

Internationalisation at Home in Higher Education

*Case Studies
from Mediterranean Region*

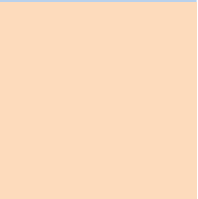
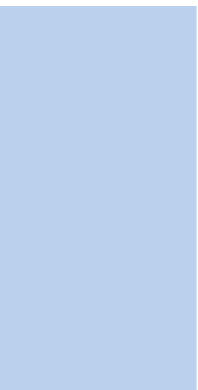
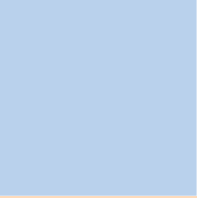
Edited by

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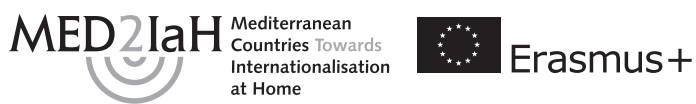
DORSAF BEN MALEK

MARIAM HAMMOUD

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Nada Trunk Širca
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*Internationalisation at Home in Higher Education:
Case Studies from Mediterranean Region*

Edited by Dr. Nada Trunk Širca, Dr. Dorsaf Ben Malek, and Mariam Hammoud
Reviewers Dr. Bootheina Majoul and Dr. Marwa Mekni Toujani

Published by ToKnowPress
Bangkok · Celje · Lublin · Malta
2023

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Kasetsart University, Bangkok, Thailand
International School for Social and Business Studies, Celje, Slovenia
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Pegaso International, Malta

www.toknowpress.net

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The publication of the monograph was financially supported
by the Slovenian Research and Innovation Agency
from the state budget funds, tender for the co-financing
of scientific monographs.

ISBN 978-83-65020-45-1 (pdf)

ISBN 978-83-65020-46-8 (printed)

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Introduction

Internationalisation at home (IaH) is the new concept that actors in higher education have put forth as an alternative to regular and more familiar internationalisation. It can also be employed not as an alternative but as a component among others within the overall realm of internationalisation. The need for the implementation of IaH has been made more urgent, especially with the 3-year COVID-19 crisis that paralysed the movements between countries. This paralysis was even more imposing and heavy on students wishing to pursue an international experience highly desired for their future professional careers. Before this global crisis, these students used to have opportunities to study at universities abroad within the framework of learning and training mobilities and exchange programmes such as KA107 of Erasmus+. However, there is another type of student who suffers from a lack of physical mobility even outside of crisis times because of hard and costly visa requirements and the hard economic situations in their home countries. Therefore, IaH should not be developed as ‘another’ activity but has to be integrated into the university’s strategic plan in order to get the most out of it. It should be based on the intention of policymakers, management, and staff to integrate the international dimension into the overall policy of the institution. In other words, it should be a deliberate, not passive, process, hence translated into actions at different levels (management, academic and administrative staff, students) and areas (education, research, society). It should not be a purpose in itself but a tool to improve the quality of teaching and learning within institutions. IaH should therefore meet the needs of every society. Consequently, every university should have a strategy of internationalisation at home, and because this latter is based on intercultural sensitivity and communication, cultures should be valued for what they add to the global citizenry. It is also an overall process that involves every stakeholder in the institution: students, academic and administrative staff, and management. In this sense, inclusiveness is the basis for every successful IaH strategy. It should be an ongoing process to guarantee the sustainability of its outcomes.

The major focus in IaH is mainly inspired by the classical learning objectives in mobility learning agreements, namely the development of

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intercultural and global competences, which can be ensured through campus diversity and intercultural engagement and the internationalisation of both formal and informal curricula. It is following this philosophy that this book is written in two parts: internationalisation of formal and informal curricula and global skills development in a local context. Indeed, the first part of the book relates to the implementation of intercultural communication theories in the adaptation of the formal and informal curricula to the overall learning orientation towards intercultural communicative competence (ICC) development. To this end, the chapters in the first part present the theoretical framework of IaH in higher education as well as strategies and methods to insert the international and intercultural dimension in the curriculum and extracurricular activities in the universities. However, the second part offers suggestions of best practices to develop students' global competences in order to be good global citizens based on ICC theories and models.

This book provides experiments and attempts in the internationalisation at home within Mediterranean countries as case studies to be carefully scrutinised and replicated in other regions of the world. Data gathering was facilitated within the framework of the MED2IaH project (MEDiterranean Countries: Towards Internationalisation at Home), an Erasmus+ capacity building project co-funded by the European Commission within the period of 2020–2023. The MED2IaH project involves partnerships between the North and South Mediterranean universities. It is primarily designed to have an impact at system level and trigger reform processes at the national level in Mediterranean Partner Countries (PC). The overarching objectives of this project are threefold:

- To outline the internationalisation landscapes of PC HEIS and to identify levels of integration of international and intercultural dimensions into the formal and informal curricula of PC HEIS
- To improve the capabilities of PC HEIS for internationalisation through staff training and by translating general awareness of the IaH concept into streamlined institutional strategies and Action Plans.
- To build students' intercultural knowledge and sensitivity to cultural diversity by transforming the International Relations Offices (IROS) of PC HEIS into vibrant multicultural focal points.

In fact, South Mediterranean students are in urgent need of acquiring international experience to be as competitive in the excessively multicultural job market as North Mediterranean and western students. However, economic, social, and political realities in their countries dictate other strategies for internationalisation other than physical mobility that do not require huge funding and complex regulations and policies.

Nada Trunk Širca

University of Primorska,

International School for Social and Business Studies,

and EMUNI, Slovenia

Part One

Internationalisation of Formal and Informal Curricula

Chapter One

Internationalisation at Home: The Theoretical Framework

Dorsaf Ben Malek

Virtual University of Tunis, Tunisia

dorsaf.benmalek@uvt.tn

Purpose The purpose of the current chapter is to give an overview of the theoretical framework of internationalisation at Home in higher education institutions (HEIS), as well as its mechanisms and achievements. To this end, several learning theories evoked within literature are explained in relation to the relatively newly coined concept. The chapter also highlights the different competences, individual actions, and institutional actions necessary for internationalisation at Home.

Study design/methodology/approach First, I explore the different factors that made the need for internationalisation in HEIS urgent. Second, I enumerate the challenges that affect the efficient and smooth implementation of internationalisation especially with the constantly changing national, regional, and global contexts in which HEIS are operating. Third, I suggest internationalisation at home as a substitute or complete internationalisation. Therefore, I explain several learning theories relating to the concept. I also highlight the different individuals and institutions involved in internationalisation at Home.

Findings Internationalisation at Home should be adopted as an alternative to regular internationalisation in times of crisis. Otherwise, it can be employed as a complementary individual and institutional action within the overall strategy of HEIS internationalisation.

Originality/value Researching internationalisation at Home is a potential area of research that needs further interest. This chapter paves the way for different avenues of research within the realm of IAH.

Introduction

The beginning of the 21st century brought about changes in almost every sector. This stems from the overwhelming role of computer-mediated technologies in altering the nature of the workplace from local to multicultural. Within this new workplace, individuals of diverse linguistic and cultural backgrounds are now obliged to commu-

nicate using the same linguistic means, or lingua franca, mainly English (Byram, 1997). However, what makes communication more challenging is the aforementioned cultural diversity. One can only imagine the significant amount of business failure due to cross-cultural misunderstanding. Therefore, there has been a shift to the intercultural speaker, who takes into consideration cultural specificities while communicating across cultures (Byram, 2003). This need to grow as an intercultural speaker stems from the necessity of acknowledging oneself as a global citizen. Therefore, students who strive to be successfully employed in this excessively multicultural job market should grow as intercultural speakers with advanced intercultural communicative competence (ICC). Thus, the principal mission of education is to lead them into building their personalities as intercultural speakers and global citizens through a sound internationalisation strategy by adopting methods like physical mobility. However, this latter is not always affordable for the average student, especially in underprivileged countries (Knight, 2003). Consequently, educators try other strategies to give their students opportunities for internationalisation without leaving their home countries. Nevertheless, this should not be put exclusively on the shoulders of instructors. There should be an institutional, national, and regional determination to implement Internationalisation at Home (IaH) as a decisive concept in higher education.

Thus, the intent of this chapter is to emphasise the need for internationalisation in HEIS and enumerate its challenges. Thus, internationalisation at Home is put forth as a remedy for these challenges. Therefore, the chapter gives an overview of the theoretical framework of IaH its mechanisms, and achievements, as well as the different competences and individual and institutional actions necessary to implement it in HEIS.

Internationalisation in HEIS

Some research (Bocanegra-Valle, 2015; Planken, 2005; Shaw, 2006) has shown that there should be more focus on the proliferation of internationalisation in higher education. Indeed, in Bologna, for example, the interest in revising academic needs and updating the syllabi is a recent trend (Bocanegra-Valle, 2016).

The Need for Internationalisation in HEIS

This need to implement internationalisation in HEIS is a direct consequence of global factors. The following are some of the critical reasons

that made internationalising higher education an urgent necessity, not a mere commodity.

The Workplace Metamorphosis into Multicultural

The drastic change in the workplace has been the result of progress in communication, transportation technologies, and international mobility. The global labour market is becoming more and more multicultural, and new identities have emerged from the worldwide waves of immigration (Sairambekovna Assanova & Ho Kim, 2014; Simons & Krols, 2010). More and more international business and cooperation are happening, and the lack of an ICC may cause disasters for businesses (Marcel, 2011; Sairambekovna Assanova & Ho Kim, 2014). Therefore, the company that recognises the need for ICC and tries seriously to develop this competence in its employees will attain a strong competitive rank (Marcel, 2011). Thus, graduates who are adequately trained in ICC are urgently needed in the global business market. In fact, this particular competence may be a key factor in business students' future employability. They should be knowledgeable (i.e., culture and business knowledge) and skilled (i.e., language and business skills) (Liu, 2011). The ideal employee or employer, as described by Marcel (2011), is able to adapt to various communication styles, adjust to new cultural settings, adopt an ethno-relative view, and be open to all other cultures.

The Repercussions of Globalisation

The rising international need for internationalisation, though insufficiently exploited in education (Dogancay-Aktuna, 2005), originates from the role of globalisation in tinting the world with 'accelerated interconnectedness' (Dewey, 2007). Globalisation is not only the movement of goods but also of cultures and languages. One should confess that the lack of intercultural variation in education may yield some grave problems, such as falling into the trap of Eurocentric biases and cultural stereotypes (Dogancay-Aktuna, 2005). McMahan (2011) insists on the necessity of knowing the effects of culture on the lives of individuals within a globalised world. Therefore, opening up to other cultures is the basis of intercultural communication. Knowledge and attitudes are necessarily dependent on the self's willingness to suspend disbelief about other cultures and relativize one's own cultural values, beliefs, and acts (Byram, 1997). Respect, equity, and openness are attitudes that come into being when a person sees themselves as others see them.

Multicultural Vs. Mono-Cultural Students' Identities

The multiplicity of the students' cultural backgrounds necessitates the internationalisation of instructional curricula. Nonetheless, students who do not belong to a multicultural setting may still need openness to other cultures (Arellano, 2011) in order to survive potential intercultural encounters (Barletta Manjarrés, 2009). Consequently, according to Byram (2003), education is one of the keys to promoting mutual understanding and tolerance towards cultural and societal differences. Therefore, through education, societies can develop their intercultural dimension. Magazine (n.d.) describes this latter as being concerned with letting students understand how intercultural communication occurs. It also considers interlocutors' social and cultural backgrounds crucial to every interaction. Therefore, the ultimate purpose should not be leading students to adopt the target culture but rather making them conscious of themselves and others (Byram, 1997; Clouet, 2006). Thus, perceiving other people and being perceived by others certainly brings success or failure to that interaction.

Challenges in the 'Regular' Internationalisation of Higher Education

Physical mobility, being the principal instrument for cultural immersion, has long been considered the main avenue to internationalise various higher education stakeholders, ranging from the student to the researcher to the academic and administrative staff (Dolga et al., 2015; Llurda et al., 2016). Through physical mobility, they are not only able to develop their intercultural communicative competence but also to acquire efficient tools to build their international experience and career. However, internationalisation traditionally perceived as exclusively relying on physical mobility is now facing severe challenges, which has led researchers, educators, institutions, and policymakers to envisage other avenues for internationalisation (Benton et al., 2021). It is worth noting that the birth of the concept of internationalisation at Home (ИaH) was principally the consequence of a sum of challenges encountered in the implementation of 'regular' internationalisation at higher education institutions (Knight, 2003).

These challenges and difficulties are mainly faced by local students belonging to underdeveloped countries who do not have equal opportunities for physical mobility to international universities. Indeed, this type of student faces severe obstacles, such as hard and costly visa requirements (Knight, 2003). Most of them are not reimbursed in cases of

visa application denial. These students belong to universities that lack the necessary funds to support their physical mobility within the large sphere of International Credit Mobility and the Erasmus+ programme. Added to that, their home countries are struggling with the harsh consequences of economic and political instability, which make their opportunities for internationalisation even more complicated. The challenges of implementing regular internationalisation were made universal by the heavy consequences of COVID-19, which paralysed the movements between countries and made travelling even more challenging and frustrating for other universities.

Therefore, IaH is now adopted as an alternative to 'regular' internationalisation in times of crisis or difficulty with physical mobility. It can also be implemented as a solid component of the internationalisation strategy at all times.

Internationalisation at Home

Why Internationalisation at Home

According to Magazine (n.d.), culture is similar to the colour of our eyes; it is unnoticeable for us unless we look into the mirror. It is through reflecting on our own culture that we realise our cultural bias and the stereotypes that we generate about us and the 'other.' This phenomenon has been called by Byram (2003) 'critical cultural awareness.'

Opportunity for Intercultural Awareness

Intercultural awareness means the ability to critically evaluate, on the basis of explicit criteria, perspectives, practices, and products in one's own and other cultures and countries. If this awareness is not reached naturally and incidentally through travel or direct exposure to the target culture, education may provide the third position needed in intercultural communication (Byram, 2003). Kramsch (1998) insists on the importance of self-cultural awareness, and Byram (1997) gives it the same significance but within the classroom. A few years later, precisely in 2003, this phenomenon was coined 'Internationalisation at Home' by Bengt Nilsson, who put forth solutions to develop the international, intercultural, and global dimensions of higher education. Nilsson considered this new concept as an antidote to 'vaccinate all our students against the dark forces of nationalism and racism' (Nilsson, 2003, p. 26).

International Experience for Future Employability

The principal objective of Internationalisation at Home (IaH) is to provide valuable opportunities for local students to acquire and own an international experience that is urgently needed for their future employability (Slotte and Stadius 2019). Indeed, the 21st Century employer prefers graduates with previous international backgrounds who have the ability to collaborate within multicultural teams. Accordingly, IaH aims at empowering local students with the same success factors as students studying in privileged areas. To this end, IaH relies on the integration of international components in the curriculum, on campus, and in the faculty. It also means promoting intercultural dialogue and developing a global mindset within universities (Leask, 2009).

IaH As a Substitute Or Complementary Measure to Internationalisation

In this sense, adopting 'Internationalisation at Home,' according to Leask (2009), provides higher education institutions (HEIS) with complementary tools and methods of internationalisation to ensure a modern, fair, and inclusive international society. Thus, local students and university staff do not need to leave their home universities to gain international experience. Therefore, IaH offers all students, without exception, global perspectives within their programme of study, regardless of their physical mobility. It also involves all staff, not only academics and international officers. It is additionally supported by informal (co-)curricular activities across the institution (IAU, 2007). It makes meaningful use of cultural diversity in the classroom for inclusive learning, teaching, and assessment practises. Moreover, it creates opportunities for intercultural encounters within the local society by fostering purposeful engagement with international students (Beelen, 2011; Leask, 2009).

After justifying the need to adopt internationalisation at home as a sound substitute or complement for the deficient 'regular' internationalisation, the next section demonstrates the mechanisms and achievements of IaH, including pertinent learning theories and competences.

How to Integrate IaH in HEIS

Barrett (2018) categorises the actions to be taken in IaH into two categories. The first is on the individual level concerning the development of ICC in learners. The second and most powerful action takes place on

the institutional level concerning institutional structures, procedures, and policies.

Individual IaH Actions

Internationalisation in higher education has already begun, which has metamorphosed the classrooms into ‘small international spaces where local students’ intercultural skills can be developed’ (Aguilar, 2018, p. 25). To this end, Teekens (2003) declares that classrooms in universities have changed into spaces of exchange between local and foreign students and staff. These classrooms are now seen as fertile environments of internationalisation in which educators can employ several methods and tools to foster their students’ ability to operate on an international level without leaving their home countries. The following are some of these methods and tools:

ICC As a Necessary Competence in IaH

According to Lantz-Deaton (2017), developing ICC should not only be left to the isolated efforts of local and mobile students within internationalisation academic programmes such as Erasmus+. Internationalisation at Home should also be the role of universities through providing intercultural curricular and ‘extra-curricular activities, research, scholarly collaboration, and other external relations’ (Knight, 2004, in Aguilar, 2018, p. 28). A number of studies (Aguilar, 2016; Aguilar, 2018; Bocanegra-Valle, 2015; Planken, 2005; Shaw, 2006) suggest that educators and decision-makers, or curricula and textbook designers, should base their teaching practises on ICC theories and models for the integration of ICC as a learning outcome.

As part of the educational process (teaching and learning), incorporating ICC in various subjects is of paramount necessity. According to Krajka and Marczak (2013), ICC is no longer a fashionable complementary concept, but it has changed its status and place into being obligatory. However, they admit that enhancing ICC at the tertiary level is challenging because of the differences in language proficiency and learners’ expectations. For them, improving ICC depends on the development of other language skills.

Authentic Material

Teachers should prepare and provide opportunities for encounters with other cultures through different techniques such as social media,

tele-collaborative partnerships, e-learning (Liaw, 2006), film, theatre, music, or literature (Han & Song, 2011). What unites these instructive resources is authenticity, as individuals from other cultures produce them. Indeed, Dogancay-Aktuna (2005) assures that when a material is ‘transported from its context of origin and presented to different learner groups, it becomes an example of an intercultural encounter’ (p. 100). Predicting the do’s and don’ts in intercultural situations is no longer suitable for the constantly altering professional world. Therefore, providing authentic cultural materials can empower learners with knowledge, skills, and attitudes to cope with cultural diversity in their professional careers (Sairambekovna Assanova & Ho Kim, 2014).

Various activities may also be assigned to local and international students, such as *comparative teaching*, in which products of other cultures are presented. Thus, learners are aware of their own culture as well as others. *Simulating customs* is another activity in which students enact multicultural professional scenarios in order to learn how to manage cultural differences or conflicts (Barrett et al., 2014).

Cultural Diversity and Intercultural Dialogue in the Classroom

Cultural diversity can be seen as a threat as it may result in several negative social phenomena such as xenophobia, disintegration, alienation, ethnocentrism, eurocentrism, discrimination, racism, stereotyping, and intolerance. In this case, minorities and immigrants will always be seen as threats to the community. However, cultural diversity can be seen as an enrichment for multicultural societies if a certain dialogue occurs between the different ethnic and religious groups within either the same social context or beyond it. Indeed, intercultural dialogue is urgently needed as a powerful tool to erase all the above-mentioned negative consequences of cultural diversity. This kind of dialogue can also be conducted within the walls of the classroom. Therefore, education plays the role of a guided context within which a safe and pedagogic intercultural dialogue takes place. Education sets up rules and conditions to make intercultural dialogue successful. Among the conditions, six fundamental ones are worth suggesting, according to Kochoska (2015), namely: ‘equal dignity of all participants; voluntary engagement in dialogue; a mind-set (on both sides) characterised by openness, curiosity, and commitment; the absence of a desire to “win” the dialogue; a readiness to look at both cultural similarities and differences; a minimum degree of knowledge about the distinguishing fea-

tures of one's own and the "other" culture; and the ability to find a common language for understanding and requesting cultural differences' (p. 3).

Byram et al. (2002) state that by engaging students in discussions over cultural diversity and making them respect the rules of classroom discussions, they prepare them for human rights respect. Moreover, Gudykunst (2005) states that the pedagogical methods that instructors should focus on to promote ICC must have as learning outcomes being aware of one's own cultural identity, recognising cultural differences, and promoting attitudes of respect and openness towards other cultures. Additionally, Byram and Risager (1999) advise language teachers to broaden their understanding of culture beyond 'national culture' (p. 105) or one or two target cultures classically taught (i.e., British or American) in order not to form stereotypical perspectives of cultures.

To this end, there are a number of intercultural activities teachers can employ to help students not only acquire cultural knowledge but also develop intercultural skills and positive attitudes towards other cultures. Providing the groundwork for students to be culturally creative leads them to critical thinking and critical cultural awareness (Council of Europe, 2008).

In this vein, Kochoska (2015) enumerates some of the methods used to develop intercultural dimensions, such as:

- Simulation activities, followed by reflective discussion and/or written analysis;
- Informal face-to-face interaction in hypothetical contact situations;
- Guided group activities;
- Learner diaries;
- Questionnaires;
- Peer teaching;
- Tandem exchanges;
- Local contact with speakers of other languages;
- Cross-cultural study projects;
- Reports;
- Oral presentations;
- Ethnographic projects.

Transformative Learning

Taylor (1994) links transformative learning theory and intercultural competence by explaining the growing interest in ICC as a result of the growing interdependence of the world. This interdependence necessitates interculturally competent individuals. He also preaches the belief in education (teaching and learning) in the development of ICC. Recognising this educational aspect of ICC can help settle an official pedagogical policy for ICC. He therefore explains the link between transformative learning and ICC. For him, learning should be based on three dimensions: *perspective transformation*, *intercultural transformation*, and *intercultural competence*. These dimensions are also interdependent. Indeed, a transformation in one's own perspective or attitude can lead to a transformation in intercultural attitudes, and vice versa. Consequently, the development of both of them leads to the transformation of intercultural competence.

Institutional Actions for I a H

Implementing I a H in the educational context can be done through institutional actions, namely the integration of ICC in formal curricula and instructive textbooks as an officially recognised learning objective. They also comprise legislation against any embodiment of racism, intolerance, or discrimination.

Solid Ground of Legislation

Among school institutional policies that can efficiently develop students' intercultural competence is the adoption of a culturally inclusive curriculum. The term inclusive means including cultural variety within instructional resources. This cultural variety is essentially based on the integration of cultural practices and beliefs of minority groups or an equal distribution of lessons and contributions to the whole organisation of the curricula (Nieto, 2000). It has been proven that including minority groups' practices and beliefs in the curriculum plays a great role in developing students' openness and respect for other marginalised group members from an early age (Camarota, 2007; Sleeter, 2011). Thus, this environment of equality and stress-free dialogue would certainly result in the engagement of learners in intercultural communication. As an example of European social political and educational stakeholders putting forth five consignments within the White Paper (Council of Europe, 2008),

- The democratic governance of intercultural diversity should be adapted;
- Democratic citizenship and participation should be strengthened;
- Intercultural competences should be taught and learned;
- Spaces for intercultural dialogue should be created and widened;
- Intercultural dialogue should be taken to the international level.

The ultimate goal of these consignments is the construction of a solid European identity based essentially on shared values and respect for heritage and cultural diversity. This latter is seen as a strength rather than a weakness. Intercultural dialogue is at the heart of communication among members of different, not conflicting, cultural groups.

Training Faculty and Administrative Staff

Moreover, training in intercultural communication should be further expanded and made obligatory for all administrative staff. In the same vein, intercultural training for teachers is necessary in order for them not only to promote ICC in their students but also to be themselves tolerable and open to all their students. Teachers should be prepared via pre-service and in-service training for the aforementioned actions, whether based on intergroup contact, pedagogical approaches, or school institutional policies. They should ensure that they are interculturally competent on an equal footing with their familiarity with the methods and approaches used to develop their students' ICC.

Inter-Group Contact through Cooperative and Collaborative Learning

Barrett (2018) enumerates several actions that schools can take in order to internationalise learners at home. The first category of actions is based on inter-group contact, namely encouraging intercultural friendship, which is based on the contact hypothesis. For Pettigrew and Tropp (2006) 'Intergroup contact can reduce prejudice towards people from other cultural groups.' Cooperative and collaborative learning is the context in which this intercultural contact may happen in a fluid way. Collaboration means that students have equal opportunities to express their thoughts and make decisions. Dovidio et al. (2011) explain the fact that indirect contact is also effective in reducing prejudice. Among the indirect forms of contact are 'extended contact' (i.e., when an in-group member builds a relationship with an out-group member),

‘vicarious contact’ (i.e., observing an in-group member communicating with an out-group member), and ‘imagined contact’ (i.e., imagining oneself interacting with an out-group member). Turner and Cameron (2016) insist on the possibility of translating these forms of indirect contact into concrete classroom activities.

Aguilar (2018) declares that there are some increasingly popular practices meant to internationalise education in Europe and anywhere else in the world. Among these areas of interest are English-medium instruction (EMI) and the emphasis on developing intercultural communicative competence (ICC).

Service Learning

Engaging whole schools in community links and partnerships may involve students in service learning projects by inviting visitors of different cultural backgrounds to come into contact with students (Barrett, 2018). Jackson (2014) explores the potential of such contacts for the enhancement of students’ intercultural competence and offers detailed guidance to them. Similarly, Bringle (2017) and Rauschert and Byram (2017) insist on the potential of engaging students, especially those in higher education, into service learning projects. These are efficiently used to enhance participants’ self-efficacy, dealing with the community, and cultural awareness and tolerance of others.

Intercultural Pedagogical Approaches

Furthermore, schools can contribute to developing students’ intercultural competence through actions based on pedagogical approaches such as encouraging students to reflect critically on their intercultural experiences and cultural affiliations and belonging (Alfred et al., 2003; Byram et al., 2017; Abid & Moalla, 2020). This can be possible through their *Autobiographies of Intercultural Encounters* (AIE) (Byram et al., 2009) and the *Autobiography of Intercultural Encounters through Visual Media* (AIEVM) (Barrett et al., 2013). Both tools offer a systematic, organised set of questions that serve as guidance for the students in their critical reflection on their own intercultural experiences (in the case of AIE) and on the cultural ‘other’ in visual media such as television, films, newspapers, and magazines. A third and more modern pedagogical tool is reflecting on the intercultural encounters that students experience within the realm of social media (Barrett, 2018). Lindner and Méndez García (2017) claimed that AIE and AIEVM proved to be effec-

tive in developing students' critical cultural thinking, awareness, and perspective-taking abilities.

Cooperative Learning

Cooperative learning is the second facet of the pedagogical approaches taken by schools. It proved to be efficient in developing students' intercultural competence (Johnson, 2003; Johnson 2009). Johnson (2003) and Johnson (2009) deny the fact that collaborative learning means mere group or pair work but explain that it requires a structured cooperative task in which students are engaged. Cooperative learning features are thus summarised in *positive interdependence* (i.e., the success of the group depends on the links within group members), *individual accountability* (i.e., assessment of the group and individual), *promotive interaction* (i.e., students help, share, and encourage each other for the collective benefit of the group), *appropriate use of social skills* (skills for high-quality cooperation such as decision-making, trust building, communication, and conflict-management skills), and group processing (i.e., reflecting on the group's strategic functioning and relationships). Cooperative learning engages students in commitment to the individual as well as group success and achievement of goals. One can imagine the benefits if members of groups are culturally different.

Project-Based Learning

Equally important is the exploration of project-based learning in enhancing students' intercultural competence (Cook & Weaving, 2013; Trilling & Fadel, 2009). Projects vary from short to long. They are principally based on real-world situations or tasks in which students are guided throughout the different phases of the project and the final product is presented.

Inclusive Pedagogical Approaches

Equally critical is the adoption of generally inclusive approaches. These can go beyond inclusive learning content. They are essentially related to 'methods, leadership, governance, school-decision-making structures and policies, codes of behaviour, interpersonal relationships, extra-curricular activities, and external links to the community that are based on the valuing of diversity' (Barrett, 2018, p. 101). It is believed that respecting others' practises and values can be possible through

celebrating inclusive cultural and religious festivities and holiday customs. Within the same philosophy of inclusiveness, Jata (2015) suggests that, besides engaging students in research about other cultures, the cultural component should be part of exams, which not only encourages students to know more about other cultures but also provides teachers with enough data to assess students' learning.

