlier intervention sessions had lasted for two hours, these sessions lasted for three hours which may not appear significant but did require adjustments which were of course not theoretically driven but were not unimportant pragmatic alterations.

New materials were, as noted, related to the discipline. New aids to experiential learning were introduced. These were an activity for intercultural learning (Annex pp.65-66) and a list of rationales for internationalising a curriculum from another university accompanied by a set of discussion questions (Annex pp.79/80).

Issues relating to strategy were uppermost on the clients' minds and they were reflected in the presentation of the themes. These activities can be seen as manifestations of proposition one. The sequence of sessions and their main topics are given here.

Intervention 3a

-September 2009 entry consultations with team leader: proposal submitted on 28 September including a suggested set of 8 workshops based on the three themes (rejected by Internationalisation coordinator)

-30 September: Presentation of support that the TIP can offer to the work team

First and second weeks of October: individual interviews with team members

-2 November session 1 WHY questions; what is internationalisation of the curriculum and why are we doing it? Rationales and discussion

-9 November Session 2 WHO & HOW questions suggested strategies and choices concerning reforms to the international year: reflecting on Intercultural management skills of the team and on the ICM module

-10 December Session 3: WHAT & HOW questions intercultural learning using an experiential learning cycle based on critical incidents/ brainstorming adjustments to the Start Week

-10 January 2010 Session 4: group action planning for curriculum changes to ICM module

Short overview of intervention 3a

Characteristics 2: *Characteristics of intervention 3b*

The programme of 3b consisted of just four sessions, did cover the main aspects of the TIP core course map (Annex prototype 3.0 pp.99/102). There were only eight sessions of 2 hours but because there were only two participants a good deal could be covered in each session. The small size of the group and the level of familiarity with this study by the designer were the determining context factors in the design. This meant that the sessions were characterised by a kind of informality well suited to interventions with only two members and a PD provider already familiar with the School's personalities and issues. In terms of theory, the social practices of the group were demonstrated in their confidence in using English as a medium of instruction combined with a lively and consistent interest in English. This was a result of both of them having taught in the Netherlands and abroad in English for several years at the time. Both of them were comfortable with making instructional materials in English. For example they had made pedagogically ambitious modules in the recent past. This practice-stance was cared for in the design by the incorporation of quite a number of short exercises and activities for English that could be used during any session on an ad hoc basis, rather than a prepared progression of activities

to enhance their linguistic skills connected to internationalisation issues (cf Annex pp.31/34 & 47). Another aspect of social practices was the orientation towards a managerial approach to problem solving regarding teaching colleagues and professional clients. This approach was accommodated in the adapted programme. It was manifested in a strong outward looking stance, stressing the WHO theme more than was done in intervention 3a. Interestingly the list of rationales for internationalisation (Annex p.79) that was used in intervention 3a was also useful in this intervention although how it was used reflected the differences in practices and aspirations.

Intervention 3b

- September / October 2009: entry consultations with team leader and interviews with two participants Adapted TIP programme drawn up and shared with participants on BB site based on three thematic blocks
- November 2009 session 1 theme 1 WHY Rationales for internationalisation, English for typical Dutch errors etc. stock taking in the School identifying sources of resistance to internationalisation
- December 2009 session 2 theme 1 WHY continued: critical success factors based on discussion of Rationales
- Mid-January 2010 session 3 theme 2 Stakeholder perspectives and stock taking of the situation in the professional field and English error analysis
- Early February establishment of an exchange group with another School
- Mid-February session 4 theme 2 continued English for Dutch writers, classic errors continued
- first week of March: session 5 themes 2 & 3 WHO & HOW Intercultural interactions in teaching, self - assessment test and discussion;
- 25 March session 6: themes 2/3 continued Hofstede dimensions for teaching and English revision of self-assessment test
- April: Submission and Approval of formation of a knowledge exchange group together with 3 teachers from another School
- April session 7: theme 3: WHAT & HOW final adjustments to self assessment test, discussion of critical incidents of both teachers
- early May session 8 Teacher A's critical incident analysed, final English exercises
- July 2010 final meeting of knowledge exchange group

Short overview of intervention 3b

9.5 Design Narrative: Results for intervention 3a: What worked and what did not?

Proposition 1. Materials and activities must not only mimic the language of the specific community they must 'speak' convincingly to the pressing and difficult issues and concerns facing the group and offer reliable and useful added value.

Although the setting has been described above, the interviews provided more background. The 'teacher concerns' expressed in the interviews had a significant impact of the adaptation of the template. Tacitly registered concerns of most team members individually came to the surface. Almost all teachers remarked on the value of Dutch students learning to work with students from abroad. One said, "This is how we give them a chance to grow personally and as professionals." However, even though they stated that they liked teaching in the international year they admitted that there had been difficulties as well. The one most often noted was that the students from abroad and the domestic students often did not manage to get the best out of being together. They tended to break into Dutch / non-Dutch sub groups. It must be stressed that the 25 Dutch students had been together in the Dutch language programme for two years already so teachers knew the Dutch students much better than the international ones. This difference in level of familiarity was disturbing for some of the teachers. Another concern was the module called 'Intercultural Management Skills' (ICM). This module did not seem to be as effective as the teachers would have liked.

Once these concerns had been identified, it was possible to use the TIP course map elements to provide activities that would be helpful. There were materials that would aid in stimulating discussion about where the team stood in relation to the goals of this international year. In the first session (which lasted three hours) teachers worked through a list of rationales and a discussion task based on the WHY questions (Annex 79) referred to above.

The activity had two parts. First, the teachers identified what type of argument was behind each rationale. Was it a political, economic, prestige or educational argument or some combination? Second, they prioritised the arguments for how important they are for this study at their School. Especially rationale 3 was seen to have many of the reasons for internationalisation among these team members.

Students will have wider horizons by means of experiencing internships or studies abroad but also through having an international dimension incorporated into their own curricula. Working together in multicultural team or groups requires a flexible stance, capacities to adapt and integrate and language skills. Through this students are more prepared for future working environments in which they will have to compete on an international job market. [transl. M.T.]

Candidate Explanation:

This adaptation worked because the new material bridged the core TIP questions about the individual and team's subjective meanings of internationalisation with the recognisable set of arguments. Bamber et al. (2009, p.14) see metaphors of translating, bridging, boundary crossing and reconstructing as useful to describe the actions of bringing new ideas and knowledge to specific, often unusual settings. Finding discipline related or otherwise familiar materials does take time and this must be considered in the cost estimates of contextualisation.

Proposition 2. A wide grasp of context factors and social practices are essential to refract or bend the generic design to local contexts and communities while maintaining its core values and principles. The bending artefacts should be 'environmentally friendly' for members of the community.

It proved possible to combine the consultancy factor to some aspects of the core programme, although the process was intense. Between the first and second sessions, a consultation with the team leader led to the design of a series of 'trigger' questions for the discussion in the next session regarding curriculum changes that would affect teachers' practices. The strategic nature of the questions make it possible to locate them in the WHY block although some questions may look more suitable to the WHAT & HOW block:

How can we best move forward on getting more international students?

At this time there is a 'stand-alone' course for intercultural management, (ICM) do we want to incorporate intercultural management skills into block assignments instead of continuing to offer this course? Or can the course be adapted so that it is linked up to the block assignment?

Do we want to see greater integration of English with terminology needed for engineering?

Are we happy with the Dutch courses? Where can we find suitable places in specific courses to pay attention to international elements?

In making and justifying their choices during the second session, teachers gave examples from their experiences with both groups of students in a long and intensive group sharing of opinions and experiences. Every member of the team contributed ideas. Debate and differences of opinion were welcomed. Eventually a number of strategies were agreed. It was the first time this team had had such deep and lengthy discussions in English. A set of useful agreements came out of this session which was motivating for the team. Here the domains of English learning by discussion and pedagogic enhancement through self-analysis were combined.

The question of what to do about the non-integrated ICM module was the most challenging aspect that the group handled. Several teachers thought that it was not fair to make decisions when the course developer and teacher were not present. Others had already decided that there needed to be major changes, towards integration of IC skills with project management. Debate on this topic covered procedural issues such as credit hours and testing as well as content issues. In spite of these tactical preoccupations the main force of the discussion was in WHY the intercultural aspect was valuable and what teachers could do to integrate it in their own courses. It was during this part of the conversation that one of the teachers said he could not decide what to do about the ICM module since he felt he did not know enough about intercultural competence himself to judge the quality of the students' learning experience.

"We do not know much about intercultural communication ourselves".

The rest of the team agreed with this lack of knowledge. One was concerned about revealing his relatively low level in intercultural management skills to his students:

"If we show that we do not know about this will the students lose respect for us?"

After more discussion, a tentative agreement was made that:

Every teacher will make some effort to learn more about intercultural competence and will attend two sessions of ICM (in its revised form) next year to become aware of some of the basic intercultural models and ideas. (Report of Session 2, 9 November).

In addition, the team leader offered to interview a few of the current students who had followed the course in the previous semester. Three weeks later he reported on his small research project, and the outcome was incorporated into the new curriculum plan. After the student interviews he reported that it had been quite important for him personally to hear what the students thought. On the basis of the intensive group analysis and the consultation with students, it was agreed that the ICM module would need to change so that it would

reflect the intercultural competencies used in the module assignment projects. How this was to be carried out would be worked out in a follow up session later in the year.

Another example of adaptations to the template which reflected a core value of the TIP was a newly devised activity for the third session of this intervention referred to above (Annex 65-66). It was about intercultural interaction in real teaching situations which linked them to WHAT & HOW questions and to the domains of intercultural and pedagogic skills. The topic of the session was the 'Start Week'. But the activity was introduced as a lead in to thinking about the revision to the Start Week. A guideline for an 'experiential learning cycle' was provided and presented by the designer. It included sharing critical incidents. Several teachers then thought of examples of intercultural miscommunication which they shared with a small group of colleagues. The groups came back together in a plenary after half an hour.

For example, one teacher described how Polish students had in his words 'Just taken off in the middle of the night' to drive back to Poland so a toothache that one of them was suffering from could be treated by his own dentist. The possible financial, but most of all cultural reasons for this action and the cultural way in which the Dutch teacher reacted to it were discussed. The teacher said he had been puzzled by the action then and was still puzzled now. Listeners to his story offered similar types of confusing or puzzling actions.

Retrospective reflection on the experiences moved into a prospective reflection in the form of a hypothetical solution or solutions if this kind of incident were to occur again. The critical incidents therefore were not only meant to stimulate swapping 'war stories' although that was part of the activity. The incidents were to be a jumping off point for a brainstorm.

In the plenary it was agreed that the 'puzzles' had to do with the fact that the Dutch hosts and the foreign guests did not actually know each other very well from the start. This conclusion made the topic of the Start Week more important in the eyes of the teachers.

The brainstorm started with a recap of the previous Start Week and then moved on to how it could be made better. It was agreed for example that this week, which had been organised around two separate student groups in the past (i.e. the Dutch students had a week of orientation activities on their own and the international students also had a separate welcome week of their own) would now come together in one combined week with a big opening dinner and an excursion.

Another of the ideas was to pair off a domestic Dutch with an international student during the excursion. They would each make photos of aspects of the built environment that struck them as unusual or beautiful or awful. After the excursion the pairs were to make posters of the photos, contrasting and or harmonising their images. This would help them to get to know each other in a more educationally beneficial way. At the end of this session certain teachers volunteered to develop the ideas for the new Start Week. The two changes suggested here, which were implemented, came about as a result of a joint effort of thinking and doing. They were not created in advance and presented as a *fait accompli* by the team leader. At the start of the sessions no one knew what the concrete outcomes were going to be.

Candidate Explanations

Adaptation to the recalibration process meant that the TIP materials and activities had not only to be bridged by employing disciplinary language; they worked when the designer was willing to incorporate strategic goals. The ICM module was difficult for the team to discuss. But by positioning the changes to the module within a wider strategic goal, teachers were able to openly admit their own shortcomings and to avoid criticising a colleague who was not present. It was a design challenge to understand the sensitivities of the group, such as their lack of open feedback traditions and to use this understanding in a constructive way. A recent survey by O’Niell offered examples of how trainers who work in embedded PD start out their interventions with faculty curriculum review projects (2010). The experienced colleagues most often cited flexibility as the quality needed to carry out this type of work. Comments cited were ‘There are no recipes.’ and ‘Learning is idiosyncratic.’ (p.65). O’Niell showed that experienced trainers have a number of ways to start working with groups, but all of them stressed open-mindedness.

Another explanation for why proposition two appears to have been successful in helping this team to improve the intercultural interactions between themselves and the two sets of students can be attributed to a better form of needs analysis that the process of contextualisation produces. In some ways the adaptation approach stressing the contextual factors and the friendly environment resonates with the consultancy cycle. Shrivs & Bond (2003) described this cycle in detail in relation to higher education professional development. In the consultancy cycle five of the seven phases take place before delivery. They are: gaining entry, contracting, collecting data, making sense of the data, and generating options. In addition the pre-delivery phase of data gathering for iteration three has some overlap with Wisker’s (2003) thorough approach to needs’ analysis. Wisker was positioning herself as a consultant. One of her concerns with conventional approaches to needs analysis is familiar to PD developers involved in internationalisation, namely that teachers are viewed as deficient, not having the competencies to carry out internationalisation adequately. Wisker noted that professional development trajectories that work out of a deficit model are never liked. She says that ‘Academics are notorious in their distaste for and rejection of this kind of industrial and commercial problem-solving model’ (p.27). She is convinced that identifying and planning to meet needs must be carried out in negotiation, that is, in consultation with the teachers. To get development activities started that will have long term impacts on practice beyond the intervention itself, the needs analysis must be tailored. ‘This goes far beyond... the identification of a problem’ (p.30).

Results for intervention 3b: What worked and what did not?

Proposition 1. Materials and activities must not only mimic the language of the specific community they must ‘speak’ convincingly to the pressing and difficult issues and concerns facing the group and offer reliable and useful added value.

Focus on Stakeholders

During intervention 3b the emphasis on stakeholders was wider than in the other embedded School team. Both internal and external stakeholders were important for the participants. As noted the issue of the future of the international stream was not assured, partly because this professional study was not well known abroad making recruitment challenging and this occupied the minds of its teacher. A related concern was to support the team leader in his attempts to improve the relationship between the two streams internally in the School. In the adaptation of the core TIP programme these concerns were met in several ways. First, a list was made of typical reasons for resistance to internationalisation within a higher education organisation (taken from Bond, 2003 Annex p.73-74). This list engendered an open and

frank identification of areas of teacher resistance among the Dutch stream teachers within the School.

MT: Which of the types of resistance are familiar to you?

Teacher A: All [the] types have happened at YY at some time

Teacher B: Some people will never accept it [internationalisation] but there is less negativity than before. We can't expect too much too fast just because we are into it

The comments concerning resistance were later reinforced in an interview with the team leader of the international stream programme. He stated that in the past few years it had looked like the 'internationalisation ship' was going to be well and truly launched at the university but it had always gotten stuck in the harbour. This time, though, he was confident that a 'corner had been turned'. A critical mass had been reached and 'the ship was sailing' (interview, April 2010).

On request of the School internship co-ordinator this researcher conducted three telephone interviews with either internship supervisors or coordinators of internships in three countries. The School has its own international study exchange and internship bureau that arranges the long stay (one semester) of third or fourth year students.

The results of these interviews were presented to the intervention 3b teachers and used as the basis to discuss the perspectives of these stakeholders.

In the discussion the teachers agreed that recognition of the value of internationalisation by central management and by the central marketing department of the university was important to the English stream study for several reasons. One was that support from upper management and from marketing would help with recruitment of international students. Another reason was that open support for the international study by upper management would have a positive influence on the attitudes of Dutch stream colleagues in the School, something the team leader was busy with at that time (see inset). The session ended with the observation that instead of stressing the negative side of these concerns it would be possible to look constructively at internationalisation from the perspective of these stakeholders. As a follow up, a new activity was designed for the next session called 'Seeing through the eyes of another' (based on a workshop of McKellin, 1995). All participants (including the researcher) had a pile of small blank papers in front of them. For ten minutes the participants named a wide group of stakeholders and divided them. For each stakeholder one teacher was assigned the task of identifying benefits and downsides of internationalisation. These were to be written up on large size 'post it' notes. Because the range of stakeholders was quite inclusive (10 in all) it was possible to triangulate the perspectives in interesting ways. In the next session the 'post its' were spread out on the floor and clustered when complementary (or similar) benefits were seen.

In the third session, the same list of rationales / arguments for internationalising the curricula taken from another university that was presented in intervention 3a was used (Annex p.79). Instead of simply identifying the strategic reasons behind the rationales, this pair of teachers wanted to interpret what the arguments could mean for their School but they also wanted to indicate what kinds of conditions were required to achieve positive outcomes. They chose to frame their interpretations as 'critical success factors' rather than as criticisms of the university and Schools. Three examples of rationales are given verbatim. The comments made by participants during session, summarised in writing by one of them after the session, are given immediately below the quotes.

Rationale: The quality of the university's educational programmes can be raised by temporary stays at foreign universities by both students and staff members and by attracting more temporary staff, students and foreign researchers.

Critical success factors: At YY we can increase the quality by a reciprocal process of learning between Dutch staff and students and foreign staff and students. Certain conditions will have to be met such as making it easier for teachers to go to conferences and do professional exchanges. Further the language needs of students and teachers will continue to need long term and tailored support.

Rationale: Students can have a wider horizon by means of experiencing internships or semesters abroad but also through having an international dimension into their own curricula. Working together in multicultural team or groups requires a flexible stance, capacities to adapt and integrate and language skills. The competences the students get through this will help them to compete on an international job market.

Critical success factors: There is an added value in providing learning opportunities that make our students more open minded, with a flexible attitude and more ability to take responsibility. By integrating an international dimension into the existing study programmes these opportunities will grow. A required condition is that teachers have resources to develop this dimension, for example by finding online projects which students can participate in with students from other countries and/or by having joint multidisciplinary projects with other Schools such as Sports Management or ICM so that the cultural mix of students in groups is more diverse. Internships and study abroad provisions need to be expanded in number but also more actively and intimately linked to the study programmes in Groningen so that the downsides of the third year abroad are minimised and the learning-benefit increases.

One more example will be sufficient to demonstrate how the basic material was adapted to the unique situation of this School.

Rationale: Political shifts have led to a blurring of the differences between the first, second and third worlds (sic.). Therefore the former concepts about development cooperation are out of date. This has led to a recalibration / reconsideration of the roles, responsibilities and importance of the University in relation to institutions in less developed countries. The accent in the cooperation now lies in the area of support for quality enhancement processes.

While at first glance this argument has little resonance for YY on second thought the emphasis on Corporate Social Responsibility in our study fits well with the idea that we can be a facilitator of enhancement of quality with our counterparts in the developing world. Taking responsibility is an important competence of graduates in our view. So we need to show leadership by also taking a responsible position in this ethical area.

Critical success factors: Pooling expertise, networks and experiences from various Schools together is a logical step in order to play a significant role in helping institutions in developing countries. However the 'walls' between Schools and the lack of a centrally offered support effectively condemn YY, as it does other Schools, to acting solo. This 'split up structure' needs to be reduced and a more linked structure needs to be established and supported with resources

These critical success factors have been quoted extensively because they reveal a good deal about the attitudes of the participants towards internationalisation but also towards organisational challenges. The participants refer to a need for better cross-School cooperation and point to the isolation of the Schools as a regrettable situation. After this session participants established a knowledge exchange project with some teachers from another international stream in another School. The designer/researcher negotiated release time for the teachers from this other School. The knowledge exchange ran from February to the end of the academic year. It was run by the teachers themselves without the designer/researcher who only came in for the last session in July. The fact that the teachers were inspired to start their own learning exchange (see Annex pp.76/78 for the original proposal made during iteration 2) is a proof of the value of the sessions for them.

The activities in the sessions provided the teachers with an opportunity to make sense of the issues for themselves and led them to take steps they would not have taken otherwise. It exemplifies how generic material can be treated so that it fits in with different local environments in different ways.

A question that might arise here is whether the differences between 3a and 3b in the manner of using the material is attributable to 'tribal' differences in discipline or the variations in the types of pressures, aspirations and challenges operating at the particular moment or the differences in traditions and practices. In other words is it because of who they are or what they are doing or what they have been experiencing recently?

Candidate explanations

The contextualisation process was the main factor in selecting materials and activities from the core programme so that they added value for the teachers of 3b. Interviews with the participants, with their team leader and with their colleagues during the earlier iteration all fed into the level of familiarity with the aspirations, tensions and concerns. Further interviews carried out with supervisors abroad revealed the relative strengths and weaknesses of the internships. Wisker's (2003) version of extended needs analysis then offers one explanation just as it did for intervention 3a. The materials were accepted as authentic and useful because they reflected this 'insider' type knowledge.

