International educational tourism: does it foster global learning? A survey of South African high school learners

Christine A. McGladdery*, 1, Berendien A. Lubbe

Division Tourism Management, Department of Marketing Management, University of Pretoria, Private Bag X20, Hatfield, South Africa

*Corresponding author.

E-mail address: chrismcg@saol.com (C.A. McGladdery).

Abstract

International educational tourism has the potential to foster global learning; however, very little empirical research exists to support this claim. This study responds to the growing demand in the literature for rigorous empirical research to test the underpinning assumption of IET. A global learning survey instrument is developed and completed by 1152 Grade 11 learners in 16 South African exclusive high schools. In doing so, this paper demonstrates that some types of IET are more conducive to global learning than others. Furthermore, for significant global learning to occur, educational tourism needs to be facilitated and cultural difference needs to be experienced.

Personality traits that include curiosity, altruism, and being open-minded to new experiences, are identified as predictors of global learning, but the effect of school-based academic achievement is small.

Additionally, through the synthesis of educational tourism, international education, experiential learning and global learning theories, the concept of IET is developed.

Keywords educational tourism, international education, international educational tourism, global learning, global mindedness, high school tourism, exclusive schools

Highlights

- 1. International educational tourism has the potential to foster global learning.
- 2. Research is based on an empirical study comprising 1152 Grade 11 learners.
- 3. Curiosity, altruism and being open-minded and are predictors of global learning.
- 4. Engaging with cultural difference and facilitation of the process enhances global learning.
- 5. Some types of international educational tourism are better at fostering global learning than others.

¹ Present address: 3 Thatchlands, 60 Kingsmead Drive, Westville, 3629, South Africa.

1. Introduction

With the commodification of education and associated rapid growth in the number of exclusive schools since the 1990s, many schools have added international educational tourism (IET) opportunities to their curricula in order to remain competitive (e.g. Kenway & Fahey, 2014; Rizvi, 2014). The development of global learning is regularly given as an anticipated outcome of participation in IET and competition for places on some types of IET, for example school exchange programmes, is often great. Yet despite the considerable growth and diversification in high school IET, the subject is underresearched in terms of its scope and specific nature (Campbell-Price, 2014; Stone & Petrick, 2013). Research into the impacts of international educational travel has tended to concentrate on university student mobility, in contrast, studies on the effects of IET on high school learners is a newly emerging field (Kenway & Fahey, 2014; McCarthy & Kenway, 2014). Similarly, analysis of the concept of global learning and how educators can best nurture it in school children is a developing theme in the fields of geography education and global citizenship education (e.g. Béneker et al, 2013; Choo et al, 2012; DeMello, 2011; Merryfield, 2012). The need for global learning was highlighted by the results of the first global *Humanitarian Index* (Aurora Prize, 2016). The authors of the survey identified a "compassion gap" (Aurora Prize, 2016:15) between what people said they know and feel compared with what they were prepared to do with regards to humanitarian issues. Carefully developed and facilitated IET has the potential to encourage global learning and in doing so start reducing the "compassion gap".

Practitioners and theoreticians of international education have increasingly called for rigorous empirical research to scrutinize the underpinning assumption of the theory, namely that global learning does indeed occur as a consequence of IET (e.g.: Tarc *et al*, 2012; Vande Berg *et al*, 2012). This paper addresses that call by empirically evaluating global learning amongst 1152 high school learners, 989 of whom have travelled internationally. Through the modification of the world-mindedness scale developed by Béneker *et al* (2013; 2014), a questionnaire was developed to compare global learning between participants of IET and those who had not travelled internationally, as well as to compare global learning amongst participants of different categories of IET. In doing so, this research bridges the gap between theory and practice and extends international education theory to the high school level of education.

In order to empirically test whether participation in IET encourages global learning in learners, the following three hypotheses were developed:

- Hypothesis 1: Learners who have travelled internationally demonstrate higher levels of global learning than those who have not.
- Hypothesis 2: Of those learners who have travelled internationally, those who have participated in an IET experience demonstrate higher levels of global learning than those who have not.
- Hypothesis 3: Some types of IET are better suited to encouraging global learning than others.

Additionally, factors that support global learning during IET were investigated. Specifically, the need to experience cultural difference (e.g.: Gibson *et al,* 2008; Van 'T Klooster, 2014) and the role of facilitation of the process (e.g.: Paige & Vande Berg, 2012) were considered.

Finally, owing to places on some types of IET being limited, educators have to select who they consider are the best candidates for participation. Often, academically high achievers are chosen. This study also investigates whether school-based academic achievement is a good predictor of global learning and whether other personality traits might provide a better measure of the potential for global learning. These are: being curious and open-minded to new experiences (e.g.: Li et al, 2013; Pitman et al, 2010); being able to move out of one's comfort-zone (e.g.: Lilly, 2014); possessing an altruistic disposition with regards to helping others (e.g.: Lyons et al, 2012; Zinser, 2012), and taking a regular interest in the news (e.g.: Adjutant et al, 2014).

In addressing the above mentioned issues, this study develops the theoretical concept of international educational tourism. From a planning and management perspective, it provides new insight regarding the type of school-based tours that encourage global learning, as well as the factors that support the process. Additionally, it identifies personality traits that are conducive to global learning and those that are not.

2. Theoretical background

The theories of educational tourism, international education, experiential learning and global learning originate in different academic disciplines but collectively construct the concept of international educational tourism (IET). International education and educational tourism both describe the process of traveling in order to learn and both disciplines employ experiential learning theory to explain the manner in which effective learning takes place. Global learning describes a primary outcome of the process of IET and also provides the means to empirically test whether learning is indeed occurring as a consequence of that travel.

2.1 Educational tourism

Ritchie's (2003) segmentation model of educational tourism is generally considered the benchmark for educational tourism. It helps conceptualize the overlap between education and tourism and has contributed to developing awareness of educational tourism as a niche sector. However, by employing a market segmentation approach, the model excludes sectors of the industry in which learning may be a significant activity. Pitman *et al* (2010) overcome this limitation by suggesting a process approach for defining educational tourism. According to them, educational tourism can be identified by three key features:

- 1. The trip is intentionally educationally focused.
- 2. The style of learning is experiential.
- 3. The trip is structured around an educational programme (Pitman et al, 2010:223).

Pitman *et al* describe educational tourism as "involving a deliberate and explicit learning experience" (Pitman *et al*, 2010:221), requiring active participation on the part of the educational tourists. Reflective practices that occur on site or during the tourism experience are important for learning, and in a departure from normal definitions of tourism, they suggest that the process of educational tourism "extends beyond the actual touristic experience and encompasses pre- (and post-) travel considerations" (Pitman *et al*, 2010:234). Richards (2011) elaborates further on the experiential nature of educational tourism, describing it as a co-operative form of tourism, whereby the tourists and the tour providers "co-create the desired experiences" (Richards, 2011:38). Additionally, the attitude of the tourist, in term of willingness to learn, has been found to be more important for successful learning than any qualifications they might have (Pitman *et al*, 2010:225).