1aH As a HEI Strategy and Action Plan

1aH should not be developed as 'another' activity but has to be integrated into the university's strategic plan in order to get the most out of it. It should be based on the intention of policymakers, management, and staff to integrate the international dimension into the overall policy of the institution. In other words, it should be a deliberate, not passive, process, hence translated into actions at different levels (management, academic and administrative staff, students) and areas (education, research, society). It should not be a purpose in itself but a tool to improve the quality of teaching and learning within institutions. 1aH should therefore meet the needs of every society. Consequently, every university should have a strategy of Internationalisation at Home, and because this latter is based on intercultural sensitivity and communication, cultures should be valued for what they add to the global citizenry. It is also an overall process that involves every stakeholder in the institution: students, academic and administrative staff, and management. In this sense, inclusiveness is the basis for every successful 1aH strategy. Furthermore, it should be an ongoing process to guarantee the sustainability of its outcomes.

Conclusion

As has been demonstrated in the current chapter, internationalisation at Home (1aH) can be employed as a counteraction against the challenges that may emerge within 'regular' internationalisation. Thus, it can be used as a substitute measure in times of global crises and the impossibility of physical mobility for local students or as a complementary component within the overall realm of HEIS internationalisation strategy.

1aH can be possible through a multitude of individual and institutional actions that range from collaborative, transformative, and project-based learning to the inclusion of ICC as an officially recognised learning objective within HEIS curricular and extracurricular

activities to efficient regulations adapted within a well-constructed, contextualised, and inclusive strategy of IaH. In this line, an urgent compromise between higher education stakeholders and policymakers is considered necessary to make IaH a tangible reality within HEIS worldwide.

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Chapter Two

Internationalisation at Home by Emphasising the International Aspect of Formal and Informal Curricula

Pola Nagy

Heliopolis University, Egypt
pola.nagy@hu.edu.eg

Menna Kamel

Heliopolis University, Egypt
menna.kamel@hu.edu.eg

Purpose The purpose of the current chapter is to study the integration of internationalisation at home (IaH) components in the university's strategic plans, promote intercultural dialogue, and develop a global mind-set.

Study approach Virtual/Physical classes, Soft/Hard copy study materials, Group discussion/brainstorming, Interactive reports from the students

Findings The current chapter tackles the theoretical and practical sides of internationalisation at home (IaH), which should be an on-going process to guarantee the sustainability of its outcomes.

Originality/value IaH offers all students, without exception, global perspectives and a modern, fair, and inclusive international society.

Introduction

The concept of internationalisation at home developed in Europe during the late 1990s. It arose as an alternative to studying abroad, which was being widely promoted at the time through the Erasmus mobility programme. The University of Malmö (Sweden) was without a partner network in 1998 and so could not send students abroad. Therefore, international and intercultural learning opportunities were sought locally in the city by Vice President for International Affairs, Bengt Nilsson, also known as the father of internationalisation at home. There-

fore, the main purpose of this chapter is to generalise the concept of internationalisation at home in the curriculum to make the best use of the study approaches of higher education at the institution level. Therefore, we will discuss three main pillars: internationalisation at home from a general perspective; global skills development in local contexts; and internationalisation of the curriculum: challenges, misconceptions, and the role of disciplines.

What Is Internationalisation at Home?

Synonyms and Related Concepts

There are no synonyms for internationalisation at home. Internationalisation of the curriculum is a related but broader concept, and in fact, the two terms are often used interchangeably. However, the key difference is that internationalisation at home is limited to the domestic learning environment, while internationalisation of the curriculum may include mobility (Leask, 2015). Other terms often used in similar contexts include the international classroom, which emphasises intercultural learning in diverse classroom settings, and the virtual classroom, for example, through collaborative online international learning (COIL) or other international and intercultural engagement using digital media. In the USA context, internationalisation at home has been considered a key element of comprehensive internationalisation while sharing characteristics with campus internationalisation.

Definitions

Internationalisation at home was first defined in 2001 as ‘any internationally related activity with the exception of outbound student and staff mobility’ (Crowther et al., 2001, p. 8). It was redefined in 2015 as ‘the purposeful integration of international and intercultural dimensions into the formal and informal curriculum for all students within domestic learning environments’ (Beelen and Jones, 2015, p. 76).

Development

As a result of the initiative in Malmö, a Special Interest Group was formed within the European Association for International Education (EAIE), which published a position paper in 2001, a special issue of the *Journal of Studies in International Education* (Volume 7, Issue 1), and organised a conference in 2003. The EAIE started delivering training courses on internationalisation at home in 2006 and published a

toolkit in 2007 (Beelen, 2007). One of the members of this group was Josef Mestenhauser (1925–2015), who advocated a systemic approach to internationalisation by stressing that international and intercultural dimensions should be integrated into teaching and learning in order to have an effect (Mestenhauser, 2006).

Positive and Negative Views of Internationalisation at Home

Internationalisation at home has been called merely a movement (Brandenburg & De Wit, 2011, p. 16) and an activist network (Rizvi, 2007, p. 391). It has been criticised for focusing on means rather than aims and shifting into instrumental mode for a tendency to focus on activity and not results as indicators of quality (Whitsed & Green, 2013) or pretending to be guided by high moral principles while not actively pursuing them (De Wit & Beelen, 2014). It stands out as a western concept and has therefore been approached with criticism by African scholars (Brewer & Leask, 2012, p. 247).

However, internationalisation at home has been favourably received as it offers international and intercultural dimensions of teaching and learning to all students, including those who do not have the opportunity or the wherewithal to study abroad. As the changing global environment increasingly requires all students to have a personal and professional understanding of the international and intercultural aspects of their field of study, internationalisation at home has grown in importance alongside the notion of internationalised curriculum more generally.

Recent studies, such as the Erasmus impact study (European Commission, 2014), have confirmed that student mobility leads to the acquisition of transversal or employability skills valued by employers. At the same time, these studies have focused on the need for home curricula to ensure that the non-mobile majority of students also acquire these skills (Jones, 2013, 2016).

Characteristics

Internationalisation at home differs according to discipline and context and makes use of a range of international and intercultural learning opportunities in and around the university. In this respect, it aligns with the internationalisation of the curriculum, but it differs by limiting itself to the local context and not including education abroad. Internationalisation at home is not a didactic concept in itself, but it makes

use of existing teaching and learning methods, such as collaborative and experiential learning. Just as with the internationalisation of the curriculum, cases and perspectives from domestic and international contexts become an everyday part of the learning environment. Guest lectures offer alternative cultural and national perspectives, as does engagement with local cultural groups. The diversity of the student body (which may or may not include international students) can be used as a tool to encourage and foster learning through cross-cultural interaction. As noted above, online collaboration is increasingly deployed to create virtual international and intercultural classrooms (Beelen & Jones, 2018).

Dissemination

Partly through the activities of the Special Interest Group within EAIE, the concept of internationalisation at home found early resonance across Europe, particularly in the Nordic countries, the Netherlands, and Flanders. In countries with more widely-spoken languages, such as France, Germany, and Italy, the uptake has been slower. In 2013, the European Commission included internationalisation at home in its educational policies (European Commission, 2013). Beyond Europe, networks for international education have played a significant role in the dissemination of internationalisation at home and the internationalisation of the curriculum. The International Education Association of Australia (IEAA) founded a special interest group on internationalisation of the curriculum in 2005. The International Education Association of South Africa (IEASA) did the same in 2012. In Latin America, the Columbus Network facilitated online training on internationalisation at home for its members from a range of Latin American countries in 2012 and 2015. The Brazilian Association for International Education (FAUBAI) started offering pre-conference workshops on internationalisation at home in 2013. The Mexican Association for International Education (AMPEI) did the same. These networks are connected and collaborate through conference sessions and joint publications.

Current Issues and Challenges

A number of misconceptions pose key obstacles to the implementation of internationalisation at home, including:

- Internationalisation at home means teaching in English;

- International students are needed to internationalise teaching and learning;
- Internationalisation at home is the second-best option for non-mobile students;
- Internationalisation at home serves to prepare students for mobility;
- The main purpose of internationalisation at home is to accommodate international students;
- Offering internationalisation in electives for a minority of students constitutes internationalisation at home.

Some of these obstacles are shared with internationalisation of the curriculum more broadly, and one in particular is that academics lack the skills to internationalise teaching and learning since they have not been sufficiently trained in curriculum development and teaching methodology. While many universities include internationalisation at home in their policies, very few offer professional development that enables academics to tackle the complex task of internationalising teaching, learning, and assessment. A main challenge is therefore to create the circumstances in which academics are supported and encouraged in their internationalisation efforts (Beelen & Jones, 2018).

Global Skills Development in Local Contexts

Global competence is the capacity to analyse global and intercultural issues critically and from multiple perspectives, to understand how differences affect perceptions, judgements, and ideas of self and others, and to engage in open, appropriate, and effective interactions with others from different backgrounds on the basis of a shared respect for human dignity.

Global competence is much more than a skill, since it is a combination of knowledge, skills, attitudes, and values successfully applied to face-to-face, virtual or mediated encounters with people from different cultural backgrounds. Therefore, the need for global competence is fourfold, namely:

- to live harmoniously in multicultural communities,
- to thrive in a changing global market,
- to use media platforms effectively and responsibly, and
- to support Sustainable Development Goals.

Four Dimensions of Global Competence According to PISA:

The four dimensions of global competence, according to PISA, are:

- Examine issues of local, global and cultural significance;
- Understand and appreciate the perspectives and world views of others;
- Engage in open, appropriate, and effective interactions across cultures;
- Take action for collective well-being and sustainable development.

The four dimensions of global competence are supported by four inseparable factors: knowledge, skills, attitudes, and values.

Knowledge

It is the knowledge of global issues that affect lives locally and around the globe, as well as intercultural knowledge, which means knowledge about the similarities, differences, and relations between cultures. Knowledge about environmental issues, socio-economic development, and interdependence.

Skills

To understand the world and take action. A globally competent student should be able to:

- reason with information,
- communicate effectively and respectfully,
- take perspective: understand how people feel and think and step into someone else's shoes,
- approach conflicts in a constructive manner,
- adopt one's thinking and behaviours to the prevailing cultural environment.

Attitudes

Attitudes refer to the mind-set that an individual adopts towards a person, a group, an institution, an issue, a behaviour, or a symbol. This mind-set integrates beliefs, evaluations, feelings, and tendencies to behave in a particular way. Globally competent behaviour requires an attitude of openness towards people from other cultural backgrounds,

an attitude of respect for cultural differences, and an attitude of global mindedness.

Values

Values go beyond attitudes and transcend specific objects or situations. In this way, values serve as standards and criteria that people use both consciously and unconsciously in their judgements. They have a normative, prescriptive quality about what ought to be done or thought in different situations. Values, therefore, motivate certain behaviours and attitudes.

Therefore, a globally competent student can:

- examine local, global, and intercultural issues,
- understand and appreciate different perspectives and worldviews,
- interact successfully and respectfully with others,
- take responsible action towards sustainability and collective well-being.

Skills That Teachers Can Develop to Ensure Student Success in International Teams

It is believed that teachers have a global and important role in supporting their students throughout their successful integration into international teams. This can be made possible by creating a favourable environment for skill development. These skills are mainly related to the ability to communicate effectively and respectfully with people from different cultural backgrounds.

Valuing Diversity

Accepting and respecting differences, different cultural backgrounds and customs, different ways of communicating and different traditions and values.

Being Culturally Self-Aware Culture-the sum total of an individual's experiences, knowledge, skills, beliefs, values, and interests-shapes educators' sense of who they are and where they fit in their family, school, community, and society.

Dynamics of Difference Knowing what can go wrong in cross-cultural communication and how to respond to these situations.

Knowledge of Students' Culture Educators must have some base knowledge of their students' cultures so that student behaviours can be understood in their proper cultural context.

Institutionalised Cultural Knowledge and Adapt to Diversity Culturally competent educators and their institutions can take a step further by institutionalising cultural knowledge in order to adapt to diversity and better serve diverse populations. By developing these skills, educators are able to make their students understand global issues by adopting specific techniques such as (Erasmus+, 2019):

- recognising outside influences on perspectives and worldviews,
- understanding how to communicate with others in intercultural contexts,
- identifying and comparing different courses of action to address global and intercultural issues,
- discovering the inequalities that exist in access to education for global competence between and within countries,
- preparing students to interact respectfully across cultures

Internationalisation of the Curriculum: Challenges, Misconceptions, and the Role of Disciplines

The Importance of Internationalising the Curriculum

It can be said that internationalisation is no longer optional for higher education but a vital marker for institutional quality, and key to preparing our students for living and working in today's globalised world. It is also argued that internationalisation of the curriculum is the most important factor for institutions wishing to internationalise (Hochschulrektorenkonferenz, 2017; Jones, 2017b; Leask, 2015). As a rationale for this, Temmerman (2016) gives a succinct summary: 'The changing, shrinking world demands we have the knowledge and capacities to engage internationally. These shared global challenges require all young people to learn how to successfully work and live together. Increased mobility and global interdependence demand greater appreciation and tolerance. The demands on young people to be globally aware, international in their outlook, able to recognise and work with diversity, and to have work and life experiences that enhance their capacity to perform internationally are only going to increase.' As universities become

progressively more diverse, with local students from a range of multicultural backgrounds alongside growing numbers of international students, the inter-relationship between internationalisation and diversity in domestic populations is gradually becoming recognised (Jones, 2017a; Killick, 2017; Olson et al., 2007). It has even been argued that responding to the diversity of international students and responding to the diversity of home students are, in fact, not two agendas but one (Jones & Killick, 2007, p. 110). Yet, Caruana and Ploner (2010, p. 9) claim that all too often internationalisation and E & D [Equality and Diversity] manifest as two separate and unrelated discourses in universities. With such diversity in domestic populations, the traditional distinction between international and domestic students may be increasingly difficult to sustain, and so curriculum internationalisation takes on an even more important role, argues Jones (2017b, p. 4): 'All the more reason, therefore, to consider students as the ultimate beneficiaries of higher education [who] should be at the heart of our efforts to internationalise.'

The central focus on students, as well as the need to ensure that internationalisation should be the core of all programmes, are recognised in the recently published guidelines on curriculum internationalisation in German higher education (Hochschulrektorenkonferenz, 2017):

In order to qualify students for active and (literally) self-confident participation in a world networked across national borders, curricula that are at their core international are required [...] The consistent internationalisation of the study programmes [...] offers the possibility to locate international elements not only at selected points of study, but to create space for a continuous examination of international and intercultural learning content during the course of university studies in Germany.

Thus, in summary, when they graduate, all students will live and work in an increasingly interconnected, globalised world, both as professionals and as citizens. Similarly, if we are to solve major global problems, the crossing of boundaries using international and intercultural knowledge, communication skills, and critical thinking will be essential. It will also require a commitment to ethical practices, global responsibility, and an understanding of and respect for cultural others, regardless of their origin. For these and many other reasons, we owe it

to our students to offer an internationalised and interculturalism' curriculum in the relatively safe space for debate represented by higher education.

The Meaning of 'Curriculum'

Prior to considering internationalisation of the curriculum, we need a shared understanding of the term curriculum itself. In some quarters, there has been a tendency to think only of a formalised version of the curriculum, effectively a syllabus of work that can be written down, delivered, and assessed. Thus, Pratt (1980) defined curriculum as a written document that systematically describes goals planned, objectives, content, learning activities, evaluation procedures, and so forth.

In contrast, Leask (2015), in her seminal work on internationalising the curriculum, sees the curriculum in practise as inseparable from teaching and pedagogy [and] the processes by which we, as educators, select and order content, decide on and describe intended learning outcomes, organise learning activities, and assess learner achievement as being part of the curriculum (Leask, 2015, pp. 7–8). This is a much broader understanding of the term, and Leask (2015) expands on this by defining three dimensions of curriculum:

- *Formal curriculum.* The syllabus as well as the orderly, planned schedule of experiences and activities that students must undertake as part of their degree program. Informal curriculum: The various support services and additional activities and options organised by the university and students' associations that are not assessed and do not form part of the formal curriculum, although they may support learning within it. It includes formal mentoring programmes, peer assisted study sessions, and organised social activities, clubs, and societies.
- *Hidden curriculum.* The various unintended, implicit, and hidden messages sent to students, and messages we may not even be aware we are sending. For example, the textbooks that are selected send a hidden message concerning whose knowledge counts in this curriculum and, by implication, whose does not (Leask, 2015, p. 8) In essence, we can think of the formal curriculum as the assessed elements of our programmes and the informal curriculum as the non-assessed aspects of students' experiences, which are nevertheless arranged or supported by the institution. Both for-

mal and informal curricula are able to be internationalised, and in designing our programmes, we must also recognise the hidden curricula. UNESCO identifies hidden curriculum as, the unintended development of personal values and beliefs of learners, teachers, and communities; the unexpected impact of a curriculum; and unforeseen aspects of a learning process (UNESCO, n.d.). Some examples of hidden curriculum in a university context include whose knowledge we are privileged to use in making decisions on the design of the formal curriculum; mistakenly scheduling exams on high feast days for certain religions; or the implicit elements of academic culture and expectations in a given subject area or institution that we do not make explicit to students.

Having clarified the notion of curriculum, it is time to consider how it can be internationalised.

Internationalisation of the Formal Curriculum

Some Misconceptions

In Western Europe, there has been a tendency to think of curriculum internationalisation as linked either to student mobility or the presence of international students in a classroom. More recently, the focus has shifted to include programme delivery in English or separate internationalised courses, modules, or units available as electives within a programme. All of these may be included but, in isolation, do not constitute internationalisation of the curriculum since instead they represent means of delivering it. Regarding programme delivery in English

For example, as Beelen and Jones (2015, p. 64) put it, 'simply providing a programme in English is insufficient for it to be considered an internationalised curriculum. If the programme content and learning outcomes are not internationalised and remain the same as in the original language, merely changing the language of instruction will not make them so.'

We have seen in Section 1 that internationalisation is important for all students, so we need to reach them all, not simply the mobile minority or those who choose certain international elective options. Furthermore, diversity of perspective in the classroom will not arise simply because of the mere presence of international students. Effective and authentic interaction will not necessarily happen without appropriate intervention by the tutor. Internationalisation of the curriculum

is more than simply engaging in a series of tactics or student activities or hoping that it will happen by bringing together people from different backgrounds. Instead, it requires us to use student learning outcomes and their assessment purposefully and in a consistent way across the programme as a whole. It will look different in different discipline fields (Clifford, 2009; Leask, 2015) and in different institutions.

Leask's Work on Internationalisation of the Curriculum

Leask (2015) offers a conceptual framework (Figure 2.1) to help in understanding how the global, national/regional, local, and institutional contexts frame the disciplinary context for curriculum internationalisation. This is seen in the lower half of the figure, where knowledge in and across disciplines is central and therefore at the heart of the process. The upper half of the framework reflects the curriculum design process within a given discipline. Leask (2015) argues that curriculum decisions are not value-free, and so the framework sections, (a) Requirements of professional practise and citizenship; (b) Assessment of student learning; and (c) Systematic development across the programme in all students, are seen through the lens of dominant and emerging paradigms within the discipline.

Leask offers definitions for both the process of curriculum internationalisation and the resulting product, that is, an internationalised curriculum (2009, p. 209; see Figure 2.1):

- *Process.* Internationalisation of the curriculum is the incorporation of an international and intercultural dimension into the content of the curriculum as well as the teaching and learning arrangements and support services of a programme of study.
- *Product.* An internationalised curriculum will engage students with internationally informed research and cultural and linguistic diversity and purposefully develop their international and intercultural perspectives as global professionals and citizens.

Global Perspectives

Another way of looking at internationalisation of the formal curriculum is that it will offer students global perspectives on their chosen discipline and consider the global impact or influence of that discipline, while developing their cross-cultural capability or intercultural competence. Jackson (2012) describes globally competent students as those

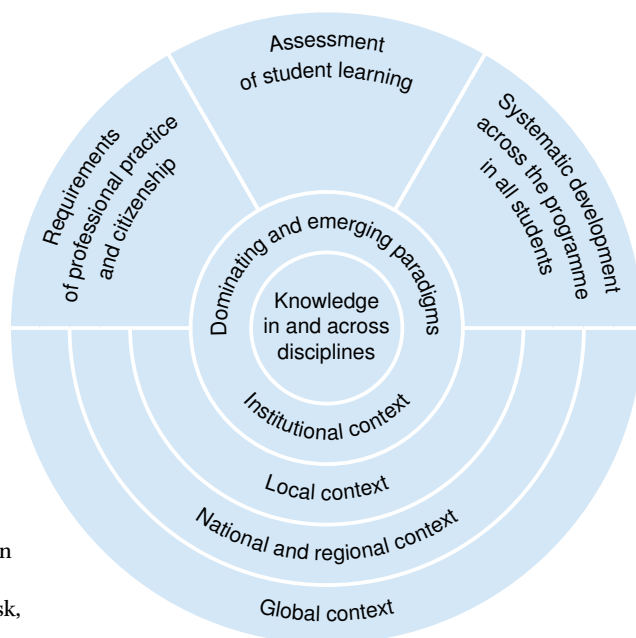


FIGURE 2.1
A Conceptual
Framework of
Internationalisation
of the Curriculum
(adapted from Leask,
2015, p. 27)

who are able to formulate and explore globally significant questions and create a coherent response that considers multiple perspectives and draws useful and defensible conclusions. They should also recognise that they have a particular perspective and that others may or may not share it. They should be able to articulate and explain the perspectives of others and compare them with their own to construct a new point of view. They should see themselves as capable of making a difference and be able to recognise opportunities in which they may do so. They should be able to weigh options based on evidence and insight, assess the potential effects, and act and reflect on the consequences of their actions. As Leask's model (Figure 2.1) points out, when considering such points in a disciplinary context, it is obvious that these questions, responses, options, and perspectives will vary depending on the subject of study. An understanding of cultural and national contexts and their influence on practice within a given discipline is an important element of an internationalised curriculum. Equally, issues of sustainability, ethical or environmental issues, and the global impact of or on the discipline arise as key considerations.

Understanding the influence of cultural background on values and

actions is important personally as well as professionally because a central role of curriculum internationalisation is to enable graduates of the discipline to both live and work in a multicultural society. The term global citizenship is sometimes used to denote such knowledge, skills, and attitudes. Oxfam, a globally renowned aid and development charity, sees the global citizen as someone who: 'Is aware of the wider world and has a sense of their own role as a world citizen, respects and values diversity, has an understanding of how the world works, is passionately committed to social justice, participates in the community at a range of levels, from the local to the global, works with others to make the world a more equitable and sustainable place; and takes responsibility for their actions' (Oxfam, 2015, p. 5).

However, Global Citizenship is a contested term. Competing arguments largely relate to the question of whether citizenship can refer to anything other than national status and, therefore, whether or not it is suitable for use in this context.

Intercultural Competence

Intercultural competence, cross-cultural capability, and cultural fluency are just a few of the several terms used to describe this concept (for a longer list of terms, see Fantini, 2009). The development of such competence is an important outcome of an internationalised curriculum. It does not mean knowledge of a single other culture, but being able to operate effectively across cultures. An intercultural situation has been described as one in which the cultural distance between the participants is significant enough to have an effect on interaction/communication that is noticeable to at least one of the parties (Spencer-Oatey & Franklin, 2009, p. 3).

Spitzberg & Changnon (2009) offer a useful review of the field, while Deardorff and Arasaratnam-Smith (2017) incorporate case studies from 29 countries around the world to elucidate the issues and considerations.

A number of studies have suggested that universities fail to maximise the opportunities offered by international and intercultural diversity on campus (Harrison & Peacock, 2010; Leask, 2009; Montgomery, 2010; Summers & Volet, 2008; Thom, 2010; Volet & Ang, 1998). However, other studies have reported on attempts to help students learn about cultural differences and see the world from their perspectives. In some cases, they have used ethnographic techniques to support the development

of intercultural competence during study abroad by making the familiar seem strange and challenging values, assumptions, and stereotypes (Russell & Vallade, 2010; Weber-Bosley, 2010).

Internationalisation of the Informal Curriculum

Internationalisation of the informal curriculum will be reflected in a campus culture that celebrates and values cultural diversity (Jones, 2013). Messages communicated by university leadership, visible representations of internationalisation across the campus, activities and events organised by campus services, and even the mindset of people involved in those services can all reinforce an international orientation and may be the main route for its delivery. Examples might include notices and signs in a range of languages; flags prominently displayed from the countries represented by international students; a choice of different kinds of international foods in the university's restaurants, or student associations, clubs, and societies with an international orientation, such as culture clubs, which celebrate certain countries or cultures and may provide a route to stimulate further interest in them.

Other informal curriculum activities may be more academic in focus, such as student mentoring or buddy systems, international seminars, exhibitions, or public lectures, open international film or music seasons, or celebrations of languages and cultures.

Internationalisation of the informal curriculum is also an important means of delivering internationalisation at home, defined as the purposeful integration of international and intercultural dimensions into the formal and informal curriculum for all students within domestic learning environments (Beelen & Jones, 2015).

While the informal curriculum is not assessed and does not attract credit, some universities offer informal recognition of extra-curricular activities through the Diploma Supplement, and/or a separate award (examples in the UK include the universities of Bath, Leeds, and Plymouth). These can easily be modified to inspire an international orientation through points gained for language study, international student buddying or mentoring, extracurricular study abroad, international volunteering, or other activities that reflect global mindedness (for example, the Global Leadership Programme at Macquarie University, Sydney). One example of an innovative buddy system at the University of South Australia, Business Mates, paired an international and a domestic student to work with a group of international and Australian

students joining the Business School. The pair had a small budget and were able to design their own orientation programmes, which, given the pairing, had both an international and a more local focus. The result was enhanced engagement and student satisfaction in comparison with a control group in another faculty (Leask, 2010).

Internationalising the Formal Curriculum within Disciplines

The central role of the disciplines in curriculum internationalisation has been mentioned throughout this chapter and is considered, amidst others, in the edited collection by Green and Whitsed (2015). Additional insight into the role of disciplines is offered by an international study of teachers on a programme from the same university but delivered on different continents (Clifford, 2009). Clifford (2009) found that the hard, pure disciplines were more resistant to engaging in the discourse of internationalisation, while others recognised the importance of contextualization for students in different locations. In a similar vein, Jones and Killick (2013, p. 167) argue that a truly transformative approach to IOC must be firmly grounded in the local institutional and disciplinary contexts. It seems clear that engaging staff at the disciplinary level is the key to success if we wish to internationalise learning outcomes, incorporate international content to offer global perspectives on the field of study, and adopt an inclusive approach to teaching and assessment practice.

Examples of what internationalisation means for different science disciplines are suggested by a series of publications from the Development Education Centre at the Institute of Education, University College London: Engineering (Bourn & Neal, 2008); Medicine (Blum et al., 2012); Veterinary Sciences (Maud et al., 2012), and Pharmacy (Murdan et al., 2014). The reports emphasise the global role of these professions and form a useful basis for discussions on curriculum internationalisation at a disciplinary level.

A recent recommendation on curriculum internationalisation was developed by a working group for the Hochschulrektorenkonferenz (German Rectors' Conference) in Germany (Hochschulrektorenkonferenz, 2017). The Hochschulrektorenkonferenz is the association of public and government-recognised universities and other higher education institutions, which functions as the voice of universities in dialogue with politicians and the public. As such, it is the central forum for opinion-forming in the German higher education sector, so their recommendations can be very influential. This is probably the first time

that a national organisation of this kind has developed curriculum internationalisation guidelines, although examples exist from other kinds of bodies for internationalisation more generally. These include those in the UK (Higher Education Academy, 2014), the USA (American Council on Education, n.d.), and in Australia on technical and further education (Western Australia, Department of Training, 1996).

The Hochschulrektorenkonferenz recognises the important role of disciplines and so has supplemented the main document with perspectives from a range of different fields, including Medicine, Engineering, Natural Sciences, Humanities, and Liberal Arts (Hochschulrektorenkonferenz, 2017). Observations and objectives reflect the German context for these disciplines and attempt to locate an understanding of curriculum internationalisation which may be more tangible for subject academics than the generic recommendations of the overarching document (Jones, 2017b).

