

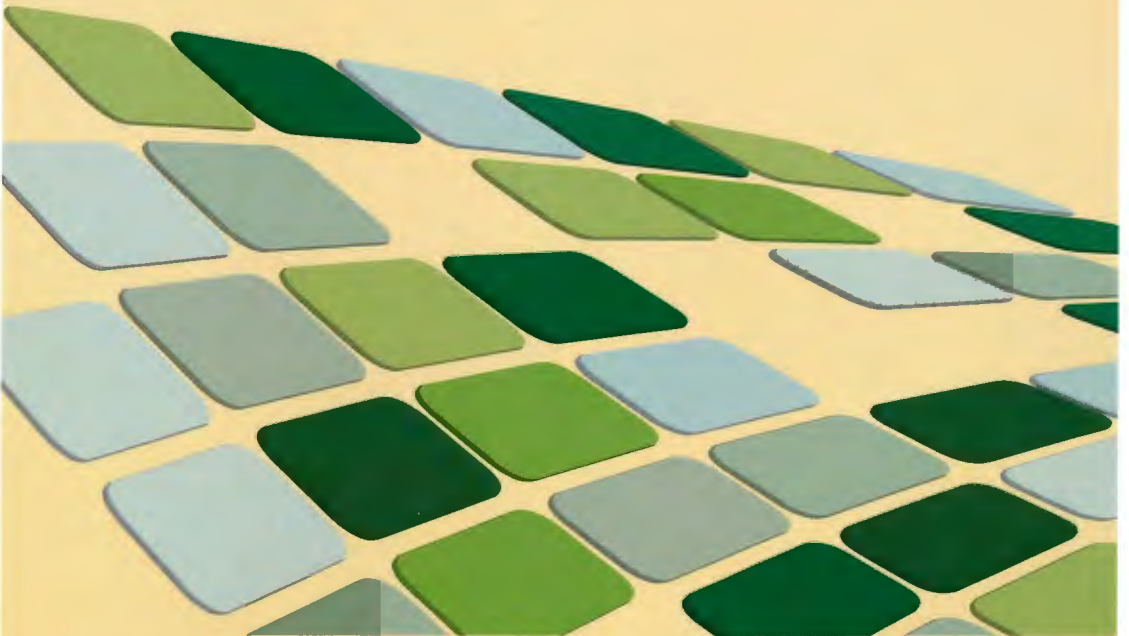
GRAZER

UNIVERSITÄTSVERLAG

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Responsible University. Verantwortung in Studium und Lehre

Sammelband zum Tag der Lehre 2017
der Karl-Franzens-Universität Graz



Grazer Beiträge zur Hochschullehre

Band 9

E. Hillebrand-Augustin, G. Salmhofer & L. Scheer (Eds.) (2019), *Responsible university. Verantwortung in Studium und Lehre; Sammelband Tag der Lehre 2017 der Karl-Franzens-Universität Graz* (Grazer Beiträge zur Hochschullehre, Band 9) (pp. 29-54). Graz: Grazer Universitätsverlag.

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Internationalisation at home: obstacles and enablers from the perspective of academics

Abstract

The focus in internationalisation is shifting from mobility of a minority of students to an internationalised curriculum at home for all students. This does not mean that study abroad is no longer relevant, but the reality is that only a minority of students uses the opportunity to go abroad for a study period or for an internship. An internationalised home curriculum is therefore the only means to ensure that all students will learn international and intercultural skills. Many universities now consider it their responsibility to achieve social equality, by offering internationalisation also to the non-mobile majority of students.

The shift in internationalisation also has implications for internal processes and the involvement of stakeholders in universities. When internationalisation was still mostly understood as mobility, it was logical for international offices to be the protagonists of internationalisation. Now that the internationalisation of teaching and learning is becoming a major focus, academics have a key role to play. They are familiar with the international components of disciplinary content and with the international and intercultural requirements of professional practice in the discipline.