According to Van 'T Klooster (2014), in order for learning to occur during educational tourism, some degree of cultural difference from the tourist's normal life experiences needs to be encountered. This argument is a fundamental tenet of international education theory (e.g.: Deardorff & Jones, 2012; DeLoach *et al*, 2015), with Li *et al* (2013:76) using the term *neophilia* to describe "a novelty seeking personality" that is more often present in students who choose to study abroad than those who do not. The concept has also be applied to global learning theory, with Lilley (2014) specifying the need to leave one's comfort zone and to engage with people beyond one's immediate community as a prerequisite for effective global learning.

2.2 International education

In contrast to educational tourism, international education is extensively investigated in the literature. International education theory has as its core the assumption that international travel, with its concomitant exposure to other cultures, nationalities and environments, is a highly desirable endeavour. International education proponents attest that it has the potential to foster intercultural learning and development (Vande Berg *et al*, 2012: xiii), and to facilitate global learning through the development of global awareness (Kurt *et al*, 2013), global mindedness (DeMello, 2011) and global competence (Deardorff, 2014).

There is a growing concern however, that very little positive intercultural or global learning even takes place on many international programmes (Kenway & Fahey, 2014; Vande Berg *et al*, 2012). Vande Berg *et al* (2012:5) list a number of concerns regarding the impact of international education on student development including: that meaningful engagements with the host cultures and the development of intercultural competencies are limited, and that many students view their international experiences as an opportunity to take a vacation from their studies.

2.3 Experiential learning

Kolb's (1984) theory of experiential learning, is frequently cited in the literature to explain the process of learning associated with educational tourism (Pitman *et al*, 2010; Stoner *et al*, 2014; Vance *et al*, 2011; Van 'T Klooster, 2014); international education (Tarrant *et al*, 2014; Vande Berg *et al*, 2012), and global learning (DeMello, 2011; Merryfield *et al*, 2008). Kolb proposed that "learning is the process whereby knowledge is created through the transformation of experience" (Kolb, 1984:38). His model connects four styles of learning that together explain the process of experiential learning. In essence, for effective learning to occur, participants need to pass through each of the four stages of learning: experience (of the new situation); reflection on the experience drawing on prior knowledge and/or experience; conceptualization of the experience by developing new ideas or modifying existing ones; and finally applying and testing those concepts in new situations.

When applied to international educational tourism, experiential learning theory provides a simple framework around which touristic experiences can be developed to ensure that global learning occurs. The effectiveness of experiential education in transforming experiences into learning has been demonstrated by Paige and Vande Berg (2012), who found that the most predictive measure of intercultural development amongst international university students was "guided reflection on the students' cultural experience" (Paige & Vande Berg, 2012:37). Thus facilitation of reflection about the experience may be a key requirement for effective global learning during IET.

2.4 Global learning

A desired educational outcome of both international and domestic educational tourism is the development of some form of academic, technical, vocational, professional or creative knowledge and/or skills that accrue as a consequence of participation therein.

Global learning can be considered as an additional outcome of educational tourism. Global learning is often conceptualized as a process of becoming increasingly aware of the interconnectedness of people and the environment that transcends local and national boundaries, and which ultimately results in a change in behaviour to one that is more mindful of those relationships (Tarrant *et al*, 2014).

The term *global awareness* is often considered to be "the first step in the process" of becoming globally competent (Deloach *et al*, 2015:4). Tarrant *et al*, define it as an "understanding and appreciation of one's self in the world and of world issues" (Tarrant *et al*, 2014:143). Béneker *et al* describe *global mindedness* as: "a value orientation concerning the global world in the sense of favouring a world view over a national view and of feeling connected to and responsible for the world community" (Béneker *et al*, 2014:9). To which can be added Tarrant *et al*'s proposition that global mindedness is associated with a greater sense of social responsibility towards "others...society at large, and for the environment" (Tarrant *et al*, 2014:143). The Finnish Agency for Mobility (CIMO) provides more clarity regarding the attributes of being globally minded, namely:

- 1. being open-minded,
- 2. seeing the bigger picture,
- 3. being aware of one's own prejudices,
- 4. being open to new things,
- 5. having a willingness to interact with different kinds of people, and
- 6. seeing difference as richness" (CIMO in de Oliveira Andreotti et al, 2015:252).

Drawing together these definitions, it is thus suggested that being globally minded refers to being knowledgeable about global issues and one's role within a global context, as well as possessing a way of thinking that reflects an acknowledgment of social and environmental interdependencies and responsibilities that extends beyond personal and national boundaries.

Global competence implies an ability to function within culturally diverse situations (Deardorff, 2014) and to behave in a manner that "is motivated by social (and

environmental) responsibility" (Tarrant *et al*, 2014:144). Being globally competent thus requires intercultural communication skills as well as knowledge of different cultures, societies and environments. Deardorff defines intercultural competence as the ability to communicate and behave both effectively and appropriately in intercultural interactions (Deardorff, 2014:2). Lilley provides a more holistic definition, stating that it refers to possessing "a disposition for critical and ethical thinking... and recognises common humanity and the need for environmental sustainability" (Lilley, 2014:8).

2.5 Defining international educational tourism

Drawing together the salient features of the theories of educational tourism, international education, experiential learning and global learning, IET may be defined as the process of international travel that is motivated by the desire to learn and during which global learning is one form of learning that may occur. The process of IET is enhanced when experiential education informs the learning experience and when the educator (or expert tour guide) is able to structure the experience to a level that is educationally appropriate for the learner (educational tourist). In order for global learning to occur, some form of cultural difference or new environmental situation needs to be encountered. Participants of IET who are open-minded and curious about their tourism destination are more likely to develop in terms of global learning than their peers who are not.

Having suggested these features of IET, the underpinning assumption of IET, namely that it supports the development of global learning in high school learners, is tested.

3. Methodology

Owing to this research being undertaken with high school learners, it was assumed that they were unlikely to be globally competent. However, the attainment of some level of global mindedness was considered possible and thus was chosen to reflect global learning.