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Chapter Three

Digital Storytelling as Didactical Approach to Encourage Multicultural Thinking

Nada Trunk Širca

University of Primorska, International School for Social and Business Studies, and EMUNI, Slovenia
nada.trunk@emuni.si

Anica Novak Trunk

EMUNI, International School for Social and Business Studies, and DITR, Slovenia
anicanovak@yahoo.co.uk

Dorsaf Ben Malek

Virtual University of Tunis, Tunisia
dorsaf.benmalek@uvt.tn

Purpose The purpose of the current chapter is to present digital storytelling as a potentially promising didactical tool to develop the multicultural mindset of local and international students.

Study design/methodology/approach In this chapter, we will proceed by exploring digital storytelling as a tool for learning, studying its characteristics and elements, and presenting its educational uses.

Findings It is believed that digital storytelling is the tool that should be put forth in order to develop local and international students as global citizens by fostering their multicultural thinking.

Originality/value The value of the current chapter lies in its serious endeavour to provide novel avenues to develop local and international students' 21st-century skills and multicultural thinking.

Introduction

Despite storytelling's use in formal and informal education in the past, the application of digital technologies gains importance in modern educational technology. Digital storytelling can provide one of the most relevant learning experiences; it can be a powerful tool for creating more engaging and exciting learning experiences. Most importantly,

digital storytelling has the potential to involve learners as knowledge creators in the learning process, rather than passive receivers of information (Lugmayr et al., 2016). By incorporating digital storytelling into their lessons, educators can help students develop the skills they need to succeed in the digital age. In higher education, digital storytelling is becoming more popular. Thus, the intent of the current chapter is to present digital storytelling as a potentially promising didactical tool to develop the multicultural mindset of local and international students. Therefore, we will proceed by exploring digital storytelling as a tool for learning, studying its characteristics and elements, and presenting its educational uses, especially those in relation to 21st-century skills and multicultural thinking.

Digital Storytelling As a Tool for Learning

In educational settings, teachers and students (from kindergarten through graduate school) are creating digital stories on every topic imaginable, from art to zoology and numerous content areas in between. Digital storytelling has also become a worldwide phenomenon, with practitioners from across the globe creating digital stories to integrate technology into the classroom, support language learning, facilitate discussion, increase social presence, and support the design of e-learning applications and curriculum development. In addition, in adult learning, personal stories can be used to make content more interesting (Robin, 2016; Lugmayr et al., 2016).

As discussed in Kaya & Mayis (2018), digital storytelling can bring many qualities that cannot be achieved through traditional storytelling in an educational setting, namely:

- Students are actively involved in the process of digital storytelling;
- Students discover themselves in the process of creating a digital story;
- Students use technology effectively.

Digital Storytelling has become a powerful instructional tool for both students and educators. It allows students and teachers to bring multimedia, video, painting, art, music, and sound effects together and tell their stories. Digital storytelling in education is a tool that supports learning, promotes cooperation, improves decision-making processes, brings together formal and informal learning processes, and

provides students with active participation in the learning process.

There are many definitions of what a digital story is. They all coincide in pointing out that digital stories combine traditional means of telling a story with different types of digital multimedia: images, audio, and video (graphics, text, recorded audio narration, video, and music to present information on a specific topic). These multimedia elements are blended together using computer software to tell a story that usually revolves around a specific theme or topic and often contains a particular point of view. Most digital stories are just a few minutes long and are saved in a digital format that can be viewed on a computer or other device capable of playing video files. In addition, digital stories are typically uploaded to the internet, where they may be viewed through any popular web browser (Robin, 2016). Helen Barrett (2004) defines digital storytelling as a ‘modern expression of the ancient art of storytelling.’

Characteristics and Elements of Digital Storytelling

Lambert, 2007 and Robin, 2011 gave an overview of the main elements of digital storytelling:

1. *Point of view*: What is the perspective of the author?
2. *A dramatic question*: A question that will be answered by the end of the story.
3. *Emotional content*: Serious issues that speak to us in a personal and powerful way.
4. *The gift of your Voice*: A way to personalise the story to help the audience understand the context.
5. *The power of the soundtrack*: Music or other sounds that support the storyline.
6. *Economy*: Simply put, using just enough content to tell the story without overloading the viewer with too much information.
7. *Pacing*: Related to Economy, but specifically deals with how slowly or quickly the story progresses.

Apart from those elements, Paul & Fiebich (2005) describe in detail five elements that are shared by all digital stories: (a) The combination of different media used to create them, (b) the type of action (content and user), (c) the open or closed relationship between the user and the

digital story, (d) the limitless context through linking to related, relevant information; and (e) the presence of multimodal communication. In sum, in view of the above, it is clear that digital storytelling is the result of a good combination of more traditional techniques of telling stories and the most innovative multimedia resources.

By using a combination of multimedia elements, voiceover, characters, emotion, and structure, digital storytellers can create engaging and compelling narratives that resonate with their audience. Much has been written regarding the personal nature of digital stories and the fact that this personal and often emotional viewpoint is an essential element of digital storytelling. Also, in education, digital stories are often personal in nature but can also refer to non-personal topics, such as those related to content-based subjects explored in the classroom.

Educational Uses of Digital Storytelling

In an educational setting, digital stories can be used to enhance learning by engaging students in the creative process of developing their own stories, while also helping them to deepen their understanding of the subject matter. By creating digital stories, students can apply what they've learned in class to real-world situations, explore the topic in a more meaningful and personal way, and showcase their learning in a creative and engaging format.

Digital Storytelling Pedagogy

Digital storytelling is viewed as a pedagogical opportunity to combine traditional and creative learning methods to engage otherwise reluctant students in knowledge/skill development, allowing students to create a narrative and illustrate course content, showcase autobiographical learning, share a person's or community's point of view, as well as promote social justice (Grant & Bolin, 2016).

Digital Storytelling and Diversity

Digital storytelling projects have the potential to challenge students' understanding of diversity concepts and social justice issues and build critical educational and workforce skills. Critical and open dialogue on diversity topics can be inspiring, and multiple researchers have described digital storytelling as a tool to establish an open dialogue, create compassion, and sustain student engagement within a community of learners (Grant & Bolin, 2016).

Different Types of Digital Stories

Major types of digital stories can be categorised into three categories:

- *Personal Narratives*: stories that contain accounts of significant incidents in one's life;
- *Historical Documentaries*: stories that examine dramatic events that help us understand the past;
- Stories designed to inform or instruct the viewer on a particular concept or practise.

Robin (2011) presents practical examples of how each type of digital story can be used in education:

- *Personal Narratives*. One of the most popular reasons for producing digital stories is to create a personal narrative. A good example of a digital story that uses a personal narrative is Almost Paradise.¹ This story provides an account of a mother bringing her children to the United States from South Korea, in search of a better life. It outlines the difficulties of coming to a new country and the clashes between a mother and daughter as they each have different feelings about their lives and their heritage. This type of story has multiple benefits in an educational setting. First, other students who view the story learn about people from diverse backgrounds other than their own, and they can gain an appreciation of the types of hardships faced by fellow classmates whose families have come from another country. A story such as this one can be used to facilitate discussions about current issues such as race, multiculturalism, and the globalisation that is taking place in today's world. In addition, a student who creates such a story can benefit from sharing that story with others and thereby use the information to eliminate some of the distance that foreign-born students feel between themselves and their peers. A personal narrative like this one can also be a positive means for dealing with some of the emotional family issues that were described in the story.
- *Digital Stories that Examine Historical Events*. Although many personal narratives can include historical information to add context

¹ <http://www.coe.uh.edu/digitalstorytelling/almostparadise.htm>

to the story, a different kind of digital story can be created from historical material that students might explore in a classroom. An audio recording of US President Abraham Lincoln's Gettysburg Address is used to illustrate a famous American speech. The digital story is published online² and was created by using historical photographs taken during the American Civil War and other materials found on the internet.

- *Stories that Inform or Instruct.* And while it can be argued that all digital stories inform (and perhaps instruct), the distinction here is that there is room to create a separate category for stories that reflect instructional material in content areas such as maths, science, health education, and instructional technology. Story³ is an example of a digital story that was created to inform people about the ageing process and some of the things they can do to increase their health as they grow older.

And of course, stories can be created using combinations of these three methods, such as autobiographical stories that use historical material as the backdrop of a personal narrative.

Digital Storytelling As an Effective Learning Tool for Students

Digital Storytelling can be a powerful educational tool for students of all ages and grade levels who are tasked with creating their own stories. This use of digital storytelling capitalises on the creative talents of students as they begin to research and tell stories of their own, learn to use the library and the internet to research-rich, deep content while analysing and synthesising a wide range of information and opinions. In addition, students who participate in the creation of digital stories develop enhanced communication skills by learning to organise their ideas, ask questions, express opinions, and construct narratives. Students who have the opportunity to share their work with their peers may also gain valuable experience in critiquing their own and other students' work, which can promote gains in emotional intelligence, collaboration, and social learning (Robin, 2016).

Digital storytelling is a deep learning tool. Barrett (2006), points out how digital storytelling facilitates the convergence of four student-

² <http://www.coe.uh.edu/digitalstorytelling/gettysburg.htm>

³ <http://www.coe.uh.edu/digitalstorytelling/agingwell.htm>



FIGURE 3.1
Convergence of
Student-Centered
Learning Strategies
(adapted from Barrett,
2006)

centred learning strategies: student engagement, reflection for deep learning, project-based learning, and the effective integration of technology into instruction (Figure 3.1).

For students, digital storytelling is particularly well suited to the constructivist classroom, where these students are able to construct their own meaning through the multi-faceted experience of selecting a story topic, conducting research on the topic, writing a script, collecting images, recording audio narration, and using computer-based tools to construct the final story. The result is a multimedia artefact that richly illustrates what the student has researched and brought to life and what they have learned from the experience (Robin, 2016). One of the most important features of digital storytelling practices is that students (in the classroom) need to be individuals who implement, think, and interpret, rather than passive listeners, to create and direct scenarios during the digital transition period. Activities in the procedure of digital storytelling in the classroom allow students to become narrators, writers, actors, and producers, and in this way, transform students from an inactive position into five participants of the learning process (Kaya & Mayis, 2018).

In addition to using digital stories as a distinct stand-alone activity, students might also be encouraged to develop instructional materials that can be used to support the educational topics and themes of the digital stories they produce. These educational resources can include

links to additional readings and websites, external media such as podcasts, interviews, or other videos, quizzes, lesson plans, definitions, and other materials that can be used to make the digital story the starting point for further exploration (Robin, 2016).⁴

Gregori-Signs (2014) and Smeda et al. (2014) stress several benefits that digital storytelling has for students:

- Digital storytelling allows students to evaluate the reality that surrounds them and produce their own interpretation of it; this contributes to the acquisition of knowledge-based skills and interaction with the physical world; social and citizen skills, and cultural skills.
- Digital storytelling can improve students' confidence and enhance their social and psychological skills.

Literacies, Skills, and Outcomes for the 21st Century

As discussed in several kinds of research (Robin, 2008, 2011, 2016; Brown et. al., 2005), through the creation of digital stories, students gain valuable literacies and skills that contribute to their development:

- *Digital literacy.* The ability to communicate with an ever-expanding community to discuss issues, gather information, and seek help.
- *Global literacy.* The capacity to read, interpret, respond, and contextualise messages from a global perspective.
- *Technology literacy.* The ability to use computers and other technology to improve learning, productivity and performance.
- *Visual literacy.* The ability to understand, produce, and communicate through visual images.
- *Information literacy.* The ability to find, evaluate, and synthesise information.
- *Increase of Communication skills.* Students defend their learning and their ideas as effective communicators.
- *Increase of Research Skills.* Documenting the story, finding and analysing pertinent information; learners are looking for evidences

⁴ An example of a digital story that includes these types of educational materials may be viewed online at http://digitalstorytelling.coe.uh.edu/view_story.cfm?vid=397&categoryid=16&d_title=History.

to support their stories and have to think about how to put them together.

- *Increase of Writing Skills.* Formulating a point of view and developing a script.
- *Increase of Organization Skills.* Managing the scope of the project, the materials used and the time it takes to complete the task.
- *Increase of Technology Skills.* Learning to use a variety of tools, such as digital cameras, scanners, microphones and multimedia authoring software.
- *Increase of Presentation Skills.* Deciding how to best present the story to an audience.
- *Increase of Interview Skills.* Finding sources to interview and determining questions to ask.
- *Increase of Interpersonal Skills.* Working within a group and determining individual roles for group members.
- *Increase of Problem-Solving Skills.* Learning to make decisions and overcome obstacles at all stages of the project, from inception to completion.
- *Increase of Assessment Skills.* Gaining expertise by critiquing their own and others' work.

Garcia and Rossiter (2010) suggest adding to this list three other learning outcomes that result when students share digital stories. These are important for today's learners who will become 'tomorrow's citizens:'

- *Empathy and perspective-taking.* Shared digital stories allow viewers to share their experiences of the storyteller and enlarge their own perspectives.
- *Self-understanding.* Shared digital stories invite self-reflection and allow the storytellers to see themselves in new ways.
- *Community-building.* Shared digital stories facilitate connections with others and through shared experiences.

Digital Storytelling As an Effective Teaching Tool for Teachers

Digital Storytelling can provide educators with a powerful tool to use in their classrooms. There are numerous ways in which digital storytelling can be used in education.

One of the first decisions to be made when deciding to use this tool in the curriculum is whether an instructor will create the Digital Stories or have their students do it. Some educators may decide to create their own stories and show them to their students as a way to present new material. Teacher-created digital stories may also be used to enhance current lessons within a larger unit, as a way to facilitate discussion about the topics presented in a story, and as a way of making abstract or conceptual content more understandable (Robin, 2011).

How Can Educators Support Students in the Production of Their Stories?

Educators can support students in the production of the stories in the following ways, as discussed in Robin (2016), Jakes & Brennan (2005), Lambert (2007), Morra (2013), and Ohler (2008):

- *Analysis Phase.* Educators help students identify an instructional goal and analyse aspects of the digital story related to the topic and script, as well as consider the potential audience for the story.
- *Design Phase.* Educators help students complete the script and storyboard for the design of the story as well as collect and organise appropriate media such as images, audio and video.
- *Development Phase.* Educators help students use technology, hardware and software to build the story.
- *Implementation Phase.* Educators help students plan how the story will be used and create additional resources, including lesson plans, handouts, and other supporting materials.
- *Evaluation Phase.* Educators use a variety of measures to determine if the students achieved the goal for the digital story project or need to revise the story and supplemental materials based on this input.

Digital Storytelling in the Project ME21aH

Creating digital stories was also part of the project Mediterranean Countries Towards Internationalization at Home (MED21aH) held in the period from 2020 to 2023, in cooperation with four Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) and one NGO from Programme Countries in Europe (2 from Slovenia, one from France, one from Spain, one from Italy) and twelve Partner HEIs from Mediterranean Partner Countries (3 from Morocco, three from Tunisia, two from Egypt, two from Jordan,

two from Lebanon). Students from 12 partner countries created digital stories on interculturalism in the period between February and March 2022. In this process, they were guided by their mentors in their digital storytelling training. Mentors themselves were guided by the instructional resources provided on the MED2IAH e-learning platform.⁵

Some of the North Mediterranean universities opted for totally online or hybrid training sessions; others chose the face-to-face mode to accompany their students along the process of digital story production. Students from Morocco, Lebanon, Tunisia, and Egypt created around 150 digital stories with the main goal of promoting intercultural awareness, cultural diversity, and open dialogue. The best videos were selected according to specific criteria, namely:

- *Creativity and Originality of the Design (20%)*. Creativity is the original, fresh, and external expression of the maker's imagination by using the medium to convey an idea, message, or thought. A compelling essay evokes laughter, sadness, anger, pride, wonder, or another intense emotion. The use and control of light to create dimension, shape, and roundness in an image or how the creator uses words to express thoughts and feelings can be considered.
- *Impact and Content of the Storytelling (20%)*. Storytelling refers to the essay's ability to evoke imagination, create a feeling, tell a story, or visually illustrate an idea. Message clarity is solid and able to motivate as well as inspire the audience.
- *Editing & Cinematography (20%)*. Videography and audiography include technical excellence, composition, lighting, style, colour, sound, music, editing, and Storytelling. The images, sound, and content should provide variety, exciting angles, imagination, and adequately convey the story, which enhances the story.
- *Structure and Navigation (20%)*. Structure and navigation include the comprehensive organisation of the content, proper technique and mechanics, prioritisation of information, and the manner in which users navigate through the story. The story should evoke the emotion and wonder of the audience, leaving them wanting more by the time they reach the end. On camera, subjects are presented in a manner consistent with and supportive of the story.
- *Engagement and Motivation for Intercultural/International Activi-*

⁵ <https://elearningproject.eu/course-category/med2iah/>

ties (20%). Engagement of students in creating the video – attitude towards the training, cooperation with mentors and other students, dedication to the work.

- *Digital Storytelling Follow-up within MED21aH.* Following the digital storytelling contest, the students who produced the best videos in relation to their intercultural experiences and attitudes towards diversity were shortlisted to participate in a two-week-academic boot camp in June 2022 at the premises of EMUNI, Piran, Slovenia. During the boot camp, 23 students from Partner Countries' HEIS attended lectures and workshops delivered by teachers from the Mediterranean region. When they returned home, these same students were actively engaged in the next intercultural activities organised within Work Package 4 of the MED21aH project. Their engagement was first shown in their contribution to the handbook of intercultural activities, then in their organisation of small intercultural events within their institutions' friends' tea houses.

Conclusion

As presented in the current chapter, digital storytelling is a tool that can serve many purposes, from educating and inspiring to entertaining and preserving history. Digital storytelling uses multimedia tools and platforms to tell stories and share information, which can enhance the impact and reach of the storytelling. Therefore, digital storytelling is a valuable instrument for teachers and students in higher education to enhance engagement, creativity, collaboration, digital literacy skills, and assessment opportunities. By providing students with the necessary resources and guidance, teachers can help students develop their storytelling skills and create engaging and meaningful stories. Digital storytelling can also be a powerful method for intercultural learning, as experienced in the MED21aH project.

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Chapter Four

The Combination of Simulation and Virtual Exchange as a Pedagogical Approach in Internationalisation at Home

Maria Laura Angelini

Universidad Católica de Valencia 'San Vicente Mártir,' Spain
marialaura.angelini@ucv.es

Rut Muñiz

Universidad Católica de Valencia 'San Vicente Mártir,' Spain
rut.muniz@ucv.es

Neus Álvarez

Universidad Católica de Valencia 'San Vicente Mártir,' Spain
mn.alvarez@ucv.es

Purpose This chapter addresses simulation in teacher education by drawing on some of the many publications that have suggested simulation as a pedagogical strategy. Its benefits include the development of professional competencies such as decision-making, critical thinking, dialogic learning, interpersonal competence, and communication. In this work, we review various applications of simulation in teacher education and give a brief overview of the classic simulation procedure. We consider that simulation can be used to develop the employability skills of both local and international students and that it can enhance their intercultural skills and awareness, which will empower them in their future careers.

Study design/methodology/approach The structure of the current chapter is composed of three sections. The first deals with current research on the subject. The second explains the simulation methodology and its phases, and finally, it reflects on the conclusions and implications of simulation in education.

Findings Literature alerts us to the lack of innovation in the preparation of future teachers and how simulation and other active methodologies are helping to open new doors in this area. It also shows how simulation can contribute to the training of globally minded teachers in combination with other methodologies, such as virtual exchange.

Originality/value The value of the current chapter is based on the proposal of simulation as a methodological strategy in the training of future teachers. Furthermore, the combination of simulation and virtual exchange is presented to provide added international value by creating virtual spaces for multicultural collaboration and internationalisation at home.

Introduction

In order to address the issue at hand and thus substantiate the need for a shift in approaches to teacher education, it is necessary to bring together some influential voices that have alerted us to parsimony in teacher education. As early as 2002, Hoban claimed that most teacher education courses represented a fragmented view of learning. He argued that teacher instruction had enormous potential to structure and prevent pre-service teachers from becoming resourceful practitioners. He referred to the difficulties pre-service teachers encountered in coping with life in the classroom. Other authors also noted that pre-service teachers were often unable to draw on essential knowledge when they needed it most (Kervin & Turbill, 2003; Stronge, 2002; Danielson, 1996; Entwistle et al., 1993). Now, two decades later, the situation has little changed. In an ideal environment, pre-service teachers should be provided with a range of opportunities to experience representative situations in real classroom settings that would forge a progressive development of their practice. However, there are still a number of obstacles to overcome, such as the cost of the Practicum experience, the needs of the school, the availability, and the requirements of university courses and guidelines set by the higher education institution.

However, it is fair to say that, despite little published research on teaching practice in schools, some efforts have been made to disseminate some initiatives on teacher education. Teacher preparation has shifted from lectures and discussions to individual analysis of group roles and individual and group decision-making. This shift builds on critical-dialogic pedagogies (Kohli et al., 2015), as pre-service teachers are exposed to theoretical scaffolding and real-world situations along with informational activities of various forms (Fraser et al., 2018). Active methodologies, such as case study, lesson study, or simulation, have gradually started to gain ground in teacher preparation, and interesting results are being collected. With regard to simulation in particular, some early research by Thompson and Dass (2000), for example, shows

that pre-service teachers who participated in classroom simulations performed better in terms of self-efficacy than those who only analysed and discussed isolated cases. Brozik and Zapalska (2002, 2003) and Sottile and Broznik (2004) used simulation in their teacher education as a result of their need to find a teaching approach that would replicate real classroom situations. The aim of their application of simulation was to explore decision-making techniques. They also discovered that through simulation, they provided an environment to work collectively with students and hone their communication skills. Probably the most salient discovery was that, through an unconventional learning environment, participants found the opportunity to develop their creativity and apply their knowledge to solve educational problems.

Ferry et al. (2004) designed a computer simulation in an attempt to help pre-service teachers learn how pupils acquire and develop literacy skills in primary school. A computer assisted the pre-service teachers as they had to make a number of decisions regarding the students, the classroom environment, and the events that took place there. At other times, they were asked to make decisions about a teaching sequence, such as how to introduce a lesson, transition activities, and pre- and post-teaching activities. Some of the most relevant results were that a significant number of pre-service teachers were able to make connections between their own school experiences and the situations presented in the simulation. Some were also able to relate the theory presented in their pre-teaching training to the educational challenges of the simulation scenario. With regard to virtual simulations, some popular computer programmes have gained ground in teacher education, such as SimTeacher and SimSchool. SimTeacher is an online teacher training simulation in which prospective teachers become SimTeachers in a virtual school. They have the opportunity to apply the concepts they are learning in their teaching careers to simulation scenarios. They are presented with virtual schools containing fictitious but interactive pupils. SimTeachers can perform daily tasks such as roll call or designing lesson plans. Similarly, SimSchool is a web-based virtual classroom environment with SimStudents who have artificial emotional intelligence. They react as if they were real humans, smiling, crying, getting frustrated, raising their hands, seeking attention, and showing signs of stress. SimSchool provides pre-service teachers with important classroom experience (Fischler, 2007).

Grossman (2009) points out that attention to pedagogy is central to teacher education and that neither the research literature nor the US education reform reports of the 1980s had much to say about how prospective teachers should be taught. The author undertook an extensive literature review on how prospective teachers were taught and how the various approaches used by trainers might impact students' know-how, including what they came to know or believe about teaching, and how they performed in practice in real or simulated classroom settings. He highlighted the potential of computer simulation in teacher education, which coincided with Fischler's findings. Later, Dotger (2011) claimed that simulation as a pedagogical strategy effectively helped bridge the gap between teacher preparation and practise. Teacher educators and researchers have thus paved the way for a more enlightened conception of simulation in teacher education.

Current Research

In less than a decade, between 2014–2021, several studies have been published extolling the virtues of simulation in teacher education. The general advantage is that more emphasis is placed on the active role of pre-service teachers, who can thus gain insights into the nature of the process being simulated (Bradley & Kendall, 2014; Gibson et al., 2014; Speed et al., 2015). Voices in favour of simulation in teacher preparation, such as Gibson et al. (2014) or Badiie and Kaufman (2015), argue that the conventional practicum commonly assigned to pre-service teachers to collect data on their teaching practice, does not always meet the expectations of trainers. An obvious question comes to mind: how can pre-service teachers acquire sufficient practice and knowledge of the full range of real classroom situations during their preparation? Teaching practice is the key to acquiring knowledge, and is at the heart of any teacher education programme. However, it depends to a large extent on the school mentors, the initiatives of the pre-service teachers, and the time devoted to dealing with different situations. More often than not, the practicum becomes a repository of experience more inclined to fulfil degree requirements than to reflect deeply on what actually happens in the real classroom (La Paro et al. 2018; Larsen & Searle, 2017; Sjølie & Østern, 2021).

However, some studies are increasingly questioning the gaps in the practicum. The incorporation of well-designed simulations to complement the practicum has come to the fore, according to Finn et

al. (2020), Gibson et al. (2014), Mukhtar et al. (2018), and Sasaki et al. (2020). Gibson et al. (2014), for example, urge schools of education to 'take simulation seriously in teacher education' (p. 2). In their handbook, the authors highlight the importance of developing a broad understanding of educational situations through the study of simulation scenarios and active participation in simulations. In this way, pre-service teachers can engage in a comprehensive, multi-step process. This would start with the investigation of the problems or cases presented in the scenario and end with the interaction between the participants in the simulation. So far, the adoption of simulation for teacher education seems to be based on the personal initiative of the teacher educator and not on an institutional model. This may be only the initial link in a chain of events. This, in turn, leads us to ask what is needed to make the use of simulation more durable, to make it evidence-based, and to engage others in a collective design process.

We can venture that teacher initiative alone is not enough. Heads of departments and deans of teacher education faculties should work together to ensure sufficient practice in a low-risk educational environment. This includes adopting active learning methodologies, such as simulation, to encourage real practice, supporting teacher research, and encouraging pre-service teachers to participate in forums, virtual exchanges, and national and international virtual mobilities, where educational issues are addressed. Most importantly, commitment must be obtained at the institutional level to ensure training and the continuity of trainers' initiatives to promote more active and realistic methods of teacher preparation. Gibson et al. (2014, p. 4) identify three main areas to boost simulation in schools of education: 'leadership, incentives, and support.' Schools of education must undergo a programme transformation by providing pre-service teachers with opportunities for real and simulated teaching practice. This transformation involves changes in beliefs about the potential of technologies, skilled action in recruiting and supporting talented innovators, and establishing an environment in which risk-taking and national and international collaboration lead to research, teaching, and dissemination. Incentives should include recognising and rewarding the initiatives of teacher educators to use their classrooms as laboratories to test methodological innovations in research.

Furthermore, it is crucial to foster the meeting of teachers and future teachers from different backgrounds in international forums such

as virtual exchanges, where cutting-edge strategies in education are discussed and commented upon, and to encourage new generations of teachers to take an intercultural approach to teaching in a global world.

As an example, we can talk about the integration of simulation and virtual exchange, which relies on the belief that today's teachers should think outside the box. In this sense, teachers should be acquainted with what other institutions are implementing, what type of training other teachers are getting, what challenges other schools are facing, and how they go about them. By working collaboratively with teacher trainers from abroad, teachers and students can find commonalities in some educational-related challenges (Angelini & Muñiz, 2023). Support has to do with providing the necessary framework for establishing and funding ongoing research, teaching, and the consolidation of proposal design teams.

Another aspect to be taken into account is the high level of stress generated by internships in real-world environments. McGarr (2021), revalidates simulation in dealing with this issue. For some pre-service teachers, their lack of experience in classroom management, for example, can be a real challenge. Simulation, however, can pave the way for real classroom practice. In this way, future teachers could experience aspects of disruptive student behaviour in less demanding environments, with less risk of getting it wrong. They could benefit from opportunities to make mistakes without fear of negative repercussions for their academic progression. Thus, the use of simulations is increasingly seen as an opportunity to experience examples of classroom life in an environment with low-risk concerns. Enquiry, dialogical learning among peers, teacher educators, and school mentors, and decision-making emerge as some of the most relevant and rewarding aspects of simulation in teacher preparation. Since our intention in this chapter is to present simulation as a complementary strategy in teacher education in particular, we will proceed to unfold the complex, but enriching, operational framework of simulation.