On the other hand, Bamber et al.'s (2009) view of the importance of the 'personal style and disposition' (pp.188-189) of the designer as change agent provides another explanation. Trowler (2009) is convinced that the style of the designer of enhancement activities will have a major influence on the interventions and on whether their effects are sustainable. The style of the designer will be more effective if it is in harmony with the timing of the innovation and/or the micro political environment. In this case, the enhancement identity of the designer could be identified as 'democratic collaborator' (Bamber et al., 2009). Collaborating in a democratic manner requires a communicative relationship which is located in the immediate context of the interaction. It is not driven by normative assumptions or instrumental goals (as observed by Kehm & Teichler, 2007). In this intervention the value of the materials was recognised as least in part because the designer had a degree of credibility in advance in the eyes of the teachers and team leader.

This familiarity also made it possible to revise the proposal for a knowledge exchange with teachers from another School. The original proposal, written during the second iteration, was rather informal in tone. During the intervention of 3b it was recast into a more formal way, using language from the field of organisational management from one of the teachers combined with sources used by the researcher. This combined effort led to its being approved by management of the two Schools. It can be identified as a form of brokerage which is described in the next chapter (p.250).

Proposition 2. A wide grasp of context factors and social practices are essential to refract or bend the generic design to local contexts and communities while maintaining its core values and principles. The bending artefacts should be 'environmentally friendly' for members of the community.

In both of the embedded interventions of iteration three materials that had worked well in the stand-alone versions of the TIP were recycled when possible. A successful example of how this could be done in intervention 3b was the activity aimed at intercultural awareness raising. It consisted of a self-assessment test for lecturers in a university regarding intercultural interactions in higher education. It was the only activity carried out in three of the four interventions. (It was not used during intervention 3a.) The original workshop is one of many in an anthology of Intercultural Competence /Communication (IC) workshops (Brislin &

Yoshida, 1994). Self-assessment tests of different types were used as 'lead ins' for several of the workshops in the anthology. This one is based on the cultural differences in five societal value areas identified by Hofstede.¹⁰ The test integrates all of the learning domains. It is directly about intercultural learning but it also covers issues of teaching / learning in international classrooms in higher education and it has a linguistic element. It straddled the WHO and WHAT & HOW question blocks.

The teachers of all three interventions were asked to do the self-assessment test in advance and to bring their scores to the workshop session. During the session all the individual scores were plotted on a grid which had the cultural dimension of Hofstede as its axis (annex pp.49-51). The aim of the exercises was to demonstrate to lecturers that they operated from a particular set of cultural assumptions. After the grid was plotted the definitions and examples of Hofstede's dimensions were presented in a mini-lecture. The grid could then be used to do other kinds of awareness raising activities such as comparing the grids of students from particular cultures to the grid scores of the participants, doing role plays and analysing a critical case based on the cultural differences between a western lecturer and a Asian class ("Harold in Korea" Annex pp.56-57).

The language of the test items uses a rather dense American English idiom. Thus, non-native speaker teachers who took it had problems with linguistic aspects. Because of the language problems they had, the two teachers of intervention 3b, turned the test items themselves into a way of improving their English language skills. In the test there are 23 sets of two statements. The test taker has to choose one of these two statements as a better reflection of his or her own view and then calculate where she or he is on the grid on the basis of the 23 choices made.

For example the first two sets of pairs are:

1. A positive association in society is with whatever is rooted in tradition.
2. A positive association in society is with whatever is 'new'.
3. Impersonal 'truth' is stressed and can, in principle, be obtained from any competent person.
4. Personal 'wisdom' is stressed and is transferred in the relationship with a particular teacher (guru).

When the teachers took the test and discussed where they belonged on the grid according to their test scores, they were unhappy with the outcome. In looking at how the scores were reached, it became clear that the questions had been formulated for native speakers of American English. While they may have suited American teachers, they were formulated in a rather awkward manner for these non-native speakers. Teacher B commented:

I chose 1 instead of 2, because I do not like 'whatever is new' but I think that is not what they mean... but I don't just follow traditions! ..and what about the guru? How am I supposed to understand that?

It was decided to revise the more ambiguous pairs of statements so that second language users like themselves would not get confused and thus have a score that was indeed an appropriate reflection of that teacher's cultural values. The teachers divided up the pairs and worked on them for a week. In a follow up session with the designer/researcher the new sets of items were evaluated one by one. It was an intensive activity that took a whole two hours.

¹⁰ see literature review part one [The values are PDI: high power/ low power distance in terms of degrees of willingness to accept authority MAS feminine vs masculine in terms of cooperation vs competition or results vs relational directedness, IDV collectivist/ individualist values, UAI degree to which members avoid uncertainty, LTO, in terms of respect for a classical tradition of scholarship such as scholarly diligence.]

Afterwards one of the teachers took on the task of formatting the new test. For the two sets of statements above, the changed versions they were eventually agreed were:

1. *In our society practices rooted in traditional are typically highly valued.*
2. *In our society practices that are focused on innovation are typically highly valued.*
3. *Following scientific methods is the best approach to finding objective truths.*
4. *Absorbing the vision and knowledge of recognised masters is the best approach to finding universal truths.*

Also some explanatory information was added by the teachers of Intervention 3b. The original test does not give any explanation of the dimensions of Hofstede to introduce the concepts to the test takers; instead the mini-lecture takes place after the scoring has been completed. One of the teachers thought that this was unfair. In his opinion, if someone takes a test they should be informed about the concepts behind it. This teacher found a description of the Hofstede dimensions and added it to the front of the test as an introduction. The original test statements and the revised ones with the new introduction are in the Annex pp.49/55. The teachers planned to use the test with their Dutch stream colleagues at a School study day. It was ironic that material made to sensitise teachers to their own ethnocentricity in matters of teaching and learning was in itself seen as culturally framed to a high degree. This actually stimulated a learning experience that was not intended by the original author. The fact that the teachers found this material interesting and valuable enough to put in the effort needed to revise it and to conduct a session using it with their colleagues demonstrates its value for them. The revision had not been planned by the designer, it occurred spontaneously.

Candidate explanations

This activity has been used by many groups since it was published in 1994 but no examples of revision have been made available in all that time. In other words, most groups just took the test and went on to do the other exercises. The initiative taken by these participants to revise the test is unusual. It could only have happened because they had genuine interest in the potential for the activity for their colleagues and were not satisfied that the test as it stood would do the job at hand. In this unclear situation the teachers approached the test not only as users but as practitioners of education. By changing specific language in the self-assessment test to address their own language issues and to ensure a good reception from their colleagues, the test was refracted successfully. The values behind the sets of statements had to be made clear in order to revise the English. The practice theory of learning can help to explain why practitioners were able to make such a radical adjustment to an artefact while maintaining the spirit of the original

From a design perspective the failure of other workshop givers to change the test items might be attributed to their limited view of what adaptation implies for PD providers who have to use the same material with different groups. The approach used to adapt generic workshops often consists of presenting well known educational models and/or theories such as the Hofstede dimensions, followed by tried and tested exercises or other workshop type activities such as the case of cultural misunderstanding illustrated in the story of *Harold in Korea* that follows the Hofstede dimension self assessment (Annex pp.56-57). Developers often have a digital and hard copy suitcase full of such interactive activities, together with reading materials, models, programmes, etc. Together, these material function as a personal data base for the developer.

When a developer is given an assignment to make a training or workshop(s) for a new group, they generally, carry out some degree of needs analysis to customise their established generic programme and select what seems most relevant from the suitcase/data base of materials so that both programme and materials suit the current participants better.

However when acting along these lines, developers are still basically only 're-combining' components from their database, they are not adding anything (or anyway not much of anything) made specifically for the new group. This rather restricted or limited nature of adaptations makes interventions not very flexible and thus not well able to meet the needs and expectations of a wide range of participants. This approach has been used by educational advisors, that is PD providers, at NUAS in the past.

As discussed previously (Chapter three), a negative outcome of PD interventions is that the reactions/evaluations of participants are not only mixed, but wildly divergent. Some participants are extraordinarily satisfied, singing the praises of the intervention, because what was offered fits well with their situation and needs while others find it frustratingly non applicable and complain sharply. Trowler & Cooper illustrate this outcome with a developer's question:

It intrigues me why it is that some participants in our ... course are mad about it, and respond with great enthusiasm to everything it offers, whereas others are lukewarm and need convincing, and yet others simply don't want to know, and appear deaf to every entreaty... This is, of course, a challenge to the teachers/trainers/facilitators. It also creates problems in making sense of participant feedback. Can a course be both wonderful and crapulous at the same time?

(Personal communication from a university educational developer, 2001, cited in Trowler & Cooper, 2002, p.222)

One explanation for the wonderful/crapulous dichotomy is this restricted approach to adaptation. Encouraging participants to take ownership of 'set' workshop materials is a creative and relational approach to adaptation.

Conclusions

This chapter was divided into two parts. The analysis behind the template was explained in part I. The integration of the domains under the WHY–WHO–WHAT & HOW blocks was demonstrated. This outcome made it possible to expand on the design principle related to the combining of domains which had emerged during iterations one and two. That principle can now include not only the combining of domains but also the value of combining them thematically.

In part II the contextualisation tool and steps used to make the profiles as the basis for the adaptations proved to be sufficiently robust to justify developing a design principle based on the contextualisation of a core programme to local environments. A deep understanding of context generated credibility, making it easier for the designer to experiment with the professional development activities and thus reach an understanding that could result in a principle. Further, the framing theory of informal and tacit learning was by now cumulatively able to provide sufficient evidence to develop a design proposition in terms of the few positive outcomes of action research in iterations one and two and the outcomes of curriculum change in intervention 3a.

A final design principle emerged from this iteration in relation to framing theory 4, namely that the WHY theme is the first and most important in a professional development intervention of this type, where an innovation is linked to teacher professional learning. Because dialogue was not avoided in any of the interventions without exception, it was possible to understand and appreciate the value of bringing everyone's theory of change to the surface and so to build confidence in that change. The design principles that evolved through the evidence across the iterations, directed by the four framing theories, are presented in Chapter ten in section 10.4.

Chapter ten - Post Design Phase: Discussion across the iterations

Introduction

*In the post design phase, three main research questions were addressed. First in (10.1 and 10.2) the question relating to research **through** the interventions is discussed and conclusions drawn across iterations. Next, the discussion and conclusions in response to questions relating to research **on** the interventions, across iterations, are given (10.3 and 10.4). The overarching design principles are set out by offering the heuristics that evolved during the trajectory in 10.4. Finally, the strengths of the study (10.5), issues of validity and research limitations are considered (10.6) and suggestions for further research are presented (10.7).*

*Research question **through** the intervention (see Chapter five)*

Post design phase - Analysis & Evaluation
Which characteristics of the in-service programme stimulated or constrained teacher professional learning for internationalisation?

*Research questions **on** the intervention*

Post design phase - Analysis & Evaluation
What are the relative strengths and limitations of stand-alone/non-contextualised and embedded/contextualised interventions in regard to the criteria of viability (including, practicality, relevance and sustainability) legitimacy and efficacy?

Post design phase - Analysis & Evaluation
What principles can be identified for the design and implementation of sustainable, relevant and practical professional development interventions for enhancing internationalisation of the curriculum in multiple modes of delivery?

Post design phase - Analysis & Evaluation

Which characteristics of the in-service programme stimulated or constrained teacher professional learning for internationalisation?

10.1 Learning Approaches

The previous three chapters have shown how the concepts of transcendence, independence and embeddedness stimulated or did not stimulate learning. A number of possible ways in which the TIP design stimulated learning were highlighted. It goes without saying that almost all activities and or materials were designed to combine content domains and learning approaches. Many examples of these materials and activities can be found in the Annex. Among them, problem solving in various forms, such as writing critical cases (Annex pp.65-66) or preparing and giving presentations revolving around the problems and puzzles teachers encountered in their assessment and coaching of project work (during iteration 1 and interventions 3a and 3b) were characteristic of a stimulating combination of transcendence and intercultural aspects of teaching, learning and assessment. When a teacher worked on filling in the matrix of language exponents (Annex, p.30) he or she was naturally combining English with pedagogic domains within an independent learning approach that was found to be rather effective by the few teachers who did attempt to fill it in. A constraint on this type of learning was the lack of incentives to work outside of the allotted hours given to attend the sessions in the first and second iterations. Also the lack of structure including sequencing of the domain topics, deadlines for tasks and concrete products had the unintended outcome of reducing these positive effects on both independent and transcendent learning in these interventions.

In spite of those constraints, accommodative learning that was transcendent was also stimulated in all interventions through the engagement with contested issues, which triggered an unusual dialogic space. Examples of materials that had this stimulating effect were the multiple definitions of internationalisations especially the views of the central management, presentation of views of critical scholars like Mestenhauser, (Annex pp.71-75) and in iterations one and two, invited guests who presented challenging ideas. However in the first two iterations the effects of this stimulating learning were constrained by one, the fact that the groups had no combined purpose making it necessary to keep up the dialogue until a consensus was achieved and two, an apparent lack of trust based on a lack of familiarity with each other. As Eraut pointed out confidence in oneself and one's colleagues are crucial for learning among experienced professionals.

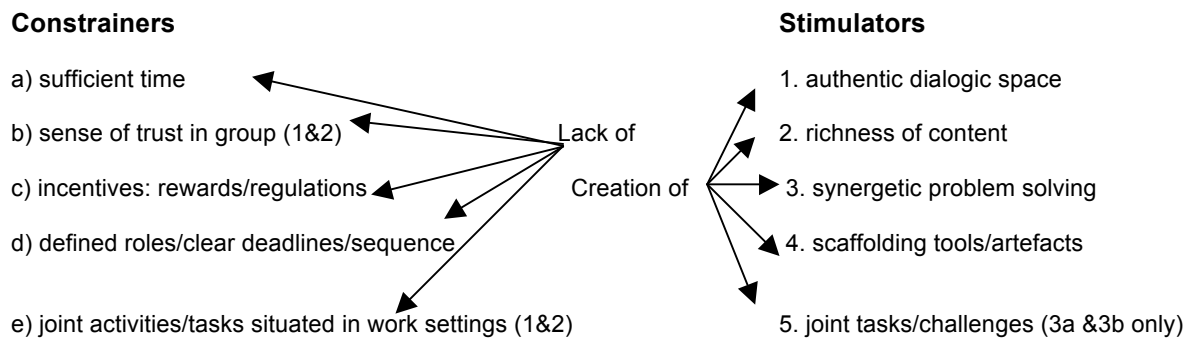
The execution of action learning or action research projects was designed to stimulate independence and practice-based learning at the same time. In the stand-alone interventions, that is iterations one and two; almost all of the projects could not be operationalised due to logistic restrictions. It was remarkable however that even making action research **plans** had some long-term effects. In one case, the materials developed to support such a project were used with students who then executed action research projects. In another case an aborted plan was taken up by colleagues in a later intervention, albeit in a truncated form. In fact in this way the action research materials acted as tools, which could be used to scaffold student learning.

The combining of independence and embeddedness in contextualised 'in Schools' interventions during iteration three took the form of joint tasks and/or synergetic problem solving that led to concrete changes in the curriculum such as the inclusion of intercultural skills into the project management module, or the joint production of a tool such as the self-assessment test for teachers based on Hofstede's dimensions. These outcomes were

supported by the openness and honesty of the discussions that led to them, thus the outcomes were also stimulated by authenticity in communication made possible by the fact that participants worked in the same team and knew and clearly respected each other. Thus the form of self directedness was not individual, but of teams directing the topics in interventions 3a and 3b. Independence in terms of self-study was also constrained in interventions 3a & b by the lack of time noted in the first iterations which makes this a strong negative finding.

The following figure visualises the interlocking factors described, none of which can be isolated. The constrainers, a-e, impinged on the stimulators, 1-5, but the stimulators softened the negative effects of the constrainers.

fig. 1 Factors contributing to stimulating and constraining accommodative-transcendent, independent-self directed and practice based-embedded learning during the interventions



10.2 Content Domains

How the content domains stimulated and constrained learning is presented below. For first English, then intercultural competence and finally pedagogic skills a summary is given after the relevant matrix. The summary of findings is followed by a discussion of one significant aspect of each domain.

Illustrative evaluative measures (Matrixes)

The matrixes provide evidence from multiple instruments though primarily from interviews, observation field notes and grey literature.

Matrix no. 1 - measures relating to English language learning

Materials and/or activities used	<i>Int 1</i>	<i>Int 2</i>	Int 3a	Int 3b
a) Explicit exercises or practice activities from published English language teaching materials not linked or adapted to the topics of the intervention EMI	<i>7 times out of 11 sessions</i>	<i>8 times out of 12 sessions</i>	None	3 times out of 8 sessions
b) Language learning materials adapted to the subjects of international 't/l/a'* or to intercultural competence in interactions in higher education CLIL	<i>1</i>	<i>1</i>	2	2
c) Implicit language learning through discussion of content issues, listening to guest speakers, attending lectures, brainstorming solutions to critical incidents, giving peer feedback on presentations reflecting teachers' experiences CLIL to some extent	<i>Every session</i>	<i>Every session</i>	Every session	Every session
d) Non-synchronous individual feedback on oral presentations or written work EMI	<i>To all 6 participants</i>	<i>To all 6 participants</i>	None	To both participants
e) Plenary group feedback after a group activity CLIL to some extent	<i>One time</i>	<i>2 times</i>	Every session	Every session

Summary

- Explicit English exercises and assignments as well as integrated, implicit feedback on grammar and vocabulary were stimulating but the needs and wants of participants were uneven and difficult to harmonise. At its best, a CLIL approach that took in all three content domains worked effectively to stimulate debate and experience sharing. The CLIL approach was thus useful but did not offer anything new in relation to English language teaching, from the perspective of an experienced English for Academic or Special Purposes teacher who is used to working in organisations with adults.
- Reading skills support proved necessary with pre-reading, post discussion and vocabulary tasks found to result in improved participation around complex issues of policy.
- Self-study materials such as self-assessment forms, diagnostic tests and online or blended learning materials were offered but used only marginally, although it was appreciated that they were made available on the intranet site.
- Just-in-time mini-input sessions, primarily about typical Dutch errors were always well received. The intranet site was used during and after the interventions most for these materials.

From the table it is clear that not only CLIL approaches were employed. In some cases it is rather hard to say exactly if an activity or exercise is CLIL or simply English as medium of instruction (EMI). That leads to the evaluation of this aspect, which points to confusion

between where CLIL starts and ELT (English Language Teaching) or EMI begin or the other way around.

Discussion: CLIL and English language teaching: conflation or confusion?

In developing a CLIL pedagogy “teachers need a repertoire of approaches from which they can select on the basis of fitness for purpose in relation to the learners, the subject-matter and the opportunities and constraints of the context” (Alexander, 2008, p.102).

The activities listed in the matrix are examples of constrainers and stimulators that others involved with CLIL have identified. They offer an opportunity to consider the issue of integration that is the ‘I’ of CLIL (Gajo, 2007).

When language issues were handled on a just-in-time basis the approach confirms one of the effective performance principles for CLIL, specifically the ability to facilitate ‘form-oriented processing’ (de Graaf, Koopman & Westerhof (2007, p.12). According to De Graaf et al., the teacher does this by pointing out good uses of language and also correcting errors either implicitly, for example by recasting or asking for clarification or explicitly (i.e. offering metalinguistic comment or advice). Explicit feedback during the TIP sessions was most common after presentations, consisting of oral and written comments and advice and in some cases, followed up in the next sessions with explicit grammar or vocabulary exercises. That this could be rather easily achieved was because of the tight ‘fitness for purpose’ of the context. Teachers could benefit from feedback directly by using the corrections in their next project group or lecture. Other principles of effective CLIL teaching that were used during the interventions were facilitation of exposure to input on a challenging level (de Graaf et al. 2007, pp.13/14). Text selection and preparation are seen as indicators of this principle. As part of the iterative process, after the first intervention, this CLIL principle helped the researcher / developer to ensure that texts were increasingly well prepared with selected excerpts instead of whole texts, trigger questions, or vocabulary lists. Another principle is the facilitation of meaning focussed processing, by checking that concepts and lexis have been understood. This was less of an issue in the interventions since the learners are experts in teaching their subjects.