3.1 Design of the survey instrument

3.1.1 Quantifying global mindedness

In order to test the hypotheses, a dependent variable representing global mindedness was constructed. The *world-mindedness scale (WMS)* developed by Béneker *et al* (2013) and Béneker *et al* (2014) was adopted and modified. The WMS is a Likert-based

survey instrument that combines elements of two earlier scales, Sampson and Smith's world-mindedness scale (1957), and Hett's global-mindedness scale (1993), both of which and all their individual items have been tested and validated in numerous previous studies (Béneker et al, 2014:15; Vassar, 2006). Furthermore, the WMS is ageappropriate, having been specifically developed for use in cross-sectional studies of 16-17 year old learners in schools in the Netherlands, Finland and Germany (Béneker et al, 2013; Béneker et al, 2014).

As a point of departure from the work of Béneker *et al* (2013; 2014), items selected for inclusion in the survey instrument were based on the six categories of global learning that are identified in UNESCO's *Sustainable Development Agenda*, goal number 4.7 (UNESCO, 2015:17). The six categories, namely: human rights, gender equality, cultural diversity, peace / non-violence, social justice and environmental stewardship, encapsulate the universal values and core responsibilities of the global community (Choonghee, 2015) and as such, provide a clearly defined framework for global learning. Since the primary objective of this research was to determine whether global learning occurs as a consequence of international educational tourism, selecting items according to the UNESCO categories ensured inclusion of all the main aspects of the phenomenon in the survey instrument. None of the earlier survey instruments included questions related to gender equality, so those questions were self-generated. Two of the questions related to environmental stewardship were adapted from Tarrant *et al* (2014) (see Table 1). Reverse questions were included to encourage careful reading of the statements.

Following a pilot study of the initial instrument with 67 Grade 10 learners, the wording of some of the questions was modified to reflect local differences in language usage from their European peers. Specifically, the word *culture* was replaced with the word *race* for a number of questions. Learners were unsure of the meaning of the word *culture* and felt much more comfortable using *race*. Whilst acknowledging that the two words have different meanings, the survey instrument is designed to assess tolerance of social diversity, so it was felt that the end result of the survey would not be jeopardized by changing the words. The learners' responses are a reflection of South Africa's racialised society.

Table 1: Global mindedness survey items, including UNESCO categories and item-total correlations for Cronbach's alpha test for internal consistency.

	Item	UNESCO category	Item-total correlation
1*	It would be better to be a citizen of the world than of any particular country.	Peace/non- violence	0.186
2	I would be willing to accept a lower standard of living to protect the environment.	Environment stewardship	0.362
3*	I can greet, correctly, someone in at least one of the Black South African languages.	Cultural diversity	0.186
4	Any individual, regardless of race or religion, should be allowed to live wherever he/she wants to in the world.	Human rights	0.401
5	It is important that we educate people to understand the impact that current policies might have on future generations.	Social justice	0.400
6	All girls, regardless of their culture or religion, should receive the same education as boys.	Gender equality	0.341
7	We should be willing to lower our standard of living in order to get an equal standard of living for every person in the world.	Human rights	0.503
8	All South Africans should do one year of compulsory community service once they have completed school or their studies.	Social justice	0.439
9	Really, there is nothing that I can do about the problems of the world.	Social justice	0.377
10	We have a moral obligation to share our wealth with less fortunate people in the world.	Social justice	0.398
11	South Africa should sign global environmental agreements, even if they limit our economic development.	Environment stewardship	0.312
12	I have very little in common with people of other races.	C. diversity	0.382
13*	Teenage girls who become pregnant should NOT be allowed to stay at school.	Gender equality	0.239
14*	Immigrants should NOT be permitted to come into South Africa if they compete with our own workers.	Peace/non- violence	0.166
15	Helping neighbouring countries will help South Africa in the long run.	Peace/non- violence	0.321
16	I would be willing to pay much higher prices to protect the environment.	Environment	0.324
17*	Same-sex couples should NOT be allowed to marry.	H. rights	0.284
18	Prayers at school assemblies should reflect all the religions of learners in the school.	Peace/non- violence	0.371
19	Women who dress sexily are asking to be hit on / flirted with by men.	Gender equ.	0.343
20	I would date someone of another race.	C. diversity	0.411
21	South Africa is enriched by the fact that it is comprised of many people from different cultures and countries.	Cultural diversity	0.406

^{*}Items excluded from global mindedness scale

3.1.2. Determining the reliability of the global mindedness scale

As the global mindedness scale had not been previously used in the current research context, Cronbach's alpha was employed to analyse the internal consistency of the survey items and thus determine the reliability of the scale for measuring global mindedness in South African high school learners. Results of the Cronbach's analysis on the 21 items of the global mindedness scale are also recorded in Table 1. A Cronbach's alpha value of 0.78 resulted, indicating good internal consistency of the scale items. However, five of the items had low item-total correlation scores of less than 0.30, indicating that they were measuring something other than the survey measure of coefficient increased to 0.79. The 16 items identified by the Cronbach's alpha analysis are used to represent the *global mindedness* scale that is employed in this research.

Using a 5-point Likert-scale, with 1 representing *strongly disagree* and 5 representing *strongly agree*, a score ranging from 16 to 80 was calculated, with 16 representing the least globally minded and 80 the most globally minded responses.

3.1.3 Identifying factors that support global learning

Experience of cultural difference

All learners who had participated in IET were asked to identify the type of IET they had participated in and the destination countries of those tours. In order to establish causality between the experience of cultural difference and global learning, a homogeneous sub-population of IET participants was required, so learners who only had participated in an international exchange programme informed this part of the analysis. Unlike school-led thematic tours where participation is mainly a consequence of parents' ability to afford the tour, participation in international exchange programmes is highly competitive. Learners who are selected for exchange usually represent the schools' top achievers. It was hypothesised that if those top achieving learners demonstrated different levels of global mindedness as a consequence of participating in exchanges in culturally different regions of the world, then the effect of this phenomenon could be demonstrated.

Need for facilitation of the experience

To establish whether facilitation during IET supports global learning *post facto* is difficult. Firstly, learners may not be able to recall whether or not experiences were facilitated, and secondly IET is often not overtly educational. For these reasons, the following two questions were developed that aimed to elicit learners' interpretation of the manner in which they are taught within the classroom.

Our teachers encourage us to ask difficult guestions in class.

Our teachers encourage discussion on sensitive topics like race, religion and politics.

It was hypothesised that if it could be demonstrated that learners who are exposed to classroom practices which employ facilitation to encourage critical thinking and open-mindedness possess higher levels of global mindedness, then the proposition that facilitation supports effective global learning during IET could be accepted.

Finally, for effective learning to occur, learners/educational tourists need to feel comfortable in the learning space. This was assessed through the survey item:

I feel comfortable expressing my opinions in classroom discussions.