However, academics have not always been equipped with the skills to develop internationalised curricula.

This contribution first explores the broader issue of internationalisation of higher education and internationalisation at home in a global and European context.

This is followed by a discussion on the meaning and rationale of internationalisation at home, existing misconceptions and of the tools for an internationalised curriculum.

The next section discusses the crucial role of the 'new owners of internationalisation', the academics. This section contains a review of the literature on the lack of engagement of academics in internationalisation (at home), which is considered one of the key obstacles. This literature is almost exclusively from countries where English is the first language, but many of these issues are also relevant to universities in continental Europe.

The main section of this contribution discusses obstacles and enablers to the process of internationalising home curricula from the perspective of academics.

The insights on which this article is based come from action research with academics and other stakeholders at universities in The Netherlands, Belgium, and Norway.

The broader issue

In the 1990s, the realisation grew that traditional international student mobility had a limited impact and reached only a small minority of students. This contributed towards the development of the concept of internationalisation at home, which aimed to

reach all students. Internationalisation at home brought the home curriculum into the picture as the key vehicle for internationalisation for all students.

As a consequence of this shift from mobility to curriculum, the key stakeholders in the internationalisation process also changed. In addition to the international offices, that continued to arrange mobility, academics came into the picture as the main 'owners' of teaching and learning. This led to the realisation that universities may have changed, but that academics have largely been forgotten in the process (Sanderson 2008). Their skills for internationalisation were not developed, which, together with a lack of involvement, constitutes key obstacles to internationalisation world-wide, as the Global Surveys of the International Association of Universities (Egron-Polak & Hudson 2010; 2014) postulate. A new phase in the shift from mobility to curriculum started around 2012, when learning outcomes for internationalisation entered the discourse. The 4th Global Survey (Egron-Polak & Hudson 2014) considered the internationalisation of learning outcomes 'booming'. Internationalisation of intended learning outcomes is considered a characteristic of quality of internationalisation, as is witnessed by the introduction of the Certificate for Quality in internationalisation (CeQInt) in 2015.

Another relevant component of the discourse on internationalisation is the development of transversal skills by students. The *Erasmus Impact Study* (European Union 2014) confirmed that students acquire these skills, much valued by employers, by mobility. However, this raises the question how the non-mobile majority of students can develop these skills 'at home'.

The question of how a home curriculum can achieve the same transversal skills as those learned through study abroad has not been answered yet. To date, we have few studies that report that students can learn at least some of these skills at home (Soria & Troisi 2014; Watkins & Smith 2018).

Internationalisation at home in a global context

In the global context, a number of trends can be observed that have an impact on regions, countries and, ultimately, on universities. Since circa 2010, a discussion is taking place around the world in which the values of internationalisation have been re-examined. Some perceived that internationalisation had lost its moral ground and had become too much focused on revenue generation through the recruitment of fee-paying international students, engaging itself more with means and tools than with aims (Brandenburg & De Wit 2010). This caused the International Association of Universities (2012) to issue a statement affirming values in internationalisation.

Under the influence of these reminders of the values of international higher education, the common declaration that was issued after the Global Dialogue in Port Elizabeth, in January 2014, focused on three integrated areas of development. One of these was „increasing the focus on the internationalisation of the curriculum and of related learning outcomes“ (De Wit & Jooste 2014).

The global discussion on values in internationalisation is relevant as Van der Wende (2017, 11) notes that universities should have „broadened their mission for internationalisation“ which would mean enhancing local access and „embrace diversity as the key to success in a global know

ledge society; and to become truly international and intercultural learning communities where young people can effectively develop into global citizens.”

Internationalisation at home in a European context

The *European Parliament Study* (De Wit et al. 2015, 27; 30) identified internationalisation of the curriculum as an emerging focus in Europe and the rest of the world and recommended paying more attention to internationalisation at home’s significance for all students. It called for the integration of international and intercultural learning outcomes into the curriculum. The *European Parliament Study* also introduced a new definition of internationalisation, stressing its intentional character, the relevance of reaching all students and its societal impact.