While it is reassuring to find evidence that effective CLIL principles were carried out, the question remains why this is regarded as anything innovative, that is, why it is ‘other’ than English language teaching with adults in professional settings. For example it can be argued that Alexander’s pedagogic repertoire is necessary for any teacher working in academic and/or professional contexts where English must be combined with content such as English for Banking offered to bank personnel. Such professional development related English programmes are rooted in the communicative and task-based forms of ELT. According to Darn (2006) from the perspective of experienced language teachers, a CLIL lesson is not far removed from the established humanistic, communicative and lexical approaches in ELT (p.2 of 5). In an essay reflecting on the concept of ‘method’ in English language teaching over the last 15 years, Kumaravadivelu (2006) presents a challenge that might be said to apply to CLIL. It is in short that ‘method’ is not a neutral term. He reminds us that several English language-teaching experts such as Pennycook and Prabu made this point long ago. Pennycook (1990) had said that any method is social construct which he believed supported current unequal power structures. He believed that such methods even the very successful communicative methods reduced rather than improved teachers’ understanding of language learning. Prabu’s critique had gone even farther (1989 in citing Kumaravadivelu, 2006). Prabu was convinced that not only is there no best method, looking for new methods stands in the way of teachers discovering intuitively, their own ‘sense of plausibility’ (inciting Kumaravadivelu, 2006, pp.66). Allwright is well known for having declared method ‘is dead’ (1991) around the same time.

The supporters of CLIL will be quick to say it is not a method but a set of concepts (described in Chapter two) that encourage attitudes of intercultural tolerance, communicative competence and motivational attitudes towards foreign language learning. Laudable as it may be, this is certainly not a neutral agenda. Who decides when students are tolerant enough to pass a course? It is also certain that concrete examples of lessons and course plans offered do not make the problem of method go away. Therefore it is not surprising that in designing the prototypes the aim was to conduct CLIL but the outcome may as well be familiar forms of English language teaching to adults in professions. This possible conflation was discussed in Chapter two.

Another difficulty is, as Peachy (2003) points out, 'because content based instruction is not explicitly focussed on language learning, some students may feel confused or even feel they are not improving their language skills' (p.2). This confusion can also occur in professional English courses where it must be explicitly addressed. A concern for student confusion and the requirement to address it is not included in the principles of effective CLIL however. The reason may be one of context. The assumption seems to be that CLIL takes place in school settings. There, CLIL is seen to be more motivating than general language lessons because the CLIL lessons are about topics that interest the learners and not just grammar and skills of English. In such classroom settings any potential confusion can be met by making expectations and rationales clear at the outset. The unique innovation of CLIL in relation to other forms of English teaching for non-native speakers is precisely that both content and language are taught together. The CALP (cognitive academic language proficiency) aspect of CLIL is aimed at the content learning. However when professionals in EFL settings such as the TIP give presentations, they know more about their subject than the English teacher does which makes the CALP aspect redundant.

While clarity of expectations may be sufficient in schools pupils, the case of adults in workplace contexts is quite different. One reason is that adults have a strong awareness that time committed to one activity is time lost to another activity. Time constraints mean that choices have to be made between competing areas of interest all of which may well be motivating. Teachers who expressed satisfaction with the English opportunities offered, said it was good to be improving English and getting a better insight into international dimensions of teaching at the same time. The most satisfied participant referred to professional activities outside of the TIP sessions which were strengthened by the activities within it. This could partially happen to a pupil who finds that he or she has a better experience on holiday but holidays are not the same as professional experiences of interaction with colleagues from abroad by setting up bilateral programmes or attending conferences.

Another aspect of adult learners in groups that CLIL literature does not seem to address is that they have a wider diversity in educational backgrounds than secondary schools pupils. Their understandings of what constitutes good learning activities for English are influenced by their life experiences with English classes in the past both positive and negative. The data here show that even when the topics generate long and lively discussion about the impact of internationalisation, some participants still wanted and expected more explicit language practice. This applies to half of the teachers in the first iteration and 4 out of 6 in the second. These teachers were aware that they had weaknesses in English but they had not previously followed Classroom English courses through the Language Centre. Thus their experiences with English were from their own secondary school period. In contrast, 2 of the 6 participants (one third) in both the first and second iterations, had not wanted or expected English in this internationalisation programme at all, as they thought earlier English courses had helped them to an adequate level, which was indeed the case.

Both groups were being rational in pursuing their particular needs. In this they are not unlike the lecturers at Delft university referred to in Chapter two, who rejected a training programme that combined English learning with improving teaching behaviour (Klaassen, 2000, pp.88-89), a form of CLIL. Those lecturers cited two reasons that they did not want to

participate. One was the simply the necessity to choose one of several options for their limited PD time and resources. The other was the imbalance they perceived between these two content domains. Some of the rejections were based on the belief that there was too much English and not enough teaching skills enhancement, while others thought there was too much teaching and not enough attention given to language enhancement. Both causes for rejection are not without reason. The question is whether it is the responsibility of CLIL facilitators or teachers to prepare for the differences in expectation in advance. If so, this responsibility has not been identified in the list of competencies of the ‘Ideal CLIL lecturer’ (2007). One reason could be that the list is primarily aimed at skills needed for non-native speaker lectures and teachers, not at professional development providers. In the case of the TIP, information offered to potential participants made clear that the programme was not an English course but a form of PD that included English. Teachers can be forgiven for finding it difficult to understand this and for falling back on their knowledge of English learning from the past. Here Alexander’s repertoire cited above, needs to be interpreted widely to include pre-intervention in-take and/or informative activities.

CLIL principles appeared to be influential in the process of developing the core programme when English was linked to intercultural or pedagogic issues. Perhaps this was effective because the CALP aspect did play a role here since teachers lacked the terminology to discuss intercultural and pedagogic issues in English. After the first intervention the CLIL guidelines regarding the use of texts were taken seriously and led to improvements. Further the effectiveness of CLIL teacher competencies in focussing on both meaning and form were confirmed, although these competencies do not seem to be exclusive to CLIL. At the same time the problem of conflating CLIL methods with methods that are tried and tested in English language teaching was not solved.

Matrix no. 2 findings relating to intercultural awareness and communication skills enhancement (IC)

Materials/ activities used and issues brought up during sessions, in interviews with participants and non-participants, and during committee meetings	<i>Int</i>	<i>Int 2</i>	Int 3a	Int 3b
Self-assessment test on teachers’ position in terms of the Hofstede cultural dimension grid	X	X	O	X
Exercises made for non-native speaker professionals re: models, definitions or theories of culture, intercultural competence, cultural values, and cross-cultural comparison	X	X	O	X
Outside speakers who shared expert insights into intercultural issues (participant initiated)	X	X	O	O
Activity focussed on a range of stakeholders				X
Non-participants views on intercultural learning				

X = took place / O = did not take place

Summary of findings regarding Intercultural Competence (ICC)

- Intercultural learning was found to be important, interesting and challenging by all participants
- The majority also explicitly expressed the similarities between intra and intercultural differences during interviews and welcomed the idea of melting the diversity agenda with the IC agenda.

- However a high degree of attention paid to issues of IC in the curriculum was not welcome to a minority, who also did not see a link between policies for intercultural learning and the policy concerning diversity.
- Published materials with exercises on IC models and theories were welcomed. They were only able to address cognitive learning, not accommodative learning, but had some benefits as a first exposure to the models. The fact that the materials could be taken over and used with students increased their value. A published self-assessment test meant to be a lead-in to a workshop on cross-cultural competence in teachers in higher education, proved to be useful in surfacing quite different responses in different interventions. One important aspect of the pre-produced test was that its own culturally biased language was an avenue of teacher learning.
- IC skills enhancement was linked to curriculum reform resulting in valuable group / collaborative learning in one intervention.
- There appeared to be a lack of alignment regarding the importance of IC in the wider NUAS community as well as among some of the participating teachers. Some members of the feedback committee saw the focus on IC as a kind of bottom up challenging of the status quo and were rather concerned that issues of intercultural challenges were out of place as serious topics for the TIP. Others, especially students who came as guests to sessions or were in the committee, disagreed. According to them, IC skills and awareness of their teachers were very important and needed to be stressed in the TIP.
- The best time to offer PD support for IC was not clear. Most teachers stated that they would not have signed up voluntarily for an IC intervention when they first started teaching international courses or modules.

Discussion: How significant is intercultural learning and how significant should it be?

The importance of intercultural learning shown in the interventions, which seems to be quite significant, in the view of a majority of participants, appears at odds with the literature of professional development on the continent, whose primary goal seems to be meeting the linguistic challenges in teaching (Airey, 2003, 2004, 2009; Hartiala, 2000; Wilkinson & Zegers, 2005). What can be said with some degree of safety is that courses or workshops focusing on intercultural awareness and skills are rather rare in non-English language higher education and when offered, seldom voluntarily taken up (Klaassen & de Graaf, 20001). In the interviews with TIP participants the point was also made that before having experienced intercultural issues with students most teachers probably would not have followed an IC course.

Yet, experts (Stier, 2002; De Vita & Case, 2003; Ottewill & MacFarlane; 2003; Caruana & Handstock, 2005; Leask, 2007b) argue that tutors need to apply principles of inclusion. This is supported by Bond et al, (2003) in a large survey across Canada, who point out a specific aspect of inclusion, namely that to teach internationally is to teach with a high level of intercultural sensitivity. In their report they state that

We asked what faculty members thought they and their colleagues needed to know to be able to internationalise their courses. The majority (84%) of the respondents agrees or strongly agrees that knowledge of students' needs, learning styles, and cross-cultural experiences is important (Bond, Qian, & Huang, 2003, p.8).

Students and other stakeholders at NUAS invited to sessions, interviewed or asked for feedback from the committee generally agreed that being multicultural was in principle, a good thing for the NUAS or for their School. But not everyone wanted it to have a dominant place in the curriculum. Certain responses to the activities in the intercultural domain could be plotted along a continuum using the intercultural sensitivity levels of Bennet. A minority, of views of participants, could be said to fall into the Bennet 'minimisation' stage of difference while most were more open to the intercultural differences that came up during activities (1993; 2011). As the examples showed, there were some rather reserved and cool responses to inclusivity which seem to confirm the view of Mestenhauser & Ellingboe (1998)

who state that many members of faculty at universities do not have sufficient international or intercultural experience to recognise the significance of intercultural communication skills and international knowledge and thus do not link them to their teaching /learning agendas. This is outcome for Dutch teachers is rather surprising, considering that Mestenhauser & Ellingboe were referring to university teachers in United States who may have never travelled abroad. The teachers at NUAS are cosmopolitan globe trotters by comparison.

More importantly, the point is not that most teachers were not interested intercultural learning. On the contrary, it was shown that the interest level was invariably high. But the interest was mainly in hands-on materials they could use with their students. It can be said that prepared materials, such as exercises to practice the key components of the onion skin or other models, did provide the teachers with opportunities to understand these influential theories of culture. The learning though was mostly cognitive. However, intercultural learning is, as discussed in Chapter two, not primarily cognitive but ethical. One must learn it by 'caring, acting and connecting' (De Vita & Case, 2003, p.388). This was reflected in the comments of the international student member of in the feedback committee. She urged the researcher not to give up in the face of resistance but to continue addressed difficult issues in the TIP because "It is easy to learn models like Hofstede and Trompenaars, but it is difficult to live what they say" and this struggle is the hard reality of international students as "We live this every day." De Vita & Case add that the type of learning is complex. It must take in multiple learning modes, including ways of discovering and transcending cultural differences. It is doubtful if the TIP interventions offered authentic opportunities to a sufficient degree for practices to change. That does not have to mean that they had no value.

The Hofstede dimensions self-assessment test, the follow up discussions on it and on the critical incident (Harold in Korea) that accompanied it, did offer space to think about how being Dutch steers the interactions and values of participants. Also, facts about the individual teachers' educational backgrounds were included in the test. In terms of the disciplines for those who taught in full four year EMI bachelor programmes there was already at least a degree of awareness of how their fields were affected by globalisation and multiculturalism. For those who did not work in such bachelor programmes only a start was made. The Anglo-American hegemony in most professional fields was recognised but not always challenged and in the case of business teachers it was even at times, defended.

It has been demonstrated in the past (see Joyce & Showers, 1987 for a meta-analytical study of more than 200 PD programmes with school teachers) that just exposure to theories and models including intensive and interesting discussion, has very little effect on changed practices in any area of teaching. On the other hand, exposure is a logical first step when an area is not well understood as is the case with intercultural competences. It goes without saying that it needs to be complemented with other types of learning. Thus the exploration of various commercial materials was not as unsubstantial a result as it may appear to be at first sight, only the lack of follow up is regrettable. As a first step in an on-going professional quality enhancement trajectory, it is practical, cost efficient and relevant to the teachers. It is also potentially useful for their students and colleagues.

Two, the interventions did offer affordances, in that dialogue could take place through various kinds of interaction. The self-assessment test was the most useful instrument in these interventions (but other exercises were also positively received). Part of its appeal was that different groups could respond in quite different ways to it. It was even possible to transcend domains because the English of the test was itself culturally loaded, which the teachers recognised and in one case dealt with proactively. In terms of their personal attitudes and motivation in learning from and about intercultural interactions, including miscommunication, only a few 'one off' remarks confirmed what Paige (2005) had written, namely that teachers could be put off by the personal confrontation with their own ethnocentricity.

However the personal range of views and some tools for using models etc. are on only one side of the steep challenges of intercultural awareness. The other was shown in the feedback given on the PD activities in committee meetings, where it became clear that intercultural issues are contested in the wider community at NUAS. In situations where ethical dilemmas are common and where unambiguous codes of conduct are hard to formulate and harder to actively ensure, it is not surprising that resistance and marginalisation occur as Hermans (2005) pointed out.

In order to enhance the intercultural attitude at the university, it is not sufficient to provide professional development workshops or even a series of self-discovery tasks related to their classroom interactions even though they will be welcomed and helpful, encouraging and stimulating for the teachers involved. In this area especially, there must an alignment between policy aims to instil an inter/intra-cultural 'mind-set' in every student by graduation and in members of staff as well. The commitment to support long term professional development including embedded practitioner research with community inquiry groups made up of teachers, administrators and management together at the meso level is the way most often suggested in the literature to deal with ethnocentricity. No PD programme like the TIP can compare to such an enhancement approach. One advantage of enhancement as direction is that the power relations and tensions between various actors in the university can be the object of study to understand and bring hidden biases to the surface.

Matrix no. 3 findings relating to issues of teaching/learning / assessment with international students

Topics / issues and activities that came up during sessions	Int 1	Int 2	Int 3a	Int 3b
If, When and How to step in when multicultural groups are in difficulties	XX	O	XX	XX
A tool consisting of trigger questions to prepare a case for a group experiences sharing and brainstorm based on a critical incident from teachers' own experiences with intercultural interactions	O	O	X	X
If, When and How to deal with different understanding of assessment between Dutch teachers and international students Rhetorical device protocol for presenting a situation, problem and solution in the past with international students usually focussed on assessment	X	O	X	X
Rationales, goals and process of implementation of Internationalisation of the curriculum	X	XX	XX	XX

XX = multiple occurrences; three times or more / x = occurred once or at most twice O = did not come up in discussions

Summary of findings regarding pedagogic skills for teaching/learning/assessment

- All the practising teachers discussed interactions with international students during interviews and in the sessions, the stories of miscommunication came quickly and often to the surface. Several participants joined the TIP primarily because of rather strongly held beliefs in the area of interaction with international students in teaching/ learning / assessment (hereafter t//a/) situations. The evidence from the interventions showed that of all the issues of teaching/learning / assessment those related to international students are very important to teachers. There were both positive stories, where teachers and students found each other, and stories where the interaction was not felicitously worked out. This linked the domain of international teaching learning and assessment to the domain of intercultural competence.

- Attention to theory and so-called “best practices” was possible through the materials on the intranet site and also through some selected materials that were assigned. When to respond to problems was a recurring point of attention. This happened both with individual students and in coaching situations.
- A stimulating factor in relation to teaching/learning/assessment was the growing awareness of what internationalisation of the curriculum means, in terms of definitions, rationales and strategies. These debates also stimulated subjective meaning making for the teachers themselves. There was not always consensus in the core programme interventions but more agreement was reached in the Schools contextualised interventions on the rationales at least.

Intercultural issues involving assessment dominating the pedagogic domain

Intercultural communication, especially in situations of assessment and coaching, were as noted above, the strongest areas of concern in the domain of pedagogy expressed in interviews and during sessions. Many activities and materials in the TIP revealed the perspectives of teachers regarding the challenge of being sensitive to students from other cultures in the context of marking, evaluation and giving feedback generally. The problems with coaching which were discussed in sessions and interviews almost always revolved around the language and cultural aspects that became acute in situations of assessment. This finding conforms to the literature of IoC. Much of the most helpful literature offered to universities teachers is focussed on how to teach international students with examples of good practices, guidelines and tips on specific aspects of concern such as making instructions more explicit or being more explicit about assessment (for instruction see: Leask, 2004; Lim & Ilagan-Klomegah, 2003; Mullins et al., 1995; Samuelowicz, 1987; Ryan, 2000; for assessment see: Caruana, 2006; Jones & Brown, 2007; Ryan & Carroll, 2005).

Examples of critical incidents revealed three distinct levels of interaction with international students around issues of assessment. One level was when teachers in all of the interventions except the Corporate Academy, reflected on some degree of failure to find out what was going in a project groups. Generally they concluded that they were not well prepared to judge the outcome of such projects. The stories illustrate that it is difficult to distinguish when a problem is primarily cultural and when it is primarily linguistic. When a teacher in the pre-design phase said that there were problems between African, Eastern European and Dutch students in a project group, during an interview, she seemed to make little distinction between language and culture. First, the ‘mediocrity’ of their English was noted but issues of diligence were lumped into the same evaluation. Where did language stop and study attitude start as barriers to that group’s success? That teacher was convinced that a coach needs to find out more about the process of such a group in order to understand the areas of discontent better. It was not clear to her how she could become that type of coach, one who can interpret this type of dynamic. The literature does not provide a great deal of help with coaching.

Another level of interaction was more decisive, although it took place after the assessment was done. This was when teachers encountered complaints about marking after a course. In the example given from iteration one, the teacher took steps to revise her marking scheme after having consulted the students who were unhappy. She was also puzzled by the difference in norms between students from the neighbouring country and was clearly finding it difficult to accept the non-Dutch norms. The study of intercultural values in Hofstede seemed to have helped to justify the flexibility she needed to show in marking her students in future. The third level was captured in the in interview with the teacher from Intervention 3a. He took proactive steps by making sure the groups understood what he wanted from them well in advance, that is, by making expectation explicit. This is a practice strongly recommended in the literature (McCallum, 2004; Carroll & Ryan, 2005; Kurucz, 2006/2008) that he had discovered on his own. There was no help from the educational advisor embedded in his School in this discovery.

The examples seem to confirm a highly regarded set of guidelines for Australian university teachers who need or want professional development support for issues around internationalisation (Alderson, 1996). On the guideline involving assessment Alderson believes that neither a conventional Western approach to assessment nor a stereotypical Asian approach should be the basis of assessment. In a 'culturally inclusive curriculum' there is space for negotiation between teacher and students, including about testing and feedback. A socially constructed view of assessment in which it is seen as part of the learning process can be negotiated to offer feedback that meets learners' needs, 'rather than the needs of the lecturer for grading (sorting) purposes' (p.8).

Two examples of negotiation were given in interviews. In one, an international student proved to a Dutch teacher that he had been unfair, leading to an adjusted mark. In another the teacher explained that he never marked a first essay of students from abroad according to strict Dutch criteria, as they would not understand why they were given low marks, just for doing the same type of writing they have always done in the past.

In summary, the stimulating materials and activities in the English domain were the more integrated CLIL type such as the situation/problem/solution task and guide. Also just-in-time feedback focussed on typical errors seemed to be well received, especially in iterations 2 and (intervention) 3b. The least stimulating were the self-study materials probably due to a combination of a lack of time and a lack of moderator involvement in blended learning.

The most stimulating materials and activities for intercultural learning were one the one hand handy prepared or commercial exercises that teachers could take over and use in their own classes and on the other, activities that focused on their own experiences such as critical case incidents. Input sessions familiarising teachers with well-known models appeared to be appreciated but their value cannot be empirically evaluated in the long term. There were no constraining activities in this domain but sometimes issues of the need to incorporate intercultural competences in their curricula triggered a mild resistance in a few participants while it was warmly welcomed by others in all iterations.

Finally the most stimulating activities and materials in the pedagogic sphere were first of all linked to the domain of intercultural competence. Second the proactive presentations were said to benefit students by the teachers who had used the presentations to try out a mini-lecture. Use of typical lists of tips and tricks for international classrooms were only requested by one teacher in all of the iterations. However, several examples of guidelines and so-called best practices were placed on the intranet site for personal use.

II Discussion relating to a question on the interventions

10.3

Post design phase - Analysis & Evaluation

What are the relative strengths and limitations of stand-alone/non-contextualised and embedded/contextualised interventions in regard to the criteria of viability, legitimacy and efficacy?