3.1.4 Identifying personality traits that predict global learning

Travel curiosity factor

Being curious, possessing the desire to seek novel situations, and to move out of one's comfort zone, have all been identified as personality traits that encourage global learning. To test these assumptions, a travel curiosity factor was developed comprising five questions regarding learners' preferences whilst on holiday. The questions and the analysis thereof are reproduced in Table 4 (section 4.5.1). Using the same 5-point Likert-scale, scores ranging from 5 to 25 were calculated. A score of 5 represents the least curious personality and 25 the most curious.

In contrast to being curious and open-minded, is lacking the desire to learn. It was hypothesized that learners who are closed-minded to expanding their educational horizons would also exhibit low levels of global mindedness. The following question was included to test this:

Our teachers should focus ONLY on topics that will be tested or examined.

Altruism

In line with research of Lyons *et al* (2012) and Zinser (2012), it was postulated that learners who choose to participate in community service projects demonstrate an interest in other cultures, which might manifest in higher levels of global learning. In South African schools, community service is a required component of the senior high school curriculum. Thus to establish altruistic motivational behavior towards others, learners were asked to describe the frequency with which they participate in community service projects and their reason for doing so.

Taking an interest in the news

Adjutant *et al* (2014) have demonstrated a correlation between observing the news and global learning. To test this, learners were asked to identify their main source of news and the frequency with which they observe the news.

Academic achievement

Current selection criteria for IET programmes with limited spaces are often academically based. To determine the efficacy of this, learners were asked to record their mid-year examinations aggregate grade in order to correlate it with their global mindedness score.

3.2 Ethical considerations

The ethical challenges associated with undertaking research with children are often cited as a reason why so little research on children occurs (Poria & Timothy, 2014). To minimise any potential anxiety on the part of the child participants, they were assured of their anonymity and that participation was voluntary. Additionally, the survey instrument was designed in a format that was very similar to that which learners are accustomed to in the scope of their school-based assessment programmes. Parents were notified via each school's internet-based communicator of the study and requested to contact the researchers if they did not want their child to participate, or if they required more information about the research. Evoking their role of *in loco parentis*, the principals of each school were asked to ensure that all learners understood their rights and the researchers' responsibilities. Prior to the administration of the questionnaire, learners were informed of the nature of the survey instrument and reminded that they had the right to withdraw from completing the survey at any time.

A limitation of using anonymous surveys is that the research is restricted to cross-sectional analyses owing to the need for some form of participant identification in longitudinal studies. Consequently, it is not possible with absolute certainty to identify causality owing to the time-order criterion of causality being difficult to prove. To compensate for this, Bachman (2005) recommends that the population being studied is as homogeneous as possible in order to allow comparison of the effect of a particular intervention, in this case, IET. This criterion is addressed next.

3.3 Study population and sampling strategy

Owing to the costs associated with international travel, IET is primarily the domain of children from financially wealthy families, who attend expensive schools. The extremely dualistic nature of South African schools reflects the legacy of apartheid education and

has created an environment in which huge discrepancies exist in terms of educational resources and the quality of education provided by state and independent schools (Motshekga, 2016). 87.14% of all state schools charge no school fees owing to them being located in economically weak communities (Ndebele, 2016:461). Independent schools account for a mere 6% of the country's schools. At the apex of this group are schools that charge annual tuition fees up to five and a half times those of an average first year South African BA degree.

In order to maximize the number of children who had participated in international travel, the most expensive independent schools formed the study population for this research. All South African high schools that are members of *ISASA* (the Independent Schools Association of Southern Africa); that charged annual tuition fees of over R54 000 per annum in 2015, and that follow the *IEB* (Independent Examinations Board) curriculum, were invited to participate in the research. In total this sampling frame yielded 47 schools. Restricting the sampling frame to *IEB* schools removed any extraneous influences on global learning that could result from different curricula and thus enhanced the homogeneity of the sample population. In total, 16 of the schools elected to participate, representing a participation rate of 34% of the most expensive schools in the country.

In order to survey the largest possible number of learners who had experienced some form of international travel, learners in Grade 11 were selected to be the study population. In South Africa, the majority of international exchange opportunities occur during the Grade 10 academic year. Other forms of IET, such as cultural and academic thematic tours, occur throughout the high school years (Grades 8-12). Grade 12 learners were specifically excluded from the research owing to them writing their final school-leaving examinations. All Grade 11 learners at each of the 16 participating schools were invited to participate in the study.

The survey instrument was administered during October and November, 2015. A total of 1479 questionnaires were sent to the 16 schools, of which 1152 (77.9%) were returned as useable.

4. Results

4.1 Learners' international travel experience

The mean age of participants was 17 years and 6 months. 52.1% of the participants were girls and 47.9% were boys. Of the 1152 learners who participated in this study, 989 (85.9%) of them had travelled internationally at least once and 693 (60.2%) of them

had travelled internationally at least once without their parents. 83.2% of girls compared with 89.0% of boys had travelled internationally.

4.2 Testing the relationship between international travel and global mindedness

An independent-samples t-test was conducted to test the first hypothesis and hence determine whether there was a significant difference between the mean scores of global mindedness (GM) of learners who had travelled internationally and those who had not. Levene's test for equality of variance indicated equal variances could be assumed (F=0.62). Although the mean GM score for learners who had not travelled internationally was slightly higher than those who had travelled internationally, no significant difference was found between the scores of the two groups. Learners who had travelled internationally had a mean GM score of 58.87 (n=989, SD=8.48) and learners who had not travelled had a mean GM score of 59.48 (n=151, SD=8.10); t (1140)=0.82, p=0.41 (two-tailed).

The results indicated that the null hypothesis needed to be retained: *There is no difference in global learning between learners who have travelled internationally and those who have not.*

Although this finding indicated that international travel appeared to have no impact on global mindedness amongst the survey participants, the next step of the analysis involved disaggregating the data in order to investigate whether differences in global mindedness existed within the group of learners who had travelled internationally. In doing so, the second hypothesis was tested.

Data from the 989 learners who had travelled internationally were analysed. Judgment was withheld regarding whether or not certain categories of tourism could be defined as "educational", so all school-based forms of international tourism were included in the first analysis (see Table 2). In order to compare the effect of the different categories of IET on developing global mindedness, data from learners who had participated in more than one type of IET were assigned to the category: *multiple*.

Results of an independent-samples t-test to compare the mean GM scores of learners who had participated in a school-based form of international tourism with those who had not (identified by the category: *holiday with family or friends*), indicated no significant difference between the two groups. Learners who had participated in school-based international tourism had a mean GM score of 59.19 (n=547, SD=8.50), and learners

who had travelled internationally but not with a school had a mean GM score of 58.48 (n=442, SD=8.45); t (989) =-1.32, p=0.19 (two-tailed).