The European Union commissioned studies on the employability of graduates (Humburg, Van der Velden & Verhagen 2013), stressing the importance of students acquiring transversal skills. The *Erasmus Impact Study* (European Union 2014) confirmed that students acquire these skills through international mobility, but also led to the question how the non-mobile majority of students acquires these skills.

In acknowledgement of this non-mobile majority of students, the European Commission developed educational policies to bring internationalisation to all students, and in 2013, for the first time included internationalisation at home in its educational policies. *European higher education in the world* (2013) explicitly linked internationalisation at home with digital learning and stated that higher education policies must:

increasingly focus on the integration of a global dimension in the design and content of all curricula and teaching/learning processes (sometimes called “**internationalisation at home**”), to ensure that the large majority of learners, the 80-90% who are not internationally mobile for either degree or credit mobility, are nonetheless able to acquire the international skills required in a globalised world (European Commission 2013, 6; bold text and inverted commas as in original).

European educational policies are directly relevant to the process of curriculum internationalisation because lecturers tend to consider them an enabler, even when they were not familiar with their content (Beelen 2017b, 204). The focus on internationalisation at home was confirmed by the European Commission (2017) in its agenda on higher education.

Defining internationalisation at home

Since the middle of the 1990s, universities have been trying to implement forms of internationalisation that reach beyond the ‚mobile minority‘. In Europe, we usually call this *internationalisation at home*, a term that was coined in Malmö (Sweden) in 2001. Internationalisation at home has been redefined by Elspeth Jones and myself (Beelen & Jones 2015, 76) as „the purposeful integration of international and intercultural dimensions into the formal and informal curriculum for all students within domestic learning environments“, stressing its purposefulness (learning outcomes and

assessment) and inclusive character (for all students, not only for those studying in international, English medium programmes).

Development of a concept. After its introduction in 1999, internationalisation at home quickly gained popularity in the Nordic countries, the Netherlands and Flanders. It may be argued that, among the early adopters, the Netherlands are most committed to internationalisation at home. One indicator for this is the strong participation of Dutch international officers in the training courses on internationalisation at home that the European Association for International Education has been offering since 2006 (Beelen 2017b, 122–124).

European countries with bigger languages have developed fewer initiatives for internationalisation at home, but this is currently changing in Germany (see Casper-Hehne & Reiffenrath 2017; German Rectors' Conference 2017; Beelen 2017b) as well as in Austria, with both university associations and individual universities actively engaging with the concept.

Internationalisation at home has also spread outside Europe. Symbiosis University in Pune (India) devoted a national conference to it in April 2018. Related concepts under different names, foremost among them 'internationalisation of the curriculum', have developed across the globe, particularly in Australia (see Beelen & Jones 2015; Leask 2015).

Some argue that the importance of internationalisation at home will increase even further due to factors that limit mobility of students, such as global political instability, environmental issues and provision of high quality higher education in Asian countries. It does indeed look like internationalisation at home is here to stay. Heavy investments in credit mobility of students over an extended period of time have resulted in 22 percent of Dutch students going abroad for 15 credits or more (Statistics Netherlands 2018), with only a limited view of the effects of international experiences on the learning of these students.

Formal, informal and hidden curricula. The definition of internationalisation at home distinguishes the formal curriculum and the informal curriculum. The formal curriculum is the teaching and learning that generates credits and that is assessed. The informal curriculum is described by Leask as „the various support services and additional activities and options organized by the university that are not assessed and don't form part of the formal curriculum, although they may support learning within it“ (Leask 2015, 8). Since the informal curriculum is not compulsory, not all students will participate in all aspects of it. Leask (2015, 8) describes the hidden curriculum as „the various unintended, implicit and hidden messages sent to students“. When international students or lecturers are involved in the home curriculum, the hidden curriculum may become an issue. They may have different perspectives on the value of knowledge and on the role and expectations of students and the teacher in the learning process. Even without international students or lecturers present, the hidden curriculum is relevant. It provides the starting point for introducing different perspectives on what is standard practice at the home institution but may not be current practice elsewhere.