Simulation Methodology

In simulation-based training, simulation is divided into three main phases (Garcia-Carbonell et al., 2012; Kolbe et al., 2015); The briefing (Phase 1) consists of the preparation of the simulation. The trainer, henceforth the facilitator, must provide all the necessary information

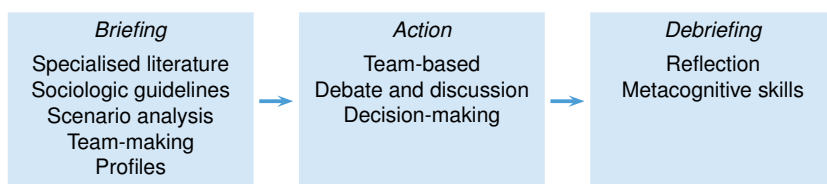


FIGURE 4.1 Simulation Classic Procedure

and rules that pave the way for the Action (Phase II). The briefing sessions are prior to the simulation action, where participants discuss issues related to the simulation scenario. It is important to stress the value of research in this phase. Participants should document and research the different issues or situations that will be dealt with in the scenario. They will be better prepared in terms of content and language to be able to dialogue and discuss during the simulation (Figure 4.1). The specific profiles can be strategically assigned to the participants after they have analysed the scenarios from the different perspectives of the profiles. In this phase, the general objectives of the simulation are presented. The facilitator forms the teams and then assigns the profiles to the individual team members.

The action (Phase II) is where the simulation takes place. All participants have objectives and responsibilities that are clearly specified in their profiles. The team leader can start the activity by thanking the members for their presence and addressing the problems that need to be solved. Debriefing (Phase III) takes place after the action. All participants (intra- or inter-group) reflect on the experience, their role, and their learning process. It is the phase of reflection, sharing, and evaluation at the individual and group level, in which participants analyse the different tasks and results of the previous phases. For a better understanding of the simulation, see the appendix with the simulation model, Global Village School. It is worth considering the advantages of using simulation in teacher training. Several authors have tried to identify the potential of simulations in the field of learning. According to García Carbonell et al. (2012), simulation does not dissect knowledge and communication skills, but rather fosters professional competence through a global cognitive process, which optimises results and justifies the full integration of simulation into curriculum design. Authors like McCrary and Mazur (2010) and Murphy and Cook (2020) have suggested that incorporating simulations into the classroom can promote

dialogic learning. Dialogue is central to classroom simulations. It leads to new understandings and new knowledge. This exploration through simulation, in which pre-service teachers construct meanings through dialogue, rather than having meanings imposed from outside, leads to powerful learning. Most importantly, learning through dialogue leads not only to content knowledge, but also to improved language, thinking skills, and intercultural awareness (Scarcella & Crookall, 1990; Burke & Mancuso, 2012; Michelson & Dupuy, 2014; Ranchhod et al., 2014). These studies agree that simulations provide more clearly structured interaction, more comprehensible input for learners, reduce the affective filter, and reduce learning anxiety.

Moreover, since the simulations are inspired by reality, pre-service teachers will have had the possibility to analyse and make decisions about some of the educational challenges described in the scenario before exposure to real-life situations. This contributes to the development of critical thinking skills. Starting from a logical organisation of information, future teachers are then encouraged to develop their creativity to find appropriate solutions to the problems presented in the scenario, to take responsibility for assuming a role, and, finally, to develop metacognitive skills to reflect on their own learning process (Daniel et al., 2005). Last but not least, another challenge of which facilitators should be aware of is the development of social skills. Simulations fit well with Vygotsky's social learning theory, according to which learners first engage in learning at the social or group level and then at the individual level. Pupils progress in stages, from what they can do by themselves, through what they can do with help, to what they cannot do. Future teachers find it difficult to progress through the zones of proximal development (ZPD) if social interaction and collaboration with other educators and peers is lacking (Vygotsky, 1978). During a simulation, pre-service teachers assimilate discipline-specific knowledge and develop social skills that they can transfer to professional settings (Havnes et al., 2016; Kourgiantakis et al., 2019).

Conclusion

This chapter focuses on simulation in teacher education. Simulation events provide a forum for applying prior knowledge and practical skills, developing a broader understanding of educational issues, and gaining new knowledge. Simulation should be conceived as a critical-dialogical pedagogy that seeks to construct knowledge through critical

reasoning, inquiry, and the search for answers. Furthermore, simulation, through its phases, facilitates opportunities to link knowledge and theory to application. This is why faculties of education are the ideal environment to initiate a true amalgamation of theory and practise as opposed to the rote reproduction of content. In addition, the combination of simulation and virtual exchange results in a pedagogical approach that contributes to internationalisation at home and the development of the skills needed in a multicultural professional context. Thus, finding common challenges in their professional careers and exchanging viewpoints on the most adequate measures to deal with them can be easily appreciated. The intercultural component can also be highlighted, especially in times of massive telematics information and communication. This intercultural perspective gains even more importance due to the growth of more multicultural classrooms. It seems imperative that teachers, pre-service teachers, and academics work on developing a global mindset to approach this reality.

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Chapter Five

Internationalisation at Home as a New Trend for University Internationalisation in Post-Covid Reality

Aziza Menouni

Moulay Ismail University of Meknes, Morocco
a.menouni@edu.umi.ac.ma

Samir el Jaafari

Moulay Ismail University of Meknes, Morocco
s.eljaafari@umi.ac.ma

Nada Trunk Širca

University of Primorska, International School for Social
and Business Studies, and EMUNI, Slovenia
nada.trunk@emuni.si

Karim Moustaghfir

Al Akhawayn University of Ifrane, Morocco
k.moustaghfir@aui.ma

Rachid Daoudi

Sidi Mohamed Ben Abdellah University, Morocco
rachid.daoudi@usmba.ac.ma

Salim Bounou

Euro-mediterranean University of Fès, Morocco
s.bounou@ueuromed.org

Purpose Through this chapter, we are presenting the concept of internationalisation at home (IAH) based on the achievements of the Erasmus+ capacity-building project MED2IAH, built around this concept that reframes the traditional perceptions of higher education (HE) internationalisation in five Partner Countries (Morocco, Tunisia, Egypt, Lebanon, and Jordan).

Study design/methodology/approach MED2IAH project, running since January 2020, has offered partner universities a relevant active framework to engage in internationalisation initiatives and initiate cross-cultural learning opportunities. By shifting the focus from academic mo-

bility to systematic institutional initiatives for enhancing the global skills of non- or less-mobile students in local settings, IaH creates a paradigm shift and introduces an egalitarian community spirit where internationalisation is not a privilege of the few anymore but an asset the university as a whole can benefit from.

Findings The coronavirus crisis has upended higher education (HE) in many ways, impressively shifting all or a substantive part of the courses online. Moreover, it has exposed the taken-for-granted facet of mobility in universities, opening the way for better strategies to internationalise at home.

Originality/value This chapter explores the strengths and, more importantly, the limitations of the current internationalisation strategies in partner countries and suggests a holistic approach to IaH that is perceived as a combination of diverse but complementary measures for intervention in formal and informal curricula.

Introduction

The role of higher education is overarching, mainly in the new global development agenda, which aims at eradicating poverty and many other societal issues all over the world. The 2030 agenda for sustainable development, which comprises 17 goals and 169 targets, places higher education as a top priority and makes it a paramount goal (goal 4, target 4.3) that would, by 2030, ensure equal access for all women and men to affordable and quality technical, vocational, and tertiary education, including university (United Nations, 2017).

The internationalisation of the higher education systems is one of the most widely asserted and studied policy trends in the last two decades (Renc-Roe & Roxå, 2014). However, universities are deluding themselves if they believe that the presence of international students on campus alone contributes to the internationalisation of higher education (Wright & Lander, 2003). The concept of internationalisation in higher education creates a process of transformation in the way we learn and impart knowledge. Currently, it can be understood as the development and implementation of policies and programmes with international and intercultural dimensions that aim to improve the quality of higher education. Through the process of internationalisation and the expansion of knowledge, networks across boundaries, higher education becomes the ‘industry of the future’ in the new economy, where human capital and innovative knowledge production are crucial for economic performance (Kandiko, 2010).

Back in 2020, the coronavirus crisis upended higher education and disrupted international education trends. Very recent studies have tackled these challenges and transformations. One seminal study in this area is the work of Treve (2021), who highlighted the effect of the coronavirus on the sector of higher education, mainly the shift from an in-person format to an 'online and interactive learning system.' Forced by the Coronavirus pandemic, most institutions tended to shift from an emergency-based strategy, entirely to an online system. Without being prepared for online pedagogy, many faculty members were put in a difficult situation. Treve (2021) discussed the impact of COVID-19, resulting in 'Gaps in educational attainment.' And classified it into two main categories: nations and individuals. Firstly, COVID-19 has widened the disparities regarding educational opportunities between developed and developing countries. While affluent countries may readily prepare to convert to virtual learning and mitigate the negative consequences of the epidemic, the situation is more difficult for developing countries (Treve, 2021). During the COVID-19 crisis, observers expected higher education post-mobility. This is largely due to the anticipated long-lasting impact on international student enrollment even after travel restrictions are lifted and the likelihood of more stringent border control to regulate mass immigration. However, the pandemic has accelerated the blended offer of universities throughout the world, accompanied by an increase in the connection capacity of virtual platforms; and giving access to computers to students who did not have their equipment (World Bank, 2020). Many universities started teaching their students through distance education, and much success has been reported anecdotally. It is indeed impressive that universities have been quickly shifting all or a substantive part of their courses online. In this pursuit, ICT 'digitalization' often serves as an effective tool for supporting and coordinating universities' international activities. There is no doubt that the pandemic helped to break with traditional schemes and mental maps that automatically linked the existence of internationalisation to student mobility, returning to the essence of the internationalisation of Higher Education. Internationalisation 'at home' can be understood as virtual mobility, where digital tools offer international experiences in an agile and active way from the home with foreign institutions. This concept is built around the assumption that, for various reasons, the largest part of universities' student body will always remain non-mobile and therefore deprived of access to global knowledge and skills (Robson et al., 2017).

The purpose of this article is to foreground internationalisation at home (IaH) and the underlying academic and intercultural learning benefits of an internationalised university experience. It demonstrates the experience and dissemination of the best practises as well as the challenges of the Erasmus+ MED2IaH capacity-building project, through the design of the project, tools developed within the project for institutional self-evaluation of internationalisation and strategy development, and ideas and activities implemented to promote intercultural exchange and internationalisation at home that can be adopted by various universities around the world and mainly by those in developing countries.

Genesis and Approach of the MED2IaH Project

One of the earliest agreements that greatly benefited the internationalisation of higher education in the Mediterranean is the Barcelona process, or the Euro-Mediterranean partnership of 1995, which started with the Barcelona Euro-Mediterranean conference and led to the creation of the Union of the Mediterranean (Attinà, 2004). The agenda of this partnership, involving 39 countries from Europe and the Southern Mediterranean shore, included cooperation between academics and universities where cultural exchange is promoted (Council of the European Union, 2008). In this context, the MED2IaH project was developed under the Erasmus+ Capacity Building of Higher Education with EU funding, also in response to the 'Review of the European Neighbourhood Policy' (Brussels, 18 November 2015) and its Initiative 'Union for the Mediterranean (UfM)' – a multilateral partnership aiming at increasing the potential for regional integration and cohesion among Euro-Mediterranean countries. MED2IaH is addressing one of the Specific objectives of the UfM's strategic area 'Education and Research,' namely 'Strengthening the contribution of the UfM Secretariat to regional dialogue fora in the fields, including the development of regional dialogue processes on Higher Education Internationalisation and Academic Mobility and Vocational Education and Training.'

Seventeen universities from four European countries (Slovenia, France, Spain, and Italy), and 5 South Mediterranean countries (Morocco, Tunisia, Egypt, Jordan, and Lebanon), partnered to develop and implement new internationalisation strategies in a project where internationalisation at home (IaH) is embraced as an institutional policy for internationalisation in domains of curriculum, teaching, and learning,

extra-curricular activities, as well as liaison with local cultural/ethnic groups.

MED2IaH is designed to create the modernization and internationalisation agenda of each PC HEIS through the adoption of a comprehensive University Strategy on the Internationalisation of Education, research, and services by each PC HEI. MED2IaH fits with the development strategy for higher education in each PC involved in the project, namely:

Morocco

The education system of Morocco falls broadly under the Ministry of National Education (MNE). Among the branches of the MNE, the Department of Higher Education is responsible for overseeing the growth of the higher education sector. The Department aims to improve the quality of and access to higher education through the implementation of the strategic vision of the 2015–2030 reform, drawn up by the Higher Council for Education, Training, and Scientific Research, and advocates the State's continuation as the main source of funding.

Tunisia

In Tunisia, the Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research bears the overall responsibility for developing and implementing higher education policy. The Strategic Reform Plan of 2025 elaborated by the Ministry of Education reflects a national strategy that seeks to enhance the higher education sector through internationalisation and modernisation.

Egypt

MED2IaH fits the priority of the 'Egypt Vision 2030' Area, which stresses attention to the need to improve the quality of education in all types of education systems, ensuring equity and equality in all levels of education, promoting the spirit of heritage and national culture in education, teaching environmental education, emphasising science and technology education, and promoting research, development, extension, and utilisation of science and technology.

Jordan

The *National Education Strategic Plan* (Ministry of Education 2018) as well as other education reforms lay the groundwork to achieve long-

term development progress in the country. This way, the MED21aH proposal will contribute to the implementation of its strategic objectives: promoting diversification of economic activities and productivity enhancement (pillar 1), and improving the quality of growth by promoting inclusiveness. The main contribution will target pillar 1 of the Strategy: point (iii) upgrade human capital and increase international employability.

Lebanon

The National Education Strategy in Lebanon is oriented towards the development of human capital, provides a quantitatively and qualitatively competent workforce to meet the needs of the Lebanese market and that can compete in the free job market, It is an education that contributes to social mobility and is characterised by the high quality of its curricula, institutions, and outcomes; it is an education that is aligned with national and international standards. The Internationalisation at the institutional level offered by the MED21aH project contributes to the priorities of the Lebanese Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research.

MED21aH in Relation to the South Mediterranean Context of HE

In this context, the MED21aH project is in line with the National Priorities of the Partner countries (PC; Morocco, Tunisia, Egypt, Jordan, and Lebanon) and Regional Priorities for Region 3: South Mediterranean countries and is related to Project Category 2: Improving management and operation of Higher Education Institutions and internationalisation of Higher Education institutions. The MED21aH project proposal addresses the process of internationalising higher education at home in partner countries (PC) (Morocco, Tunisia, Egypt, Jordan, and Lebanon). The project aims to enable both national higher education bodies and higher education institutions to provide education, research, and mobility services to the public and make Partner Countries accountable and play complementary roles in the fields of education and research.

MED21aH Reasoning

The reasoning behind the MED21aH project is to transfer the IaH concept to PC HEIS and share with them IaH practices that have proven

successful. The IaH term is still largely absent in Mediterranean countries, where there is a need and support required to outline PC HEIS' internationalisation landscapes and to identify levels of integration of international and intercultural dimensions into PC HEIS' formal and informal curricula. MED2IaH PC HEIS showed numbers for student mobility and international student enrollment. With recent economic growth and development, PCS have evolved into international education hubs with growing numbers of international students.

The MED2IaH project was first and foremost designed to have an impact at the system level and trigger reform processes at the national level in Partner Countries. Policy-makers are receiving support for evidence-based policy development and better regulation to move towards the modernization of the framework conditions for HE in PCS. HEI managers and other stakeholders in the sector were able to feed their expertise into the reform process and articulate their needs already at the stage of policy development. By developing policies that adequately address real problems at the institutional level in each Partner Country, MED2IaH will ultimately benefit the whole HE sector. The inclusion of all stakeholders in the project activities and consortium ensures that the whole HE sector in PCS will take a step forward in the national reforms.

MED2IaH Objectives

1. To outline PC HEIS' internationalisation landscapes and identify levels of integration of international and intercultural dimensions into PC HEIS' formal and informal curricula. Taking into consideration the absence of the legal framework in the IaH at national and institutional levels in PCS, the main focus will be dedicated to the capacity building of the key actors, and policy-makers on the EU experience in the development of IaH strategies and regulations on standards for IaH implementation, in particular.
2. To improve PC HEIS' capabilities for internationalisation through staff training and by translating general awareness of the IaH concept into streamlined institutional strategies and Action Plans. The development and implementation of effective institutional internationalisation strategies will be paid second attention during the project lifetime and achieved by increasing understanding of the comprehensive IaH at the university level through workshops and training sessions at partner universities on designing

the strategies and the elaboration of indicators, guidelines, etc., As a result, the Institutional Strategies of internationalisation and Mobility (including the IaH action plan) at each university will be elaborated and adopted at each partner university.

3. To build students' intercultural knowledge and sensitivity to cultural diversity by transforming PC HEIS' International Relations Offices (IROS) into vibrant multicultural focal points. Enhancing institutional capacities for effective participation in large-scale international collaborations will change the situation by Increasing the scope and quality of international partnerships, managing international credit mobility (ICM), increasing participation in EU mobility schemes and large-scale research programmes, developing infrastructure to support campus diversity, and assisting international students.

The project is built around the concept of IaH in a holistic approach that shifts institutions' focus of attention from outbound mobility to systematic institutional efforts for improving non-mobile students' global skills in domestic environments, including virtual mobility and on-campus intercultural engagement, for the benefit of non-mobile students' global competence and employability. In the long run, students and graduates' enhanced employability will contribute to increasing higher education institutions' competitiveness too. It also creates a paradigm shift and introduces an egalitarian community spirit where internationalisation is not a privilege of the few anymore but an asset for all students.

Institutional Strategies for Internationalisation

An institutional strategy for internationalisation relies heavily on building a campus culture of support and diversity and on matching particular initiatives. To build a tailored strategy within partner universities, the MED2IaH project has developed a questionnaire assessing quantitative and qualitative indicators within each institution and allowing us to extract the strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, and threats for internationalisation.

Methodology

A self-assessment questionnaire was developed by the MED2IaH consortium to investigate and collect institutional data referring to the

key aspects of IaH, with the perspective of serving as an institutional IaH self-evaluation tool. The questionnaire includes questions with multiple-choice and open responses. The questionnaire was first tested and validated among the partner universities.

Then, the questionnaire was put online. It is intended to be processed as teamwork. Each participating institution was invited to only submit one questionnaire. That this is processed as 'group work' involving members from the project staff, the international relations office, and the management team.

The questionnaire included six sessions, namely:

1. General institutional/university information,
2. Internationalisation policy/strategy,
3. Internationalisation in terms of student mobility,
4. Internationalisation in terms of academic and staff mobility,
5. Internationalisation in terms of Educational programmes,
6. Internationalisation in terms of research, projects, and events.

Some questions ask for specific figures and numbers for the specific academic year (2019/2020 in our case). If the institution does not have such detailed evidence, they are asked to write down the number that best represents their assessment of the situation. However, we suggest that HEI start monitoring the field of internationalisation and keep records in the area of operation. If some numerical data are not available and are not possible to estimate (for different reasons), they can leave the space empty.

Each section ends with the 'comments box,' where respondents are invited to write in short about problems in collecting data and explain how they applied the terminology of some questions.

In Morocco, the questionnaire was sent through the mailing list of university contacts and advertised via the channels of the National Erasmus+ Office.

Results and Discussion

The MED2IaH project proposal implements an array of innovative training and learning methods, namely virtual mobility, blended learning, validation of prior learning, peer-to-peer learning, mentoring, design thinking, and simulation. Through students' digital stories, the

project also supports learning through active self-reflection and self-evaluation Technology.

The MED2IaH project is designed to maximise the benefits of ICT, following the technological pattern of Coursera and the like, which have proved to be game changers in HE over the last decade. Webinars, storytelling through the means of audio-visuals, and online.

Virtual mobility is recommended to help local students launch their international careers and gain experience within their home university/country. The virtual mobility of local students has to be regulated in a way to offer them opportunities to enter into virtual intercultural exchanges with students of other international universities.

The virtual mobility of local students is better used as a precondition for physical mobility to international universities to facilitate their integration within the hosting universities. HEI should reinforce and encourage university intercultural extra-curricular activities and make them visible on the national level to expand the scope of internationalisation at home.

Since language is the medium through which culture is transmitted and learned, learning a new language should be further emphasised for optimal internationalisation at the home of local students. To this end, the university should provide language training sessions, debates, and events within which local students can practise the language with their peers. The questionnaire is a tool to monitor the progress/development/evolution of the institution in the investigated field – internationalisation.

A Case Study from Morocco

The survey is taken by eighteen Moroccan Universities/schools. In the academic year 2019–2020, Morocco had approximately 913.713 students undergoing their studies in higher education, with 50.33% being female students, a staff number of approximating 7000, and almost 14 000 teachers (Union for the Mediterranean, 2021).

Among the eighteen participants in the survey, 78% were Moroccan universities, while 22% were Moroccan higher education Schools. English represented 44% of the language of instruction, while French represented 56% in such universities and schools. 22% were fairly new institutions, with less than 10 years in the field of higher education, 28% were relatively new, with 10 up to 29 years in the field, and 50% were old and well established, with 100 years or more in the field. 78% of

participants were from public universities/schools, 22% were neither public nor private, and there were no fully private participants. All participants chose Morocco as their main country of operation. When it comes to the size of the participating institutions, 47% stated that they have up to 4,999 students enrolled, 6% stated having between 5,000 and 14,999 students enrolled, and 41% stated having 39,999 and more students enrolled. As for size in terms of full-time faculty, 24% claimed to have up to 49 full-time faculty members, another 24% claimed to have between 50 and 149 full-time faculty members, 6% claimed to have between 150 and 249, and 47% stated having 400 and more full-time faculty members.

When asked about their internationalisation strategies or policies in the previously mentioned survey, 53% of the participating Moroccan higher education Schools/universities responded that they indeed have documented policies and strategies for internationalisation; 33% responded that they do not have any specific documented policies or strategies for internationalisation but that it is considered in other development directions; and 13% stated that they are working on those policies and strategies. As for their top strategic priorities for internationalisation, creating an internationalised study environment at home was the top priority with 4.3 out of 5 (the question was to rank the strategic priorities on a scale of 1 to 5). Providing the staff with opportunities for international experiences was a close second as an internationalisation strategy (4 out of 5), followed by attracting international professors and academics (3.5 out of 5). Another very important strategy that was ranked 3 out of 5 by the eighteen Moroccan schools/Universities that undertook this survey is establishing cooperative relations with other foreign institutions for research. Following this strategy comes one that will allow students to benefit from the possibility of studying abroad, ranked (2.9 out of 5), and then comes one that will attract students at all levels of study with the same rank. Again, at the same rank comes a strategy to improve the school/university positioning both nationally and internationally, while developing learning and teaching partnerships with other institutions comes in at 2.8 out of 5. Finally, the last strategy/policy of interest of the eighteen Moroccan higher education Schools/Universities that participated in this survey is the internationalisation of teaching and learning, with a rank of 2.1 out of 5.

Internationalisation within Moroccan higher education institutions

is very well supported with policies, which became, with time 'a pillar of the mission and strategic planning of the Ministry and Moroccan HEIS as it is perceived as means for improving the quality of education and as an opening to be more attractive' There is a Directorate of Cooperation and Partnership within the Ministry whose responsibility is to promote, strengthen, monitor, and evaluate, 'in coordination with ministry structures and institutions, bilateral and multilateral cooperation programmes in all areas relating to the responsibilities of the ministry.' The Ministry is currently aiming at the development of international cooperation strategies to strengthen 'new partnerships in the fields of higher education and scientific research, consolidating the cooperation with other entities in the region within the framework of South-South cooperation, as well as strengthening the mobility of Moroccan students and professors.'

The participants were also instructed to give insight into their targeted strategic geographic locations for the internationalisation of higher education in Morocco; meaning which countries they see themselves opening up to under the framework of internationalising higher education in the country. The Gulf countries were ranked first with 5 out of 5, and East and South Asia came in second with 4.5 out of 5. Third came the Eastern partners like Armenia, Azerbaijan, Belarus, Georgia, the Republic of Moldova, and Ukraine, with a ranking of 3 out of 5. North America followed with a ranking of 3 out of 5, then Africa (East, Centre, West, and Southern) with a ranking of 2.9 out of 5, the Western Balkans with a ranking of 2 out of 5, the European Union/EU countries with a ranking of 1.4 out of 5, and finally the Russian Federation, Central Asia (Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Tajikistan, Turkmenistan, Uzbekistan), Australia, New Zealand, Central, and South America with a ranking of 5. Regarding the activities/strategies considered to be the most important ones for programme internationalisation by higher education Moroccan Schools/Universities, visits by international delegations and outgoing staff came first with a ranking of 4 out of 5, the internationalisation of courses/programs second with a ranking of 3.5 out of 5, joint programs third with a ranking of 3.5 out of 5, courses with English-medium of instruction (EMI) fourth with a ranking of 3.2 out of 5, international field studies and research with a ranking of 3 out of 5, quality institutional internationalisation services with the same ranking, curricula comprising international and intercultural dimensions with a ranking of 2.8 out of 5, strategic partnerships with a ranking of

1.6 out of 5 rankings, and finally, branch campuses and incoming staff with a ranking of 1 out of 5. 'The strategic axis of higher education in its regional, national, and international environment plans to increase the number of courses in English and Spanish, particularly at the level of a Master's degree, to strengthen the attractiveness of the degree courses for foreign students and to increase incoming mobility.'

Funding is a big part of internationalisation strategies since schools/universities cannot rely only on tuition fees for that; keeping in mind that a lot of the Moroccan universities/schools studied in this section are public and rely on the government for a large majority of their expenses. When asked about the funding sources the participants use to finance their internationalisation activities, again, ranked from 1 to 5, one being the lowest and five being the highest, the answers were as follows: Business national/international funding came first with a ranking of 4.5 out of 5, 'world' funded internationalisation programmes came second with a ranking of 3.5 out of 5, foundation national/international funding came third with a ranking of 3.2 out of 5, national internationalisation programmes came forth with a 2.6 out of 5 ranking, European Union funded internationalisation programmes came forth with a 1.8 out of 5 ranking, and institutional/university budgets with a 1.6 out of 5 ranking.

As with any other strategy and policy, there are barriers to those developed by the Moroccan higher education schools/universities for internationalisation. Such barriers include a lack of international partnerships and cooperation with a ranking of 3.5 out of 5, a lack of information sources and expertise provided to students and academics with a ranking of 3.4 out of 5, a lack of language proficiency among students and academics with a ranking of 3 out of 5, a lack of a regulatory framework to access the quality of international programs with a ranking of 2.7 out of 5, a lack of agreements regulating the mutual recognition of ECTS or similar credits with a ranking of 2.2 out of 5, a lack of funding provided to participants in mobility programs with a ranking of 2.1 out of 5, and finally an overemphasis of directions other than internationalisation with a ranking of 2 out of 5. To reduce the effects of such barriers, Moroccan education/higher education are working on implementing English bachelor's degree programmes in public universities and higher education schools to facilitate access to the international market and student and staff mobility for research and cultural exchange purposes.

Intercultural Dimensions

In a world where immigration rates are increasing, ensuring that intercultural understanding and communication are enhanced for all university students and staff is an essential function of higher education internationalisation.

The comprehensive IaH infrastructure built in MED2IaH through the International Students' Camp, FRIENDS Teahouses, and the subsequently extended stakeholder networks enhances the student university experience and builds complex skills much needed in a globalised world. Last but not least, the MED2IaH project places great importance on extra-curricular learning (through FRIENDS Teahouses & validation of prior experiential learning). The notion that students learn outside the classroom at least as much as in formal settings is considered another novel concept of MED2IaH applied in 5 PCS.

The main innovative themes the project deals with include intercultural awareness, cross-cultural dialogue in academia, talent management and global competence, creativity, student engagement, and stakeholder management in HE.

The HEI integrates international students in all extracurricular activities for domestic students, like camps, seminars, and volunteer activities. International students are invited to join various student clubs and societies available at the HEI, such as the International Students Association, sports clubs, and volunteer unions. This provides an ideal environment for engagement and collaborative learning among diverse students to take place.

The HEI regularly arranges cultural activities and events for international students to mingle with the local students and share their own culture. The cross-cultural activities may be international days or festivals and can integrate cooking, singing, and dancing. The multicultural events also encourage diversity on campus and offer the opportunity for international students to share their own traditions. The institution also involves international students in national traditional festivals and other religious festivals.