Before the null hypothesis was accepted however, the categories *sport* and *international boarder* were added to *holiday with friends*, in other words, they were assumed to be non-educational. An independent-samples t-test was conducted again, this time comparing mean GM scores of the IETcategories (see the last column of Table 2), with those of the non-educational forms of international tourism. This yielded a small but

Table 2: Categories of international tourism undertaken by learners

(n = 989)

Category	Number of learners	School-based tourism	Educational tourism
Exchange	68	✓	✓
School-led cultural / thematic tour	116	✓	✓
Sport	102	✓	X
Adventure	17	✓	✓
Service project	15	✓	✓
Leadership summit	10	✓	✓
International boarder	11	✓	X
Academic competition / Olympiad	5	✓	✓
Multiple	203	✓	✓
Holiday with friends or family	442	X	X
Total:	989		

significant difference between the two categories. Participants of IET had a mean GM score of 59.93 (n=432, SD=8.31), while those who had not participated in IET had a lower mean GM score of 58.06 (n=557, SD=8.53); t(989) = -3.46, p=0.001 (two-tailed); $\eta^2 = 0.01$.

In line with the recommendations of Murray and Dosser (in Levine & Hullett, 2002), eta squared (η^2) is recorded throughout this analysis because it provides an estimate of the magnitude of the effect of the independent variables on the dependent variable, in this case global mindedness, that is relatively independent of the sample size (Murray &

Dosser in Levine & Hullett, 2002:614). Eta squared was calculated by hand using the formula:

$\eta^2 = \underline{\text{sum of squares between groups}}$ total sum of squares

Owing to the result of the t-test, the null hypothesis was rejected and the second hypothesis accepted, namely: of those learners who have travelled internationally, those who have participated in international educational tourism are more globally minded than those who have not.

Having identified a small but significant positive effect of IET on global mindedness, the final requirement of this stage of the research was to identify whether certain types of IET were associated with higher levels of global learning than others, and thus test the final hypothesis.

To commence testing this, a one-way between groups analysis of variance (ANOVA), for the different categories of school-based tourism was conducted (see Table 3). Although *sport* was shown to be non-educational in the previous section, the category was included for comparative purposes.

Levene's test for homogeneity of variance indicated the results violated the assumption of equal variance F(7,528)=3.77, p=0.001, therefore Welch's robust test of equality of means was employed, yielding an F(7,45.59) value of 6.69, significant at the p=0.001 level. Since the result of Welch's test indicates a p value smaller than alpha ($\alpha=0.05$), comparison of category mean GM values was possible. ANOVA indicated a significant difference between the groups of international school-based tourism (p=0.001). The effect size, η^2 is 0.05, indicated a small-moderate effect (Cohen in Pallant, 2016:248). Post-hoc comparisons using the Games-Howell test indicated that the mean GM score for *adventure* (M=63.65, SD=4.30) was significantly different from *sport* (M=56.29, SD=8.68), with a mean difference of +7.35. The mean GM score for *exchanges* (M=60.91, SD=6.90) was also significantly different from *sport*, with a mean difference of +4.62.

The highest GM scores were associated with learners who had participated in *leadership* (M=64.30, SD=7.18) and *academic competitions* (M=65.57, SD=4.28). However, as learners who participate in these categories of IET are by their nature high academic achievers, the results may be more representative of academic achievement rather than IET. The small number of participants in these categories (n=10 and 5 respectively), also may have influenced the power of the results.

Table 3: Relationship between categories of school-based international tourism and global mindedness

(n = 536)

		Mean Global			95% Confidence Interval for Mean			
		Mindedness	Std.	Std.	Lower	Upper		
Category	N	score	Deviation	Error	Bound	Bound	Minimum	Maximum
Adventure	17	63.6471	4.30031	1.04298	61.4360	65.8581	57.00	71.00
Competition	5	64.0000	2.54951	1.14018	60.8344	67.1656	61.00	68.00
Exchange	68	60.9118	6.89524	.83617	59.2428	62.5808	46.00	76.00
Leadership	10	64.3000	7.18099	2.27083	59.1630	69.4370	53.00	77.00
School trip	116	59.2414	9.73172	.90357	57.4516	61.0312	28.00	79.00
Service	15	61.3333	7.20780	1.86105	57.3418	65.3249	45.00	72.00
Sport	102	56.2941	8.67520	.85897	54.5901	57.9981	32.00	77.00
Multiple	203	59.2118	8.20586	.57594	58.0762	60.3474	36.00	77.00
Total	536	59.2183	8.49777	.36705	58.4973	59.9393	28.00	79.00

Participants of IET defined as *adventure* had the next highest GM scores (M=63.65, SD=5.89). School adventures are associated with moving learners out of their comfort zone and also providing solitude time for self-reflection, both of which have been proposed as requirements for effective experientially-based global learning.

Exchanges and school-led tours attract the largest proportion of learners yet after sport, were associated with the lowest levels of GM (M=60.91, SD=6.90 and M=59.24, SD=9.73 respectively). When compared with the mean GM score for learners who had not travelled internationally (M=59.48, n=151), the results indicated that school-led tours have little if any merit in terms of developing global learning. In fact participants had lower mean GM scores than learners who had not travelled internationally. Exchanges yielded a marginally higher score. However, prior to concluding that these categories of IET do not contribute to global learning, the data were analysed to determine whether individual schools have the ability to positively affect global learning.

4.3 The influence of schools on global learning

Although *school-led tours* had a low mean GM score, the category had the largest standard deviation around the mean (SD=9.73) and also the greatest range of GM

values (from 28-79). These, combined with the relatively large number of participants in the category (n=116), suggested that further analysis was required prior to making a judgment regarding the educational merit of international school-led tours. To investigate this, the mean GM scores of learners who had participated in school-led tours were compared amongst the schools using ANOVA. None of the learners from *School P* indicated that they had participated in a school-led international tour, so they were excluded from the analysis. Learners from the *multiple* category who had participated in a school-led tour were included in the ANOVA.

Results of the ANOVA indicated that there was a statistically significant difference in GM scores amongst the different schools at the p<0.05 level: F(14, 178) = 3.65, p=0.001. For example, the mean GM score for School C is 13.33 points higher than School G and 10.97 points higher than School M (p = 0.001; η^2 =0.22). These results indicated that 22% of the variance in GM scores for learners who participate in schoolled tours was determined by the manner in which different schools conduct their international tours, supporting the notion that significant global learning can occur during this form of IET, but the extent of learning is strongly influenced by the educational approach adopted by each school. In an interview with the principal of School C, he attributed the high levels of GM in the school's learners to the pre-departure discussions held with learners and the requirement of learners who participate in exchanges to give a presentation on their experiences during the school's weekly assemblies. This view was confirmed with the vice-principal of another high-scoring school, School L. The act of preparing a presentation on their IET experience forces learners to reflect on their experience and to draw comparisons between the international destination and their own and in doing so consolidate the global learning that has occurred.