Proponents of research with design have identified ways of evaluating the quality of educational design research. General criteria have been culled from the work of various scholars (Van den Akker, 1999; also see McKenney, Nieveen & Van den Akker, 2006, p.79). The criteria are of *viability*, *legitimacy* and *efficacy*.

Viability includes three aspects as set out in the visualisation of goals in chapter six, namely practicality, sustainability and relevance. Thus to evaluate viability, questions of how practical a design is, how relevant it is to the end users, and how sustainable it is need to be asked. Legitimacy relates to how coherent the components are, that is, how internally consistent the parts are. Legitimacy is further rooted in the way that scientific insights are used. The third criterion is of how effective the design results are. Some typical questions are related to cost, in time and effort. In other words how (in) efficient is (the use of) the design? The insights that these criteria can bring to the surface can be ploughed back into the design process to make on-going improvements. There are trade-offs in this evaluation process. A design that is viable may not be legitimate or it may have quite coherent components and be well based in scientific insights but be extremely expensive. This might be said of Todd Odgers' interculturalising of the international faculty programme, for example. Difficult decisions have to be made. All three criteria need to be balanced for a truly effective design (McKenney et al., 2006, p.80).

Viability 1: Practically

The strengths of the generic mode of delivery according to the literature have been noted in Chapter three and again in chapter nine so they will only be summarised briefly here. One strength is that they can be offered repeatedly. The investment in developing high quality materials only needs to be made once resulting in their relatively low cost. Evaluation criteria can be developed and used so that the success of an intervention can be compared to that of others that used the same design. This can be an aid to standardisation and is certainly an effective auditing tool. Some of these characteristics can be found in the TIP. These practical advantages are achieved through choices in what (and what not) to provide. However, the need to include or drop components on the basis of practicality can be a threat to the quality of the programme offered. One choice shown on the table below it that extension activities such as a research project, will have to be sacrificed in future if the TIP is offered generically.

Because the Corporate Academy system requires that participants pay a fee for following any workshop or course or seminar, the TIP expenses incurred by the PD provider could in future be paid for out of those fees. In order to be practical, future TIP programmes would have to be much shorter as the fee is calculated in the number of contact hours provided. Extension tasks like action research or the hosting of a seminar or other events will not be possible. Nor will guest speakers be invited. Without offering a certificate or credits towards a degree even a modest investment in such a sober programme will make the TIP unattractive to teachers who might benefit from it. On the other hand, in order to be credit bearing the TIP will have to include formal summative forms of assessment, with the potential for failure, which may affect the ethos of the programme.

All of these options are possible based on the existing course map/template. Thus, while the stand-alone TIP can potentially be cost effective in the narrow sense of covering operating expenses, it will have to either be reduced in length or expanded so that products and assignments can be included for assessment leading to a qualification or certificate that would justify the extra fee. Taking the logistic and resource requirements into account and considering the status of the course map and materials, the design is sufficiently valuable for teacher learning to merit implementation as a stand-alone programme. As it stands the TIP as generic intervention can be work related but not work embedded, using the generations of PD given by Osborn (2002).

In contrast, a consequence of a consultation approach is that in most cases only parts of the course map can be implemented. In addition, those parts need to be adjusted using the contextualisation steps. This will need to be calculated in the costs, perhaps invoiced as needs' analysis (see Wisker, 2003 for an extensive and discipline sensitive approach to needs analysis). Further, projects linking the learning activities to the workplace will not cost extra time or resources making this contextualised version practical. Logistics can be arranged with the clients. Another positive aspect is the possibility of making bi-lateral links with other Schools or stakeholders abroad which started to happen in intervention 3b both with a degree programme in another School and with internship supervisors in 3 countries.

Viability 2: Sustainability

That teachers did not engage in projects that would change practices outside their own classrooms in the stand-alone interventions was clearly a limitation. This was shown to be at least in part, because the members of the stand-alone groups had no long term relationships. They had different team leaders, different local cultures in their Schools and different policies for internationalisation. If a mixed group of teachers engages with others, as the teachers of intervention two did with students, they cannot plough this encounter back into their workplace endeavours. If accommodative and or independent learning takes place in the stand-alone mode of delivery it is overwhelmingly individual with little attention to sustainability if this is understood as an organisational goal for enhancement of students' learning. Possibly these limitations would perhaps matter less if the stand-alone course was going to lead to a certificate.

Viability 3: Relevance

If the content domains are considered without looking at the different delivery modes, it can be said that the core programme's three domains were relevant to the teachers in all iterations. The only exception might be the inexperienced teachers in the second iteration who at least thought that the content was perhaps too heavily loaded towards the issues of internationalisation and interculturalisation policies. The other teachers in this group disagreed however as has been explained elsewhere. There was a barrier to relevance in that, as has been discussed, actual workplace challenges were not always addressed in the stand-alone interventions, although in at least three cases teachers were able to use the TIP elements to improve an aspect of their practice. In the 'embedded' and contextualised interventions the topics were agreed with participants. For example, after every session in intervention 3b a short evaluation was done and an agreement made over the next session. According to these two participants everything covered was relevant. The only reservation was that teachers felt they had not done enough work on their own. Only one teacher out of all the participants in the third iteration expressed doubt about the relevance of the workshop sessions.

Legitimacy

An intervention is deemed legitimate on the basis of two criteria. One, it is judged to be legitimate to the degree that its component parts are coherent and, two it is judged on how much and how well those components use theoretical or conceptual insights. Coherence does not mean that all components are equal in all ways. It means that the components complement, link up and strengthen each other but one can be more important than another.

The three content domains proved not to be equally important to the participants, with the intercultural domain dominant. At its best the TIP allowed for intercultural issues to be the main focus but used English and pedagogic skills learning to support that focus. Most of the teachers in all interventions had had English courses in the recent past and most had had some kind of pedagogic training, while the intercultural aspect was completely new for more than half of the Dutch participants. This was one reason why the domain of intercultural competence came to dominate the programme. The other reason is that it is the open-mindedness and communication skills inherent in being competent in dealings with people whose cultural background is different from their own which is nothing less than crucial in international education. The many examples of teachers' intense interest in and problems with Dutch students in mixed groups show how important the domain is. Linking intercultural learning to solving teaching problems and supporting IC with language activities appears to have been stronger than if intercultural learning had been offered on its own. This may be similar to the situation in internationally oriented for-profit organisations where language enhancement and intercultural learning feed into each other almost as a virtuous circle. Basing her findings on consultation work such commercial organisations, Aarup Jensen notes:

Brushing up language skills touch [sic] some of the more traditional ways of internationalising companies, for instance through in-service courses. Endowing these courses with an intercultural dimension at the same time making use of materials present to all within the company seems to be a natural and relevant way of developing language proficiency ([Aarup] Jensen, 1995, p.145).

Implicit or tacit learning through discussion and presentations was an effective manner to link the three domains. However certain elements are required for the best outcomes. These are: the importance of preparation of highly stimulating texts with good lead in and follow up questions and some explicit attention to vocabulary (as the worksheet example in the appendix shows) having good plenary slots where the three domains can be pointed out explicitly to make clear what kind of learning has just taken place in each of them. Whenever possible writing tasks that must cover all three domains must be assigned. As the table below showing progressive changes across the three version of the TIP makes clear, the final version of the core programme arranged the domains, materials, learning routes and extension tasks in a more coherent and integrated manner than during the pilot or the C.A.

Characteristic element	TIP prototype 1.0 2008	TIP prototype 2.0 2008/09	Final version of TIP Course Map June 2009
3 Domains	Separate - no sequence, aim was to agreed a sequence communicatively	Separate – sequence of three week blocks per domain was considered the logic in itself	Integrated by clustering into thematic units under an overarching focus
Materials load Of academic and professional development texts	Supermarket style Offer many choices which learners can access whenever they like	Supermarket style but with selected texts for Internationalisation prepared with pre-reading tasks	Pre-selected texts sometimes condensed and provided with language and discussion questions or tasks
Routes through the learning	One route for all	One route for all	Flexible routes possible
Extension tasks /activities	Action research	Action research	Short workplace tasks
Components	1	1	2

table 2 progressive changes to the core programme

Efficacy

Aspects of a design that make it 'yield desired results' (McKenney, et al. 2006, p.80) contribute to its efficacy. Also cost/benefit ratios are criteria for efficacy. In this research, efficacy was taken to be an internal aspect that makes the interventions highly desirable for the organisation, namely the capacity for the core programme course map to be used in alternative ways; either on its own or as a part of other enhancement activities and initiatives (such as innovation or reform projects). In the second alternative, elements from the course map can be applied in different contexts while retaining a generic integrity as described in Chapter nine. Contextualisation of the generic programme is what will make the TIP most flexibly usable and cost effective across time and space in the organisation. The mechanism for achieving this capacity to contextualise is the way that 'consequential transitions' (Beach, 1999; 2003) were handled in the TIP. For higher educational professional development, it was possible to create a procedure to contextualise the core programme as described in the previous chapter.

In conclusion, the table below shows three aspects of this discussion; the potential strengths of each mode of delivery based on the literature and the characteristics of the design of the core-programme template; the strengths that were traceable through the actual iterations in the design phase; and the limitations based again on the evidence from the iterations. The practicality of the stand-alone programme has been shown in the strengths of iterations one and two. It is practical to offer the TIP in this mode of delivery but the types of learning will be restricted to independence and accommodative transcendent learning approached at best without the benefit of work embedded learning which will be marginal if at all achieved.

Further the core programme that forms the basis for both modes of delivery is sufficiently relevant but the degree of relevance is higher in the embedded mode of delivery because of the shared understanding that emerged from using language, symbols and tools related to the fields of expertise of participants and because authentic challenges were being addressed.

Certain trade-offs were made. One is the reduced legitimacy in that the self-study goal was not pursued after the first two interventions. The trade-off was to have self-study as an

option but use the time to work intensely with team tasks which raised the level of relevance. If all of the elements that make the TIP legitimate and relevant in the stand-alone mode of delivery are to be achieved there will be a trade off in regard to practicality as the course will have to be very expensive and take longer than is practical for most teachers.

	Stand alone delivery based on a course map	Contextualised - In Schools delivery using elements from a course map
Potential strengths based on the final course map	<p>can be coherent and multi layered can be made longer or shorter, can be credit bearing or not</p> <p>can run parallel with individual learning projects but will be more expensive in that case</p> <p>can be adapted at low cost in time and effort and still provide challenging and valuable learning opportunities</p> <p>focus on authentic learning using range of approaches</p>	<p>can be coherent and multi layered can be made longer or shorter, can be credit bearing or not</p> <p>can run parallel with individual learning projects</p> <p>can stimulate bilateral professional development</p> <p>focus on authentic learning using range of approaches</p>
Demonstrated Strengths	<p>brought people together who had never had contact before with highly different views which gave a wider insight into the topics</p> <p>rich content and wide choice benefitted those who had a strong motivation and own learning goals</p>	<p>knowing-in-doing emerged in team activities that have direct and lasting effects on a large body of students</p> <p>the language of the discipline helped to leverage the work place into a learning space</p> <p>adapted at a reasonably low cost when a protocol was used skilfully</p> <p>worked catalytically with management innovations projects or quality enhancement policies</p> <p>took advantages of existing team strengths for group dynamic</p>
Encountered Limitation or challenges	<p>no long term relationships caused lack of commitment and made extension / project work difficult</p> <p>guest speakers or events were very hard to arrange due to lack of funds</p> <p>was difficult to link in work practices</p> <p>large gaps between members' goals due to differences in work functions and backgrounds</p> <p>no guaranteed workplace support from line management</p> <p>almost always individual</p>	<p>needed wide knowledge and a strong database to build upon</p> <p>required high skills of consultation / facilitation by provider - limited control of direction</p> <p>needed to take the existing culture into account</p>

Matrix : Strengths, limitations, challenges of both modes of delivery

III Conclusions across the iterations

10.4

Concluding question

What principles can be identified for the design and implementation of sustainable, relevant and practical professional development interventions for enhancing internationalisation of the curriculum in multiple modes of delivery?

The principles which are the culmination of this research, as illuminated in the model in figure 2, have combined the results of analysis of data collected during and after all interventions with insights from experts in several fields. These experts formed a personal learning network for the researcher/developer. A continuous dialogue was carried on throughout the research process using their claims, criticisms, comments, models and questions as mirrors, metaphors, beacons and shoulders to climb on. This is not to say that the conclusions were reached through purely deductive 'evidence based practice' where the findings from the interventions as solution to a problem were assessed on the basis of earlier identified insights from those experts. It is also not to say that they are the result of a purely applied form of 'practice based evidence', where the experience-expertise of the teachers was revealed and made systematic through the interventions. There is a continuum between these two (Smeijsters, 2005). The following principles and rules of thumb used evidence from both kinds of expertise, as they complement each other. It is only fair to give credit to the main members of this idiosyncratic learning network. They were: in the field of workplace learning, principally Eraut, and Illeris; Reckwitz on the 'praxeology' branch of cultural theories; Orlikowski on practice-as-knowing with skilled professionals in complex organisations and Schwandt for the model of truth that contrasts with the conventional model in education and health. In the field of university teacher professional development the principal influences were Trowler, Saunders, Knight and Sharpe; but also Kennedy, Osborn and Reid on modes of delivery; Angelo on heuristics for faculty development; Kahn on evaluation; Boud on proactive reflection and Klaassen on the Dutch context. In the field of expertise of internationalisation of the curriculum the main influences were Teekens, Caruana, Bond and Leask with insights from Marginson and De Vita. Finally the following heuristics were inspired by design based & development research ideas in the first place of Van den Akker, McKenney and Reeves; Kessels on the importance of relational aspects; Wang & Hannafin, over principles of design.

Evolution of Design Principles

The design principles, four in number, have been refined from the propositions and outcomes of all iterations. The first design principle started to emerge in iteration one as Chapter 7 describes. It concerns the stimulating effects of combining the content domains and was first set out in rough form as a proposition for iterations 1 and 2. The second design principle is strongly influenced by two framing theories, that of tacit and informal learning together with the theories of social practices perspectives on contextualisation. In one sense it is an application of Sharpe's harnessing of Eraut's context factors to higher educational professional development. In another sense it follows the social practice steps for adapting an existing programme to new groups as presented by Trowler and advocated by the enhancement group of Bamber et. al. The evidence for this principle was gathered primarily in interventions 3a and 3b as was noted in Chapter 9 in both the analysis and enactment parts of the chapter. The third principle was also rooted in the framing theory of tacit and informal learning, (which was manifested in the fourth proposition of iterations one and two, where it was not used enough to formulate a principle, and in iteration 3, intervention 3a, where it finally was) The last design principle emerged out of the framing theory of implicit change theory not captured in a specific proposition but culled from evidence across the 4 interventions. The model below presents these principles and their framing theories; it is followed by details of the model.

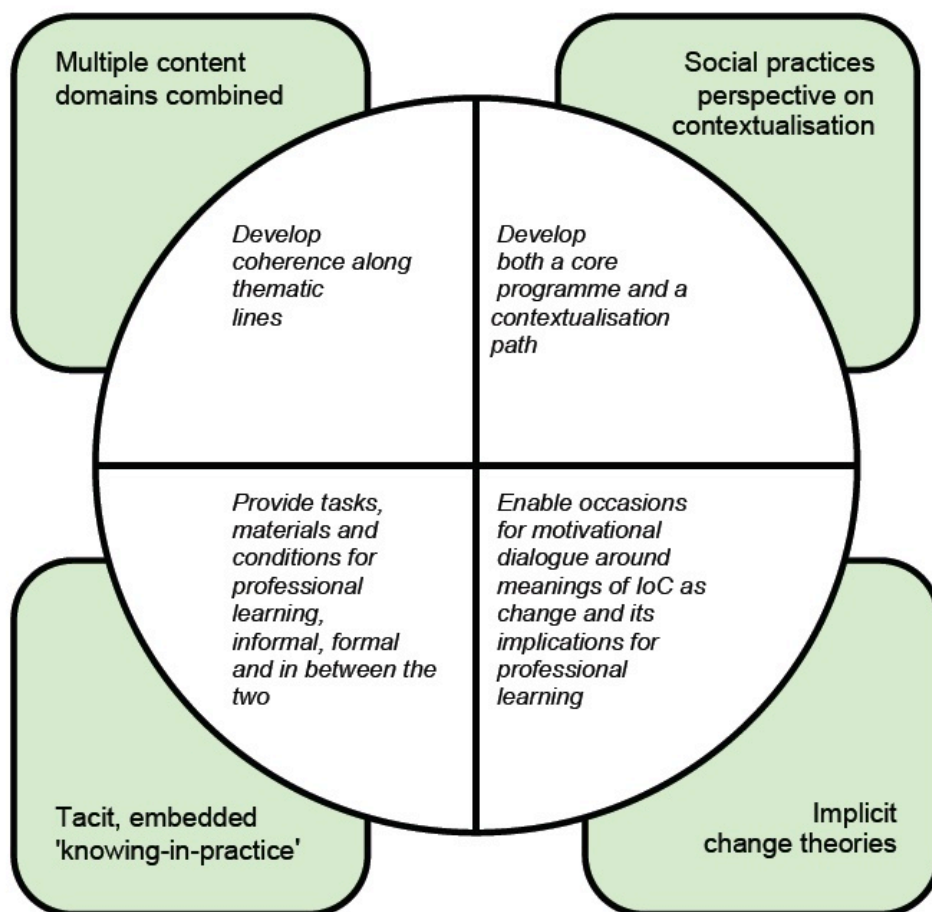


fig. 2 Model of heuristics for a multi-modal; professional development provision for internationalisation of the curriculum for teachers in applied science universities

Details of the model

Multi-modal professional development for university teachers for internationalisation of the curriculum

Principle 1: Transcendence across context and content areas stimulates lasting learning in complex and ambiguous professional challenges in organisations undergoing rapid change. Accommodative and holistic learning is triggered by challenges and cognitive input that transcend disciplines and fields of expertise.

Heuristic: Develop coherence along thematic lines

Professionals who are engaged in internationalisation can be supported by combining areas that feed into each other such as language improvement for academic exchange with students and colleagues, opportunities for exploring individual and group requirements for better intercultural awareness and communication, materials and activities to strengthen professionals' in carrying out their teaching/learning/assessment tasks. It is helpful to have a theme that is meaningful and open to multiple stances. Such a theme can provide an overarching perspective. Involvement of experts to develop quality materials in subject areas can be a safeguard against a planning or reform bias. Expect the area of intercultural interaction to have high priority and prepare for flexible approaches to engage with it so that synergies with other domains are a logical imperative.

Principle 2: The social production of knowledge and expertise demands that professional development in the workplace be contextualised to take account of social practices. Not only what motivates and what content is required need to be identified, but also when learning takes place, with whom it does, where it happens and what the learner is actually busy doing, what kinds of actions, tasks, incentives, interactions etc. motivational, relational, contextual/organisational and content factors need to be taken into account There are constant, and complex interactions between individuals and groups and their environment. Contexts factors that can enable or hinder learning are coming to be understood but not how those factors differ from one context to the next.

Heuristic: Develop both a core programme and a contextualisation path

Steps A – F can serve as a guide for a contextualisation procedure (for flow chart see end note)

A) Identify, and where needed, develop the generic core intervention programme.

Create a template that can generate either versions of a stand-alone programme or a mould from which parts can be selected and used in various local formats. (see accompanying volume for examples).

B) Profile the local contexts for each practitioner group. Predict the key potential obstacles and facilitating factors in them.

Think of factors such as (disciplinary) discourse, practices, interactions, patterns of power, incentives, tasks, and position in chronology of the implementation of internationalisation, etc. In making the profiles, interviews are conducted and primary sources consulted.

C) Predict the possible path of implementation.

Try to imagine from the perspective of the people working in this context how they might 'bend' the programme's path to suit their needs and interests. How would they refract it in order to be more congruent with their perceived needs and interests? In each case ask what both individuals and groups might emphasise and/or downplay if it was in their power to bend the programme to their taste. When dealing with an established group, get a sense of that group's interrelations if possible. Identify incentives using what you have understood of the group's main aspirations (and perhaps fears) if it is a development team or group.

D) *Identify concrete elements in the generic programme that can be changed to achieve a better fit.*

In this step, consultative meetings can be arranged in which the proposed adaptations are shown to the team leaders and/or members of the teams for feedback. Ensure involvement and support of participants especially from meso levels. Expect intercultural learning to be the most challenging and potentially the most rewarding domain, use terminology, models etc. taken from fields / disciplines of learners.