Moreover, the diversity of cultures on campus may also be displayed during an International Sports Day or Competition, which gathers local and international students to compete in traditional and regular sports. The activity can be conducted in cooperation between various student clubs at the HEI and may also include animated traditional games.

Conclusion

The global pandemic brought great challenges to the internationalisation of universities around the world. However, it opened new doors to new opportunities for internationalisation, and more specifically, to deepening internationalisation ‘at home’ and to improving institutional strategies that promote the exchange of knowledge and intercultural diversity at a global level supported by the use of technology. But it is important for internationalisation at home to be effective, not only as an accompaniment of the entire educational community, namely students, teachers, and collaborators, but also that the unit or office that is in charge of carrying out the international relations of the institution work to raise awareness and support in a planned way and operate through directed and interlinked actions.

The coronavirus, ironically enough, illustrates exactly why we need internationalisation—we need students who understand global phenomena, can see xenophobic and culture-bound reactions for what they are, and are prepared to work with colleagues around the world to address global issues in the short term and contribute to long-term solutions through research and the advancement of knowledge.

We must be aware of the inherent advantages that physical travel can offer to young people as international learning becomes more technologically facilitated and moves toward virtual mobility. Blending learning—the integration of online and offline learning experiences—will take on an ever more important role in the holistic cultivation of young people.

Educators, students, and employers should take this time to think about how to ensure this model can work for all from the perspectives of pedagogy, learning, and employability.

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Part Two

Global Skills Development in a Local Context

Chapter Six

Global Competencies Development among University Students for Success in Life

Shatha N. Alkhasawneh

Luminus Technical University College, Jordan
s.khasawneh@ltuc.com

Purpose The purpose of this chapter is to summarise recent research results on how global learning could be developed by Higher Education Institutes (HEIS) and the barriers that prevented HEIS from accomplishing it as well as the main myths in relation to global learning. The main objective of this chapter book is to review recent studies that elaborate on Global Competencies as a multi-dimensional concept that requires a blend of knowledge, abilities, attitudes, and values successfully applied by students to international or cross-cultural difficulties and in different contexts. Also, the studies that examine the Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) framework and how university educators could encourage the development of global competency among their students based on current research methods in higher education.

Study design/methodology/approach This chapter summarises the literature and findings of recent studies in relation to global competency development (definitions, best practises, myths, and barriers). This book chapter explores the following questions: (a) What are Global Competence, Global Citizenship & Global Citizenship Education; (b) How is global learning seen at different levels; (c) What are the four dimensions of the PISA framework; (d) How can Global Competence Education be effectively developed in higher education by sharing promising teaching practises that are related; (e) What are the shortcomings and challenges of Global Competence Education?

Findings HEIS need more to highlight global learning in their strategic plans in a local context, as previous research demonstrated that the understanding of global learning remains unclear as no direct definition/description was agreed on which is urgently needed to promote the internationalisation at home concept in HEIS.

Originality/value The current chapter addresses the importance of learners' empowerment with 21st century global competencies as crucial

skills for their success in the workplace and society, as well as enhancing their 'interculturality' and cultural awareness through the adoption and implementation of strategic plans and practises by HEIS and university faculty members.

Introduction

Students in the twenty first century live in a connected, diverse, and changing world (OECD, 2016). New economic, digital, cultural, demographic, and environmental influences are shaping young people's lives around the world, and they are engaging in more frequent daily cross-cultural interactions (Buckingham, 2007). Young people nowadays are expected to learn how to not just engage in a more connected world but also to respect and take advantage of cultural diversity. Education can shape the process of developing a global and intercultural outlook, which is a lifetime process (UNESCO, 2015).

Rapid technological advancements and expanding cross-border collaboration have made nations and universities of higher education more interdependent. Institutions have been urged repeatedly to give students the knowledge and abilities they need to become interethnic, intercultural, and globally competent citizens (Burstein, 2007). 'Our global era requires internationally competent citizens,' claim Dewey and Duff (2009).

Given the difficulties that modern society faces, it is crucial for higher education to prepare students for their role as global citizens (Gibson et al., 2008; Chong, 2015). According to Toumi et al. (2008), intercultural dialogue, intercultural relations, international relations, and cosmopolitan citizenship should all be covered in courses on global citizenship. Students need to possess the information as well as the abilities required to succeed in a global society and to enrol in any higher education institution because education is a fundamental human right (Stankovska, et al. 2019).

Additionally, when it comes to higher education, greater focus should be placed on empowering students with global competencies as well as paying more attention to how education can help educate these students for their role as active global citizens. Therefore, the central emphasis of the current chapter is to highlight the various strategies, pedagogical methods, and instruments with which educators can foster their students' global competencies for the purpose of integrating them into global citizenship.

Background and History of Global Competence and Global Citizenship

The term ‘global competence’ refers to the acquisition of in-depth knowledge and understanding of international issues, an appreciation of and capacity to learn from and collaborate with individuals from a variety of linguistic and cultural backgrounds, proficiency in a foreign language, and abilities to contribute effectively to a global community. Four fundamental components make up this definition (Van Roekel, D., 2010), namely:

1. *International Awareness.* This is what it means to be knowledgeable and understanding of global history, socioeconomic systems, and political systems, among other things. This awareness involves the knowledge that regional, societal, and even global events can have an impact. A person who is aware of the larger global environment also understands that people’s decisions have an impact on people outside of their own country or region.
2. *Appreciation of Cultural Diversity.* This includes the capability to recognise different viewpoints on urgent global issues as well as the knowledge, understanding, and appreciation of individuals from many cultures. It is possible to participate in constructive and courteous cross-cultural interactions when one is aware of, appreciates, and is willing to tolerate cross-cultural differences.
3. *Proficiency in Foreign Languages.* This includes understanding, reading, writing, and speaking in multiple languages, which improves cross-cultural communication abilities. Understanding different cultures and the speakers of those languages is made possible by having knowledge of other languages.
4. *Competitive Skills.* Gaining an in-depth understanding of global concerns is necessary to be competitive on a global scale. Students need advanced thinking abilities that foster creativity and invention in order to compete. Complete awareness of the global economic, social, and technological developments improves students’ capacity to compete in the global market.

Global competency has been used as a notion in everyday discourse for many years (Lambert, 1994). However, it is still regarded as a new concept in the scientific community. Relevant scientific contributions have just been made and published. Reimers (2009) or Boix Mansilla

and Jackson (2011) have both put forth influential strategies. Global competency is a topic of discussion, particularly in relation to education for sustainable and global development in many countries, like Germany, for example (Appelt and Siege, 2008; Lang-Wojtasik and Scheunpflug, 2005; Rost, 2005). In contrast, English-language research has placed more emphasis on a person's capacity for communication, which is typically divided into intercultural communication, linguistic and cultural skills, or behaviour that is considered 'acceptable and understandable' within a given society.

Organisations like the Association of International Educators, the Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD), and the United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO) have recently stated the critical need for the upcoming generation to strengthen their global competence, the capacity to examine societal issues, and the ability to work with those of different backgrounds to make a change. Educators play a critical role in ensuring that students are ready to succeed in multicultural communities and deal with contemporary concerns (Fox, 2019).

The Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development developed the 2018 PISA global competency framework in response to the increased demand for students who can solve global concerns (Asia Society/OECD, 2018). The significance of the PISA global competency framework is that it aids educational institutions in measuring, investigating, and tracking the academic progress of young learners in maths, science, and reading, as well as their emotional and social development. Specifically, how well they can use their knowledge and abilities in new circumstances in order to strengthen global competences (Fox, 2019).

The four dimensions that make up the PISA framework's core, when appropriately used, can give educators trying to promote global competency in their students some direction. According to the Asia Society/OECD (2018), global competence is the ability and willingness to carry out the following tasks:

- Consider topics like poverty, environmental risk, and conflict that are important on a local, national, and international level.
- Recognise and respect other people's viewpoints and worldviews.
- Interact openly, appropriately, and successfully with people of many cultures.

- Take action to promote sustainable development and societal well-being.

Although these four abilities seem to be separate from one another, they work very well together as the foundation for developing global competence (Boix Mansilla & Jackson, 2011).

The term ‘Global Citizenship’ is frequently used and thus contentious. It has been developed and interpreted for usage across a wide range of contexts, including corporate sustainability initiatives, government policies on development, and a number of global civil society activities. Unsurprisingly, scholarly discussion has focused on how it should be conceptualised, why it matters, and whether it is universal, leading to a variety of interpretations of what global citizenship is. These various interpretations can be helpfully framed by typologies, like the one developed by Oxley and Morris (2013). These typologies help investigate some of the concept’s fundamental characteristics and its various manifestations. According to many (Le Bourdon 2020; Pashby 2018), global citizenship is a human process that cultivates a sense of allegiance, solidarity, and connection to the people who live on our planet. Thus, the concept of ‘global citizenship’ includes thoughts of belonging to many different global communities as well as to all of mankind. According to UNESCO (2015, p. 14), this ‘feeling of belonging’ is created through political, economic, social, and cultural connections among the local, national, and global levels.

Global Citizenship Education (GCE)

Global Citizenship Education aims to foster self-reflection, critical thinking, and, most importantly, feelings of humanity. There are still gaps about the micro-level experiences and behaviours that support global identities, despite the fact that the subjectivity of belonging has been extensively acknowledged.

Higher education institutes are increasingly becoming more internationalised. Internationalisation is seen as a crucial factor in promoting staff and student mobility, establishing remote education, encouraging international education, and enhancing scholarly collaboration. The development of a system of international standards and the maintenance of educational quality are both considered tools for preparing students adequately for the demands of global labour markets, economies, and society (Marjorie, 2000; Qiang, 2003). Knowledge ac-

quisition, curriculum improvement, competitive advantage, and workforce development are some of its direct advantages. As a result of this expanding trend, new difficulties have emerged. The main issues include a lack of supportive educational policy, ineffective teaching and learning methods, restrictions on the supply of education via digital channels, and an imbalance between academic quality and recognition.

Following is an explanation of how university educators and higher education institutes could support the development of global competences among their students based on current research practises in higher education institutes around the globe.

Promising Teaching Practises

The design of curricula, enrollment of international students, study abroad programmes, international internships, cultural considerations, and hiring of foreign professors are just a few examples of how teaching is becoming more globally oriented. In these genres, performers take on the roles of learners, professors, researchers, specialists, and workers. Cooperating universities collaborate when designing curricula to provide programmes with standards that adhere to both national and international certification frameworks and are relevant on the global stage. Course syllabi, learning objectives, credit requirements, and pedagogical structures are all cooperatively defined. Language and cultural competencies should also be integrated into the learning process; these can be done in a number of ways. Universities can readily recruit international students if their courses are compatible and include elements that reflect their cultures and languages (Al-Agtash & Khadra, 2019).

According to reports, a new trend in educational structures has evolved that is mostly focused on collaboration agreements with international universities. This is the partnership dimension. According to Rena (2010), the United Arab Emirates, Qatar, Saudi Arabia, and Egypt are notable examples of nations that have brazenly promoted internationalisation by enlisting prestigious foreign universities to open local campuses. This was done in an effort to increase access for the domestic student population and act as higher education ‘hubs’ for their regions (Al-Agtash & Khadra, 2019).

To build global learning, educators must first do an analysis of their campuses to determine the dynamic campus factors. For example, why

does the campus wish to develop global learning? What must be done to fulfil the objectives of global learning? What resources are accessible? Where is the present KSA of global learning for the students? What goals do these students have in mind? In light of additional factors including the environment, the curriculum (including hidden curriculum), the delivery, and the institution, educators may want to rethink adjusting educational techniques (Killick, 2015). Each system may 'create a functional match between what the environment provides and what the actor can and wants to do' based on these evaluations (Thelen & Smith, 1994, p. 44).

Educators should also explore themes for reading, discussion, writing, and research in class by embracing diverse points of view through assignment design. In keeping with the faculty-driven curriculum redesigns described above, instructors should review the textbooks they use in their classes as well as the kinds of exercises and projects they assign to their students. According to Bourn (2011), 'The world is changing and previous world views are no longer appropriate,' so assignments and activities in the classroom should incorporate a variety of viewpoints and veer away from what he called 'fixed content and skills that conform to a predetermined idea of society' (p. 565). By expanding course themes to include more different experiences, International students have the chance to share their existing knowledge and, ideally, influence other students' thinking who may not have been exposed to these concepts before.

Instructors must encourage extracurricular activities that get both domestic and foreign students talking about issues with a global impact. Outside of the traditional curriculum, there are opportunities for global participation that let students connect depending on their own interests and goals. According to Leask (2009), schools must take deliberate steps to encourage these relationships, which calls for a 'campus atmosphere that stimulates and rewards interaction among international and domestic students' (p. 205). Participation in university-wide symposiums and events, service-learning programmes, research teams, intercultural student organisations, student government and leadership, globally themed living and learning communities in dormitories, and tutoring and mentoring programmes (in which international students tutor or mentor, rather than being tutored or mentored, or at least engage reciprocally in the relationship) are a few suggestions for co-curricular activities (Siczek, 2014).

In order to equip students to make a difference in the global community, mobile technology could be utilised to apply active learning methodologies like situational, inquiry-based, and case-based learning. According to Jarvis et al. (2016), undergraduate geography students can learn about economic, cultural, and social life by using mobile devices to deliver multimedia based on geographic location. Students were effectively able to synthesise, apply, and integrate knowledge in actual circumstances due to mobile-assisted case-based learning (Taradi & Taradi, 2016). Problem-based instructional strategies may aid student decision-making and action planning on global challenges.

Researchers that looked at how a mobile-assisted inquiry-based approach fostered active learning provide an example of this (Leelamma & Indira, 2017). It was found that students had a better understanding of important environmental issues and had promised to change things by using their knowledge to increase awareness in their communities.

By utilising language learning technology, instructors can assist students in becoming better equipped for action (Boix Mansilla & Jackson, 2011). Mobile devices offer a wide variety of language learning applications and have a substantial impact on college students' vocabulary and grammar understanding (Alkhezzi, 2016; Dange, 2018). One Chinese institution found that WeChat, a well-known social media platform, was very helpful in teaching students English as a second language (Shi et al., 2017). By working together to practise English using the mobile application WhatsApp, university students in Istanbul greatly increased their communication abilities and vocabulary (Avci & Adiguzel, 2016). With the help of mentorship and role modelling from teachers, popular learning tools like Duolingo make learning more engaging (Garca Botero & Questier, 2016).

On the other hand, when studying abroad, students typically enrol in a joint or double degree programme at a university overseas or spend a semester or a whole year there as part of their degree. This is currently the most common and expanding form of globalisation. Financing, linguistic hurdles, and credit transfer are just a few of the many worries and problems that exist. An overseas internship or practicum improves intercultural and practical experiences while increasing mobility. A practicum is frequently needed in a foreign country as part of various technical degree programmes, which adds another layer of intercultural complexity. In some circumstances, the practicum helps

graduates get jobs abroad, which might affect knowledge transfer but can have a negative effect on the 'brain drain' phenomenon (Al-Agtash & Khadra, 2019).

Myths About Global Learning

Some commonly accepted myths about internationalising the curriculum and promoting global learning exist (Zhou, 2022):

1. *Travelling abroad is required for global learning.* There is a pervasive misconception that participating in global learning requires studying abroad or, at the very least, leaving the university and the neighbourhood (Fischer, 2015). Students will experience numerous forms of globalisation in their daily lives on campus and in local communities. In fact, global learning is the result of curriculum modifications influenced by globalisation (Sobania & Braskamp, 2009). Although studying abroad is a successful method of fostering global learning (Hovland, 2006), it is not the sole method (Liao et al., 2019). Since the local context is a component of the global context, it is important to integrate global learning into local communities' everyday activities (Zhou, 2022).
2. *Only specific disciplines should engage in global learning.* Many students have the misconception that global learning is only appropriate for fields with a direct and obvious connection to globalisation, such as business, anthropology, or cultural and regional studies (Standish, 2012). All students, regardless of discipline, must acquire global learning as an essential student learning outcome in order to fulfil the demands of a globalised society. Thus, everyone can benefit from global learning (Zhou, 2022).
3. *The external environment is all that global learning is about.* Understanding different cultures, gaining perspective-taking abilities, or engaging in intercultural communication are all examples of how the term 'global learning' has been used to describe learning about the outside world (Hovland, 2014). Students should also have a more accurate self-awareness of this process as they gain more exposure to different cultural practices and ideas (Association of American Colleges and Universities, 2009). They acquire knowledge about their identity and the value they may bring to the world. Each student is also a part of global learning, in addition to the external environment (Zhou, 2022).

In conclusion, global learning is an important component of higher education institutions' responses to globalisation. Students should acquire it as a result of the internationalisation of higher education during their time in college and university (Hovland, 2014; Olson et al., 2006; Ruscio et al., 2015). The key learning objective for all disciplines is global learning, which calls for students to acquire the knowledge, skills, and attitudes (KSA) necessary for navigating local and international communities on a daily basis while also developing their own selves (Zhou, 2022).

Shortcomings and Challenges of Global Competence

First, there is a significant overlap between the definition of global competence and those of other commonly used concepts, some of which have definitions that are more ambiguous than others. These concepts include global citizenship, cosmopolitanism, multiculturalism, intercultural competence, education for democratic citizenship, and internationalisation. In fact, as Pashby (2009) has noted, global, intercultural, and multicultural education discourses are frequently conflated, which causes misunderstandings regarding the precise definitions of each term in various situations. These frameworks serve as a sort of 'hub' for many orientations and understandings rather than as a singular construct (Mannion et al. 2011; Frey & Whitehead 2009). For instance, discourses on global citizenship and global competence encompass a variety of agendas, such as education for sustainability, economic competitiveness, equality and human rights, social justice, and intercultural understanding (Marshall 2011), making it difficult to offer a clear definition for measurement needs (Engel et al., 2019).

Higher education Campuses and classrooms are diversifying more and more, opening new opportunities for cross-cultural dialogue. However, many institutional processes have not evolved to reflect the 21st century's global reality. As a result, they are losing chances to innovate curricula and pedagogies, to take advantage of the numerous contributions that students from diverse cultural and linguistic backgrounds make to their institutions, and to foster the development of global and intercultural competency in both domestic students and faculty (Siczek, 2014).

As a result, promoting the professional development of faculty members in higher education institutes becomes an important action to be considered by higher education institutes. The fact that teachers lack

the pedagogical expertise or skills to make complex adjustments that reflect complete implementation of 'internationalisation' is one of the reasons why global learning has not been more thoroughly included into the curriculum (Van Gyn et al., 2009, p. 27).

Faculty also lack the knowledge and time necessary to address the demands of multilingual, multinational students enrolled in their classrooms. These shortcomings demand a careful approach to professional development, including buy-in for the overall idea of internationalisation and the tools and mindsets that enable them to reinvent their teaching to support global learning. Van Gyn et al. (2009) proposed a strategy to restructure curricula to increase global awareness using pedagogical techniques, and Caruana (2010), Dewey and Duff (2009), and Mak (2010) all wrote about faculty and staff training and efforts in respective institutions. Through workshops, participants are prompted to critically examine their presumptions, course material, and teaching methods. They are then challenged to work with facilitators and peers to rethink their curricula and gauge how much they promote globally oriented learning.

Also, the lack of students' readiness at their universities to deal with and interact with different cultures, ideas, and perspectives in a connected global society is a noteworthy problem. Students' ability to develop these skills starts with teachers who can use contemporary technologies. By using easily available mobile devices in the classroom, instructors may foster a culture where students' global competency is enhanced. More precisely, by effectively utilising the different digital means (i.e., the internet, synchronous and asynchronous interactions, digital publications, and news programmes), educators can assist students in exploring global issues and gaining a global perspective (Fox, 2019).

Shiel and Mann (2006) believed that in order for students to achieve global citizenship, they must first adopt a global perspective and see how their lives are connected to those of individuals all over the world. Then, students will learn about internationalisation, sustainable development, and global challenges through the university curriculum and extracurricular activities. Shiel and Mann (2006) claimed that, as a result, students would be able to acquire the values, attitudes, and abilities of global citizens. Numerous institutions have created curricula, projects, and programmes to aid students in developing their global citizenship abilities. International travel, language ability, ser-

vice learning, and curriculum material were identified as themes by Aktas et al. (2017) in their analysis of 24 universities in five countries that offer programmes in global citizenship. They discovered that the majority of programmes worked to prepare students for college, global market and that the variety of programmes available lacked a formulaic curriculum (Massaro, 2022).

However, the particular difficulties that the Arab region faces in this regard are significant. These include the incompatibility of curriculum, the diversity of programme structures and requirements (year basis versus credit hours), communication and language barriers, and a lack of policy direction and understanding. Macro-level preparation is required in order for decision-makers to agree on the main pillars of a shared space. Making such a space is still challenging because Arab higher education systems have quite different organisational structures. International credentials, intercollegiate semester exchange programs, and regional research collaborations supported by financial and policy development mechanisms are very likely to serve as the inspiration for a temporary common area (Al-Agtash & Khadra, 2019).

It is significant to highlight that the quick spread of the COVID-19 virus has demonstrated how interconnected the world is. Universities have switched from on-campus to online instruction as a result of the pandemic, sent students home whenever possible, and cancelled study abroad options. These recent changes have affected higher education administrators, teachers, and students in various ways. Although higher education institutions may still strive to create global citizens, the pandemic may have a significant impact on their ability to do so (Massaro, 2022).

Findings

In this more globalised world, higher education is undergoing fast change, and whether or not individuals or institutions are conscious of these changes, higher education is responding to globalisation by internationalising. Global learning is the inevitable and crucial learning outcome for every college student as a result of internationalisation. To survive and prosper in our globally interconnected world, students must develop global learning. Global learning is more broadly defined as learning what and how to learn in a global context. Every educator and student must increase knowledge of how globalisation is affecting higher education, have a solid grasp of and a common vocabulary for

global learning, and build dynamic and varied ways that are tailored to their particular systems.

By promoting global learning, educators can improve their students', faculty's, and organisations' ability to respond effectively to the globalised world, empowering each student with practical experience and important skills, and fostering global self-awareness and responsibilities to build a diverse and inclusive community both locally and globally.

The incorporation of collaborative technologies, digital software, and reflection tools into course activities, as well as research-based practices in the classroom, might help students grasp different points of view. Through social networking and online learning opportunities, one's ability to communicate with others successfully could be improved. Last but not least, teachers can encourage students to make a difference in the world by using active learning, authentic learning, and language learning strategies. Strengthening global competency should be a top priority if one of higher education's goals is to equip students for success in the real world (Fox, 2019).

Campus globalisation through programmes, courses, and learning communities has grown but is still poorly understood. Higher education academics are conducting research on global citizenship, but K-12 needs more empirical research. The inability to generalise findings across institutions is a result of a lack of study. The diversity of the studies under evaluation shows that there is no single strategy for fostering global citizenship. Therefore, greater study of various nations and languages is required. As was previously mentioned, the COVID-19 pandemic has had a significant impact on higher education. Future research might look at how the pandemic has affected students' development of global citizenship or other initiatives run by higher education institutions besides studying abroad. It is yet unknown how to study the growth of global citizenship in the context of other programmes, such as learning communities and university programmes (Massaro, 2022).

Conclusion/Future Work

The world we live in is undergoing tremendous change due to globalisation and technology. Students who are prepared for the current globalised environment must have interethnic, intercultural, and international understanding and be able to function as responsible, informed,

and global citizens (Bartell, 2003). Therefore, as a key component of their strategic goals for the twenty-first century, higher education institutions have stressed internationalisation more and more. Additionally, in order for all students to succeed in a society that is interdependent on the entire world, educational and instructional leaders must re-evaluate teaching methods and curricula.

The cornerstone of international education is now global learning. However, it is still unknown what global learning exactly is and how to cultivate it. This chapter elaborates on the different concepts and definitions concerning global learning in higher education institutes. The important reaction to globalisation by higher education institutions is global learning by developing the knowledge, skills, and attitudes (KSA) of their learners about the outside world and about themselves in their daily lives across local and global societies which is a crucial learning consequence of full internationalisation of formal and informal curricula to let students have internationalisation at home experience and mind-set at their home universities.

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Chapter Seven

Developing Intercultural Competence and Communication: The Foundation for Successful Internationalisation

Mariam Hammoud

Lebanese International University, Lebanon
mariam.hammoud01@liu.edu.lb

Purpose The purpose of this chapter is to shed light on the importance of internationalisation within a higher education context. It will provide the theory behind the connection between intercultural competence as well as a plethora of means as to how this should be achieved and implemented within the higher education sphere.

Study design/methodology/approach This chapter is descriptive in nature. It is a collection of literature with suggestions for the implementation of intercultural activities.

Findings The connection between intercultural competence and successful internationalisation is vital, and there are various ways that this can be achieved. The higher education institution must take a holistic approach to implementing various methodologies to foster it amongst their students and staff.

Originality/value This chapter will prove to be a crucial tool for stakeholders to use by offering workable suggestions and approaches to fostering intercultural competence within a higher education context.

Introduction

The importance of internationalisation within the higher education sector falls under the notion that both academic and professional requirements for graduates have come to increasingly reflect the demands of what is deemed to be an increasingly globalised society as well as the economy and labour market (Qiang, 2003). It therefore becomes imperative that higher education institutions provide adequate preparation for such educational shifts. It is important to note that such preparation is not limited to both academic and professional

knowledge with regards to internationalisation, but also the acquisition of multilingualism, and social and intercultural skills and attitudes (Qiang, 2003). Consequently, integrating intercultural communication and competence as a means of enabling the internationalisation of higher education is deemed to be essential in this regard. Therefore, the intent of the current chapter is to shed light onto the importance of internationalisation within a higher education context. It provides the theory behind the connection between intercultural competence as well as a plethora of means as to how this should be achieved and implemented within the higher education sphere.

What is Culture?

Culture is defined as the social system that comprises a definitive set of values, norms, and ways of behaving in a human society. When discussing the concept of culture, the definition is considered to be bilateral. Schein (1990) defines culture within a managerial context and describes it as ‘how people feel about the organisation, the authority system, and the degree of employee involvement and commitment.’ Moreover, he states that ‘culture can be viewed as a widely held, shared set of values, beliefs, and ideas.’ As a result, the concept of forming and developing cultural understanding is becoming paramount due to the increasing need to be able to interact with individuals from other countries and cultures (Lee, 2006).

What is Intercultural Competence?

The knowledge that cultures exist across a spectrum brings forth the question of how communication can be facilitated in order to manage the interactions between individuals who belong to different cultures. Intercultural awareness is considered to be the interaction between ‘people of two different groups (ethnics, beliefs, etc.) or cultures’ (Arasaratnam & Doerfel, 2005), and according to Chen and Starosta (1998), ‘intercultural competence is the only means whereby we can move beyond cultural differences in order to succeed in intercultural interactions.’ Further analysis of the definition implies that intercultural communication effectively occurs at two levels. The first level is what is considered to be *interpersonal communication*, and the second level is considered to be *intergroup communication*. Interpersonal communication focuses on the identities of and relationships between interactants, while intergroup communication focuses on the identi-

ties of and relationships between the represented groups (Gudykunst, 2005). It is important that intercultural communication be understood at both levels. With regards to intercultural communication, the concept of competence refers to 'the appropriate and effective management of interaction between people who, to some degree or another, represent different or divergent affective, cognitive, and behavioural orientations to the world' (Spitzberg & Changnon, 2009). Therefore, the emphasis is on one's ability to effectively communicate with individuals who belong to different cultures. Moreover, both Spitzberg and Changnon emphasised with regards to intercultural competence that cultural adjustment, assimilation, and adaptation can all be viewed from the lens of competence (Spitzberg & Changnon, 2009).

What is Intercultural Communication?

With regards to intercultural communication, it is deemed to be the process of communication that takes place between people of different cultural backgrounds. This can also include those who are from different countries or even those who are from different subcultures within the same country (Shibata, 1998). Once we consider that both knowledge and communication are intrinsically linked, the relationship between the two suggests that the 'higher the level of knowledge, the greater the level of communication' and simultaneously, the 'greater the communication, the more knowledge increases.'