4.4 Factors that support global learning

4.4.1 The experience of cultural difference

To determine whether experiencing a culture different from one's own has an influence on global learning, ANOVA was conducted on the relatively homogeneous sub-set of learners who had only participated in an international exchange programme. Levene's test confirmed the assumption of homogeneity of variance, F(8,92)=2.57, p=0.01. There were statistically significant differences at the p<0.05 level for three of the regional exchange groups: UK (M=54.7, n=14, SD=7.11); USA/Canada (M=64.33, n=12, SD=7.77), and Europe (M=66.29, n=7, SD=8.26). Furthermore, the effect size was large ($\eta^2=0.18$), indicating that 18% of the total variance in GM scores associated with international exchange programmes is a consequence of the global region of the exchange.

Additional support for this observation came from 28 learners from *School P*, who had participated in a trip to Europe that combined a school-led cultural tour with a two-week school exchange programme and local family homestay. The school specifically selected a partner school in which English is not the medium of instruction. *School Ps* learners recorded the highest GM scores of any learners who had been on exchange (M=65.8, SD=6.5), compared with the mean GM score of 60.9 (SD=7.3, n=140). In contrast, learners from *School H* whose exchange partner schools are Anglophone and located in culturally similar countries to South Africa: Australia, New Zealand and England, had the lowest mean score: 54.4 (SD=4.7, n=18).

4.4.2 The need for facilitation of the learning experience

The role that facilitation can play in the learning process has already been demonstrated by the influence that different schools have on affecting global learning. An ANOVA of responses to the three questions related to pedagogical practices provided further evidence of this. All three survey items yielded statistically significant positive effects between pedagogy and developing global mindedness. By encouraging the asking of difficult questions and facilitating discussions on sensitive topics, teachers are able to significantly increase global learning in their classrooms: F(4,1147)=11.80, p<0.001, $\eta^2=0.04$ and F(4,1147)=2.98, p=0.02, $\eta^2=0.01$. Furthermore, when teachers provide an environment in which learners feel comfortable expressing themselves, greater global learning occurs, F(4,1147)=7.14, p<0.001, $\eta^2=0.02$.

4.5 Personality traits that predict global learning

4.5.1 Travel curiosity factor

The subset of data comprising only learners who had travelled internationally (n=989) was used in this part of the analysis. ANOVA was conducted on each of the five questions. The results indicated that all the questions yielded statistically significant differences amongst the five categories of each question and global mindedness. Additionally, post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that a significant difference exists between all the mean GM scores in the *strongly disagree* category and the *strongly agree* category (see Table 4).

Having demonstrated a positive relationship between four of the items of the TCF and global mindedness, and a negative relationship between conservative eating habits and global mindedness, Pearson's product-moment correlation coefficient was employed to determine the strength of correlation between the TCF and GM. A moderate positive correlation was observed between the two scales, r=0.39, p<0.01(two-tailed), indicating that as travel curiosity increases so too does the level of global mindedness. Furthermore, when the item with the lowest eta squared values and lowest significant

differences between means, *preferring familiar food* was removed, Pearson's correlation coefficient increased to r=0.44, p<0.01 (two-tailed), demonstrating a stronger relationship between the remaining four TCF items and GM.

Table 4: Results of ANOVA of travel curiosity factor items and global mindedness (n = 989)

	Question When I'm on holiday I	Mean global mindedness Strongly disagree	Mean global mindedness Strongly agree	Significant difference (p ≤ 0.05)	р	η²
1	prefer to eat food that I am familiar with rather than local food.	60.41	56.75	-3.66	0.002	0.01
2	like to visit places that most tourists DON'T go to.	53.50	62.05	+8.55	0.001	0.06
3	like to visit museums and historical or cultural sites.	53.05	62.70	+9.65	0.001	0.11
4	enjoy talking to local people.	51.08	61.53	+10.45	0.001	0.07
5	try and learn how to greet people in the local language.	50.00	61.65	+11.65	0.001	0.11

To check the observed relationship between curiosity and learning, the relationship between the desire to be only taught that which will be examined (reflecting a closed-minded disposition) and global mindedness was investigated. Pearson's correlation coefficient yielded a negative association between the two: r= -0.282, n=989, p<0.01 (two-tailed). This negative correlation increased when the question was correlated with global mindedness, r= -0.314, n=989, p<0.01 (two-tailed), supporting the notion that without curiosity and a desire to learn less global learning will occur.

4.5.2 Altruism

The frequency of participation in community service as well as the rational for participation was used as an indicator of altruism. ANOVA indicated that there was a statistically significant difference between levels of GM and the different frequencies of participation in community service: F(4,1144)=18.38, p<0.001. *Non-participation* in community service yielded statistically significant lower levels of GM (M=55.94, n=187, SD=9.02), at the p<0.001 level, than *participating 1-2 times per term* (M=59.98, n=359, SD=8.00); *participating once per week* (M=61.87, n=191, SD=7.51), and *participating more than once per week* (M=61.71, n=63, SD=9.14).

The magnitude of the effect of participation in community service on GM, was moderate: η^2 =0.06. However, an even greater effect on global learning was observed when the reason for participation was considered. ANOVA indicated that learners who believe that participation *is the right thing to do,* scored 6.68 points higher than learners who felt they were forced to do community service, 5.71 points higher than learners who do not participate at all, and 5.55 points higher than learners who participate because it contributes to building their résumés or gives them university entrance points; F(4,1053)=33.56, p<0.001. Eta squared (η^2 =0.11) indicated a moderate-large effect of altruism on global mindedness.

4.5.3 Taking an interest in the news

Contrary to findings in the literature, the frequency of observing the news did not appear to influence global learning in the study population. ANOVA yielded no statistically significant result: F(4,1145)=1.75, p=0.14. Mean GM scores varied from 57.21 (n=122, SD=8.88) for learners who indicated that they *never* observe the news, to 59.68 (n=266, SD=8.14), for learners who observe the news *2-3 times per week*.

4.5.4 Academic achievement

The final potential predictor of global learning that was investigated was academic achievement. Participants were divided into six groups according to their Grade 11 mid-year examinations aggregate (Group 1: <50%; Group 2: 50-59%; Group 3: 60-69%; Group 4: 70-79%; Group 5: 80-89%; Group 6: ≥90%). There was a statistically significant difference in GM scores between the groups at the p<0.05 level: F(5,1130)=4.23, p=0.001, however, the actual difference in mean scores was quite small (3.45) and eta squared was 0.02. Post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated significant difference in mean scores between the four groups in the 50% - 89% range of mid-year examination aggregates, with mean GM scores increasing with mid-year examination aggregate; however, this trend was not apparent in learners scoring less than 50% or greater than 90%. As the majority of learners (96.30%) fall within the 50-89% examination aggregate range, the results suggest that in most instances, global mindedness increases with academic achievement, but that this effect is small.