E) *Collect a platform of ideas, design an adapted intervention, making it as finished a product as you can.*

This can mean working in ways to be 'unmanaged' in homeopietic¹¹ management – creating something that has integrity but is open and flexible, above all it is a wise judgement call on the basis of a complex and difficult reality, not a clear solution but an intuitive attempt. Think of tools and materials that will build confidence. Calculate the efforts in time and energy it may cost to deal with tough challenges.

Set up an observation schedule and a range of feedback instruments for formative evaluation (Pragmatic design paradigm), plan feedback moments, expect to revise / adjust the intervention as planned.

F) *Behave as a knowledgeable guest.*

Do not forget the importance of social interaction and incorporate social events when possible during the interventions, Also keep in mind the importance of yourself as model of the 'open mindset' curious about inter and intra cultural differences. Show interest and respect. Be aware of the local situation in as many of its facets as you can; beginning with what you know from the profile. Keep a log, adding observations to gain an ever deepening understanding.

Principle 3 Learning is constituted and reconstituted in practice. Learning that is contingent, engaged, encultured and embodied has implications for professional development. For communities; it is purposeful, shared interactions that use tools and most of all language which members use to 'move' each other. This learning cannot be divorced from ethical dilemmas, when practitioners must decide on complex issues where no one theory or enshrined practice will deal adequately with the competing and contradictory facets of facts on the ground.

Heuristic: Provide tasks, materials and conditions for professional learning, informal, formal and in between the two.

This focus is facilitated by workshops and other types of relevant input sessions not being offered alone but always intertwined with support (through tailored consultation and feedback) for authentic workplace tasks with colleagues and/or students such as: course designs, assessment procedures and materials, events such as a study day or seminar, media products, reports of practice-oriented research, with reflection and analysis incorporated into the products.

Provide and guide in the use of tools for problem solving, exchange of experiences, group and individual reflection, guidelines for practice oriented research projects, middle and long term planning with multiple iteration or cycles in trajectories; mind-mapping tools, etc. Power relations, gender relations, inter and intra cultural relations are significant stimuli for learning

¹¹ Poiesis means 'a making, creation' or 'creative production'; homeopoesis refers to designing with others (homeo- means 'like or similar').

and resistance to learning. Provide trigger questions for capturing critical incidents and guides for preparing ways to reflect on them such as intervention sessions.

Provide task variety through a community site with forums for pairs, or groups, portfolio templates with blended or online learning tasks, a data base of valuable articles with language and/or discussion tasks included, links to useful websites etc.

Develop tasks that integrate different areas such as pedagogic insights, intercultural communication skills and language, focus on early evaluation and feedback rather than no evaluation or summative evaluations.

Principle 4: Effective learning for internationalisation requires personal and professional commitment on the part of individuals and groups. This necessarily involves all parties in what the changes mean to them and to significant others. Both good policies (top down) and good local practices (bottom up) are engaged.

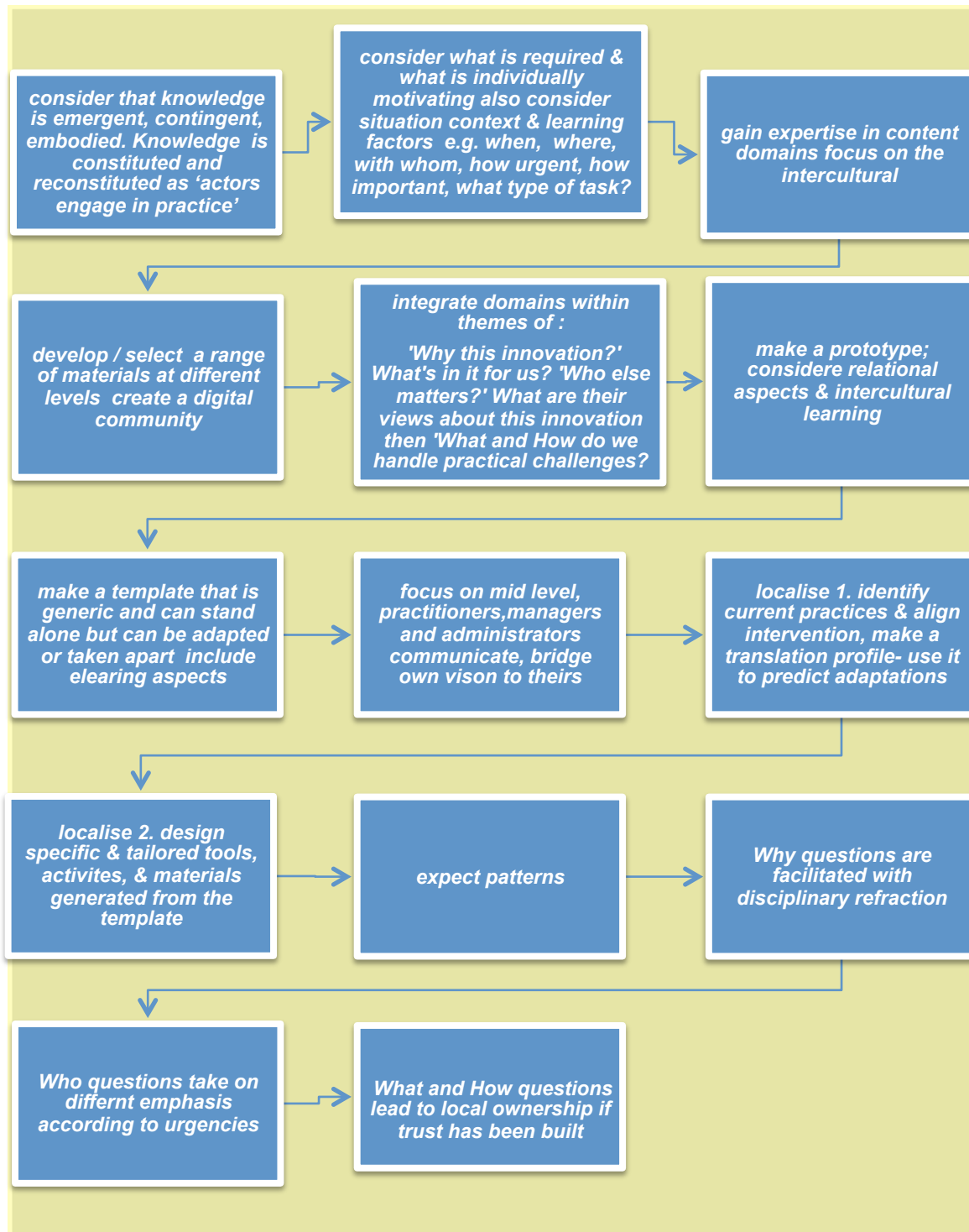
Heuristic: Enable occasions for motivational dialogue around meanings of loC as change and its implications for professional learning

Building on the perspectives surfaced through the overarching theme, ensure space for challenging own practices and policies in group prospective and retrospective reflection. Consider what theories of change are influential in local contexts. The contours of several change theories can be identified and alignment found between them (for example following practice based exemplars; giving rhetorical support; pushing the values of professionalism). As PD provider, make your own 'action or change theory' clear, enable others, including change agents like managers, to articulate theirs. Connect the change theories for loC to objectives for participation in professional development activities. Communicate, communicate, communicate...do not avoid the tough issues, have respect for resisters and for different teaching constructs. Build trust and commitment. If possible conduct intake conversations and an introductory/informative session so that teachers can decide whether they want to participate on the basis of having a good grasp on what is involved.

Trust building dialogues engage professionals in constructing what loC means for them, at their own stage of development, instead of feeding in a pre-set message or offering best practices as commodities for consumption. There are opportunities to work on rethinking individual or team strategies, designs and plans for internationalisation, when relevant, top down policies such as curriculum requirements and graduate learning outcomes, are included in this process which flows over into identifying goals and tasks for professional development to address them. If inspiring practices can be presented in an interactive way they should be welcomed. Build confidence by stressing what the teachers already know and what they can realistically learn by doing rather than stressing gaps or deficiencies.

fig. 3 Heuristic design shorthand as flow chart

In making decisions about the form, content and modes of delivery of a professional development intervention for internationalisation this flow chart, derived from the model, can help the developer.



10.5 Strength of the research

Having followed the insights from literature in the theoretical part of this research as well as outcomes and discoveries of the empirical part, it is time to recognise to what extent those insights, outcomes and discoveries have contributed to reaching the goals and meeting the aims of the study.

One aim was to come to a critical understanding of internationalisation. Both the literature and discoveries showed that internationalisation can be achieved to some extent if teachers are involved in reforming their curricula and if team leaders support activities and actions that go into contested areas. Avoiding the challenges will continue to result in small groups of 'internationalists' who forge policies mostly related to going to conferences and having exchanges. Teachers, it was shown in all iterations, almost to a man support progressive and idealistic goals for internationalisation that are not aligned to the top down policy agendas. Intercultural competence enhancement was shown to be the most interesting area for teachers and materials that drew on their own teaching experiences and expertise to stimulate intercultural learning were developed.

A second aim was to provide professional development units with practical materials, an aim that has been reached. In fact, it might be said that the main result of the research, and its main strength, is its practical outcome: the materials are bundled in the Annex. Design- and developmental research are characterised by not being purely academic constructs, proving a hypothesis. Instead, their research goals are the production of practical results and effective approaches. The designers develop tools to carry out the research and these, when perfected during cyclical trials, become the tools produced by the research, to be used for implementation after the research is finished.

In this particular case the annex should not be mistaken for an addendum, where material of less importance that did not fit into the main text is stored. On the contrary, it contains materials either developed or collected during the different phases of the TIP and/or those suitable for implementation of the TIP, either in stand-alone programmes or embedded interventions. Their usefulness is based on the particular heuristics, found through the phases or iterations of the research. These tools and materials are arranged according to learning approaches and domains. The table of contents of the annex not only indicates what they are, but also for what learning approach(es) and domains they are suitable. Moreover, the link with the TIP research is recorded for each item: it is indicated where and when they were designed and used.

The third aim of the research was to provide a model. It can be said that the model given in 10.4 goes some way to reaching this aim. Its strengths are in its simplicity and flexibility.

Another strength of this research is the dynamicism of conceptualisation. This relates to the long range goals of the research as set out in Chapter six. The pre-design phase of conceptual development and situational mapping had culminated in the identification of the three concepts of learning, and four framing theories. It can safely be said that a conceptual framework was not only developed, it was dynamic. An example of such dynamicism relates to the concept of transcendence. Transcendence was only rarely mentioned in the literature of multidisciplinary and accommodative learning. When transcendence was mentioned, no precise definitions or descriptions were given. However in the current study of the TIP characteristics of this kind of learning became clear during the enactment of the stages in the design phase. In other words, understanding how transcendence could inform the combining of domains was not found 'ready-made' in Illeris. It evolved during the pre-design and design phases. No doubt the concept of transcendent learning as unearthed and described here needs greater refinement and elaboration but it does point to a potentially fruitful nuance to accommodative learning that future learning theorists might like to take up.

Another learning concept, independence, which had been taken on almost unquestioningly (as it is axiomatic in adult education) came to be understood more in terms of group responsibility than the conventional individual self-study conceptualisation. This understanding of group self directedness was partly stimulated by the literature but it was primarily generated by the formative evaluations and informal responses of participants of the first iteration. As a result of those responses and feedback, different ways of negotiating the sequence of the sessions were tried out and new responsibilities for record keeping were introduced to participants in iteration 2

10.6 Validity issues

The heuristics are rooted not only in theory which has been applied to practice but in concepts that have acted as adaptable frames. As McKenney et al. say, design and developmental research is 'mapped by evolutionary planning' (2006, p.84). The plans need to be flexible so that realities on the ground are continually taken into account.

Practitioner research validity issues

Before proceeding further, a request concerning voice will be made. Up to this point, the use of the first person has been avoided. Passive constructions and the somewhat awkward references to 'the developer/researcher' have been maintained instead throughout. This has benefitted objectivity. Once the 'I' form is used there is a temptation to overuse it. One of the dangers of action research in organisations is just this endless navel staring (Glass, 2002). On the other hand, reflecting critically on ones' actions and the conditions surrounding them is important for any kind of investigatory rigour. However, it is crucial when the researcher's own actions and decisions are part of the data (Zuber-Skerrit, 1992; Stringer, 2003). Since the data have already been analysed, I would like to ask the reader's indulgence in allowing me to occasionally use a first person voice from now on.

Both McKenney et al. (2006) and Joseph (2004) point out the advantages of being the sole designer and researcher. For Joseph it was the ability to ask both generic questions about learning and specific questions about the design for learning that gives that type of research its strength. McKenney et al. highlight the direct communication in formative evaluation that a designer who is also implementer has. In this way rapid prototyping can indeed be an organic process. In spite of these advantages, as both practitioner research and development research begin with real world problems they soon encounter real world complications, exacerbated by the researcher being at or near the centre of the actions researched. That real world is messy, as Schwandt reminded us. (It need not be said that this is partly why most scientists demand that variables must be selected carefully in advance to avoid 'dirty data'.) One cannot overestimate the importance of the lack of control over the 'experimental' variables. Therefore challenges that are not found in other forms of research, must be addressed in these forms.

For practitioner research specifically, Shaw (2002) had identified several typical weaknesses. Some of these were mentioned in the methodology chapter. In terms of data gathering and analysis, Shaw's list stressed an unquestioning insider standpoint of much practitioner research, the maintaining and using of limited and rather conventional methods of social science and the writing up of research in conventional rhetorical genres. It also has a deductive assumption on the relationship between theory and practice. These criticisms, taken together, point to well-intentioned but naive empiricism. Shaw was working in the area of health studies but the same weaknesses were pointed out by Eisenhardt in a seminal article on research done in organisations such as research carried out by members of the Human Resources Management staff. Organisational research such as commonly found in HRM, she reminded her readers, has a long tradition in building theory from a common

sense combination of experience and study of previous literature, but 'the connection to actual data was often thin' (Eisenhardt, 1989, p.532).

At this point it should be clear that steps were taken from the outset to minimize these threats in the current study. Clearly theory has not been used deductively. The combination of many fields and experts whose ideas sometimes harmonised and sometimes did not, strengthened the thinking about design in this research. For example, when theories or concepts did not work well together, such as the assumption in mainstream adult education theory about learners' desire to set individual goals, which did not fit with the attitudes of teachers during interventions who wanted the goals to be set for them, these discrepancies were identified. Certainly, it will be difficult to hang the label 'conventional' on the research methodology used here. Whether the writing voice is too conventional is up to the reader to decide. Other issues noted by Shaw were less relevant.

Development Research validity issues

McKenney et al. (2006) state frankly that it is a myth to think that design or development research would not be value-laden when the designer is also the implementer and the evaluator. One way to deal with this is to openly admit that one has a stance or stances. This was done in the informative materials given to TIP participants, to team leaders, to anyone who came to the information sessions offered university wide. Flyers, discussion tasks, interactive tasks for informative sessions, did not avoid the researcher's views on the inability of stand-alone Classroom English courses to meet the complex needs of internationalisation of the curriculum. Also, in every seminar or study day, my orientation to internationalisation as policy pillar, including inclusivity and an anti-hegemonic stance, rather than globalisation imperatives (such as league tables and competition) or exchanges for the 'happy few', was not kept under a bushel. Also the conviction that a Dutch teacher can be a very good international teacher although he or she is not more than reasonably competent in English while a native speaker of English can be a poor international teacher in spite of their language skills, was made clear. The change theories I held combined the theory of institutional rhetorical support for internationalisation, which included discussing the policies with the teachers openly with the theory rooted in the imperative to enhance internationalisation due to the teacher's professional values. Whenever a link could be made between aspirations for greater professionalism to improving international teaching competencies, the connection between professional values and IoC was made explicitly.

The multiple roles, referred to in Chapter one, were also made explicit to participants but that did not head off confusion and dilemmas. As stated in Chapter one, I chose for the research when a choice had to be made between the investigations further goals and a short-term success of the programme as stand-alone course. In addition, at least in one intervention (no.2) I am sure that a form of hypothesis guessing (part of the Hawthorne effect, (cited in McKenney et al. 2006, p.83) happened when certain rather inexperienced content teachers seemed almost to parrot my views.

Triangulation was the most important way that bias was addressed. A feedback committee was formed. McKenney et al. state that triangulation is considered the best way of dealing with 'blurred roles'. However not everything said or done was taped. This was a conscious decision in order not to drown in data at a later stage. According to Herr & Anderson (1999) such a committee contributed to *dialogic* validity in insider research

Triangulation also took the form of participant validation, as when the 6 participants in iteration one (pilot) saw and commented on the revised TIP programme that would be used in iteration two. Another example is the offering of versions of what happened during their interventions to participants up to one year later. This was done in three cases. Especially for iteration two, it was important that 2 of the 6 participants responded extensively. With one

of them a discussion of the findings took more than one hour. This is a form of raising internal validity strongly recommended by Zuber-Skerrit (1992) for action researchers using her CRASP model for professional development. Another form of triangulation that melts in with the case study strategies used here is triangulation of theoretical perspectives (Patton, 1990).

Insider bias, it has been argued elsewhere, is sometimes overestimated since insiders can have a marginal position (Cochran-Smith & Lytle 1993) making them in effect half outsiders. Further it is possible that insiders can win trust from members of an organisation and thus reveal attitudes, fears, and convictions that otherwise remain hidden. Herr and Anderson conclude that this is a highly valuable aspect.

We would argue that insider researchers have unique opportunities to document the hidden transcripts within social institutions, illuminating new forms of micropolitics and an institutional dimension only partially accessible to researchers (1999, p.19).

The way that participants freely discussed fears of staff about the pace of innovation, loss of quality in international English stream courses, alienation from university policy orientation and frustration about professional development support may well be due to the insider position regarding the trust needed to have good formative evaluations for rapid prototyping or authentic shared goals. Van den Akker et al. compare the difficulties outsiders have with what insiders can achieve and conclude that it is worth the difficulties to be an insider. These findings can arguably show that there was a degree of *democratic* validity in terms of practitioner research (Herr & Anderson, 1999).

One of the most important moments for safeguarding the research was when, after the second intervention, I decided not to put effort into making the TIP a success as it was. This disappointed many supporters who did not understand and thought it unwise to lose momentum in terms of organisational strategy. The fact that being a researcher was the primary role (McKenney et al., op cit., p.84) was not clear to these members of staff. However, the feedback committee when informed of the reasons, understood and supported the greater need to answer the wider research questions.

Limitations of the research

There are two main limitations, both of which are consequences of marginalisation. First, the entire process of data collection was complicated by the marginal role of the interventions. If an exploration of an intervention takes place (almost) wholly within the authoritative remit of the researcher, such as when a teacher does action research or exploratory practice in their own classroom, then the issue of being marginal in the wider organisation is not very important. However, when the aim of the interventions is to stimulate a university wide innovation such as internationalisation and/or professional development delivery, the importance of alignment with institution-wide convictions about the nature of the innovation matters greatly. The theatre of action is of course outside of the researcher's control. Without alignment, actual enhancement at meso level is hardly possible (Trowler, Saunders, & Knight, 2003). It has already been stated that no incentives such as material resources for activities outside the sessions, or credits towards better job appraisals, or building towards a qualification, were possible. The scale of the interventions was small. In the first and second interventions only 6 teachers were able or willing to take part. In both interventions 3 of these six came from one School making the balance poor. For research purposes groups of 16 from 4 or more Schools would have been more representative. There is also a serious ethical question about charging participants to follow an intervention that has research as its primary goal.

Second, intertwined with the marginality of the TIP was the relative inexperience of the researcher as PD practitioner and educational design researcher. In itself a lack of experience is challenging but not in a way that cannot be compensated. The forms that such compensation would need to take involve having at least one or preferably more than one, experienced professional developers as critical friends or supervisors. It is regrettable that only one of the NUAS' professional development team was willing to act as such a professional friend but he had very little time to do so. His input was rare but always highly valuable. He never attended a TIP session though. Nor did he go over the summaries of interviews to see if the conclusions drawn were comprehensive or if something was being misunderstood. Three other colleagues who, are not academic developers but professional facilitators of groups were open to consultation, when difficulties arose. Still, it must be said that a regular and explicit process of feedback from professional developers did not occur. The professional development team did invite me to explain the research on three occasions. These however were informative only. Over the years incidental exchanges took place, which were incidentally useful, but there were no in-built methods and structures to reduce bias and increase practitioner competence in the research design. Thus, being marginalised in relation to the professional development and the internationalisation teams of the NUAS formed a degree of limitation on its practicality, relevance, sustainability and efficacy. All of these were achieved in principle as far as the design is concerned, but not in the external sense that the TIP and its findings became part of the NUAS' developmental culture. If the research had been carried out from the central professional / academic development department or as a project owned by the internationalisation team, that positioning may have led to different consequences even if the findings had been the same. In other words the potential to leverage the findings from the interventions into institution-wide enhancement certainly could not take place within the margins of the cultural map of the NUAS, as the TIP was left as a side path leading up to a tiny cottage industry that cannot flourish on its own.