The level of knowledge involved permits a greater or lesser degree of interaction and, as a consequence, communication between the people who make up the different cultures. Knowledge and communication are two parameters that are intrinsically linked; the higher the level of knowledge, the greater the level of communication, but, from a different angle, the greater the communication, the more knowledge increases. In other words, communication allows us to decode many of the aspects that intervene in different civilizations. Cultural impact and, therefore, intercultural communication have been of interest in academic, political, institutional, and professional areas. For example, cultural assumptions have a great impact on commercial firms or organisations, and corporate or work culture has increasingly become the focus of research over the last two decades. Initially, practises was used to describe leadership practices, and later in the 1980s, management gurus defined culture in terms of symbols, slogans, heroes, rites, and rituals (Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner, 1998). Strategic devel-

opment, productivity, and multiple skills and abilities at all levels depend not only on interpreting and understanding but also on ‘practising’ organisational culture. Nevertheless, although it has progressively become a common disciplinary framework, organisational culture is one of the numerous areas of knowledge which approaches aspects that intervene in culture but is not itself the essence of culture.

What is the Internationalisation of Higher Education?

The concept of internationalisation is highly multifaceted and covers a plethora of dimensions at different levels of higher education (Yang, 2002, p. 72). There is not a single unified definition that would ultimately cover the interests of the stakeholders; however, a commonly accepted definition with regards to higher education has been put forth by Trilokekar, who stated that ‘internationalisation of higher education is the process of integrating an international/intercultural dimension into the teaching, research, and service elements of an institution’ (Knight, 2006). This definition is considered to be the one that is most closely aligned with the three important functional dimensions of the tertiary sector, such as universities. These include teaching, research, and service. The concept of internationalisation must be considered as something that is ‘dynamic’ rather than a set of isolated activities. The key element to consider is intercultural dimensions within this definition in order to emphasise the fact that internationalisation is not limited to one specific country or nation-state but rather is a concoction of different cultures and ethnic groups within various countries.

The Importance and Necessity of Internationalisation of Higher Education

It is without a doubt that education has become more international. No longer is the education system or curriculum limited within geographic borders. Although institutions and universities develop their own strategies to internationalise their research and teaching agendas, the government also plays a fundamental role in shedding light on the importance of internationalising higher education through international cooperation and exchange programmes. The importance of internationalisation comes about as an effective way to improve and maintain a competitive advantage economically. The socio-cultural reason for the internationalisation of higher education is directly linked to the potential impact of globalisation. This is particularly important

when we consider that higher education itself has been considered to be part of 'cultural agreements and exchanges.' Today's globalised economy, information, and communication systems suggest another aspect of the social-cultural reason (Knight, 1999, pp. 201–238). In addition to this, according to Knight (1999), with regards to higher education, an individual, institution, or country's motivation regarding internationalisation is one that is deemed 'complex and multi-levelled' and works to respond to the evolving nature of the importance of higher education. Moreover, according to Hayhoe (1989), 'international cooperative agreements, academic mobility, international scholarships, technical and economic development, international curriculum studies, cultural values, and historical and political context are the most important reasons for the internationalisation of higher education' (Hayhoe, 1989).

There are various reasons for the internationalisation of higher education. These include:

1. Mobility and exchanges for students and teachers;
2. Teaching and research collaboration;
3. Academic standards and quality;
4. Research projects;
5. Cooperation and development assistance;
6. International and intercultural understanding.

Intercultural Competence and Communication in Higher Education

One of the leading researchers on the theory of intercultural competence is Byram (1997), who defines IC as the ability to interact in their own language with people from another country and culture, drawing upon their knowledge about intercultural communication, their attitudes of interest in otherness, and their skills in interpreting, relating, and discovering, i.e., overcoming cultural difference and enjoying intercultural contact. This definition was expanded upon when Chen and Starosta both considered that intercultural competence refers to those who are competent enough to interact in a way that is deemed 'effective and appropriate' with people of different cultures (Chen & Starosta, 1996).

In addition to this, the concept of intercultural competence is di-

vided into various fragments. Both Chen and Starosta consider that it is divided into:

1. Affective perspectives (attitude);
2. Cognitive perspective (knowledge);
3. Behaviour perspective (skills).

It should be noted that having knowledge of one's own culture does not constitute intercultural awareness. Therefore, it is the consideration of both the 'psychological and attitudinal aspects' of the individual themselves, with consideration of their own culture as well as those that they do not belong to. Deardorff (2006) noted that with regards to the general definitions of the IC, essentially the primary focus is on 'individual's skills and attitudes in successfully interacting with persons of diverse backgrounds.' On the other hand, Dervin and Gross (2016) state that 'an approach to intercultural competence that fails to point coherently, cohesively, and consistently to the complexity of self and the other fails to accomplish what it should do: Helping people to see beyond appearances and simplifying discourses-and thus lead to "realistic" encounters.' Therefore, it becomes clear that the concept of intercultural competence revolves around the knowledge acquired through direct, authentic communication and encounters with those who belong to different cultures.

Being knowledgeable of one's own society and cultural conventions is therefore considered to be the starting point for developing any degree of intercultural competence. However, the cognitive dimension includes the 'complex understanding of cultural differences.' The intrapersonal dimension can be defined as the 'capacity to accept and not feel threatened by cultural differences,' and, finally, the interpersonal dimension refers to the individual's 'capacity to function interdependently with diverse others.'

According to Liu et al. (2011), in order to overcome the barriers of differences within cultures, it is important to build 'mutual differences with the other interactant.' She suggests that the best way to do this is to focus on the similarities as opposed to the differences. This is important because, according to Liu, the more knowledge we gain about people from different cultures, despite the visible differences such as the way we look or other physical traits, the more similarities and points of mutuality we share with each other. Moreover, the roles that both emo-

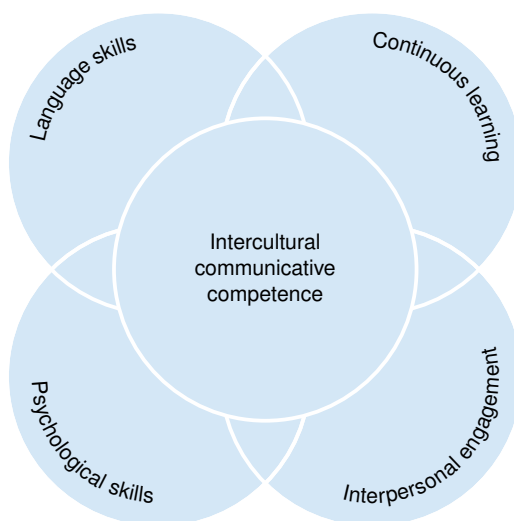


FIGURE 7.1
The Four Dimensions
of Intercultural
Communicative
Competence

tional and psychological factors play are also fundamental. The reason for this is that these factors are potent enough to interfere with our interaction in two primary ways:

1. The approach we have with the interlocutor;
2. The motivation we have to engage in the communicative.

The terms intercultural competence and intercultural communication are often used interchangeably. However, there is once again a central difference with regards to both terms. According to Guilherme, the main difference with regards to intercultural competence is that it involves ‘the ability to interact effectively with people from cultures that we recognise as being different from our own.’ Moreover, Wilkinson suggested that intercultural competence is referred to as the ‘fundamental role of language difference and therefore the need for linguistic as well as cultural competence’ (Wilkinson, 2020). Therefore, with regards to the difference between intercultural competence and communication, the central focus is on language. The lingua Franca is the key element in this case.

With regards to higher education and the cultivation of both intercultural competence and communication within this context, it is deemed necessary to take into consideration the four microdimensions of IC and ICC:

- interpersonal engagement,
- psychological attitudes,
- language skills,
- verbal and nonverbal.

All these micro dimensions' work in an overlapped manner with regards to both IC and ICC.

Actions to Promote Intercultural Competence in Higher Education

As noted by Bok (2009), Intercultural competence is a lifelong process; there is no pinnacle at which someone becomes 'interculturally competent.' Therefore, becoming interculturally competent is considered a lifelong endeavour that is tied to lifelong learning. With this knowledge, it becomes important that learners continuously engage in activities that reinforce both IC and ICC.

Encouraging Intercultural Friendships

A plethora of research has been conducted with regards to the means by which students in higher education. Encouraging students to form intercultural friendships is one way to reduce the in-culture prejudice that would naturally arise. This conclusion was reaped from various studies (Pettigrew et al., 2011; Pettigrew & Tropp, 2006), which have suggested that what is referred to as intergroup contact is necessary in order to form what is deemed to be a successful intercultural relationship. The contact hypothesis suggests that there are four contact conditions that need to be met in order to ensure this effect:

1. Contact and communication should be made between two individuals or two groups who deem themselves to be of equal status within the contact situation.

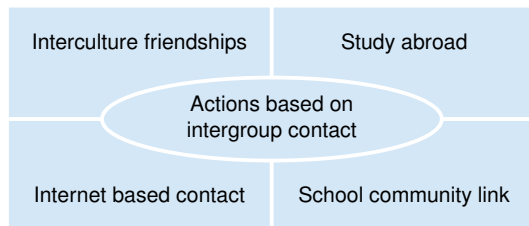


FIGURE 7.2
Actions Based on
Intergroup Contact

2. The contact that these two individuals have should be what is referred to as 'sufficiently prolonged' in order to be able to allow for relationships and friendships that carry with them a level of depth and meaning.
3. Joint activities. Both parties or groups should take part in or be involved in activities that have a common goal. This is important because it will eliminate the possibility of competition between the two groups.
4. Framework. Having contact supported by an explicit framework is of utmost importance.

Taking into consideration such conditions ultimately means that simply bringing students together is not enough to reduce possible prejudice or feelings of discrimination. Instead, the nature of the activities they are conducting and the way they are cooperating with each other in the classroom are fundamental. Ideally, the nature of the activities should be one that facilitates cooperation. Higher education institutions can promote them through policy implementation and various extracurricular activities.

There have been studies conducted that suggest that contact in its many forms (direct and indirect) has the potential to significantly reduce prejudice. According to Dovidio et al. (2011), there are three forms of indirect contact that can reduce prejudice:

1. *Extended contact*: when an in-group member is friendly with an outgroup member;
2. *Vicarious contact*: when an in-group member interacts with an outgroup member;
3. *Imagined contact*: imagining oneself interacting with an outgroup member.

Taking these three types of interactions into consideration will ultimately allow teachers and instructors to potentially develop classroom interventions based on these forms of direct and indirect contact (Turner & Cameron, 2016).

An example of a possible intervention could involve reading a series of texts or stories one a week over a 6-week period. These stories, in themselves, will promote intercultural understanding. A study that was conducted by Cameron et al. (2006) revolved around reading a group

of stories over a 6-week period to children between the ages of 5 and 11. The stories primarily revolved around the students who belonged to the 'ingroup' having harmonious relationships with refugee children. According to this story, such intercultural intervention actually led to positive attitudes towards refugee children and, in turn, improved the intercultural competence displayed by the kids. Another instance within this story revolved around students creating or conjuring up stories in which they would describe instances in which they would picture themselves reacting positively to peers of the same age who belonged to different cultural groups. Such an instance was also very instrumental in making the students feel that they were willing to have more contact with outgroup members. As an extension to these different types of contact, 'imagined' contact has also been effective for students who are enrolled in tertiary education, such as universities (Turner, West, & Christie, 2013).

Study Abroad

Implementing study abroad programmes as an alternative to intercultural contact within the classroom is incredibly effective. This is particularly important when we consider that certain schools are incredibly homogenous by nature. Many studies have been conducted that suggest that studying abroad is effective with regards to developing intercultural competence (Anquetil, 2006). Such a conclusion comes about as a result of a series of significant studies that focus on the impact of study abroad programmes. It is important to note that when students are given sufficient support and preparation, the degree to which their intercultural competence improves is significant.

The different preparation activities could possibly include:

- Pre-departure orientations;
- Students conduct research into the host country;
- Possible language learning;
- Advice on forming friendships in the host country.

Arranging for Students to Have Internet-Based Intercultural Contact

Due to the financial nature of the study abroad schemes, they are not necessarily accessible to all school students. The cost of student mobility can be the main issue. However, even if the school is particularly

homogenous and, let's hypothetically say, the higher education institution does not have the budget to send their students abroad, there are other strategies and approaches to ensure that students have a suitable intercultural experience. One way of achieving that would be through the creative use of the internet. This suggestion is, in fact, supported by various theorists (Huber & Reynolds, 2013; Fisher et al., 2004).

Why the internet is a particularly useful tool is that it gives students who are part of a higher education institution the unlimited opportunity to access information about other cultures, possibly develop rapport, and exchange views and perspectives with people of different cultures and backgrounds. This is important because the internet provides a gateway to this, where perhaps they would not have the opportunity to do so otherwise. An example of this would be online video conferencing, etc. This would essentially be a collaborative project between students in different countries. If communication were to be considered challenging in this context, then this would be deemed an opportunity for the teacher to discuss what caused this possible miscommunication and the different ways that this can be overcome in a more culturally sensitive manner. In this regard, online activities using the internet would enable students to develop the following traits:

1. Inter alia;
2. Openness;
3. Listening skills;
4. Communication skills;
5. Cooperation skills;
6. Critical understanding of culture and cultures.

Although research regarding the degree to which intergroup contact is optimal through the internet is lacking, various studies have suggested that it is possible. A study by Byram et al. (2016) that connected a number of studies involving higher education students and took into account the results that would occur if students of various cultures communicated with one another is an illustration of this. This study took into consideration the different facets previously discussed. In order to develop the various facets of intercultural competence, language teachers proposed collaborative projects that required students from various countries to collaborate and communicate closely with one another. The projects themselves addressed a range of different

topics; however, the central underlying theme was primarily civic or political in nature. The topics included recycling, graffiti, and climate change.

It is important to note that the studies that were conducted were qualitative in nature and included relatively small samples. Despite this, the results suggested that there was a significant improvement in terms of intercultural competence. These included:

1. Developed common international identifications;
2. Gained new intercultural and international understandings;
3. Acquired skills of criticality and developed their intercultural competence;
4. They learned how to apply their intercultural competence through action in their own communities.

In terms of the degree to which the internet is deemed an effective outlet for developing relationships, a study conducted by McKenna et al. (2008) involved two schools. One included schoolchildren living in what was considered a multicultural city in England, and the other in a rural area in England that was monocultural. As a result of this study, they found that children were able to form solid relationships, communicate well with each other, and were willing to learn about each other's cultural worlds.

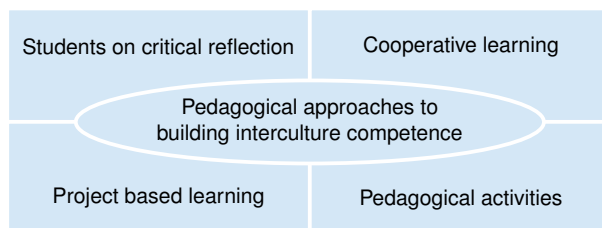
Pedagogical Approaches to Building Intercultural Competence

Supporting Students' Critical Reflection on Their Intercultural Experiences and on Their Own Cultural Affiliations

With the knowledge that intercultural contact is likely to reduce an array of discriminatory acts such as prejudice, increase the degree to which students have tolerance for each other, and ultimately boost intercultural competence, This is guaranteed if the four intercultural contact conditions are met. With regards to the effectiveness of intercultural competencies, they are more likely to be fostered if students are encouraged or required to reflect critically on their intercultural encounters (Alred et al. 2003; Byram et al., 2016).

Developing intercultural competence is not only limited to exploring the cultures of other students within higher education; it is also important that students discover and explore their own cultural backgrounds

FIGURE 7.3
Pedagogical
Approaches
to Building
Intercultural
Competence



and identities. Through exploration of their own background, it will ultimately provide them with the gateway to delve into the cultures of other students. Therefore, two additional strategies that could possibly be used in order to build the students intercultural competence could potentially involve delving deeper into their own cultural identities (Schwarzenthal et al., 2017)

Cooperative Learning

The approach of cooperative learning has also been found to be an effective way to boost intercultural competence. With regards to cooperative learning, it isn't limited to students working together in groups in an informal, unstructured manner. In fact, what is required of the students is that they work together on tasks that foster cooperative traits.

According to Johnson and Johnson (2009), activities that foster cooperative features generally consist of the following:

- *Positive Interdependence:* It is important that students feel that they are linked with group members in a positive, harmonious way.
- *Individual Accountability:* The performance of each student needs to be regularly assessed. This can be done in a formative way.
- *Promotive Interaction:* Students need to be able to interact and communicate with each other in a way that promotes goal achievement.
- *Social Skills:* Students should be exposed to and taught the most fundamental social skills with regards to building high-quality cooperation. These could include the following: decision-making, trust-building, communication, and conflict-management skills.
- *Group Processing:* There must be some kind of group reflection in order to monitor the working relationships between all group members.

If the cooperative learning that is implemented abides by these principles, then ultimately the degree to which intercultural competence is built will also increase. The outcomes are likely to be the following (Johnson, 2003; Johnson & Johnson, 1999):

- Boosting number of intercultural friendships;
- Students acceptance of cultural differences;
- Appreciation of diversity.

Project-Based Learning

Project-based learning has also been proven to be effective in fostering intercultural competence among students (Cook & Weaving, 2013). Project-based learning involves partaking in activities that revolve around ‘real-world situations.’ The activities should ultimately be based on activities that students find meaningful and interesting and that they can engage with. The nature of the projects does not have to be a fixed length; they can either be short in length or long in length.

The nature of the projects is that they must encourage students to problem-solve, investigate, and exercise their decision-making skills. Although these can potentially be done independently, it is encouraged that project-based learning be conducted in groups. Regardless of whether the students are working alone or in groups, it is important that self-reflection and self-evaluation be done during the course of the project.

Although limited research has been conducted with regards to students within higher education, there has been research conducted with regards to students who are considered to be at both primary and secondary levels. These studies have proven that project-based learning has been very effective in fostering skills such as listening, perspective-taking, and respect for others (Bell, 2010).

Pedagogical Activities that Foster Intercultural Competence

There are also different types of pedagogical activities that can be employed in order to foster the intercultural competence of students. An example of these activities includes:

1. *Role-play activities.* Such activities would help students explore what those who are discriminated against may feel. This would

promote the understanding that even though there may be physical differences between each other, everyone is ultimately deserving of dignity and respect.

2. *Analysing different films and texts.* This can be an interesting activity for students. They will be required to analyse characters in order to build greater knowledge and understanding of people who come from different backgrounds.
3. *Ethnographic tasks.* Such tasks would involve the students participating in various observations and then reporting back to the classroom. Here, the instructor or professor would encourage the students to analyse their observations. The process will encourage the students to think critically about different situations within the ethnographic context. This activity could possibly involve interviewing different people in order to foster their tolerance and ambiguity, as well as their respect for different people.
4. *Actions based on school institutional policies* play a significant role in promoting cultural inclusivity in higher education. The policies should reflect a commitment to promoting diversity and inclusivity in all aspects of the institution's operations. This includes the curriculum, teaching methods, admission processes, faculty recruitment, and student support services.

One effective way of promoting cultural inclusivity in higher education is through the use of a culturally inclusive curriculum. This approach involves integrating diverse cultural perspectives into the course content, materials, and assessments. This helps to broaden students' perspectives and understanding of different cultures and helps them develop the skills necessary to work in a globalised world.

Another effective approach is adopting a whole-school approach to valuing diversity in schools. This approach involves creating a culture of inclusivity throughout the institution rather than only in specific programmes or departments. This involves promoting diversity and inclusivity in all aspects of the institution's operations, including policies, procedures, leadership, and communication.

To implement a whole-school approach, institutions should create a diversity and inclusion committee that includes representatives from different cultural backgrounds, and ensure that they have a voice in decision-making processes. This committee should also develop and implement training programmes for staff and faculty to help them un-

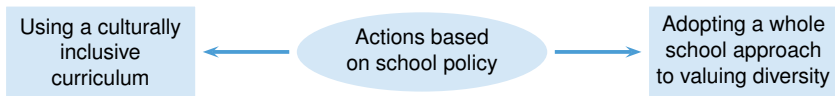


FIGURE 7.4 Actions Based on School Policy

derstand the importance of diversity and inclusivity in higher education.

Culturally Inclusive Curriculum

The curriculum is an important tool that aids in promoting intercultural competence. The importance of integrating intercultural competence into the curriculum would therefore treat diversity as a resource for learning. The ways in which this could potentially be integrated into the curriculum would be the following:

- Curricula which includes appreciation for history;
- Include a focus on minority groups.

Research has shown that when schools and higher education institutions implement a culturally inclusive curriculum, they play a fundamental role in reducing the students' cultural prejudices as well as their respect for minority groups within the community. In turn, racism and discrimination are more likely to be reduced (Cammarota, 2007).

A Whole School Approach to Valuing Diversity

A whole-school approach would involve not only focusing on the curriculum but rather holistically embracing all elements of the higher education institution. This would therefore include learning, general governance, policy, and codes of conduct. The university would also focus on means by which they could improve both student-student relationships as well as staff-student relationships, as well as how they have links to the wider community. The community could then ultimately work with the school towards embracing diversity. This could possibly be in the form of the following (Billot et al., 2007):

- Culturally inclusive curriculum;
- Holding inclusive celebrations of the different religions;
- Embracing different religious traditions;
- Making sure to always include and respect minorities by employing them and placing them at the forefront of the institution.

Conclusion

It cannot be denied that both intercultural competence and awareness are fundamental aspects of successful internationalisation in higher education. This chapter has presented the different means by which an institution could possibly put in place actions and activities that would be deemed important in cultivating intercultural competence amongst students.

However, it is important to note that teachers and instructors need to ultimately consider their roles as agents of change and that they are the fundamental facilitators of the intercultural competence of their students. Ultimately, the instructors need to be ready for this in order to make sure that the activities are implemented in the most effective way possible. Training pre-service and in-service teachers could ultimately accomplish this. The reason why this particular training would be deemed particularly important is because it is necessary to develop the instructor's own level of intercultural competence beforehand. This is vital because it would mean that instructors need to be knowledgeable about how to deliver suitable educational experiences to the students.

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Chapter Eight

Virtual Exchange for the Sake of Internationalisation at Home

Dorsaf Ben Malek

Virtual University of Tunis, Tunisia
dorsaf.benmalek@uvt.tn

Rut Muniz Calderón

Catholic University of Valencia, Spain
rut.muniz@ucv.es

Purpose The purpose of the current chapter is to shed light on the virtual exchange (VE) by enumerating its definitions, theoretical approaches, and scenarios, as well as its learning objectives, institutional outcomes, and implications for internationalisation at Home. Thus, our goal is to introduce scholars and educators to this brand new area of research and study and encourage them to set up their own VES in order to utilise them in the internationalisation of their students and institutions.

Study design/methodology/approach The structure of the current chapter is composed of three principal sections. The first relates to the theories that intervene to set up a VE, including the learning theories, the online teaching theories, and the intercultural communicative competence (ICC) theoretical models. The second section is dedicated to valorizing the roles of VE practitioners in the development of intercultural knowledge, skills, and attitudes. The final section explains the relationship between VE and internationalisation at Home for higher education institutions (HEIS).

Findings Literature has demonstrated the correlation between the implementation of VE and the development of the learners' international identity and global mindset, which help them enhance their employability skills within a growing multicultural job market.

Originality/value The value of the current chapter lies in the different angles from which VE is presented to scholars and educators, namely its overlapping theories and scenarios. In fact, our ultimate goal is to raise their awareness of the necessity of implementing VE by bringing digital natives together in the same milieu of discussion and contributing to building their international experiences and future careers.

Introduction

In the previous chapters, the scholars tackled Internationalisation at Home from various angles, namely its theoretical framework and best practises, including the internationalisation of the curricula and extracurricular activities, the inclusion of on-campus intercultural activities, the mingling of international and local students, and the implementation of an overall strategic plan for Internationalisation at Home as an effective institutional approach. In the same philosophy, virtual exchange (VE) was also mentioned as an effective measure to implement the concept within HEIS. In fact, it is considered a wide-open window on the cultural diversity of the world. Local students are therefore not obliged to leave their home countries in order to dive into intercultural encounters that breed their intercultural awareness. Thus, the intent of the current chapter is to explore the definitions, theoretical approaches, and scenarios of VES, as well as their learning objectives and institutional outcomes, and ultimately demonstrate their implications for internationalisation at Home. Our goal is to introduce scholars and educators to this brand new area of research and study and encourage them to set up their own VES to utilise them in the internationalisation of their students and institutions.

Virtual Exchange Definitions, Theoretical Approaches, and Scenarios

Definitions and Appellations of Virtual Exchange

As defined by O'Dowd (2017), virtual exchange (VE), also called online collaborative learning, tele-collaboration, globally networked learning environments, collaborative online international learning (COIL), or online intercultural exchange, is the meaningful use of online tools to bring groups of learners 'geographically' distant into the same milieu of discussion, cultural exchange, and interaction for the purpose of enhancing their linguistic skills, intercultural communicative competence, and digital literacy skills. Therefore, it is a computer-mediated communication programme that was originally used in the field of computer-assisted language learning (CALL). Nowadays, there are many other organisations worldwide that foster VE, such as The Stevens Initiative, a joint international effort to build global citizenship and professional skills for young people in the United States, the Middle East, and North Africa by promoting virtual exchange (Stevens' Initia-

tive, 2020). It has become widely used in various disciplines as an avenue to internationalise the curriculum. Indeed, according to Bassani & Buchem (2019), virtual exchange has been defined as a form of virtual mobility that intends to enlarge the sphere and scope of traditional intercultural learning programmes. In line with this, according to the Erasmus+ Virtual Exchange brochure, virtual Exchange has been defined as a form of virtual mobility that, through the use of technologies, can bring an unprecedented number and diversity of people together in meaningful cross-cultural learning experiences (Angelini & Muñiz, 2021). With a broad reach within and far beyond Europe's borders, it can bridge more important cultural divides, giving young people exposure to a variety of different world views and beliefs (Erasmus+ Virtual Exchange, 2019).

The intrinsic collaborative, experiential, and cross-curricular learning that Virtual Exchange has proven to offer becomes an ideal tool to foster interaction between students and educators worldwide, as well as to promote the internationalisation of higher education not only in Europe but also among other continents (Angelini & Muñiz, 2021). Virtual Exchange is acquiring a more relevant position as an alternative methodological approach and as a form of inclusive mobility for students that are unable to participate in physical mobility programmes due to different reasons, such as high costs of travelling and living in a foreign country or socio-economic, health-related, or political issues (Buchem et al., 2018). Nevertheless, whether used in language learning or other disciplines, one or more tutors who, within this intercultural context, will play different roles and wear different hats for the smooth progress of the VE, should necessarily guide the communication that takes place in a VE among culturally diverse students.

Virtual Exchange Theoretical Approaches

Virtual exchange is the crossroad of different but interdependent research areas and theoretical frameworks, namely online teaching theories, teaching and learning approaches, and models of intercultural communicative competence (ICC).

Learning Theories in Virtual Exchange

The learning theories that intervene in virtual exchange coincide with the teaching goals and learning objectives of the course studied. These are the traditionally known learning theories, namely:

- Behaviourism which examines the behaviour of learners while learning by constantly scrutinising them while performing some tasks.
- Cognitivism, in which the mind has an important role in learning by creating, evaluating, analysing, applying, understanding, and remembering according to Bloom's (1956) taxonomy,
- Social constructivism, in which teaching and learning are complex interactive social phenomena between teachers and students. In this vein, John Dewey saw learning as a series of practical social experiences in which learners learn by doing, collaborating, and reflecting with others.