Rationales for internationalisation at home. It is now generally acknowledged that all students will need international and intercultural skills as future professionals and

citizens. Employers confirm that they are looking for graduates with, among others, skills for conflict resolution, collaboration across cultures and critical thinking (see e. g. World Economic Forum 2016). These skills are usually referred to as transversal skills, employability skills, 21st century skills or soft skills.

We know that students can learn many of these skills from study or internship abroad. The *Erasmus Impact Study* and other publications such as a study from Finland (Centre for International Mobility 2014) demonstrate this. However, it may be argued that students who report that they learned transversal skills, may already have had them before they went abroad. Another aspect is that the impact of study abroad depends to a large extent on the destination and the circumstances. If a student goes to the same destination with several other students from the same university, there may be little interaction with domestic students at the host university. Depending on how the exchange is organised, the student may only interact with other international students.

The main rationale for internationalisation at home has remained unchanged since its introduction. It is to extend the opportunities and benefits of internationalisation to all students, not only to the ‚mobile minority‘. Research from the United Kingdom and Norway has shown that students who go abroad belong mostly to a socio-cultural elite and that internationalisation understood as mobility tends to proliferate class distinctions (King, Findlay & Arens 2010; Saarikallio-Torp & Wiers-Jenssen 2010).

Internationalisation at home and the disciplines. Internationalisation at home is specific to each discipline. Although there are some general principles, international and intercultural dimensions may differ considerably across disciplines. Transversal skills may apply to all disciplines but their relative importance will vary across programmes. Critical thinking, for example is an integral component of programmes in Law and History. In Medicine and Nursing, the focus will be mainly on collaboration with colleagues and clients with different cultural backgrounds. International business programmes tend to focus on intercultural communication. Therefore, meaningful internationalisation at home can only be developed ‚bottom up‘ in each individual programme of study. Academics are the only ones who can determine the international and intercultural dimensions of a programme. Leask and Bridge (2013) and Green and Whitsed (2015) researched the different ways in which disciplines deal with internationalisation of the curriculum and found considerable differences in the way internationalisation was conceptualised.

Differences are not only found between disciplines but also between programmes in the same discipline. The STEM disciplines have significantly different graduate profiles and therefore also different manifestations of internationalisation.

Identical programmes in different universities may still develop their own specific profiles, depending on the university’s location and the local and regional labour market.

Tools for internationalisation at home

Internationalisation and internationalisation at home can be considered instruments and not aims in themselves. The real aim is to equip all students with competences

that they will need as professionals and citizens. Within internationalisation at home, the main tools are:

Comparison of literature from different contexts. Which contexts are chosen depends on what is relevant to a specific discipline. The key aspect here is to demonstrate different perspectives on the discipline and its content. Using the term 'international literature' implies that there would be one international body of literature that is universally accepted across the world. Instead, different perspectives, e. g. from Asia, serve to challenge dominant western paradigms. This is particularly relevant in disciplines such as management, which tends to be dominated by literature from the USA.

Comparison of cases from different contexts. Studying cases from different contexts not only allows students to compare these cases, but also demonstrates how global developments impact local environments in different ways.

Online collaboration with students abroad. Technology now makes it possible for students to work together with students abroad through what is sometimes called 'virtual mobility'. A key element is to provide (inter)disciplinary content to such collaboration and make students generate a meaningful product. Students should also reflect on the process of collaboration across borders and cultures to make them develop both awareness and skills in such collaboration.

Designing and facilitating online learning for students is not an easy task as students (and academics) may come from very different educational cultures in which terminology may be understood differently and assessment and grading may be quite different too. While students could and should experience the uncertainty that is inherent in all international collaboration, the learning environment should not block them in their progress and academics should at all times control the situation.