5. Discussion and Conclusions

This research has empirically demonstrated that global learning is positively correlated with international educational tourism and that certain categories of IET are more conducive to global learning than others. The highest scoring categories of IET were

academic competitions and leadership summits. However, these results may be biased owing to the fact that participants are usually high achievers and school-based academic achievement has been demonstrated to have a small but positive effect on global learning. The next highest scoring category of IET was international adventures. Adventures are characterised by some form of physical activity with an endurance element, consistent with being out of one's comfort zone. Often they also include solitude time for reflection on the experience. Examples of adventures mentioned included: sea kayaking trips around Madagascar and Mauritius, and a trip in Lesotho combining hiking, cycling, tubing and horse riding.

As a point of departure from similar research that has employed qualitative studies involving relatively small numbers of participants (e.g.: Campbell-Price, 2014; DeMello, 2011), or surveys that required participants to self-identify perceived learning during their international experiences (e.g.: Deloach *et al*, 2015; Kurt *et al*, 2013; Van 'T Klooster, 2014), the results of this research are based on the quantitative analysis of 1152 participants, 989 of whom had participated in international tourism. In doing so, the study provides empirical evidence to support the underpinning assumption of IET that it encourages global learning.

The role of facilitation and the need to encounter cultural difference have been established as factors which support global learning during IET. The significant role that schools have in either encouraging or inhibiting global learning has been demonstrated through a comparison of the inter-school GM scores. Learners who had experienced cultures very different from their own, demonstrated higher levels of global mindedness than their peers who had travelled to culturally similar destinations, such as the UK, Australia or New Zealand. The greatest global learning appears to have occurred when learners were immersed in schools in which English is not the medium of instruction. This is supported by the high levels of GM exhibited by *School P's* learners, where a decision has been made to not engage with culturally or linguistically similar exchange partner schools. The homestay aspect of *School P's* exchange programme further encourages greater cultural immersion through experiential learning. These findings are consistent with the observations of Van 'T Klooster (2014), that the experience of cultural difference encourages global learning.

Although it was not possible to directly assess the impact of facilitation on the IET process, analysis of pedagogies that positively facilitate global learning in the classroom, demonstrated that encouraging learners to ask difficult questions and to discuss sensitive issues such as race, politics and religion, contributes positively to global mindedness. Furthermore, providing an environment in which learners feel

comfortable expressing themselves enhances global learning. These results are consistent with the findings of Merryfield (2012) who found that pedagogical practices are more influential in developing global mindedness than the actual content of the curriculum. This suggests that by incorporating age-appropriate facilitation into educational tourism, global learning will be encouraged.

A number of personality traits were identified as predictors of potential global learning. In particular, being curious about the destination to which one travels and not being afraid of trying new experiences, are more likely to foster higher levels of global mindedness than being more conservative and closed-minded. The most effective way to develop global mindedness is by learning to greet people in the local language and visiting museums, cultural and historical sites. Additionally, talking to local people and visiting places where most tourists do not go to significantly contributes to the development of global mindedness. In total, these four factors accounted for 35% of the variance in global mindedness in the study population. Conversely, learners who were closed-minded to broadening their education demonstrated some of the lowest levels of global mindedness.

Academic achievement had a small positive effect on global learning. This finding is aligned with that of Lope (2014), who found academic achievement in Mathematics and English to be a predictor of global mindedness in Grade 9 learners. This result suggests that selection criteria for competitive IET programmes that focus on academic merit need to be broadened in their scope.

The most significant and substantial factor that appears to influence global learning is participation in community service programmes which is motivated by altruism. Participating as infrequently as once or twice per term was associated with higher levels of global mindedness compared with learners who do not take part in community service, and global mindedness increased further with increased frequency of participation. However, just as it has been demonstrated that learning during IET only occurs if learners want to learn, the results also indicated that global learning only occurs during community service if learners believe it is the right thing to do. In other words, for learners who are motivated by altruistic reasons, substantial global learning may occur.

Smith (2013) observed that educational tourism may "contribute to cultural integration" and be "a force for fighting xenophobia, ethnocentrism and cultural misunderstandings" (Smith, 2013:5). For those fortunate learners whose parents can afford to send them on

international educational tours, this paper has demonstrated that when the process of international educational tourism is facilitated to encourage reflection, and when participants possess the desire to engage with cultural difference, then significant global learning may occur, inspiring learners towards becoming more socially and environmentally responsible young people.

References

Adjutant, N., Auclair, B., Borelli, A., Carter, C., Cochran, M. & and Durfee, H. 2014. A market research study to determine Franklin Pierce University Rindge student awareness of domestic and world affairs. [Online] Available: http://eraven.franklinpierce.edu/s/dept/business/documents/2014/Global-Awareness-Report.pdf [Accessed: 2015-08-01].

Aurura Prize. 2016. Humanitarian Index. Yerevan, Armania.

Bachman, R. 2005. *Causation and research design*. [Online] Available: https://us.sagepub.com/sites/default/files/upm-binaries/14289_BachmanChapter5.pdf [Accessed: 2016-02-14].

Béneker, T., Tani, S., Uphues, R. & van der Vaart, R. 2013. Young people's world-mindedness and the global dimension in their geography education: a comparative study of upper secondary school students' ideas in Finland, Germany and the Netherlands. *International Research in Geographical and Environmental Education*, 22(4): 322-336.

Béneker, T, van Dis, H. & van Middelkoop, D. 2014. World-mindedness of students and their geography education at international (IB-DP) and regular schools in the Netherlands. *Interdisciplinary Journal of Development Education and Global Learning*, 6(3): 5-30.

Campbell-Price, M. 2014. International school trips: A critical analysis of multiple stakeholder perspectives. Unpublished PhD thesis, University of Otago, New Zealand.

Choo, S, Sawech, D. & Villanueva, A. 2012. Educating for twenty first century global capacities: summary of report. Columbia University, New york: SEI.

Choonghee, H. 2015. Global citizenship education for the 21st Century. *SangSaeng* (42): 19-22.

Deardorff, D.K. 2014. Some thoughts on assessing intercultural competence. *Illinois Education blog.* [Online] Available: https://illinois.edu/blog/view/915/113048 [Accessed: 2015-05-25].

Deardorff, D.K. & Jones, E. 2012. Intercultural competence: an emerging focus in international education. In: Deardorff, D.K., de Wit, H. & Heyl, J.D. (eds.) *The SAGE handbook of international higher education.* London: Sage:283-304.