10.7 Future research

It goes without saying that more research is needed in the many areas brought up during the current study. It is better to prioritise a selected few of these areas rather than produce a long list of all that could possibly be looked into in future. An obvious suggestion is to replicate this study, preferably at another university. Other developers would then use the course map and the materials from the Annex in PD provision offered both as stand alone and embedded in faculties and disseminate their findings to PD experts. This is the most technical suggestion.

Transnational research also based on the materials from this research is also worth considering. In that case PD providers would carry out individual action research projects in their own universities and share the results with at least one other university in a different country as a community of practice, culminating, if possible, in a face-to-face forum, online community site and joint publication. Hopefully the projects would expand creatively on types of groups for example a comparative study with one intervention with novice-teachers and one with experienced teachers or one with only functionaries (teachers or administration staff or managers) who work exclusively with international education and one group that only occasional do. Especially the extension tasks/activities that could be used instead of the second component (see table 2 section 10.3) are interesting from a research perspective and need to be tried out.

One of the puzzling outcomes of this research that could be fruitful for understanding work relations is that the teachers and their line managers appear to have different views on how much support they were enabling or getting. A comparative study of discourses and constructs of change between disciplinary and managerial members of the same organisations concerning the enabling of support for enhancement of innovations would be interesting. If the vision of what internationalisation means at universities is to move towards the transformative model, positive examples of 'good practice' of manager-to-teacher relations will be a substantial help.

Finally, curriculum development reform for Internationalisation @ Home has begun to be studied but the investigations need to increase in number and in perspectives. One perspective is that of stimulating a culture of inquiry. Zeicher (2001) had placed this on his list of necessary elements in successful teacher/practitioner research. In this specific context, an inquiry culture would mean a culture where a substantial proportion of teachers and their line managers in curriculum teams are willing to actively puzzle about, and explore multiple facets of incorporating an international/intercultural dimension for all of their students. How to make this attitude of curiosity a disposition of teachers so that they automatically experiment with adding value into their modules from international perspectives, was on the mind of the researcher from the start. At some moments the TIP was able to stimulate teachers in Schools to begin this kind of inquiry but new design artefacts need to be made to carry this perspective forward.

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Abbreviations:

B of G	Board of Governors
BICS	Basic Interpersonal Communicative Skills
BRIC	Brasil, Russia, India and China
C.A.	Corporate Academy
CALP	Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency
CDW	Course Design Workshop
CLIL	Content & Language Integrated Learning
CoP	Community of Practice
CPD	Continuous Professional Development
CRASP	Critical (and self-critical) collaborative enquiry by Reflective practitioners being Accountable and making the results of their enquiry public, Self-evaluating their practice and engaged in Participative problem-solving and continuing professional development
CRIW	Course Redesign Internationalisation Workshop
CSR	Corporate Social Responsibility
DBR	Design Based Research
DMIS	Developmental Model for Intercultural Sensitivity
EAIA	European Association for International Education
ECL&C	Expertise Centre for Languages and Cultures
EDR	Educational Design Research
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
ELP	European Language Portfolio
ELT	English Language Teaching
EQUEL	(a specific e-learning project)
ETC	European Transfer Credit
EU	European Union
EMI	English as Medium of Instruction
ESOL	English to Speakers of Other Languages
HE	Higher Education
HRM	Human Resource Management
IC	Intercultural
ICC	Intercultural Competence
ICM	Intercultural Management
ICT	Information and Communication Technology
IDI	Intercultural Developmental Inventory
ILO	Intended Learning Outcome
IoC	Internationalisation of the Curriculum
IT	Information Technology
IYY	English Medium stream programme of fictional School of YY
I@H	Internationalisation at Home
LLL	Live Long Learning
NPM	New Public Management
NUAS	Northern University of Applied Sciences
PD	Professional Development
PI	Performance Indicator
QEF	Quality Enhancement Framework
SDL	Self-Directed Learning
Sit/Pro/Sol	Situation Problem Solution
SLA	Second Language Acquisition
TIP	Teachers' Internationalisation Programme
VLE	Virtual Learning Environment
XX	fictional name of a School
YY	Dutch Mainstream degree programme of fictional School

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Nederlandse Samenvatting

‘Het verbeteren van programma’s voor professionele ontwikkeling van docenten in de context van internationalisering’.

Introductie

Deze dissertatie beschrijft een onderzoek dat plaats vond tussen 2006 en 2011. Het onderzoek had twee punten van aandacht. Het eerste was het proces van het internationaliseren van de curricula op een hogeschool in het noorden van Nederland, met daarin centraal de rol van de docent-ontwikkelaars van die curricula. Het tweede, de wijze waarop onderwijskundigen professionele ontwikkelingsprogramma’s kunnen ontwerpen en aanbieden die deze docent-ontwikkelaars meer steun bieden dan de bestaande vormen van ondersteuning.

Dit onderzoek werd verricht door een docente Engels die tevens zelf onderwijskundige is, gespecialiseerd in volwasseneneducatie. Het is voor een onderwijskundige uit deze traditie een uitdaging om een bijdrage te mogen leveren aan de grote veranderingen die in het hoger onderwijs gaande zijn ten gevolge van internationalisering.

Achtergrond

In de afgelopen jaren, in het bijzonder in de afgelopen 15 jaar, hebben Nederlandse academische universiteiten en hogescholen of universiteiten voor toegepaste wetenschappen bestuurlijke initiatieven genomen om hun educatieve en onderzoeksprogramma’s te internationaliseren.

Zij deden dit om verschillende redenen. Een politieke reden is bijvoorbeeld, dat de Europese Commissie en de lidstaten overeen zijn gekomen, dat educatieve programma’s in de gehele Europese Unie gestandaardiseerd dienen te worden, ten einde studie en onderzoek buiten de landsgrenzen te vergemakkelijken en om het hoger onderwijs meer transparant te maken. Er werd een nieuw uniform systeem ingevoerd voor de diplomering van afgeronde studieprogramma’s met de kwalificaties ‘Bachelor’ en ‘Master’, zodat studenten hetzelfde diploma ontvangen waar ze ook studeren.

Een andere reden is, dat de bestuurders van universiteiten beogen om de beste studenten en onderzoekers aan te trekken uit het buitenland ten einde te verzekeren dat Nederlands onderwijs en onderzoek op top niveau staat. Daarmee hopen zij in deze tijd van globalisering de concurrentie met de universiteiten in Noord Amerika, Azië en Australië aan te kunnen.

Uitgedrukte in sociaal en cultureel opzicht: de Nederlandse universiteiten stellen zich ten doel om de Nederlandse afgestudeerden uit te rusten met vaardigheden, kennis en attitudes, die hen in staat zullen stellen om met succes te kunnen functioneren in internationale professionele activiteiten en om zowel in eigen land als in het buitenland op te kunnen treden als verantwoordelijke wereldburgers.

Om deze en andere redenen nemen Nederlandse universiteiten ‘internationalisering’ serieus. Maar het bereiken van de doelstellingen van het internationaliseringsbeleid is geen eenvoudige opgave. De universiteiten en hogescholen proberen met meer of minder succes vernieuwingen en hervormingen in te voeren.

Binnen deze context vond het onderhavige onderzoek plaats.

Het College van Bestuur van de hogeschool waar de onderzoekster werkzaam was ontwikkelde en ondersteunde vanaf 2005 een beleid om de curricula te internationaliseren. Internationalisatie was één van de twee voornaamste pijlers van het hogeschool beleid, als vervat in het vijf jaren plan 2005-2010. Er werd een internationaliseringsteam opgericht teneinde de activiteiten van de verschillende departementen, de z.g. ‘Schools’, te stimuleren en te volgen. De beleidsstukken specificeren duidelijk wat nodig is voor een internationaal

oriëntatie van de curricula van de individuele Schools en hoe de diverse aspecten te implementeren:

Aan al deze aspecten moet voldoende aandacht worden besteed in het curriculum van elke opleiding, gerelateerd aan het beroepsprofiel van de betreffende opleiding. De uitwerking kan plaatsvinden in aparte studieonderdelen speciaal gericht op internationalisering of geïntegreerd in andere studieonderdelen. Elke opleiding dient expliciet aan te geven in welke curriculumonderdelen de internationaliseringsaspecten aan de orde komen. Voorwaarde is dat de betreffende studieonderdelen zijn opgenomen in het kerncurriculum van de opleiding en niet alleen in keuzemodules te vinden zijn (VK, 2006, pp.10/11).

Het internationaliseringsteam vroeg de directeuren van de scholen om de vorderingen van activiteiten ter invoering van het internationaliseringsbeleid te rapporteren. Het team kwam er achter dat er grote verschillen bestonden in de aanpak en in de diepgang van de internationaliseringsvernieuwingen.

Als onderdeel van de oriëntatie fase van het onderzoek bestudeerde de onderzoekster de rapporten van de Schools en het commentaar daarop van de internationaliseringscommissie. Uit de beleidsdocumenten en rapporten kwam duidelijk naar voren dat één van de voornaamste struikelblokken bij de implementatie was, dat de docenten die hun onderwijs programma's moesten aanpassen en toepassen op nieuwe groepen studenten, de ervaring, de kennis en het inzicht om de taak te kunnen uitvoeren misten.

In reactie op de gebleken noodzaak om zowel docenten als studenten te ondersteunen werd een talentcentrum opgericht. Dit centrum bood beide groepen cursussen Engels aan. Men ging er dus van uit, dat een verbetering van taalvaardigheden in het Engels het enige was dat aangepakt moest worden om te verzekeren dat docenten de vaardigheden en capaciteiten zouden bezitten nodig om internationaal onderwijs te geven.

Al voor de oprichting van dit talentcentrum hadden docenten Engels cursussen en workshops ontwikkeld en gegeven aan hun collega's in zogenaamd 'classroom English' (Engels voor in de klas). De onderzoekster was als docente zowel werkzaam binnen een Engelstalig opleiding als ook interdepartementaal, als docente 'classroom English'. Zij was derhalve een 'insider' met praktijk ervaring.

Zowel deze interdepartementale docenten als ook een aantal van de docenten die deze cursussen gevolgd hadden gaven als hun mening, dat cursussen Engels alleen niet voldoende ware ter ondersteuning van de overgang naar het ontwikkelen van programma's met een internationale oriëntatie en het onderwijs geven aan internationale studenten.

Dit waargenomen tekort aan ondersteuning van docenten bij het verkrijgen van specifieke professionele vaardigheden, kennis en attitudes, die hen in staat konden stellen om op een effectieve manier internationaal onderwijs te ontwikkelen en te geven, vormde de aanleiding tot dit onderzoek..

Doelstellingen

Eén doel was om universitaire beleidsmakers en managers, internationaliseringsdeskundigen, personeelsfunctionarissen en onderwijskundigen (de professionele ontwikkelaars) inzicht te geven in de complexiteit van het fenomeen internationalisering en van de daarbij relevante ondersteuning, rekening houdende met de leerbehoeften van docenten .

Een tweede doel was om onderwijskundigen en / of professionele ontwikkel-teams te voorzien van praktische materialen, gebaseerd op inzichten verkregen uit een kleinschalig verkennend onderzoek in een naturalistische setting, dat werd omlijst en gestuurd door theorieën uit een aantal disciplines.

Een derde doel was om een voorlopig model voor een aanpak van professionele ontwikkelingsinterventies te bieden aan personeelsfunctionarissen die betrokken zijn bij het proces van internationalisering.

Om deze doelstellingen te bereiken werd een 'case study' uitgevoerd. De 'case' beschrijft de ontwikkeling en toepassing van een programma voor professionele ontwikkeling, genaamd het 'Teachers' Internationalisation Programme' (de TIP), dat speciaal gecreëerd werd door de onderzoekster voor en tijdens dit onderzoek.

Methoden

Dit onderzoek maakte gebruik van een mix van methoden, zoals gebruikelijk in case studies, met name: participerende observatie, veldnotities, analyse van de interne 'grijze' literatuur en interviews. Een methodologische aanpak van educatief ontwerp-onderzoek (Educational Design Research) werd gevolgd, met iteratieve stappen en een voortdurende verwevenheid van acties en analyse.

In het educatief ontwerp-onderzoek is een theoretisch kader dat richting geeft aan het ontwerpproces van belang. Het kader van dit onderzoek had vier pijlers.

1. Een combinatie van meerdere inhoudsdomeinen
2. Impliciete veranderingstheorieën (d.w.z., onbewuste of niet uitgesproken ideeën betreffende de betekenis van de veranderingen)
3. Sociale praktijk perspectieven bij het contextualiseren van leer trajecten
4. Ingebedde, informele, 'kennis-in-praktijk'

Op basis van deze pijlers werden stellingen ontwikkeld. De stellingen werden gebruikt om de opeenvolgende prototypes van de interventies te ontwerpen en tevens om een leidraad te bieden bij de analyse van de resultaten ervan.

Omdat het een 'insider' onderzoek betrof, werd een feedback commissie opgericht om het niveau van subjectiviteit (insider bias) te verlagen.

Probleemstelling en onderzoeksvragen

De vragen in de preliminaire fase waren 'voorvragen', noodzakelijk voor het uitvoeren van het eigenlijke onderzoek. Er waren twee lijnen van vragen. Een lijn richtte zich op onderzoek naar de interventies (lijn A). De tweede lijn stelde vragen gericht op het onderzoek door middel van de interventies (lijn B).

Een kenmerk van dit soort onderzoek (Educational Design Research) is, dat de onderzoeksvragen niet statisch zijn gedurende het hele onderzoek, maar evolueren aan de hand van de tussentijdse bevindingen.

Probleemstelling : Hoe kan een programma voor de professionele ontwikkeling van docenten, die betrokken zijn bij de internationalisering van de curricula op een hogeschool, worden ontworpen en geïmplementeerd, zodanig, dat het leren van Engelse, interculturele en pedagogische competenties verhoogd wordt, middels het op een diverse wijze aanbieden van interventies?

Onderzoeksvragen, Lijn A

*Hoe zou een innovatief in-service programma voor internationalisering docenten leerervaringen kunnen bieden, die het leren van die docenten bevorderen, en waarom? (lijn A: onderzoek **door middel** van interventies)*

Voorvragen (hoofdstuk 6)

Met welke uitdagingen worden docenten geconfronteerd tijdens het implementeren van internationaal onderwijs en wat motiveert hen? En wat motiveert andere belangrijke 'stakeholders'?

Wat zijn de beleidsdoelen voor een succesvolle internationalisering van het curriculum en welke veranderingstheorieën onderstrepen het beleid?

Welke inhoudelijke domeinen met betrekking tot internationalisering zouden nodig zijn om aan de professionele leerbehoeften van docenten te voldoen?

Welke leer-benaderingen zouden geschikt kunnen zijn om het verbeteren van de competenties te bevorderen?

Onderzoeksfasen 1 & 2 (hoofdstukken 7 & 8)

Welke materialen, evenementen en activiteiten kunnen worden aangeboden in een programma om verbetering van de taalkundige, interculturele en pedagogische competenties te stimuleren en hoe kunnen ze worden gerangschikt en gecombineerd?

Welke materialen, evenementen en activiteiten kunnen worden aangeboden in een programma om onafhankelijke/zelf gestuurd leren, overstijgend leren en praktijk geworteld leren te stimuleren en hoe kunnen deze leer-benaderingen worden geïntegreerd?

Post-onderzoeksfase (Analyse & Evaluatie: hoofdstuk 10)

Welke eigenschappen van een in-service programma stimuleerden of belemmerden het leerproces?

Onderzoeksvragen, Lijn B

*Hoe zou een sjabloon-ontwerp voor een generiek programma, gericht op het professionele leren van docenten betrokken bij internationalisering, eruit moeten zien? Hoe kan zo'n programma effectief worden gecontextualiseerd voor de integratie van domeinen? (lijn B: onderzoek **naar** interventies)*

Voorvragen (hoofdstuk 6)

Welke bestaande programma's voor professionele ontwikkeling van docenten zouden als model kunnen fungeren?

Wat zijn de huidige praktijken rondom professionele ontwikkelingsprogramma's die nu gebruikt worden bij de NUAS?

Welke eigenschappen zou een innovatief programma moeten hebben?

Interim Analyse (hoofdstuk 9)

Waarom zou een programma-ontwerp, dat is voortgekomen uit 'op zichzelf' staande interventies, moeten worden herschapen tot een generiek programma, dat gebruikt kan worden als programma-sjabloon?

Onderzoeksfase 3 (hoofdstuk 9)

Hoe kunnen elementen uit een programma-sjabloon, dat is ontstaan uit op zich zelf staande interventies, worden ingezet als onderdeel van curriculum vernieuwingsprojecten of andere innovaties in Schools?

Welke theorieën en praktijken kunnen het gebruik van onderdelen van het generieke programma binnen curriculumteams in een specifieke werkomgeving vergemakkelijken?

Post-ontwerpfase (hoofdstuk 10)

Wat zijn de relatieve sterktes en beperkingen van zowel de op zich zelf staande / niet gecontextualiseerde als de wel gecontextualiseerde interventies, gezien de criteria van levensvatbaarheid, legitimiteit en effectiviteit?

Welke principes kunnen worden geïdentificeerd voor het ontwerpen en uitvoeren van duurzame, relevante en praktische programma's voor professionele ontwikkeling van

docenten met als doelstelling het verbeteren van de internationalisering van het curriculum, middels het op meerdere wijze aanbieden van interventies?

Resultaten

De hieronder genoemde resultaten worden aangeduid als 'iteraties'. Met 'iteratie' wordt bedoeld een cyclisch proefproces, waarbij op grond van de bevindingen wijzigingen worden aangebracht ter precisering van de uitgangspunten van de volgende iteratie. Door dit proces worden de onderzoeksvragen steeds helderder belicht.

Iteratie 1

De interventie ontworpen voor deze iteratie was een op zich zelf staand programma van 15 weken. Het omvatte de drie inhoudsdomeinen en taken om de drie leer-benaderingen te stimuleren. Het programma-ontwerp was te ambitieus. Het eerste prototype volgde verschillende lijnen. Bijvoorbeeld, het lag in de bedoeling om onafhankelijk leren te stimuleren door middel van een reeks van zelf-assessment tools en materialen voor zelfstudie. Er werd ook verwacht, dat docenten collectief zelfstandig zouden worden en dat de groep het heft in eigen handen zou nemen. Het stond niet van tevoren vast in welke volgorde de domeinen zouden worden bestudeerd tijdens de sessies en de deelnemers werden gevraagd om zelf keuzes te maken. Er stond onder meer een actieonderzoek (handelsonderzoek) op het programma. Het programma was bovendien zeer rijk aan inhoud; het bevatte artikelen, oefeningen en discussie stukken over Engels, interculturele en pedagogische onderwerpen.

Aan het einde van de eerste iteratie werd duidelijk, dat de zelfstudie lijn was mislukt. Er werden diverse verklaringen geopperd, zoals tijdsdruk. Het gebundeld aanbieden van de materialen voor de sessies en de zelfstudie materialen werd ervaren als overbelasting. Ook werd gesuggereerd dat de door de docenten geprefereerde leerstijlen niet met zelfstudie strookten. De actieonderzoekjes werden niet uitgevoerd, behalve door een deelnemer. Het was echter toch mogelijk gebleken om Engels, intercultureel en pedagogisch leren effectief te combineren. Docenten gaven presentaties met analyses van gecompliceerde incidenten binnen internationale groepen, waarbij een combinatie van deze domeinen noodzakelijk was.

Iteratie 2

Verskillende verbeteringen van het prototype werden aangebracht in deze tweede iteratie, op basis van terugkoppeling en analyse van de eerste iteratie. De TIP werd opnieuw aangeboden als een 'op zich zelf staand' programma voor 15 weken.

De zelfstudie materialen werden online gezet en werden optioneel gemaakt, ten einde het gevoel van overbelasting bij de deelnemers weg te nemen en hen meer vrijheid te bieden. Dit had niet het beoogde effect. Net als tijdens de eerdere iteratie maakte vrijwel niemand gebruik van de zelfstudie opdrachten, alhoewel een paar deelnemers de zelfevaluatie testen deden.

De volgorde van de inhoudsdomeinen voor elke sessie was meer gestructureerd dan de vorige keer. Er waren vaste zittingen aan het begin en er was een procedure voor het selecteren van domeinen daarna.

Helaas weigerden docenten tijdens deze iteratie om zelf een keuze te maken uit de domeinen en lieten dit over aan de ontwerper van het programma. Ook kwamen meningsverschillen over de waarde van intercultureel leren aan het licht en bij enige docenten bestond weerstand tegen het benadrukken van dit domein. Het combineren van domeinen evolueerde echter verder. Docenten maakten daadwerkelijk gebruik van de combinaties bij het geven van mini-lezingen en presentaties in hun klassen.