A frequently used approach is 'Collaborative Online International Learning' (COIL, which is both a general term and a platform developed by State University New York (<http://coil.suny.edu>)).

Lectures by local and international guest lecturers. Guest lecturers from partner universities are a classic element of higher education. However, international and intercultural learning opportunities can also be found in the environment of the university, particularly when the university is located in a major city with a diverse population.

Engagement with local international and intercultural organisations. Students can learn transversal skills from foreign employees of local organisations or companies or from local employees of international ones. These employees can contribute to both the formal and the informal curriculum.

Learning from international students. Incoming international students are not a requirement for internationalisation at home nor are they a guarantee that home and international students learn from each other in a meaningful way. In order to make that happen, academics who teach in international classrooms need a range of educational skills in addition to foreign language proficiency.

The new ,owners‘ of internationalisation

The shift from internationalisation – perceived as mobility for a minority – to an internationalised curriculum for all students leads to other stakeholders becoming involved in the internationalisation process. While study and internships abroad, traditionally organised through an international office, will remain important learning opportunities for students, they should be seen as additional to an internationalised curriculum. The increased importance of internationalisation in the curriculum implies that academics are now moving to the centre of the internationalisation process. For the most part they have not been prepared for that. They have not received sufficient training in curriculum development, didactics and assessment. In addition, many research universities do not include teaching in the evaluation of the performance of academics. In those circumstances, it is understandable that academics focus on their research. In order to support academics in their new ,ownership‘ of internationalisation of the home curriculum, it is essential that they are given support, training and incentives.

In order to make this successful, specialists in education and internationalisation should work together since the former have not been included in the internationalisation discourse and the latter are not educationalists.

Academics and internationalisation at home

Lack of engagement, skills and expertise are frequently mentioned as key issues in internationalisation at home. These issues require further exploration in order to ,unpack‘ them, determine their exact role and, of course, overcome them. This section provides a global exploration of these issues.

Academics‘ lack of engagement. The literature frequently mentions lecturers‘ lack of engagement or involvement in internationalisation as an obstacle. Some of the early literature on this topic originated in Canada (Bond 2003; Bond, Qian & Huang 2003; also Friesen 2013). Other authors that discuss this subject include: Stohl (2007), Sanderson (2008), Clifford (2009), Childress (2010), Leask and Beelen (2010), Mestenhauser (2011), and the American Council on Education (2013, April, June). Stohl (2007, 365) distinguished between those students and academics expressing support for internationalisation versus those who actually participate in internationalisation. As an illustration, he compared the 48 percent of high-school students who voiced interest in studying abroad in an American Council on Education survey from 2000 with the 3 percent of American students who actually went abroad (Stohl, 364). For Stohl, a key indicator of academics‘ lack of engagement is the low level of student mobility.

While Stohl concluded that academics are not very engaged in this area, other authors have looked for possible explanations. Mestenhauser (2011) examined university staff members‘ mindsets, which had developed over lengthy periods of time, deeming these „dispositions“. These dispositions may lead to ethnocentrism, reinforced by the national origin of education systems. The sources of these dispositions are not only formal education but also general experiences, such as travel,

employment, relationships with other people (including foreigners), media, reading materials, family socialisation, political orientation, economic class, acculturation, and religious beliefs. Mindsets are therefore relevant to the question of if, and to what extent, a lecturer engages with internationalisation.

Several studies went into more detail regarding the engagement of academic staff. Childress (2010, 28–29) identified six levels of engagement for academic staff. She did not specifically connect these to the curriculum, and the champions that she pinpointed are above all promoters and coordinators of mobility. This raises the question of whether the mobility champions among lecturers automatically have affinity with the internationalisation of the curriculum. Woodruff (2009, 5–6) found that a „faculty member’s own prior international experience“ did not result in their encouraging students to study abroad. However, academics who were involved in the „curriculum internationalisation initiative“ (which primarily focused on study abroad) were more likely to do so.