Deloach, S.B., Kurt, M. & Olitsky, N.H. 2015. Does content matter? Analysing the change in global awareness between business and non-business-focused short-term study abroad courses. *Journal of Teaching in International Business*, 26(1):4-31.

DeMello, M.A. 2011. The impact of study tours in developing global-mindedness among PK-12 educators in southeastern Massachusetts. Unpublished doctoral thesis. Boston: Northeastern University.

De Oliveira Andreotti, V., Biesta, G. & Ahenakew, C. 2015. Between the nation and the globe: education for global mindedness in Finland. *Globalisation, Societies and Education,* 13(2):246-259.

Hett, E.J. 1993. *The development of an instrument to measure global-mindedness.* Unpublished doctoral thesis. San Diego: University of San Diego.

Kenway, J. & Fahey, J. 2014. Staying ahead of the game: the globalising practices of elite schools. *Globalisation, Societies and Education*, 12(2):177-195.

Kolb, D.A. 1984. Experiential learning: experience as the source of learning and development. Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall.

Kurt, M.R., Olitsky, N.H. & Geis, P. 2013. Assessing global awareness over short-term study abroad sequence: a factor analysis. *Frontiers: The Interdisciplinary Journal of Study Abroad*, 23 (Fall):22-41.

Levine, T.R. & Hullett, C.R. 2002. Eta squared, partial eta squared, and misreporting effect size in communication research. *Human Communication Research*, 28(4):612-625.

Li, M., Olson, J. & Frieze, I.H. 2013. Students' study abroad plans: the influence of motivational and personality factors. *Frontiers: The Interdisciplinary Journal of Study Abroad*, 23:73-89.

Lilley, K. 2014. Educating global citizens: translating the 'idea' into university organisational practice. Melbourne: International Education Association of Australia.

Lope, M. 2014. Perceptions of global mindedness in the International Baccalaureate Middle Years Programme: the relationship to student academic performance and teacher characteristics. Unpublished doctoral thesis. Maryland: University of Maryland, College Park.

Lyons, K., Hanley, J., Wearing, S. & Neil, J. 2012. Gap year volunteer tourism: myths of global citizenship? *Annals of Tourism Research*, 39(1):361-378.

McCarthy, C. & Kenway, J. 2014. Introduction: understanding the re-articulations of privilege over time and space. *Globalisation, Societies and Education*, 12(2):165-176.

Merryfield, M.M. 2012. Four strategies for teaching open-mindedness. *Social Studies and the Young Learner*, 25(2):18-22.

Merryfield, M.M., Lo, J. T-Y., Po, S.C. & Kasai, M. 2008. Worldmindedness: taking off the blinkers. *Journal of Curriculum and Instruction*, 2(1):6-20.

Motshekga, A. 2016. Keynote Address by the Minister of Basic Education, Mrs Angie Motshekga, MP, at the Basic Education Sector Lekgotla held at the Saint George Hotel, Pretoria, 20 January 2016. [Online] Available: http://www.education.gov.za/ Newsroom/Speeches/tabid/298/ctl/Details/mid/3618/ItemID/3651/Default.aspx> [Accessed: 2016-02-18].

Ndebele, T. 2016. 2016 South Africa survey: Education. Pretoria: Institute of Race Relations: 437-558.

Paige, R.M. & Vande Berg, M. 2012. Why students are not learning abroad. In: Vande Berg, M., Paige, R.M. & Lou, K.H. (eds.) *Student learning abroad: what are students are learning, what they're not, and what we can do about it.* Sterling: Stylus: 29-60.

Pallant, J. (2016). *SPSS survival manual* (6th ed.) Maidenhead, England: Open University Press, McGraw-Hill Education.

Pitman, T., Broomhall, S., McEwan, J. & Majocha, E. 2010. Adult learning in educational tourism. *Australian Journal of Adult Learning*, 50(2):219-238.

Poria, Y. & Timothy, D.J. 2014. Where are the children in tourism research? *Annals of Tourism Research*, 47:93-95.

Richards, G. 2011. Cultural tourism trends in Europe: a context for the development of Cultural Routes. In: Khovanova-Rubicondo, K. (ed.) *Impact of European Cultural Routes on SMEs' innovation and competitiveness*. Strasbourg: Council of Europe Publishing: 21-39.

Ritchie, B.W. 2003. *Managing educational tourism.* Clevedon, Bristol: Channel View Publications.

Rizvi, F. 2014. Old elite schools. History and the construction of a new imaginary. *Globalisation, Societies and Education*, 12(2):290-308.

Sampson, D.L. & Smith, H.P. 1957. A scale to measure world-minded attitudes. *The Journal of Social Psychology*, 45:99-106.

Smith, A. 2013. The role of educational tourism in raising academic standards. *African Journal of Hospitality, Tourism and Leisure*, 2(3):1-7.

Stone, M.J. & Petrick, J.F. 2013. The educational benefits of travel experience: A literature review. *Journal of Travel Research*, 52(6):731-744.

Stoner, K., Tarrant, M., Perry, L., Stoner, L., Wearing, S. & Lyons, K. 2014. Global citizenship as an outcome of educational travel. *Journal of teaching in travel and tourism*, (14):149-163.

Tarc, P., Mishra-Tarc, A., Ng-A-Fook, N. & Trilokekar, R. D. 2012b. Reconceiving international education: theorizing limits and possibilities for transcultural learning. *Canadian and International Education / Education Canadianne et Internationale*: 41(3): Article 6.

Tarrant, M.A. 2010. A conceptual framework for exploring the role of studies abroad in nurturing global citizenship. *Journal of Studies in International education*, (14):433-451.

UNESCO. 2015. Transforming our world: the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development. Paris: UNESCO.

Vance, C.M.; Sibeck, G; McNulty, Y. & Hogenauer, A. 2011. Building global competencies through experiential coursework in international travel and tourism. *Journal of International Education in Business*, 4(1):30-41.

Vande Berg, M., Paige, M. & Lou, H. K. (eds.) 2012. Student learning abroad: What our students are learning, what they're not, and what we can do about it. Sterling: Stylus Publishing.

Van 'T Klooster, E. 2014. *Travel to learn: the influence of cultural difference on competence development in educational travel.* Unpublished doctoral thesis. Rotterdam: Erasmus University Rotterdam.

Vassar, B.M. 2006. An internal structure assessment of two measures of worldmindedness and their relationship with cultural pluralism, social distance and dominance orientation. Unpublished doctoral thesis. Oklahoma: Oklahoma State University.

Zinser, R. 2012. A curriculum model of a foundation for educating the global citizens of the future. *On the Horizon*, 20(1):64-73.