Online Teaching Theories

Several theories derive from the aforementioned learning theories to adapt to the online environment. They all converge on three principles: community-centeredness, knowledge-centeredness, learner-centeredness, and assessment-centeredness (Bransford et al., 1999). The following are the most renowned theories in relation to online teaching:

- Community of Inquiry (COI) by Garrison et al. (2000) was founded on the three distinct presences of cognitive, social, and teaching. The intersection of these three presences results in a learning experience (Figure 8.1). COI encourages the design of online and blended courses as dynamic learning milieus in which educators and learners share thoughts, knowledge, and opinions.
- Connectivism is 'a learning model that acknowledges major shifts in the way knowledge and information flow, grow, and change because of vast data communications networks' (Picciano, 2017, p. 174). According to Siemens (2004), connectivism relies on eight principles in online learning, namely:
 1. Diversity of opinions;
 2. Connecting specialised nodes or information sources;
 3. Non-human appliances;
 4. The capacity to know more is more critical than what is currently known;
 5. Nurturing and maintaining connections is needed to facilitate continual learning;

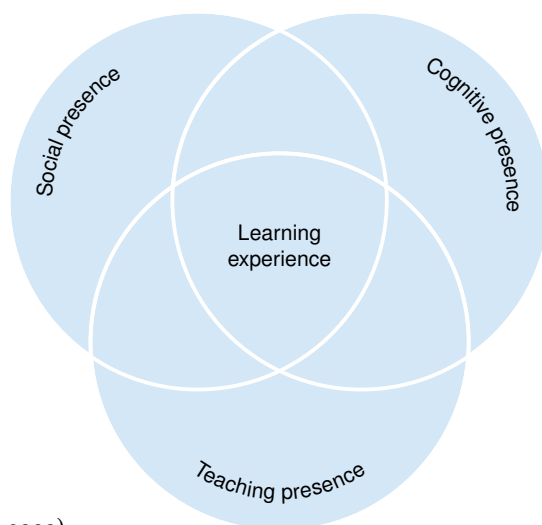


FIGURE 8.1

Community of Inquiry

(adapted from Garrison et al., 2000)

6. The ability to see connections between fields, ideas, and concepts is a core skill;
 7. Currency (accurate, up-to-date knowledge) is the intent of all connectivist learning activities;
 8. Decision-making is itself a learning process. Choosing what to learn and the meaning of incoming information are seen through the lens of a shifting reality. While there is a right answer now, it may be wrong tomorrow due to alterations in the information climate affecting the decision.
- Online collaborative learning (OCL) in Harasim (2012) emphasises the building of shared knowledge over meaningful collaboration through the internet. To this end, knowledge construction goes through three major stages: *idea generation* (brainstorming), *idea organising* (comparing, analysing, and categorising through discussion and argument), and *intellectual convergence* (intellectual synthesis and consensus), which reminds us of cognitivism and Bloom's (1956) taxonomy.

Theoretical Models of ICC

The models of ICC intervene in VE in the sense that they help facilitators develop the learners' ability to interact across cultures in an ef-

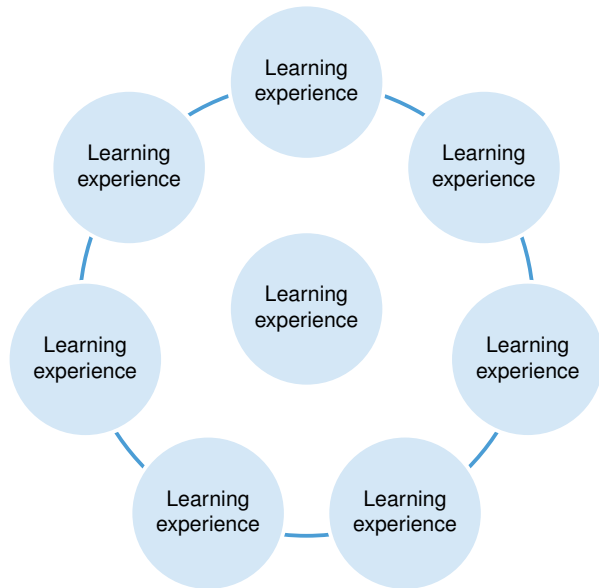


FIGURE 8.2
Strategies for
Teaching IC

fective and responsible way. We choose to explain three of the most renowned models for their applicability to education:

- Byram's (1997) model of ICC 'aims to develop learners as intercultural speakers or mediators who are able to engage with complexity and multiple identities and to avoid stereotyping, which accompanies perceiving someone through a single identity [...] Intercultural communication is communication on the basis of respect for individuals and equality of human rights as the democratic basis for social interaction' (p. 9). Intercultural training should follow specific strategies that Byram et al. (2002) summarise into 7: noticing, comparing (to promote comparative analysis with one's own culture), interpreting and interacting, adaptation (to adjust one's own behaviour with another culture), negotiation (to engage in cross-cultural negotiation within professional situations), and reflecting (Figure 8.2).
- Deardorff's (2006) Pyramid Model of ICC is composed of *attitudes* (i.e., respect, openness, curiosity, and discovery), *knowledge and comprehension* (i.e., cultural self-awareness, deep cultural knowledge, sociolinguistic awareness), *skills* (i.e., to listen, observe and evaluate, analyse, interpret, and relate), *desired internal outcomes*

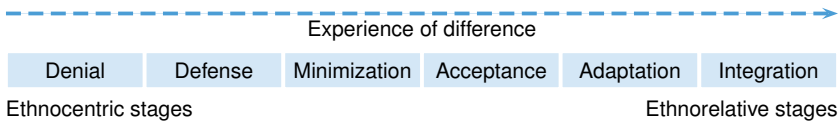


FIGURE 8.3 Development of Intercultural Sensitivity (adapted from Bennett, 1986)

(i.e., adaptability, flexibility, ethno-relative view, and empathy), and *desired external outcomes* (i.e., effective and appropriate communication and behaviour in an intercultural situation). Dearsdorff's (2006) ICC framework gives more interest to the active side of communication. She expresses overtly the importance of effective intercultural communication in the desired external outcome, which means 'behaving and communicating appropriately with people of other cultures.' She considers having positive attitudes towards other cultures a prerequisite step for effective intercultural communication. It is when the intercultural learners adopt a positive, respectful, and open stance towards the interlocutor that they become able to assimilate cultural knowledge, including self-awareness, culture-specific knowledge, and deep cultural knowledge.

- Bennett's (1986) developmental model of intercultural sensitivity is built over six stages ranging from ethnocentric to ethno-relative, namely denial, defence, minimisation, acceptance, adaptation, and integration. These stages are placed on a linear continuum, but this should not lead to see them as continuous progress. The intercultural learner may go back and forth on this continuum (Figure 8.3).

It is worth considering that the learning theories, online teaching theories, and ICC theoretical models interfere together to make a VE successful and influential on the students' knowledge, skills, and attitudes in order to develop them as global citizens. It is therefore important to understand the mechanisms of the four scenarios of VE and how the aforementioned theories are put into practise.

The Four Scenarios of Virtual Exchange

The four scenarios of virtual exchange are:

- *Preparatory or follow-up activity for physical mobility.* It is equally named blended mobility. It is set prior to or following a physical

mobility exchange for the purpose of providing high quality preparation, and ensuring that students succeed in their stay abroad or reflect on their international experience.

- *Intertwined components of physical mobility.* Also blended mobility, knotted with physical mobility, into a single educational experience. The principal aim of this VE scenario is to expand the participating student audience's physical mobility by involving those who are not capable of travelling for longer periods of time.
- *Stand-alone learning activity.* This scenario is recognised as an individual activity that helps institutions introduce VE projects with more restricted faculty contributions if wanted.
- *Component of a course, either traditional or online.* It is conducted as an integral or required part of a course. This VE scenario is suitable for teachers who wish to give their course an international dimension. In this VE scenario, the teachers can design the course or include a ready-made VE within a single course.

Roles and Appellations of the Facilitators in a Virtual Exchange

Developing ICC is directly related to the learners' efforts and stances in their intercultural journey. First, there must be cultural awareness, which starts with self-awareness on the part of the learners. Second, they must admit to being learners. They should participate in solving a problem solving situation in which they try to share their ideas and discover other people's ideas that mirror their cultures. This way, students realise the importance of showing views for stronger problem-solving. Third, learners should be curious to know about the 'other' for that 'other' to stop being strange and become an equal co-citizen of global society. Fourth, learners should be ready to listen to and observe other people's cultural practices and views. According to McMahon (2011), listening and watching are more effective than talking for learning. Indeed, when talking, the learner will focus on their own culture. One must enter into an equal dialogue with members of other cultures, and in the dialogue, there must be a speaker and a listener in turns, so that no one talks all the time. This is the real meaning of a healthy interaction. In the absence of intercultural dialogue, in which one can listen to and observe the other, the learner can discover other cultures through culturally authentic products (films, stories, pictures, and artefacts). Fifth, it is of paramount importance for the learners to

develop their intercultural communication skills through experiencing different cultures. This is not only possible through travel or immersion in other societal contexts but also through exposure to cultural materials (McMahon, 2011).

During the virtual exchanges, the facilitators are not only the tutors of the online course but also play other significant roles in facilitating the virtual collaborative learning experience. They are partners, monitors, guides, and cultural mediators.

According to Muñiz and Angelini (2023), it is always advisable to count on trained instructors and facilitators to design and implement VE. Several technical aspects should be considered. The facilitator should have:

- The ability to use the chosen online medium to the extent that he/she can help others use the medium to communicate;
- The ability to multitask online and pay attention to technology, different communication methods, engagement, discussion content, time management, etc.;
- The ability to set up the online space for constructive engagement;
- The ability to read non-verbal communication online;
- The ability to establish and maintain clarity and understanding in all channels of communication;
- The ability to support participants with technical challenges and normalise the experience for the group.

Partners

During the VE, the students are not the only partners; the facilitators are partners too. Indeed, before collaborating in the course implementation, the VE facilitators engage in a partnership within which they cooperate to design and implement the course and the synchronous meeting scenarios and tasks.

Monitors and Mentors

During the VE implementation, the tutors facilitate, monitor, and observe the students' interactions in the forums. During the synchronous meetings, they encourage the students to contribute to the discussions and take part in the cultural activities. According to the Soliya Connect Programme, a facilitator helps the group communicate, addresses

group dynamics, keeps imbalances in check, and acknowledges emotions. A facilitator also makes the dialogue process explicit and promotes *awareness* of dialogue to help the group understand how their group process is going and why.

In addition, for the sake of raising awareness about online interaction strategies before the interaction begins, the educators provide students with examples or models of effective and appropriate strategies (Müller-Hartmann & O'Dowd, 2017; Ware, 2013).

Facilitators should be able to create a conducive environment for learning. For this, he/she must guarantee safety, honesty, and representativeness during the process. Dialogue participants should feel safe enough with each other to speak up and be able to express their feelings and opinions honestly, even when it is difficult. The facilitators' goal is to promote active listening to understand and engage, not to prove others wrong. Everyone should feel represented and heard (Muñiz & Angelini, 2023).

Guides

Instead of being the sole source of information, the tutors served more as guides to accompany the students throughout their intercultural journey. Educators participate in and guide online intercultural communication (Helm, 2016). Educators engage in guided reflection and discussion with students on extracts from their own online interactions (Vyatkina & Belz, 2006; Cunningham, 2016).

Cultural Mediators

In line with the intercultural approach in education, tutors in VE play the role of mediators between members of different cultural entities. In fact, the role of the mediator principally implies leading these different cultural entities to respect each other's cultural beliefs and practises, accept the cultural differences as enrichments to their cultural identities, and most of all, help them relativize their own beliefs and recognise their belonging to the same realm of global citizenry (Byram, 1997).

Virtual Exchange Implications for Internationalisation at Home

In the light of the findings of the previous studies on virtual exchange (Belz & Müller-Hartmann, 2003; Kern, 2014; O'Dowd, 2017; Kern & Warschauer, 2000; Angelini & Muñiz, 2021), we can draw several conclusions about the implications of virtual exchange for international-

isation at Home within Higher educational institutions (HEIS) in the underprivileged as well as the privileged corners of the world. Indeed, IAH can also include virtual mobility through virtual exchange with students of partner universities, which principally aims at integrating ICC as a learning outcome for the fulfilment of the principal goals of internationalisation at Home, namely enhancing local students' ICC, offering them opportunities for virtual collaboration in multicultural teams, consolidating their field knowledge, and sharpening their linguistic skills. Therefore, not only does VE provide the advantage of developing subject-related skills but also enabling skills leading to employability: intercultural communication, virtual teamwork and problem solving (Muñiz & Ben Malek, 2023)

By setting up internet-based intercultural contact for students, this is made possible through cyber-intergroup contact. In this sense, the Internet offers access to information about other cultures and to communication with members of other cultural backgrounds. People from different cultures can enter into online discussions without being obliged to move physically (Barrett et al., 2013; Fisher et al., 2004).

With regard to the research body on virtual exchange, it is worth noting that virtual collaborative learning may be a tool to provide educational inclusion for underprivileged and vulnerable students, such as the handicapped or refugees, which gives them equal opportunities to share and exchange cultural interests. They are therefore offered an international experience without caring about the funds or the visa.

Moreover, students can build partnerships and expand their intercultural network via collaborative online tools. To this end, VE empowers them with the right competencies, including intercultural communicative competence (ICC) and virtual collaboration skills vastly required in their employability process. Thus, the four VE scenarios are perfect for adopting ICC as a learning objective in the curricula of higher education institutions.

It is also important to note the merits of mingling international and local students within the same VE in order to get the most out of their international experience. In fact, they can co-construct their knowledge and competences within efficient and complementary partnerships. In this sense, Kramsch (1993) preaches for the learner's 'biculturalism' instead of taking the native speaker as 'the norm' or 'model.' Within the intercultural approach, the learner must keep a distance from the target culture in order not to be assimilated into it. They

should rather adopt a 'third position' (Liddicoat & Crozet, 1997) that exists between the host and the target cultures.

Therefore, adopting virtual collaborative learning for the sake of exchanging cultural reflections can be a strategic pillar of internationalisation at Home. This latter should therefore be acknowledged as an institutional policy within the overall strategy of internationalisation.

VE is immensely necessary for educators, researchers, and administrative staff not only to strengthen their connections with each other' but also to widen their networks according to their interests. Educators, for example, can build relationships with partners of different cultural backgrounds and thus discover how their counterparts in other cultures teach. Researchers can find partners, collaborators, or laboratories to carry out their research. As for the administrative staff, they can envision their careers within multicultural teams while collaborating virtually within VE teams.

Therefore, it is inevitable to create an action plan for the sustainable integration and accreditation of VE. Thus, recognising it as a source of ECTS is essential for the educational growth and internationalisation of students without leaving their home country. It is also crucially important that teachers and facilitators who design, implement, and carry out VE with their students are recognised in the higher education context, as they are a fundamental part of internationalisation at home. Nonetheless, there is no one-size-fits-all VE strategy that takes into consideration the specificities that every culture holds. As a result, VE implementation, including the course design, materials, and learning objectives, should be suitable for HEIS institutional, educational, and culturally specific contexts.

Conclusion

As has been demonstrated in this chapter, virtual exchange can be an efficient tool in developing the competencies and skills essential to building students' international experience, namely intercultural communicative competence, collaboration skills, and language proficiency. Through virtual collaborative learning, these students are given equal opportunities to participate in the internationalisation process, which should no longer be the privilege of students belonging to specific places or with high incomes. Therefore, internationalisation at Home comes as an alternative or consolidation to the internationalisation strategy of universities. To this end, approving the potential of

virtual exchange to provide an international experience without leaving the home country should be taken into consideration when setting the overall internationalisation strategy of the university. Therefore, in the current chapter, we tried to shed light on the different theories that intervene in VE, the roles of educators in it, and the potential of VE as an efficient strategy for internationalisation at Home.

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Chapter Nine

Campus Diversity and Intercultural Engagement for Good Mental Health in Cultural Events

Jocelyn I. Saab

Antonine University, Lebanon

jocelyn.saab@ua.edu.lb

Purpose The purpose of this chapter is to provide guidance and best practises to event organisers to ensure the successful planning and execution of the event. We have focused on cultural events as we are living in an increasingly globalised world, and cultural diversity is to be recognised. These practices include addressing several aspects of event management, such as task delegation, risk management, team management, etc. Furthermore, event organisers and managers should not only ensure that the event is successful but should also promote their own mental health and well-being and that of everyone else in the process. This includes addressing all the emotions felt throughout the planning and execution of an event; the latter is discussed through ‘The Gestalt Perspective: The Contact Cycle.’

Study design/methodology/approach The study design used is descriptive research, which involves the collection of data from several resources. This paper describes the characteristics, behaviours, and mental health of event managers.

Findings Event managers can better understand the complexities of managing a cultural event if they focus on the slightest details. They can plan and implement an event that is enjoyable and beneficial. By prioritising mental health in event management, organisers can create a safer and more productive environment for themselves and their team.

Originality/value The value of the current chapter lies in its originality in tackling the mental side of event management.

Introduction

In an increasingly globalised world, it is important to recognise and value cultural diversity and promote cultural exchange and understanding. The latter helps to break down cultural barriers, foster mu-

tual respect, and build strong and inclusive communities. Whether through events, the arts, or education, culture can connect us all, and we have many opportunities to promote cultural awareness and appreciation. As we grow older and build our experiences, we meet a wider range of people from diverse cultures, sometimes from our own country and environment. With that being said, when we are assigned to manage a cultural event, it is important for us to be familiar with the culture(s) that we are dealing with to avoid any misunderstanding or inconvenience (Unifrog, n.d.). Therefore, the purpose of this chapter is to provide guidance and best practices to event organisers to ensure the successful planning and execution of the event.

Cultural Intelligence: Why Understanding and Respecting Differences is Key to Successful Event Management

We focus on cultural events as we are living in an increasingly globalised world, and cultural diversity is to be recognised. These practices include addressing several aspects of event management, such as task delegation, risk management, team management, etc. Furthermore, event organisers and managers should not only ensure that the event is successful but should also promote their own mental health and well-being and that of everyone else in the process. This includes addressing all the emotions felt throughout the planning and execution of an event.

Firstly, to gain a deeper understanding of other cultures, it is crucial to reflect on your own (Unifrog, n.d.). Often, we take our cultural practices and beliefs for granted and don't realise that they may seem peculiar to others. By recognising that our own culture is not the norm, but one variation among many, we can approach our cultural differences with more respect.

Secondly, there are different ways to learn about different cultures (Unifrog, n.d.). You can start off by making friends with people from diverse backgrounds; you can also engage in polite conversation and ask about their lives. You can also read books written by and about people from diverse cultures, as well as watch movies that tackle other cultures than your own. Lastly, enjoy the culture you wish to learn more about, travel, and explore the cultural pockets in your country and outside of it.

Thirdly, it is crucial to avoid stereotyping when you are dealing with a culture and getting to know it (Unifrog, n.d.). To achieve this, you

should be aware that learning about a culture does not mean you know everything about a person from that culture. In addition, avoid making assumptions based on limited information or generalisations. It is also important to remember that every individual is unique and may have different perspectives and experiences, even within the same culture.

Lastly, always appreciate and embrace the differences that make life interesting (Unifrog, n.d.). Learn to balance curiosity with appreciation, ask questions only if your friends are willing to answer. Recognise that what may be a fascinating difference to you is just a normal part of someone else's life, and show respect to people from different cultures by appreciating their unique perspectives and experiences. Now that we have briefly explored culture and how to respect it, we can start to manage, plan, and organise a cultural event.

Mastering the Art of Event Management: Strategies for Success

For an event to be successful, proper event management is essential. Simply put, failure to get the fundamental factors, such as budgeting and logistics right could expose you to possibly unexpected challenges, regardless of how fantastic your location, speakers, or entertainment are. Consider it this way: the more time you devote to event management, the more polished your event will be.

Firstly, a running checklist should be with you while you arrange the event. To make it easier for you to keep track of the preparations, it should include a list of caterers, decorative objects, speeches, dancing and music performances, etc. The list can be expanded with new items, and completed activities can be crossed off. You'll remain organised the entire time. You can choose between a digital copy and a manual version, depending on which is more convenient for carrying. Include alternate plans as surprises may happen and barriers may arise. If such obstacles happen, there isn't a need to stress or be negative; switch to the alternative!

As soon as your checklist is ready, it is time to start building your event to successfully bring it to life. For that, building a team that shares ideas is key (Sheth, 2017). You will need someone on your team who can come up with more original ideas for the event. This addition to the team is a requirement to manage the jobs effectively; thus, you will need a staff that can handle all of the event's important tasks. One team member should also coordinate the different aspects of the event management process (location, speakers, needed material, etc.) in order to

have accurate updates. With that being said, we can conclude that assembling your perfect team begins with identifying the team members you require for each task.

Make sure to answer the 5 W's of a successful company event: who, what, where, when, and why (Smith, 2020). Start off by determining who your target audience is; this information will help you shape the event and ensure that its outcome fits the attendees. Then define the theme and activities that you wish to execute during the event. It is now time to choose an appropriate venue that aligns with the purpose of the event; don't forget to keep an alternative plan for this point. For the time of the event, schedule it at a time that suits most of the target audience. And lastly, in your communication plan, clearly state the values and benefits of the event to encourage your target audience to attend.

It is now time to have a clear image of your cultural event and to set goals and objectives (Sheth, 2017). It is necessary for you to have a clear vision of what you wish to accomplish in relation to the event. Once your goal is clear and your objectives are set, you start working towards achieving them. You should keep in mind that every event you organise has a purpose. In order to reach your goal and accomplish your objectives, task delegation is of extreme importance. Delegating tasks would help you, as an event manager, streamline your entire event and management process. By doing so, you would have a quicker phase of execution and a lower possibility of mental and physical burnout. Even if you are the event manager, this does not mean that you should do and achieve all the tasks on your own. To facilitate task delegation, make sure to write a task list, then identify the strengths and weaknesses of your team members, and based on that, design the task list.

Furthermore, as an event manager, you would be in charge of leading your entire team and supporting the execution of their tasks (Sheth, 2017). As mentioned above, you should delegate tasks, but this does not mean that you are not equally responsible for the success of each one of these tasks. Hence, follow-ups are a must with each team member to ensure a smooth flow. You can also send reminders to your team members based on the task to ensure that they are respecting the time frame set. Let's imagine that one of the team members did not finish the execution of the task in question. How would you handle the situation? If you thought of yelling at the member and making a big deal out of it, then you are not thinking as an event manager or as a leader.

When such a situation happens, you should sit down with the member in question and try to get to the bottom of the situation, find together the reason behind this delay, and sort things out to be able to continue with the execution as previously set. In addition, your team needs motivation. Any task can be achieved, but it can be better achieved if the team is motivated; hence, show support to your team. Whether through words or through incentives, motivation and support are important factors in pulling off an event successfully.

This leads us to an important point in event management, which is communication. Whether communication is with your teams or with external parties, you have to ensure that you can't complete a task if you do not clearly state what this task is and what needs to be done (Sheth, 2017). Keep in mind that one of the reasons you may have a slip-up in completing a task is miscommunication. Things may be unclear, yet it is your role as a manager to ensure that everyone is on the same page. The latter is important to be able to proceed with your tasks quicker and more efficiently.

Now that everything is set, promote your cultural event. Make sure to indirectly answer any question that the viewer may have regarding the cultural event through your marketing strategy. Congratulations! You have successfully managed the cultural event; yet, your work does not end here. Don't forget to take feedback from the attendees so you will be aware of what was appreciated from the event and what was not appreciated. A feedback survey is important to further enhance your future event by keeping track of the audience's requirements.

In conclusion, managing a cultural event is a big challenge, and you may face different slip-ups. Never rush to accomplish your tasks quicker; ask for help when needed; give yourself time to plan; keep alternate plans; expect the unexpected; but most importantly, enjoy what you are doing and keep a positive mindset. End your plan and organisation feeling satisfied; the more you are invested in cultural activity management, the more professional your event will be.

Taking Care of You: Nurturing Mental Health While Navigating the Demands of Event Management

As we have discussed in the first part of this paper about effective event management, you have probably realised that this type of job is stressful. Indeed, event management is considered to be one of the fifth most stressful jobs in the world (Nyakoojo, 2021); hence, mental

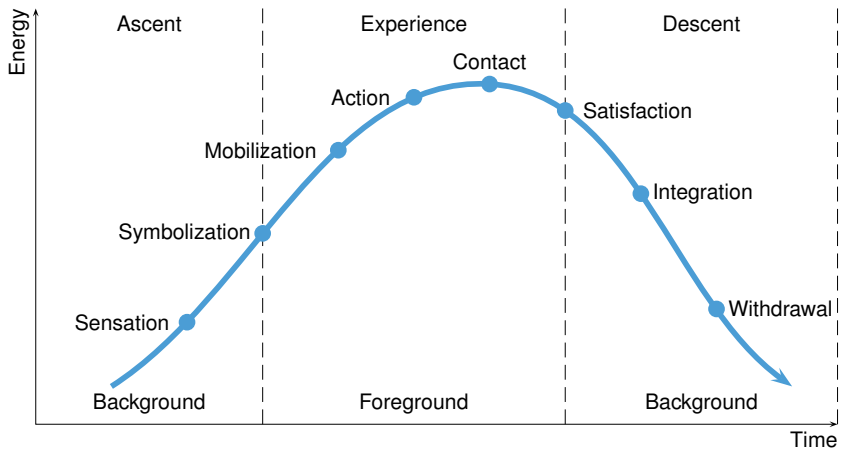


FIGURE 9.1 The Gestalt Perspective: The Contact Cycle (adapted from Acher, 2022)

health should be a priority for event managers, as it is certain that if your mental health and well-being are not maintained, you will not be able to effectively manage a successful event.

Emotional Rollercoaster

Throughout the process of managing an event until its execution, you will experience different feelings at different stages. The latter does not mean that you have an emotional imbalance; it is actually quite the opposite; experiencing different feelings is extremely normal and healthy! This emotional rollercoaster has the name ‘The Gestalt Perspective: The Contact Cycle.’ This cycle clearly depicts the emotions felt by any event manager when effectively managing an event (Figure 9.1).

The very first level of emotion felt is ‘Sensation’; this phase is during a level of consciousness and can be very low (Acher, 2022). You would feel this feeling when you accomplished a previous cycle from a previous event, and then you would suddenly get an awareness feeling that you should now start thinking and setting all the points to begin to effectively manage a new event; you are now aware that you need to start a new project. You would then move to the second stage, ‘symbolization.’ The mind has the nature of not being able to perceive anything without a shape; therefore, you would start symbolising and shaping the event that you have to work on next by linking it to previous experiences.

The next step is the response that you would expect when unlocking a door: your emotions and thoughts will unleash (Acher, 2022). This

stage is known as mobilisation, where a sudden increase in energy occurs. This energy, mixed with the previously felt emotions, causes both the mind and body to become energised with the rush felt.

It is now time to call for action. We are now triggered, and what was once a disturbance has turned into an urge to act (Acher, 2022). As event managers, we now begin to evaluate the tasks, select the options, and eliminate what is not needed. In mere moments, we look for behaviours that have been effective in previous situations and events. We may choose from these previously established behaviours, or we may trust our intuition and put on our creative hat to create something new; this is where innovation occurs.

After successfully mobilising and taking action, we experience a dynamic interaction as part of the contact stage. We are currently both observers and participants, and we are fully engaged with the event that is being built by us (Acher, 2022). This is a moment of risk and unpredictability; our interpretations might be correct, or we might have set the wrong assignments related to the success of this event. The key is currently in our hands, and this is the moment in the event management phase to either change some of the set actions or keep them as they are. At this stage, you would either feel frustration or an unexpected energy boost.

When engaged in interaction, anything is possible. No preparation is fool proof, and life is full of uncertainties. However, a life of constant engagement also means losing perspective and becoming limited in our viewpoint. Unrelated and undiscovered things will gradually disappear, preventing any new and surprising outcomes from emerging. That's why it's equally important to let go as it is to fully engage in interaction. The capacity to find fulfilment and stay attuned to our ever-evolving inner needs is a rare ability among people (Acher, 2022). You have now achieved satisfaction.

Once we attain fulfilment, we conclude the interaction and move on to integration. We step back and retreat into ourselves (Acher, 2022). Although interaction involves our entire selves, it occurs within ourselves. We then return to our own centre and start to process the experience we faced when managing the event and executing it. We consider how it relates to past experiences, whether it confirms or challenges our beliefs, whether it added to our life or was repetitive, and what impact it has left within us.

In the final phase of the Contact cycle, known as 'withdrawal,' we

cease any direct or conscious involvement in the interaction (Acher, 2022). Although remnants of the dialogue may still linger in our subconscious, we consciously withdraw from the situation. This phase is often overlooked, but it is a crucial part of every complete interaction: a return to a state of balance and non-interaction. It is a state of inner freedom and detachment. We are present, and all possibilities are quietly waiting in the background.