Alle deelnemers voltooiden de planningsfase van een actieonderzoek, wat mogelijk was omdat het item vroegtijdig werd geïntroduceerd en er meer begeleiding werd geboden dan in de vorige iteratie. Helaas bleek dat de teamleiders in de meeste gevallen terughoudend

waren om extra middelen te verschaffen voor het uitvoeren van de actieonderzoeksprojecten. Maar, positief bekeken had zelfs het maken van een plan bepaalde voordelen. Zo gebruikte een docent de materialen als educatieve input voor zijn eigen studenten, die vervolgens eigen actieonderzoeken deden.

Onverwachts was het uiteenvallen van de groep in twee subgroepen. Drie leerkrachten, die weinig betrokken waren bij internationalisering, vormden één subgroep en drie docenten die intensief betrokken waren met internationalisering op de werkvloer een tweede. Het werd duidelijk dat deze twee subgroepen verschillende verwachtingen en doelstellingen hadden. De groep met een zwakke relatie tot internationalisering wilde meer Engels in hun programma, bij voorkeur in elke sessie, en de andere groep niet. Dit meningsverschil werd niet opgelost.

De analyse van de uitgangspunten van deze iteratie liet zien, dat de nieuwe procedure voor het collectief bepalen van de volgorde niet werkte omdat er geen gezamenlijke doelen waren die de deelnemers in de groep bijeen hielden.

Een ander belangrijk punt dat uit de analyse naar voren kwam was het gebrek aan communicatie vóór de start van het programma. Dit gebrek aan communicatie was een gevolg van het gebrekkige rekruteringsproces. Zo werden docenten geselecteerd voor de TIP, die relatief weinig belang hadden bij hun deelname aan het programma, terwijl andere docenten, die veel baat zouden hebben gehad bij deelname, zoals de bovengenoemde groep van drie docenten die nauw betrokken waren bij internationalisering, niet op de hoogte waren van het bestaan van de TIP. De conclusie was, dat de rekrutering in de toekomst beter moest.

Zorgwekkend waren ook de problemen bij het verkrijgen van middelen voor het uitvoeren van actieonderzoeken, daar die onderzoeken van vitaal belang waren bij het verkennen van de mogelijkheden tot leren 'in situ', op de werkplek.

Interim-analyse

Op basis van de analyse van de eerste twee iteraties werd besloten om de TIP niet te blijven aanbieden als zelfstandig programma. In plaats daarvan zou het programma worden herontworpen, zodat het op een flexibele manier zou kunnen worden aangeboden bij het werken met teams van docenten binnen hun eigen opleiding of studie specialisatie.

Het proces van het ontwikkelen van een flexibel generiek programma-sjabloon voor de TIP begon met het bestuderen van het werk van experts op het gebied van professionele ontwikkelingsinterventies in het hoger onderwijs of op professionele werkplekken. Op basis daarvan, en in combinatie met de inzichten verworven tijdens de iteraties, werd een strategie ontwikkeld. Het resultaat van dit proces was een nieuw model voor een generiek programma-sjabloon.

Deze sjabloon kon in principe worden gebruikt als een op zich zelf staand programma. Maar de ervaringen opgedaan tijdens de vorige iteraties lieten zien dat de TIP zeer veeleisend is en dat het aanbieden ervan zonder tenminste een certificaat in het vooruitzicht te stellen geen haalbare kaart is.

Ook kunnen elementen van de sjabloon worden geselecteerd en gebruikt voor het geven van korte cursussen of workshops of het materiaal kan gebruikt worden tijdens programma's op maat voor specifieke werkgroepen.

De sjabloon

De sjabloon bestaat uit drie sub-thematische blokken met internationalisering van het curriculum als overkoepelend thema. Aan elk blok zijn activiteiten en materialen gekoppeld voor het verbeteren van competenties, waarbij Engels, interculturele en pedagogische vaardigheden, kennis en attitudes geïntegreerd worden. De flexibiliteit van het nieuwe ontwerp wordt versterkt door extra taken, speciaal gericht op de werkvloer, enerzijds ten

behoefte van docenten die intensief bezig zijn met internationalisering, en anderzijds extra taken voor docenten die niet erg ervaren of actief zijn in het geven van internationaal onderwijs.

De drie sub-thema's resulteren in WAAROM, WIE, WAT/HOE vragen. Deze sub-thematische blokken kunnen op verschillende manieren worden gearrangeerd. De zwaarte van een blok is afhankelijk van de behoeften van de doelgroep. Zo kan een groep die voornamelijk geïnteresseerd is het verwerven van inzicht in educatief materiaal beschouwd vanuit het perspectief van andere 'stakeholders' ervoor kiezen om het grootste deel van hun tijd te besteden aan het WIE blok.

Om te kunnen experimenteren met de nieuwe programma-sjabloon moest een methode voor de behoefteanalyse van groepen worden vastgesteld, die meer opleverde dan een doorsnee behoefteanalyse.

Daartoe werd een protocol opgesteld voor het contextualiseren van het generieke programma. Het protocol was gebaseerd op de ideeën van drie deskundigen op het gebied van professionele ontwikkeling op de werkplek en in het hoger onderwijs, allen '(social) constructivists' (Eraut, 2004, Trowler, 2009, Knight 2001). Het protocol werd gebruikt om inzicht te verkrijgen de lokale context waarbinnen de TIP zou moeten passen. Vragen werden gesteld betreffende afdelingscultuur en tradities, bestaande ideeën over leren, de voornaamste bezigheden, aspiraties etc.

Op basis van de uitkomsten van dit protocol werden voorspellingen gemaakt betreffende de specifieke behoeften van twee groepen in twee verschillende 'Schools' teneinde de meeste relevante onderdelen van het programma te kunnen selecteren.

Deze twee 'Schools' werden de locaties voor twee interventies tijdens de derde iteratie.

Iteratie 3

Hoewel de twee interventies zeer verschillend waren, mag gezegd worden dat beiden een succes waren wat betreft het combineren van domeinen en het toepassen van leren binnen de eigen werksituatie (praktijk geworteld leren).

Eén interventie (3a), bestond uit een serie workshops gericht op een herijking van de curricula van een leerjaar binnen een vierjarige Bachelor opleiding.

Bij de ander interventie werd het programma in gereduceerde vorm, teruggebracht tot 8 weken, aangeboden aan twee deelnemers.

De voorspellingen, gemaakt aan de hand van het protocol, over welke onderdelen van de TIP de deelnemers zouden willen gebruiken, bleken vrij nauwkeurig.

Zo was voorspeld dat het onderdeel interculturele competenties heel belangrijk zou zijn voor de deelnemers aan interventie 3a. De vraag hoe en waarom wijzigingen moesten worden aangebracht in een bestaande module voor interculturele management vaardigheden speelde inderdaad een grote rol in de sessies. Tijdens de nabesprekingen verklaarden de docenten dat ze nieuwe inzichten hadden verworven in zowel zich zelf, als in het curriculum. Bovendien was voorspeld dat het gebruik van taal uit het vakgebied waarin deze groep docenten les geven belangrijk zou zijn bij het overbruggen van aspecten van de TIP en dit bleek ook het geval te zijn.

Resultaten voor alle 3 iteraties.

In de laatste fase van de analyse werden de post-ontwerp onderzoeksvragen beantwoord. Allereerst in antwoord op de slotvraag van lijn A: *Welke eigenschappen van een in-service programma voor Internationalisering stimuleerden of belemmerden het leren?* kon het navolgende geconcludeerd worden.

Het bleek dat er verschillende factoren waren die één of meer van de leer-benaderingen gestimuleerd hadden. De stimulerende factoren bestonden uit de gecreëerde:

authentieke dialogen in een reële setting
verscheidenheid aan inhoud
synergetische, probleemoplossende activiteiten
instrumenten / artefacten
gezamenlijke taken / uitdagingen.

De factoren die het leren beperkten waren het gebrek aan:

voldoende tijd
gevoel van vertrouwen in de groep
gedefinieerde rollen / duidelijke termijnen en volgordes
gezamenlijke activiteiten op de werkvloer
prikkels: beloningen / regelgeving

Wat betreft de drie domeinen werd de doeltreffendheid van de leer materialen en leer activiteiten aangetoond. Elk domein afzonderlijk werd daarbij belicht.

Voor het domein Engels werd gereflecteerd op het probleem van het gebrek aan zelfstudie. Het model van de CLIL, gebruikt voor internationaal tweetalig onderwijs, werd bekritiseerd. Voor het interculturele domein bleek, dat dit domein het meest interessant was voor de deelnemers. Voorbeelden waarop interculturele sensitiviteit en communicatieve vaardigheden onderwezen konden aan studenten werden gepresenteerd en positief ontvangen. Intercultureel leren bleef echter cognitief en de eigen attitudes werden niet voldoende aan de kaak gesteld.

Het ontstaan van resistentie tegen intercultureel leren bij enkele deelnemers werd geïdentificeerd en de betekenis van intercultureel leren voor docenten werd besproken. Voor het pedagogische domein werden de problemen rond de beoordeling van het werk van studenten geïdentificeerd als het meest relevant voor docenten. Deze problemen met studenten toonden aan dat docenten sterke probleem oplossende vermogens hebben en dat ze goed in staat zijn om tot dialoog en reflectie te komen.

In antwoord op de vragen van lijn B werd allereerst de vraag beantwoord:

Wat zijn de relatieve sterktes en beperkingen van zowel de op zich zelf staande / niet gecontextualiseerde als de wel gecontextualiseerd interventies gezien de criteria van levensvatbaarheid, legitimiteit en effectiviteit?

De relatief sterke punten van beide typen van programma's werden geïdentificeerd. Het generieke programma sjabloon met zijn sub-thema's was op zich sterk, omdat het zeer coherent was door zijn strak geïntegreerd structuur. Dit generieke programma kan ten goede komen aan beide vormen van uitvoering van interventies, dat wil zeggen, zowel aan de op zich zelf staande als aan de aan lokale contexten aangepaste vorm.

De belangrijkste voordelen van de op zich zelf staande (stand alone) vorm van interventies is, dat zij rendabel zijn en dat zij, binnen zekere grenzen, aangepast kunnen worden. Zij kunnen leiden tot diepgaande inzichten, omdat docenten uit verschillende vakgebieden elkaars standpunten horen en zich bewust worden van de mogelijke standpunten. Beide resultaten waren conform met de bestaande literatuur. De rijkdom aan inhoud van het programma als geheel kan ten goede komen aan diegenen, die sterk gemotiveerd zijn, met name docenten die intensief betrokken zijn bij internationalisering. Deze bevinding was nieuw.

De sterke punten van de gecontextualiseerde elementen afkomstig uit het generieke programma waren, dat die elementen parallel kunnen lopen aan een lopend hervormingsproject binnen teams, waardoor de 'leerstof' effectief en relevant kan zijn voor dat team, een bevinding die de literatuur bevestigt. Bovendien kan deze vorm van interventie

langdurige gevolgen hebben voor de pedagogische praktijk van teams, omdat de veranderingen door hen zelf, als groep, zijn ontwikkeld.

Potentieel is deze aanpak ook katalytisch, proces bevorderend. Er kan worden afgestemd op innovatief beleid en op de initiatieven van het mid-level management. Er kan worden voortgebouwd op de bestaande groepsdynamiek (hoewel dit negatief kan uitpakken als de groep niet hecht is).

De voornaamste zwakke punten van deze op zich zelf staande (stand alone) interventies zijn, dat er geen lange termijn relaties worden opgebouwd en dat uitbreidingen naar leer activiteiten op de werkplek moeilijk te realiseren zijn. De focus is vooral op individuen, zodat een sociaal constructivistische benaderingen weinig effect heeft. Bovendien kunnen de verschillen in verwachtingen en de mate van betrokkenheid binnen een groep groepsvorming in de weg staan.

De voornaamste zwakke punten van de voor lokaal gebruik aangepaste elementen van de sjabloon zijn, dat de onderwijskundige(n) moet(en) opereren binnen een bestaande machtsstructuur, zodat de interventie kan worden gecoöpteerd door managers. Het kan kostbaar zijn om procedures voor een uitgebreide behoefteanalyse met het protocol uit te voeren. De onderwijskundige (of andere ontwikkelaar) die de sessies leidt moet een grote mate van kennis van elk van de domeinen en ook van de diverse benaderingen van leren hebben.

Beide vormen van interventies zijn levensvatbaar, indien de beoordeling ervan wordt gebaseerd op de criteria van McKenney et al.(2006).

Zij zijn zowel

a) *praktisch*, daar ze beide met de middelen beschikbaar binnen de universiteit kunnen worden uitgevoerd.

Beide zijn ook

b) *duurzaam* maar op verschillende manieren: de op zichzelf staande interventies kunnen alleen duurzaam worden op voorwaarde dat een certificaat of andere kwalificatie in het vooruitzicht wordt gesteld, zoniet, wordt de duurzaamheid van deze interventies twijfelachtig. De gecontextualiseerde interventies zijn, om de redenen hierboven vermeld, gegarandeerd duurzaam.

Tenslotte, beide vormen van interventies zijn in principe

c) *relevant*, daar de inhoud van de domeinen betrekking heeft op de uitdagingen waar de docenten mee geconfronteerd worden.

Deelnemers valideerden de relevantie van de inhoud in alle vier interventies van de TIP.

Het ontwerp van het generieke programma voldoet ook aan de twee criteria van legitimiteit van McKenney et al. (2006). Wat betreft de coherentie, hun eerste criterium: het programma ontwerp is coherent, zoals hierboven beschreven. Het tweede criterium van McKenney et al. is de mate waarin de componenten van het ontwerp theoretische inzichten gebruiken en hoe goed dit gedaan wordt. De hoofdstukken waarin de iteraties worden geanalyseerd maakten gebruik van inzichten uit een breed scala aan modellen en theorieën. Ook de stellingen die gebruikt werden bij het ontwerpen van de prototypes 1.0, 2.0 en 3.0 a & b waren gebaseerd op de vier theoretische pijlers die in de voorfase werden opgesteld.

Ter beantwoording van de laatste vraag: *Welke principes kunnen worden geïdentificeerd voor het ontwerpen en uitvoeren van duurzame, relevante en praktische programma's voor professionele ontwikkeling van docenten met als doelstelling het verbeteren van de internationalisering van het curriculum, middels het op meerdere wijze aanbieden van interventies?* werd een serie principes (generalisaties van bevindingen) en heuristics (vuistregels) ontworpen.

Model voor het op meerdere wijze aanbieden van interventies ten behoeve van universitaire docenten, betrokken bij de internationalisering van het curriculum

Principe 1:

Transcendentie (overstijging) van context- en inhoudsgebieden stimuleert diep en duurzaam leren, beantwoordende aan de complexe en tegenstrijdige professionele uitdagingen binnen organisaties die onderhevig zijn aan snelle verandering.

Heuristiek 1: Ontwikkel samenhang door het volgen van een thematische aanpak.

Principe 2:

De sociale of groeps ontwikkeling van kennis en expertise vereist dat de professionele ontwikkeling op de werkplek gecontextualiseerd wordt, rekening houdend met bestaande sociale praktijken. Niet alleen dat wat de individu motiveert en wat inhoudelijk nodig is moet worden geïdentificeerd, maar ook moet worden bekeken op welk moment het leren plaats vindt, met wie het plaats vindt, waar het gebeurt en met welke taak de lerende belast is.

Heuristiek 2: Ontwikkel zowel een kern programma als een contextualiseringsprotocol.

Principe 3:

Leren wordt gevormd en hervormd in de praktijk. Leren dat van toeval afhangt, geworteld is in de cultuur, heeft implicaties voor professionele ontwikkeling. Voor groepen zijn het gedeelde interacties, die gebruik maken van gereedschappen, zoals taal, die de leden van een groep tot doelgericht leren aanzetten. Dit leren in de praktijk kan niet los worden gezien van ethische dilemma's, waarbij beroepsbeoefenaars beslissingen moeten nemen over complexe vraagstukken, waar geen vaste theorie of praktijk bestaat die adequate oplossingen kan bieden.

Heuristiek 3: Zorg voor taken, materialen en omstandigheden voor professioneel leren, zowel informeel als formeel.

Principe 4:

Effectief leren voor internationalisering vergt persoonlijke en professionele inzet, zowel van individuen als groepen. Hiertoe dienen alle partijen bewust te worden van wat de verandering voor hen betekent en ook voor andere betrokkenen (stakeholders). Er moet aandacht worden besteed aan de ervaren leerkrachten, die binnen een groep tot beginnening worden. Er moet zowel van goed beleid (top down) als van goede lokale praktijken (bottom up) gebruik worden gemaakt.

Heuristiek 4: Biedt ruimte aan gelegenheden tot motiverende dialoog rond de betekenissen van 'Internationalisering van het Curriculum' als innovatie en de consequenties ervan voor professioneel leren.

De behaalde doelstellingen

Eén van de doelstellingen was om een kritisch inzicht te verkrijgen in het fenomeen internationalisering. Zowel de literatuur als de onderzoeksresultaten toonden aan, dat de implementatie van beleidsdoelen succes kan hebben indien docenten betrokken worden bij de hervorming van het curriculum en als hun teamleiders de durf hebben om hen daarbij te ondersteunen, zelfs als daarbij onbekend gebied betreden wordt. Het uit de weg gaan van uitdagingen zal blijven resulteren in opgelegd beleid, waarbij kleine groepen 'internationalisten' deelneemen aan congressen en beperkte uitwisselingsprogramma's opzetten.

Zoals tijdens alle iteraties naar voren kwam, onderschrijven docenten progressieve en idealistische doelen voor internationale educatie, die niet altijd stroken met bestuurlijke beleidsagenda'.

Een tweede doelstelling was om professionele ontwikkelaars te voorzien van praktische materialen. In feite mag gesteld worden dat het belangrijkste resultaat van het onderzoek bestaat uit de praktische uitkomst. De ontworpen materialen werden gebundeld in een tweede deel van de dissertatie (annex).

De derde doelstelling van het onderzoek was, om een bruikbaar model te kunnen bieden, gebaseerd op beginselen en vuistregels. De TIP in zijn uiteindelijke vorm biedt een programma gebaseerd op dit model.

Toekomstig onderzoek

1. Repliceer dit kleinschalige onderzoek op een andere hogeschool, vergelijk de resultaten, en pas zowel de programma sjabloon als de beginselen en heuristieken aan op basis van de uitkomsten.
2. Voer transnationaal onderzoek uit middels 'actie onderzoeken' in meerdere universiteiten en verbindt daaraan een evaluatie onderzoek. Verdeel de docenten bij deze interventies in beginnende en ervaren docenten.
3. Voer een onderzoek uit naar de communicatie tussen docenten en hun onmiddellijke suoerieuren (line managers).
4. Gebruik de bevindingen van dit onderzoek als onderdeel van een meta-analytische studie met het oog op het opstellen van richtlijnen voor toekomstige onderzoekers.

Summary : On enhancing professional development within an internationalisation context

Introduction

This dissertation describes a research project that took place between 2006 and 2011. It had two research perspectives. One perspective focussed on the process of internationalisation of the curricula at a university of applied sciences (UAS) in the north of the Netherlands. This focus was mainly on the lecturers (hereafter teachers) who developed those curricula. The second perspective focussed on the manner in which professional developers (that is educationalists who provide pedagogic support to teachers) are able to design and carry out professional development programmes and interventions that support these teachers better than the existing interventions do. This research was carried out by a teacher of English in the university of applied sciences who is also an educationalist and teacher-of-teachers (thus a professional developer). It was a challenge for someone coming from the tradition of adult education to make a contribution to the significant changes that are taking place in higher education through internationalisation.

Background

In recent years, but especially in the past 15 years, Dutch academic universities and universities of applied science have been developing policy initiatives to internationalise their educational and research activities.

There are many reasons that universities (both academic and vocational) are internationalising. A political reason for example is that the European Commission and member states have agreed that educational programmes across the Union should be standardised to make study and research across borders easier and to increase transparency of higher education. A new uniform structure for qualifications awarded for full degree programmes (the Bachelor / Master degrees) has been established so that students receive the same qualification no matter what country they study in.

Another reason is that managements of universities want to attract the best young students and researchers from abroad to ensure that Dutch research and education are of the highest possible quality. In this way the universities aim to be better able to compete with universities in North America or the Asian pacific region in a globalising world.

In social and cultural terms, Dutch universities aim to equip Dutch graduates with skills, knowledge and attitudes that will enable them to successfully operate in international professional activities and settings and to act as responsible global citizens in multicultural societies both at home and abroad.

For these and other reasons, Dutch universities are taking internationalisation seriously. But achieving the policy goals of internationalisation is no simple task and different universities are attempting to implement innovations and reforms with varying degrees of success.

This is the context in which the current research took place.

At the UAS at which the researcher was employed, the Board of Governors have developed and strongly supported policies for internationalising the curricula since 2005. In fact internationalisation was one of two main pillars of university policy in the 5 year plan of 2005 to 2010. An internationalisation team was established to stimulate and also track the activities of the various departments called 'Schools' towards reaching the policy goals. The policy documents set out clearly what the Board of Governors considered to be necessary for an international orientation in the curricula of the individual Schools. After identifying the cognitive and attitudinal aspects of their definition of the concept of international dimensions in the curricula and indicating methods of implementation, they conclude that:

All of these aspects should be given due attention in the curriculum of each degree programme. The development can take place in separate parts of the programme focusing on international aspects, or integrated into other modules. Each degree programme should explicitly state in which parts of the curriculum internationalization issues are discussed. It is a requirement that the relevant study units are included in the core curriculum and not only in elective modules (LF, 2006, pp.10/11).

The internationalisation team asked the heads of Schools to report on the progress of activities to implement the policy for internationalisation. The team found that there were very great differences in the approach and depth of internationalisation innovations.

The current researcher studied the reports of the Schools and the commentary of the internationalisation team as part of the orientation phase of the research. It was clear from the policy documents and the reports that one of the major elements hampering full implementation was that the teachers who needed to revise their educational programmes and to teach them to new groups were not well prepared to carry out the tasks.

In response to this need a language centre was established that offered courses in English to both students and teachers. It was thus assumed that enhancement of English language skills was all that needed to be provided to ensure that teachers had the skills and capacities to carry out international education.

In fact, before the Centre was established English teachers had been devising and giving courses and workshops in what they called 'Classroom English' for their colleagues. The researcher was such a meta-teacher who worked in an international English stream programme and also conducted Classroom English courses to colleague. The researcher was thus an insider and practitioner. These meta-teachers and a number of the teacher-participants, who had attended the Classroom English, courses often expressed the view that English language classes alone were not sufficient to support the changeover to developing programmes with an international orientation and to teaching international students.

This perceived insufficiency of support for aspects of teacher professional skills, knowledge and attitudes to effectively develop and teach in international education was the starting point of this current research. There were, as noted above, two main research perspectives.

Aims

One aim was to provide university policy makers and managers, internationalisation experts, human resources officers and teacher educators (that is professional developers) with a critical understanding of internationalisation and relevant professional development provision especially focussed on teachers' learning needs.

A second aim was to provide teacher educators and/or professional development units in higher education institutions with practical materials, based on evidence from a small scale, exploratory (educational design) research, in a naturalistic setting that was framed and directed by theories from a number of disciplines.

A third aim was to offer a tentative model for an approach to professional development interventions to human resource development experts who are involved in the process of internationalisation.

To reach these aims a case study was carried out. This case shows the development and application of a professional development programme, called the 'Teachers' Internationalisation Programme' (hereafter TIP) created specifically for and during this investigation by the researcher. The approach used was to design, execute, analyse and redesign the programme for internationalisation of the curriculum iteratively across multiple

contexts with small groups of teachers. There were three iterations in the design, delivered over a period of two and a half years. The approach was inductive.

Methods

This research used a mixture of methods common in case studies namely: participant observation, field notebooks, analysis of internal 'grey' literature' interviews. As described above it followed the methodological approach of educational design research, with iterative steps and constant interweaving of enactments and analysis.

The research design followed the pattern suggested by experts in this approach such as Wang & Hannafin (2004). In educational design research having a theoretical framework that supports and guides the process is important. The framework of this research had four pillars.

1. Multiple content domains combined.
2. Implicit change theories
3. Social practices perspectives on contextualisation
4. Tacit, embedded 'knowledge-in-practice'

Propositions were made on the basis of these pillars. The propositions were used in designing the prototypes and to direct the analysis of candidate explanations and solutions for each iteration's prototype as enacted during the interventions.

Because it was an insider research a feedback committee was formed to help lessen the potential for insider bias.

The questions in the preliminary phase are 'pre-questions' necessary to carry out the actual research. The questions focus on two strands in relation to the interventions. One strand of questions focusses **on** research on the interventions (strand A) and the second set of questions focusses on research **through** the interventions (strand B).

Problem Statement and Research Questions

The problem statement of the research was:

How can professional development interventions for teaching staff involved in internationalisation of the curricula at a university of applied sciences be designed and implemented to enhance English, intercultural and pedagogic learning in multiple modes of delivery?

Research questions for Strand A

Main question:

How might an innovative in-service programme for internationalisation provide experiences that enhance teacher professional learning and why? (strand A: research *through* interventions)

Preliminary (pre-design) phase - Analysis & Exploration (Chapter 6)

What challenges are teachers facing and what motivates them in meeting them from their own perspective and from the perspectives of other stakeholders?

What are the policy goals for successful internationalisation of the curriculum and what theories of change underscore the policies?

What domains of content would be needed to meet teacher professional learning needs for internationalisation?

What learning approaches could be appropriate to support enhancing the competencies?

Design and Construction phases 1, and 2 (iterations 1 & 2 Chapters 7 & 8):

What materials, events and activities could be provided in a programme to stimulate enhancement in the content domains of linguistic, intercultural and pedagogic competencies and how can the domains be sequenced and combined?

What materials, events and activities could be provided in an intervention to stimulate self-directed, transcendent and practiced engendered learning approaches in an intervention and how can they be integrated?

Post design phase - Analysis & Evaluation (Chapter 10)

Which characteristics of the in-service programme stimulated or constrained teacher professional learning for internationalisation?

Research questions for Strand B

Main question:

What might be a template design for a generic intervention aimed at teacher learning for internationalisation that is capable of being effectively contextualised for integration of domains and learning approaches and how might that contextualisation be carried out? (strand B: research *on* interventions)

Preliminary (pre-design) phase (Chapter 6):

Exploration & Analysis: What existing professional development interventions could be used as models?

What were the current practices in regard to professional development interventions?

What characteristics might an innovative programme have?

Interim analysis between phases 2 and 3 (Chapter 9):

Why should a programme design evolved out of stand-alone interventions be re-envisioned for embedded delivery modes?

Design and construction phase 3 (Chapter 9):

How could a programme design evolved out of stand-alone interventions be re-envisioned for embedded delivery modes for use in Schools' curricular reform or innovation?

What theories and practices of contextualisation of professional development can facilitate implementation of parts of the generic intervention with curriculum teams in specific work environments?

Post design phase - Analysis & Evaluation (Chapter 10):

What are the relative strengths and limitations of stand-alone / non-contextualised and embedded / contextualised interventions in regard to the criteria of viability, legitimacy and efficacy?

What principles can be identified for the design and implementation of sustainable, relevant and practical professional development interventions for enhancing internationalisation of the curriculum in multiple modes of delivery?

Results

The results summarised below are narratives of the 'iterations'. An iteration here means a cyclical process of investigating whereby the findings of one iteration are used to analyse

and make the propositions more precise for the subsequent iteration. Through this process the research questions are progressively clarified.

Iteration 1

The intervention designed for this iteration was a stand-alone, generic, programme of 15 weeks. It included the three content domains and tasks to stimulate the three approaches to learning. The programme design was overly ambitious.

The first prototype had several strands. In one strand, independent learning was meant to be stimulated by a set of self-assessment tools and self-study materials. At the same time, teachers were meant to become collectively more self-directed by having to make their own decisions about the sequence of subjects. They were expected to decide on the choice of domains would be studied during the sessions. Further, there was a task to carry out an action learning research project. There were also plans to go on excursions and invite guest speakers. Thus it can be said that the content was very rich and the activities highly varied.

At the end of the first iteration the self-study line was shown have failed. Several explanations were suggested such as time pressures and the conflating of the overload on in-session materials with the self-study materials. Also it was suggested that teachers favoured learning styles which did not fit with this kind of self-study. The action learning projects also did not materialise, except in one case. However, it had been possible to combine English-intercultural and pedagogic learning successfully. Teachers prepared and gave presentations about critical incidents with international groups that required them to use all of these domains.

Iteration 2

Several improvements to the prototype of this intervention were made in the basis of feedback and analysis of the first iteration. Again the TIP ran as a standalone programme for 15 weeks (although it was planned to be longer).

The self-study materials were put online and made optional. The aim was to lower the sense of overload in the participants and to give them more freedom to either use or not use the self-study materials as they liked. This did not have the aimed for effect. Just as in the earlier iteration almost no one used the self-study tasks, although several did do the self-assessment tests. The sequencing of the items for each session was more structured than the last time. There were fixed sessions at the start and a procedure for selecting domains thereafter. Unfortunately the teachers of this iteration did not choose to select the domains, instead they wanted the programme designer to do it for them. Also disagreements about the significance of intercultural learning appeared, with a few teachers showing some resistance. The combining of domains evolved further with teachers using the combination pro-actively to prepare mini-lectures or presentations for their classes.

All participants carried out the planning stage of an action learning project because the project was introduced earlier and more guidance was provided on how to do the planning. Unfortunately, in most cases it found that the team leaders were reluctant to offer extra resources to carry out the actual projects. On the positive side even making a plan had certain benefits. For example one teacher used the materials as educational input for his own students who then did do action learning projects.

Something unforeseen was that two subgroups appeared 3 teachers who had little engagement with internationalisation on one side and 3 teachers with extensive engagement on the other. It was agreed that these two subgroups had different aims and expectations. The group with weak links to internationalisation wanted more English in their programme, preferably in every session, and the other group did not. This disagreement was not resolved.

Analysis of propositions in this iteration revealed that the new procedure for sequencing did not work because there was no joint aim pulling the group together. It also pinpointed the lack of communication prior to the programme. This lack of communication was based on a faulty recruitment which encouraged teachers who had little reason to be involved actually joining the programme while teachers who would have found the programme more relevant to their needs as did the three who were more engaged with internationalisation missed out. It was concluded that recruitment must include an information session in future. Finally, the difficulties of obtaining resources to carry out the action learning projects which were vital to exploring learning 'in situ' at the workplace were concerning.

Interim analysis

In response to the question, (*How could a programme design evolved out of stand-alone interventions be re-envisioned for embedded delivery modes for use in Schools' curricular reform or innovation?*)

it was decided on the basis of an analysis of the first and second iterations not to continue offering the TIP as a stand-alone programme. Instead the programme would be re-designed so that it could be used flexibly in working with work teams of teachers in their own degree programme or study specialisation. The process of finding and developing a flexible programme template for the TIP involved studying experts on design of professional development interventions first followed by a strategy partly based on those experts. The outcome of the process was that a new template of a generic programme was devised. This course map/ template could be used wither as a programme on its own but only if there would be a qualification awarded for it because it was very challenging and demanding. On the other hand elements from the template could be selected and used for short courses, workshops or material on which to build tailored mini-programmes for local working groups.

The template consists of three sub thematic blocks under the overarching theme of Internationalisation of the Curriculum. Linked to each block are activities and materials for competency enhancement that integrate English, intercultural and pedagogic skills, knowledge and attitudes. The re-design programme template is integrated further by having transition, i.e., extension tasks made for teachers who are intensively engaged with internationalisation and another strand for teachers who are not very experienced or active with international education. The three subthemes are WHY questions, WHO questions and WHAT and HOW questions. These sub thematic blocks can be rearranged in different orders and also have different weights depending on the needs of the particular group. If a group is most interested in working on understanding their educational materials from the perspectives of other stakeholders they can choose to spend most of their time on the WHO block.

In order to experiment with the new programme template it was necessary to consider a method for needs analysis of groups that does more than the typical needs analysis does. therefore a protocol was put together on the basis of three experts (Knight 2001; Eraut, 2004; Trowler, 2009) in (social) constructivist based professional development in workplaces and in higher education. The protocol was used to find out about the local context in which the TIP would have to fit such as what the culture, traditions, orientation to learning, major preoccupations, aspirations etc. were. Using the protocol predictions were made for two groups in two different Schools. These became the interventions of iteration 3.

Iteration 3

Both iterations were successful in terms of combining domains and using learning situated in their practices, although the two interventions were very different. One intervention 3a, was a series of workshops linked to a curriculum reform project. The other followed the programme template but in a reduced form in 8 weeks with only two participants. The predictions made about what the participants would like to use based on the TIP template proved to be quite

accurate. For example it was predicted that the issue of intercultural competences would be important to the participants in intervention 3a and indeed how and why changes should be made to an existing module for intercultural management skills played a significant role in the sessions. From the discussions about this issue teachers said that they had gained a new insight into themselves as well as the curriculum. Also it was predicted that using language taken from the discipline in which the group teach would be important for bridging the TIP elements to them and this also proved to be the case.

Results across all 3 iterations.

In the final phase of analysis the post design research questions were answered.

First in answer to the final question of strand A: *Which characteristics of the in-service programme stimulated or constrained teacher professional learning for internationalisation?* It was found that there were several factors that stimulated one or more of the learning approaches.

The factors were the creation of:

*authentic dialogic spaces
richness of content
synergetic problem solving
scaffolding tools/artefacts
joint tasks/ challenges.*

The factors that constrained learning were the lack of:

*sufficient time
sense of trust in the group
defined roles/ clear deadlines and sequences
joint activities situated in work settings
incentives: rewards/ regulations*

Further, in each of three domains evidence was displayed concerning materials and actives. An interesting finding, related to a wider issue, was chosen out of each domain for a discussion.

In the English domain, the issue of the lack of self-study was considered and also the model of CLIL, used for international bilingual education, was critiqued.

For the intercultural domain, it was found that this domain was the most interesting for participants. The fact that teachers learnt primarily in a cognitive manner about intercultural issues was discussed. The emergence of resistance to intercultural learning on the part of a minority was identified and the significance of intercultural learning was reflected on in relation to the question of ethno-centricity.

Finally, in the pedagogic domain the issues around assessment were identified as the most pressing for teachers. This was discussed in relation to the problem solving disposition of teachers and in their strong capacities for dialogue and reflection.

In answer to the first the question of strand B: *(What are the relative strengths and limitations of stand-alone / non-contextualised and embedded / contextualised interventions in regard to the criteria of viability, legitimacy and efficacy?)*

the relative strengths of each type of programme delivery were identified.

The generic programme template with its sub themes was in itself strong because it is highly coherent due to its tightly integrated structure, this generic programme can benefit both forms of delivery of interventions.

The key strengths of the standalone form of intervention were that it can be cost effective and adaptable within certain limits, that it can trigger deep insights because teachers from different disciplines hear each other's views and become more aware of the range of views that are possible. Both of these outcomes confirmed the existing literature. The wealth of content in the programme as a whole benefitted those who had a strong motivation, usually those who are intensively involved in internationalisation. This was an original finding.

The strengths of the contextualised elements taken from the generic programme used as template were that it can run parallel to an on-going curriculum reform project in teams making it cost effective and highly relevant to that team, a finding that conforms the literature. In addition it can have long lasting effects on the teaching practices of teams because the changes are developed among them as a group. It has a potential to be catalytic in that it can be aligned with innovative policies and initiatives of mid-level management. It can build on existing group dynamics (although this can be negative if the group is not strong).

The key weaknesses of the standalone interventions is that no long term relationships are established, that extensions activities in the workplace are difficult to achieve, the focus is usually on individuals so that social constructivist approaches are weak and finally the differences in expectations and levels of commitment when can hinder the group dynamic.

The key weaknesses of the locally adapted elements from the template are that existing power structures so that the intervention becomes co-opted by managers. It can be costly to carry out comprehensive contextualisation's procedures. The person who carries out the interventions has to have a strong degree of knowledge of each of the domains and learning approaches.

Both forms of interventions are viable, if this assessment is based on the criteria of McKenney et al. (2006). They are both a) *practical*: either can indeed be carried out within the resources of the university. Both are also b) *sustainable* but in different ways: the stand alone interventions could be sustainable but only on the condition that a certificate or qualification would be offered otherwise the sustainability of this form is doubtful. The contextualised interventions are almost sure to be sustainable for reasons noted above. Finally both forms of interventions are in principle c) relevant as the content of the domains is derived from the challenges that teachers face. Teachers validated the relevance of the content in all four interventions

The design of the generic programme also meets the two criteria of legitimacy of McKenney et al. (2006). In terms of coherence their first criterion, the programme design is coherent as described above. The second criterion of McKenney et al. (2006) is that the extent to which the components of the design use theoretical insights and how well this is done. The chapters in which the iterations are analysed used insights from a wide range of models and theories. Also the propositions used in designing the prototypes 1.0, 2.0 and 3.0 a & b made significant use of the four theory pillars devised in the per-design phase.

In response to the last research question: *What principles can be identified for the design and implementation of sustainable, relevant and practical professional development interventions for enhancing internationalisation of the curriculum in multiple modes of delivery?* A set of principles and heuristics was developed.

Model- Multi-modal professional development for university teachers for internationalisation of the curriculum

Principle 1: Transcendence across context and content areas stimulates lasting learning in complex and ambiguous professional challenges in organisations undergoing rapid change. Holistic learning is triggered by challenges and cognitive input that transcend disciplines and fields of expertise.

Heuristic 1- Develop coherence along thematic lines

Principle 2: The social production of knowledge and expertise demands that professional development in the workplace be contextualised to take account of social practices. Not only what motivates and what content is required need to be identified, but also when learning takes place, with whom it does, where it happens and what the learner is actually busy doing, what kinds of actions, tasks, incentives, interactions etc. motivational, relational, contextual/organisational and content factors need to be taken into account.

Heuristic 2-Develop both a core programme and a contextualisation path

Principle 3 Learning is constituted and reconstituted in practice. Learning that is contingent, engaged, encultured and embodied has implications for professional development. For communities; it is purposeful, shared interactions that use tools and most of all language which members use to 'move' each other. This learning cannot be divorced from ethical dilemmas, when practitioners must decide on complex issues where no one theory or enshrined practice will deal adequately with the competing and contradictory facets of facts on the ground.

Heuristic 3-Provide tasks, materials and conditions for professional learning, informal, formal and in between the two.

Principle 4: Effective learning for internationalisation requires personal and professional commitment on the part of individuals and groups. This necessarily involves all parties in what the changes mean to them and to significant others. This includes making te implicit change theories of teachers and managers explicit. Attention should be paid to the experienced teachers who are put into novice positions. Both good policies (top down) and good local practices (bottom up) are engaged.

Heuristic 4- Enable occasions for motivational dialogue around meanings of IoC as change and its implications for professional learning

Aims achieved

One aim was to come to a critical understanding of internationalisation. Both the literature and discoveries showed that internationalisation can be achieved to some extent if teachers are involved in reforming their curricula and if team leaders support activities and actions that go into contested areas. Avoiding the challenges will continue to result in small groups of 'internationalists' who forge policies mostly related to going to conferences and having exchanges. Teachers, it was shown in all iterations, almost to a man support progressive and idealistic goals for internationalisation that are not aligned to the top down policy agendas. Intercultural competence enhancement was shown to be the most interesting area for teachers and materials that drew on their own teaching experiences and expertise to stimulate intercultural learning were developed.

A second aim was to provide professional development units with practical materials, an aim that has been reached. In fact, it might be said that the main result of the research, and its main strength, is its practical outcome: the materials are bundled in the Annex. Design- and developmental research are characterised by not being not purely academic constructs, proving a hypothesis, but have as goals the production of practical results and effective approaches. They develop tools to carry out the research and these, when perfected during

cyclical usage, become the tools produced by the research, to implement after the research is finished.

The annex is not to be mistaken for an addendum, where material of less importance that did not fit into the main text is stored. On the contrary, it contains many of the instruments and materials trialled while conducting the research and those needed to conduct future TIP's. They are suitable for implementation either as stand-alone PD programmes or embedded interventions.

These tools and materials are arranged according to learning approaches and domains. The table of contents of the Annex not only indicates what they are, but also for what learning approach(es) and domains they are suitable. Moreover, the link with the TIP research is recorded for each item through indicating where and when they were designed and used.

The third aim of the research was to provide a model, summarised in the principles and heuristics set out above. It can be said that the model goes some way to reaching this aim. Its strengths are in its simplicity and flexibility

Key areas for future research

1. Replicate this small scale project at another university of applied sciences. Compare the results and adapt both the programme template and the principles/heuristics on the basis of the outcome.
2. Carry out transnational research with 'action research' projects in at least two, preferably three universities and follow this up with an evaluative study. Divide the teachers in these interventions into novice and experienced teachers.
3. Carry out a new investigation into the communication and sharing of perceptions regarding the support offered to teachers by line managers.
4. Use the findings as the basis for a study of educational design research in formative studies with one researcher in order to draw up guidelines for future researchers.