Practical Tips for Prioritising Mental Health during Event Management

Throughout this emotional experience and cycle, it is extremely important to look out for your well-being, enhance it, and work on maintaining your mental health. To do so, remember that you are not a one-man show in your event management process and execution (Waida, 2019). For that, make sure to include a personal backup to cover for you when you need to rest. You need to have your regular meal and sit down during the event. All this running around and making changes in your diet is not healthy and would affect your mental health; hence, assign one of your team members to the task and take your 30-minute break and rest to be able to proceed. It is also important to have self-awareness practices included in your daily routine (Waida, 2019). Such an addition will ease your stress as an event manager and will help you maintain your mental health by reminding yourself of all the positive actions that you are handling. Tap yourself on the back! Write positive affirmations to yourself, as 'I' statements have a charm. For example, you can say to yourself 'I deserve respect for what I have done,' 'I was able to pull off this challenging situation,' 'I beat my own expectations!,' 'my event planning skills are developing,' etc. Make sure to acknowledge yourself and that you may deal with stressors; in this case, take the opportunity to turn your stressors into positive actions, and most importantly, develop the ability to embrace what you are unable to control and make adjustments accordingly (Flaherty, 2021).

Furthermore, it is important to compare and contrast the situations that made you experience a negative feeling to be able to generate a new response that will make you feel at ease with this situation when it happens again (Flaherty, 2021). For example, you might notice that whenever a speaker or a team member takes long to answer your email back, you feel frustrated; therefore, you should remind yourself that such action is irrelevant to the overall objective that you are aiming

to achieve. Then why bother yourself and create an unnecessary emotional imbalance? Reflect on the action and then decide whether it will harm you or not. Whenever you find yourself in a frustrating situation, take a step back, close your eyes, and do some breathing exercises. You can follow the '4 seconds technique' (Stinson, 2023): breathe slowly through your nose while counting to four, hold your breath while counting to four as well, and then exhale slowly for four seconds. This technique should be repeated at least three times to feel that you are in a calmer state than the one you started with.

In addition, identify your emotions by giving them labels, since emotions serve as a means for the mind to convey messages to the physical body (Waida, 2019). Hence, when managing an event or experiencing a feeling, take a moment to recognise it and evaluate if it is beneficial to you in the present moment or not in order to process it accordingly.

Additionally, getting enough sleep is extremely important for your mental health (Waida, 2019). When managing an event, you should try to use every minute of the day to try and achieve your tasks, but this does not mean that you should pull an all-nighter! Ensure that you have a restful and consistent sleep, even if it is not for the full 8 hours.

Moreover, don't be ashamed to share what you are feeling through the event management process; talk to your friends, your partner, or even a therapist every once in a while (Waida, 2019). Don't keep your emotions to yourself, and certainly don't let them build up in you, as you may experience burnout.

Lastly, designate specific days to focus on your mental health and well-being (Waida, 2019). Taking time off for mental health is a legitimate reason to take a day off or two. If you run your own business, taking a mental health day sets a positive example of self-care for those you work with or manage.

Remember, be your own motivation when managing an event, as mental health matters; push yourself and be proud of yourself and your end product.

Conclusion

In conclusion, the current chapter tried to shed light on the different aspects of cultural events' management, with special attention paid to the importance of maintaining good mental health for the effectiveness and ease of planning and executing such events. It is therefore worth noting that being interculturally competent and having a multicultural

global mind-set should be recognised as necessary conditions for the mental preparation to manage cultural events within higher education institutions or more generally in organisations. Thus, further research is urgently needed to explore this intricate relationship between intercultural communicative competence (ICC) and the efficiency of cultural event management.

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Chapter Ten

Intercultural Engagement and Internationalisation Advancing the Concept of Global Citizenry Education

Amani G. Jarrar

Philadelphia University, Jordan
ajarrar@philadelphia.edu.jo

Purpose This chapter discusses the ways of intercultural engagement of university students and professors and advances the internationalisation of the Concept of Global Citizenship Education in Jordanian Universities, taking Philadelphia as a model.

Study design/methodology/approach The study uses both descriptive and analytic approaches to implement the SWOT analysis for the Philadelphia University case (Jordan), exploring the philosophical background and literature review in the field of internalisation and intercultural theories in education.

Findings The current chapter concludes by exposing the philosophical views in terms of citizenry education in Jordanian Universities trying to implement the introduction of internalisation in education through both intercultural engagement and global citizenry education, pointing out an analysis of the case of Philadelphia University as a model.

Originality/value The study presents the topic for the first time from the point of view of the author; the topic is rarely reflected in the field of education. The presentation of original data tries to discuss certain new trends in the field of internalisation in higher education with an attempt to add some philosophical perspectives to future inclusion.

Introduction

Thinkers and planners for education and higher education agreed on the need for education to serve global citizenship as a potent force in bringing economic, social, and political change and in enabling the nation to face challenges, and this is clearly affirmed through education for human rights and world education for global citizenship. One can

divide the Arab thinkers into five categories, each with a point of view different from the others (Altbach & Peterson, 1999).

- The first category of Arab intellectual rejectionists, who believe that globalisation reflects the higher stages of colonialism created by the technological revolution and the information that dominates the capitalist market, as governed by the United States and Western countries (Jarrar, 2012).
- The second category of Arab intellectuals is those who welcome globalisation.
- The third category of Arab intellectuals represents the neutral position, which calls for finding an appropriate form of globalisation consistent with the interests and aspirations of the Arab countries.
- The fourth category of Arab intellectuals represents a positive vision of being pragmatic and utilitarian (Faour & Muasher, 2011). They think of globalisation as a historical phenomenon that Arab nations should treat with prudence. Globalisation emphasises the sovereignty of Arab intellectuals and establishes the Arab cultural identity in order to spread the values of tolerance.
- The fifth category of Arab Islamic thinkers rejects any form of globalisation, strengthens Islamic views, and maintains their religion, beliefs, and heritage. Islamists reject authoritarian cultural globalisation. Therefore, the world system demands finding the best formula and methods to build a new globalised world based on justice, equity, and care for human rights.

Events that have highlighted deteriorating human conditions, particularly in third-world countries, and what we are witnessing in the Arab world, which is experiencing many setbacks on multiple levels, demonstrate the significance of this study. The study is significant in terms of humanitarian efforts to achieve the global foundations of education, especially in light of the obstacles and changes occurring in the Arab region. As the topic of global citizenship education gains prominence at the political level of the Muslim world, the difficult question arises as to whether the concepts of global citizenship education are viable and applicable in the Muslim and Arab worlds.

Equality among citizens can be considered one of the goals of global citizenship, which respects differences and the cultural diversity of people. The awareness of globalisation imposes on the citizens of the world

an understanding of emerging new issues of politics and fosters global responsibility towards the future (Osler, 2000). The following conditions are suggested by the contemporary concept of global citizenship: The new world order that imposes itself on the global level, The foundations of rationality and the constitutional protections of citizenship, respect for diversity, human rights, and public liberties. And through education, a commitment to the values of tolerance, equality, freedom, democracy, and peace. Therefore, the focus of the current chapter is to explore the potential of intercultural engagement in building and advancing the concept of internationalisation at home in South Mediterranean universities by taking Philadelphia University, Jordan, as a case study. To this end, there will be a thorough description of the different steps and findings of the research study.

Philadelphia University Case

To discuss Intercultural Engagement and internationalisation at Philadelphia University (Jordan), educators and leaders must therefore work on advancing the Concept of Global Citizenship Education at Philadelphia University. Thus, leaders there work on SWOT analysis of internationalisation practises at Philadelphia University. The following were the results after brainstorming:

Strengths

- Augmented numbers of international, well-trained faculty members and researchers, notwithstanding the restrictive regulations of the Ministry of Labour.
- Generating increased income through the enrolment of larger numbers of international students
- Enhancement of better national and international recognition, reputation, and ranking.
- Suufficient Infrastructure: adequate equipment and facilities that facilitate knowledge sharing among the local and international faculty, students, and researchers
- Contemporaneous content of study plans and constant search for excellence.
- Motivation and incentives are provided to faculty members, administrative staff, and students to enhance their communication skills and improve their English.

- Developing plans concerned with citizenship and global education in the curricula

Weaknesses

- Insufficient budget is allocated for internationalisation.
- Complex and tedious administrative procedures and decision-taking processes.
- High cost of mobility and staying abroad.
- Sedentary faculty who are inactive in doing research.
- Inadequate motivation for faculty, administrative staff, students, and researchers to compete.
- Absence of public funding and tax exemption.
- Little focus is made on reviewing citizenry and global education plans and related curricula.

Opportunities

- Long-lasting international partnerships/collaboration.
- Constant improvement of quality through international networking.
- Persistent improvement of reputation.
- Engagement in international multicultural societies using technological developments.
- Strategic geographic position and its impact upon competition with other universities.
- Raising cultural, racial, and ethnic diversity of the faculty and student body.
- Using opportunities for intercultural engagement and internalisation in education, benefiting from opportunities from Mediterranean Countries Projects towards Internationalisation at Home (MED2IaH), as a way for integration of international components in the curricula, on campus, and in the faculties of Philadelphia University.

Threats

- Progressing globalisation of the higher education market and decrease in student enrolment due to competition with international universities through booming online learning.

- Raising cultural, racial, and ethnic diversity issues by fanatics.
- Deficiency of university identity or organisational culture.
- Elevated tuition fees decrease the number of international students.
- The world economic crisis.
- Brain drain (losing prominent academic staff) to institutions abroad.
- Confronting backfires when working on promoting intercultural dialogue aimed at developing a global mind-set.

Philosophical Foundations of Global Citizen Education

The following are some reflections on thought: One may ask oneself, 'Am I a global citizen?' In light of the significant changes taking place in this world in an era of globalisation, this is the real question to be posed and needs a genuine answer. A global citizen is any person working on the basis that our destiny as human beings is one, and we are all threatened by the negative forces that may destroy the world unless we address them all united as one hand, mind, and heart (Butts, 1989).

Global citizenship in concept is affected by what is nowadays called global democracy as the social and moral basis of humanity. Global citizenship needs a change in the social and cultural environment, or what is called trans-cultural and ethical thinking, including the care for the human environment, philosophically known as eco-humanism. The Development Education Association (DEA) worked on this and introduced the concept of raising global citizenship awareness in schools and educational institutions through the development of a curriculum on global citizenship. They provided teachers with a specially tailored programme (ITE) for initial teacher education to disseminate the culture of global citizenship. A special tool was pronounced for that global education, named the Charter for Global Citizenship, built of eight stages:

1. The availability of a reasonable degree of political awareness of local, national, and international issues.
2. Providing education that ensures understanding the challenges and opportunities of citizenship and global politics.
3. To enable a high degree of understanding of the concept of good

governance and the role of political power in the democratic system to ensure good governance and global networking.

4. To enable teachers to introduce students to concepts of globalisation through a good understanding of social theories.
5. Enabling teachers to better understand political globalisation, the role of non-governmental organisations and intergovernmental organisations, and promoting sustainable development.
6. Enrolling learners interested in citizenship with specialised courses concerned with studying the impact of globalisation on education and the formation and construction of a global citizenship curriculum.
7. Enabling educators and teachers interested in global citizenship to reshape global citizenship education.
8. Encountering learners with experiences of global citizenship education to enable them to plan for a better curriculum.

After revision, two more phases should be considered when reconsidering planning for global citizenship education: Evaluating the status quo by working on analysing the cases of each country from a special point of view, considering the degree of maturity and awareness the learners reach. This can be conducted by gathering both parties (learners and educators) in organised workshops to discuss all the strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, and challenges facing global education as it has developed. This enables educators to understand the real needs for development based on actual, non-theoretical assessment and adjust and take amendment steps in the educational system mainly (methods and curricula) of global citizenship based on accurate and real feedback to be able to develop it according to a set vision of a global education model for citizenship.

The study aims finally at contributing to the rebuilding of world educational thought in Jordanian society, and this is to be taken as an attempt to propose ways of development in the teaching of some university courses to serve the process of building a global citizen.

The study addresses the subject of education for global citizenship as it tries to address the problem in the absence of a specialised course taught on the undergraduate level that needs to present the concepts of Universal Education. Therefore, a proposal is to be suggested for a matrix for concepts of global citizenship, and this is the purpose of the

study conducted. The study will answer the following questions: How available and adequate are the concepts of global citizenship in Jordanian university courses? What are the methods of teaching concepts of global citizenship in Jordanian university courses? And how do we plan for the future of global culture based on sound foundations of global citizenship in Jordanian universities? While the Hypotheses of the study were that school education is the basis for moving towards a global culture in the later stages of education, that a university education delivers material or study courses that include the concepts of global education and these are sufficient, and that the methods of teaching the concepts of global education promote global citizenship among university students,

The research is based on analysing the curriculum's educational content in a philosophical way, trying to bring together educational content in terms of knowledge and values (Mabe, 1993), and addressing the cognitive aspects covered by certain courses that deal with citizenship at Jordanian universities. Such courses as national citizenship, politics, contemporary issues, culture, and thought discuss not only concepts of citizenship but also a value system that has to do with the application and understanding of global citizenship values. The educational research studies the basic concepts of global citizenship in comparison with the different concepts tackled in the courses of political science, contemporary issues, culture and thought, and National Education. By analysing the content and educational methodology of study plans for those particular courses, educational institutions (such as universities) try to achieve the fundamental goal of building global citizenship values in university students. The research also implements a qualitative analytical descriptive method, which examines the educational thought and the philosophic origins of political education for global citizenship in light of globalisation (Phillips et al., 2000). Whereas in the Jordanian schools, the role of teachers of Islamic education and teachers of social and civic education in national education was analysed (Judith, 2002; Drisko, 1993), and a study was conducted to compare Arab countries in terms of human rights and their adequacy from the perspective of teachers, mentors and

Professionals. In Jordanian universities, the following courses were analysed in terms of Content and curriculum: the Thought and Civilization course, the Principles of Political Science course, the Contemporary Issues course, and the National Education course. At the end

of the analysis, some topics for teaching (global citizenship) were suggested to be included in the curriculum.

Educators should rethink global citizenship from different dimensions and perspectives when intending to develop their educational understanding. So that we can have a good awareness of citizenship, we should consider political ideology, pluralistic culture, cosmopolitan philosophy, rational communication, social global challenges, environmental issues, and humanitarian issues. Thus, this qualitative research method represents an attempt, perhaps unique of its kind in the Arab world, to develop global citizenship education. Arab governments sought to teach students in a way that made them driven to obey them without likely to discuss political power. We, in the Arab countries, are having what may be called education on or for Citizenship) rather than education through citizenship.

Educators are requested to work on mainstreaming global citizenship through the activation of sustainable development goals, particularly goals 4 and 16, mainly education for sustainable development, and through preserving peace, justice, and strong institutions.

Global Citizenship and Intercultural Engagement

In today's world, we encounter a great number of exacerbating conflicts and crises that may even lead to the annihilation of human life on this planet if they are allowed to persist. In whatever direction we turn, we witness raging, fateful North-South and East-West struggles. However, nothing would enable us to overcome such ongoing political conflicts, economic crises, environmental catastrophes, or social afflictions other than using the great panacea and supreme instrument of this equation—that is, to put the necessary human principles in place. Whoever believes in the oneness of humanity, irrespective of the multiplicity and diversity of its parties, regions, and warring factions, finds nothing at the core save that essentially indivisible human spirit, notwithstanding the diversity of ethnicity, creeds, denominations, ideologies, and interests.

Back in the day, the Chinese philosopher Confucius called for the principle of inner peace, and he was followed down through the ages by other expositions from leaders of thought of the beneficial effects of establishing peace in solving countless human problems and disputes. In this hypothesis, I will attempt to add to the foundation that those prior advocates of peace had laid down by establishing that the principle of

the consciousness of global citizenship is a modern-day panacea for current and future crises and conflicts. This principle is manifested in the consciousness of humanity's love for one another and of the world as one homeland for every person from a global perspective (Jiabao, 2004).

Hence, we come to the indissoluble relationship that binds peace to development, in the global term of 'humanity.' This, in turn, invites us to lend our attention to sustainable development and the need to create a new developmental strategy on the global level based on prosperity rather than the amassing of wealth (Paupp, 2014).

That said, our primary concern remains laying the foundation of education for a global citizenship that is humane in nature. Personally, I consider that this branch of education should be made part and parcel of political education taught in every country, should their respective political leaders' wish to reach the shores of safety as well as rescue their countrymen and fellow human beings. In so doing, the leaders would make choices and political and economic decisions designed to consolidate peace, thus becoming an extension of international human thought and world education. Under today's daunting problems, overshadowed by conflicts that revolve around political aims and that compete for natural resources, and confronted by contemporary human challenges, the leaders of thought would be left only with one strategic choice: pursuing the analytical approach to world education, since education for global citizenship should be the aim and ultimate goal. A question remains here for the educators to answer: if we wish to advance our world towards peaceful coexistence, then how can we plan in order to enable our educational systems to cultivate world citizenship within programmes of international education? (Dower & Williams, 2002)

Here we may ask ourselves: 'What are those concepts that, perforce, underlie world peace and prosperity and world education, notably global citizenship?' Such a question is needed to restructure citizenship itself, to determine which approaches should be followed in order to foster education for citizenship in general terms, and to understand the importance of positive change, all with the aim of promoting global citizenship. A researcher of basic pedagogic goals in any country has the obligation to search for a close relationship that links civic education with global education, hence their indissoluble link to world peace. Consequently, it is incumbent upon every morally conscientious politi-

cian to create an environment for social interaction in order to form a dialectic bridge between the stakeholders of education at all levels on the one hand and the leaders of thought who value the importance of laying the foundation of global citizenship (Andreotti, 2010).

More than any time before, we might be in dire need of answering a number of questions and speculations around a major philosophical question: 'Are you a world citizen?' If the answer is in the affirmative, then the follow-up question would be: 'How would you like to live-peacefully or in a state of endless bloody conflicts?'

Peace, as opposed to war, remains the most daunting of current-day global priorities and challenges that has taken a controversial place in the contemporary international field of thought, notably under current global and environmental changes that we experience today, including the spectre of the coronavirus pandemic and its impact on the notion of citizenship, both in theory and practise. Here we cannot ignore the paramount role of the state and its educational institutions in aligning pedagogy to the principles of global citizenship and in creating an atmosphere of freedom and rights that are consonant with global citizenship and its exigencies. The same is true of the role of those political democratic beliefs espoused by politicians in establishing global citizenship, as well as lending a hand to combating terrorism, peace-building, and peace-making for a brighter future and a human world order that embraces all humanity (Baylis et al., 2018).

Today we live in the age of globalisation and what comes beyond, facing the problems of modernity and postmodernity as well. Both globalisation and modernity are also inseparable from the challenges of globalisation that the world witnesses today. These challenges highlight the paramount role of the desired democratic state, both in our Arab world and throughout the Middle East, in shaping the cultural identity of citizens in every country, such that the consciousness of world citizenship may emerge. In this connection, we cannot also forget the impact of a liberal democratic model on desired political and intellectual reforms. Such a model can enable countrymen to seamlessly perform their role as world citizens, notably when confronted with clashes of civilizations and narrow national interests. Our aim in this process is to create an environment for dialogue and harmony among civilizations. In our Arab world, we are also in dire need of building a pedagogic model for liberal education and the inculcation of global citizenship. Here we might benefit from the trail-blazing that took place in the

West and, time and again, from the progressive thoughts of culturally advanced countries in terms of their achievements. At this point, I recall the importance of the suggestion to adopt a charter for humanity as a direct demonstration of the world-embracing role of international institutions in this connection. There is a moral responsibility that rests now on the shoulders of all of us as individuals, institutions, and states (Torres, 2017).

Here I might refer to some ideologies in terms of their general influence on education, such as pragmatism and existentialism, and their contribution to cultivating the consciousness of global citizenship, where human needs do arise for reciprocal support by every human to his fellow human for the common good. What is meant here is the welfare of man, who has been created to live and enjoy the world's natural riches in a conflict-free environment, a state of convergence, collaboration, and cooperation that paves the way to a better world.

Here we should remember the need to investigate the types of relationships that bind moral frameworks to pedagogic approaches, where moral standards do play an important role in shaping the pillars of education in a manner that would consolidate human security, build the future world order, and foster global citizenship based on this indispensable prerequisite. Here lies the importance and potential of education and of formulating plans for cultivating a sense of world citizenship within the framework of international pedagogic standards. Our approach would be that of relying on principles of strategic dialogue, moral education, and political education with the aim of establishing a culture of world citizenship that places the identity of the world citizen in high regard—an identity that rests squarely on the values of peace within an interconnected framework of human pedagogic concepts based on a 'green' revolution and on a true visualisation of humanity's future. What is at stake here is the future of world citizenship itself (Cabrera, 2010).

In order to refocus on our local order of things and problems, we need to identify our immediate priorities and understand the perspectives and aspirations of the Arab world's younger generations. These are the generations of the future. Here, moral values that shape world citizenship must be at the forefront of our concerns and priorities.

Here, a question of paramount importance poses itself among the foremost among pedagogic and political issues that influence today's Middle East situations—issues that revolve around real human causes

that must be discerned and re-examined. These are pedagogical ideas that our educational and intellectual institutions must take into account. The same is true of moral education initiatives and our future role in the transformation needed to achieve the desired goals. Hence comes the need to consider effecting a fundamental change in current mind-sets of the Arab mind and to give due importance to structural and functional changes in an effort to redefine our concepts of the principles of justice, equality, peace, and security, as well as responsible citizenship. Our aim here shall be that of formulating plans for world citizenship education and developing a futuristic vision of peace.

The onus of promoting international human concepts rests on the shoulders of every human being – concepts that aspire to establish a consciousness of world citizenship that forges humanity into a single, global crucible on the basis of world-embracing intellectual and political foundations that are essentially humanistic and educative. Here, and more than any time before, we stand in great need to forge a bond between global citizenship and the desired virtue of justice. The prevalence of justice in all human affairs is an exigency. It is inconceivable that any member of society can enjoy the benefits and bounties of civilization in the absence of justice as a guarantor of human welfare and well-being. However, justice cannot exist in the absence of equality of rights, fairness in dealings, and an unbiased government. One of the four cardinal virtues that ancient philosophers upheld, namely prudence, temperance, courage, and justice (Wolterstorff, 2010), is justice above all else.

As a virtue, justice can be exercised from a personal viewpoint in the sense that it motivates spontaneous fair deeds on the part of the individual. The essence of justice in this case is moderation and the observance of duties and obligations. The other perspective on exercising justice is from a social point of view. When exercised in societal terms, justice manifests itself in a mutual respect of individual rights and prerogatives. We should also keep in mind another concept of societal justice: ‘Human beings should be treated as an end in themselves and not as a means to something else.’

The legal perspective of justice, however, is that a ‘just rule’ or ‘just action’ is what presupposes ‘fairness’ and ‘indiscrimination’ when dealing with individuals. In this same legal context, justice assumes several other concepts, the foremost of which is that justice denotes equality. But ‘equality’ in moral terms denotes the ideal principle that considers

man equal to his fellow man in terms of rights and dignity. Such equality assumes two forms under this moral perspective: 'civil equality' and 'political equality'.

Finally, Universities in Jordan are working hard to implement the introduction of internalisation in education through both intercultural engagement and global citizenry education.

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The monograph *Internationalisation at Home in Higher Education: Case Studies from Mediterranean Region* targets the implementation of Internationalisation at home (IaH) within higher education institutions (HEIS). It is a collection of case studies from the Mediterranean region to provide valuable opportunities of internationalisation for local students without leaving their home countries. It is associated with the capacity building project ME2IaH - The MEDiterranean countries: Towards Internationalisation at Home which is primarily designed to have an impact at system level and trigger reform processes at national level in Mediterranean Partner Countries (PC). Regardless of the tangible differences between the higher educational contexts in the partner countries (Egypt, Jordan, Lebanon, Morocco, and Tunisia), similar challenging situations in relation to students' internationalisation are daily faced. Therefore, the monograph begins with presenting the theoretical framework of IaH then offers suggestions for good practices to adopt it not only as an alternative of the regular internationalisation but also as a recognisable part in the overall strategy of higher education internationalisation.

The Mediterranean region including the north (European countries) and the south (Middle East and North Africa) have completely opposite situations on various levels namely the economic and the political, which clearly affected higher education in different ways in the both shores of the Mediterranean Sea. Thus, joint efforts were highly encouraged to help the students who face serious problems in physical mobility to own an international experience within their home universities. Moreover, the topic of internationalisation at home was made even more relevant with the worldwide problematic situation during and after COVID-19.

The monograph is divided into two major parts namely internationalisation of formal and informal curricula and global skills development in a local context. Indeed, the first part introduces the topic of internationalisation at home through situating the concept within a thorough theoretical framework by reviewing the literature related to IaH on the individual and institutional levels. Then, it provides avenues to internationalise both formal and informal curricula. Among these

avenues digital storytelling is presented as a didactical approach to encourage multicultural thinking. The combination of simulation and virtual exchange is also suggested as a pedagogical approach in internationalisation at home with a special attention to the metamorphosis of higher education in the post COVID-19 reality.

The second part is an explanation of how educators and institutions can contribute to the development of students' global skills that are necessary to their internationalisation process by adopting the renowned theoretical models of intercultural communicative competence (ICC). To this end, the authors suggest virtual exchange, campus diversity, intercultural engagement, global citizenship education to foster these skills in order to adopt a global mind-set within their local context.

The methodology of the monograph is based on a mixed approach to tackle the issue of how to implement IAHE in higher education in the Mediterranean region. Thus, its results can be taken as a model of good practices in relation to higher education internationalisation. The monograph is well structured and organised. The research background is well elaborated. The scientific treatment is plausible and free of any major technical issues. The monograph is free of any major grammatical or spelling issues.

Dr. Bootheina Majoul

The intent of the monograph *Internationalisation at Home in Higher Education: Case Studies from Mediterranean Region* is to justify the application of Internationalisation at home (IAHE) within higher education institutions (HEIS) of the Mediterranean region by proposing effective approaches and policies to help local students acquire a highly solicited international experience. It is written within the context of ME2IAHE project – The MEDiterranean countries: Towards Internationalisation at Home. The south Mediterranean partner universities from Egypt, Morocco, Jordan, Lebanon, and Tunisia face several difficulties to provide their students with internationalisation abroad such as hard and costly visa conditions. Therefore, it suggests IAHE as a primary solution for these difficulties. Thus, physical mobility is no longer the only strategy that higher education institution could adopt within their students' internationalisation process. The value of the monograph lays in the choice of a contemporary and up-to-date topic that needs further in-

terest especially with the noticeable change in higher education following the drastic impacts of COVID-19.

The monograph is constructed in two key parts; internationalisation of formal and informal curricula and global skills development in a local context. The first part begins with an introduction of the topic in which the authors explain the different facets of internationalisation at home by presenting the intervening theories and approaches. It also suggests highlighting the international and intercultural aspects of curricula whether formal or informal by adopting digital storytelling as a pedagogical instrument to foster multicultural thinking and cultural awareness. Likewise, the amalgamation of simulation and virtual exchange in teacher education is advocated as an effective strategy to offer local students from different parts of the Mediterranean to exchange cultures and ideas and accept the other.

The second part highlights the endeavour of instructors and universities to promote students' global skills for the purpose of facilitating their integration in the excessively multicultural workplace. Therefore, the authors recommend a number of methods based on the different theoretical frameworks and models of intercultural communicative competence (ICC) such as virtual exchange, campus diversity, intercultural engagement, and the integration of global citizenship education.

The monograph is constructed over a mixed approach methodology to address the problem of how to apply IAH in higher education in the Mediterranean region. The monograph is well structured and organised. The research background is well explained. The scientific treatment is acceptable and free of any major technical issues. The monograph is free of any serious grammatical or spelling issues.

Dr. Marwa Mekni Toujani



Internationalisation at home is the new concept that actors in higher education have put forth as an alternative to regular and more familiar internationalisation. It can also be employed not as an alternative but as a component among others within the overall realm of internationalisation. This book provides experiments and attempts in the internationalisation at home within Mediterranean countries as case studies to be carefully scrutinised and replicated in other regions of the world. Data gathering was facilitated within the framework of the MED21aH project, an Erasmus+ capacity building project co-funded by the European Commission within the period of 2020–2023. The MED21aH project involves partnerships between the North and South Mediterranean universities. It is primarily designed to have an impact at system level and trigger reform processes at the national level in Mediterranean Partner Countries. In fact, South Mediterranean students are in urgent need of acquiring international experience to be as competitive in the excessively multicultural job market as North Mediterranean and western students. However, economic, social, and political realities in their countries dictate other strategies for internationalisation other than physical mobility that do not require huge funding and complex regulations and policies.

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