Another factor that affects lecturers’ engagement is the alignment of personal motivations with institutional rationales for internationalisation. Friesen (2013) interviewed five lecturers at Canadian research universities. Four of them thought that the institutional policy plan defined internationalisation in sufficiently clear terms. Some of the lecturers viewed the institution’s motives for engaging in internationalisation as chiefly focused on the university’s reputation and economic returns, rather than on promoting intercultural understanding and enhancing educational quality. The article mentioned curriculum internationalisation, a concept that was understood to include mobility options: „Enhancing the quality of education is a primary motivator for three of the participants as they expand course curriculum to include the experience of learning in another country context“ (Friesen 2013, 218).

The 4th *Global Survey* recorded a remarkable improvement in lecturers’ engagement, compared to the previous survey. The report’s authors concluded that the removal of certain obstacles „confirms once again the overall importance that internationalization has taken on in the institutions“ (Eggen-Polak & Hudson 2014). However, this does not convincingly explain the fairly drastic change. It may be that the respondents understood „engagement“ as international travel. The argument can also be made that increased involvement does not necessarily affect student learning, as that involvement may also manifest itself in international research cooperation. Another factor is that nearly all of the respondents of the 4th *Global Survey* were university leaders or international officers, and so it is their voices that were transmitted.

Through a survey that was extended with qualitative research, Beatty (2013) examined factors determining academics’ engagement in internationalisation at the University of Minnesota. Lecturers considered internationalisation meaningful for their professional development because it provided them with new knowledge, greater opportunities for collaboration and research, and enhanced intercultural skills (ibid., 87). One academic remarked that new knowledge would also benefit the classroom but that it was not easy to infuse a global dimension into teaching as, „traditionally, providing an international perspective in the curriculum has not been standard practice“ (ibid., 88). Beatty’s research demonstrates how academics at one U.S. research university

viewed internationalisation's benefits in terms of personal development, increased knowledge, and extended research opportunities, rather than as a means of enriching teaching and learning.

The above evidence suggests that apart from a few exceptions (e. g. Leask & Beelen 2010), academics' engagement in the mobility component of an internationalised curriculum dominates the discussion. Only limited materials exist on which one can draw conclusions regarding lecturers' engagement in the internationalisation of the home curriculum.

Low priority for academics. The case of the Faculty of Business and Economics at Monash University clarified an obstacle that is closely related to lecturers' lack of engagement and that may partly explain that phenomenon. Crosling, Edward, and Schroder (2008) concluded that academic staff, with the exception of subject leaders, were not willing to devote much time to the internationalisation process. Their impression was that academics had neutral to positive attitudes towards internationalisation but that they prioritised the attainment of their publication targets. New initiatives for short-term student and staff mobility drew attention away from urgent calls to fundamentally change the curriculum. Moreover, Leask (2015, 111) also acknowledged that the fact that internationalisation has a low priority for academics as an obstacle, but she classified it as an institutional obstacle, in the sense that organisations themselves do not rank this issue among their most important concerns.

Faculty apathy. Yet another obstacle related to lecturers' engagement was identified by LeBlanc's (2007) study of Canadian business school curricula. He noted the following issues:

- Due to limited time, international topics are only injected at a superficial level (ibid., 35), leading to an „add-on“ situation.
- The existence of isolated functional silos;
- Faculty apathy;

LeBlanc cited Mestenhauser but did not apply the latter's systems perspective to the cases that he studied. Nevertheless, he expected that the development of new modules with an international focus might be able to remedy the issues he identified. LeBlanc frequently referred to Raby (1996), which explains his expectation. Raby discussed the internationalisation of community college curricula and stated that „faculty members must simply reimagine the curriculum“ (ibid., 59). She advocated for six actions, including infusing teaching with international content and taking a systemic approach. Based on Mestenhauser's (2006) critique of infusion and his plea for a systemic approach, one can conclude that these are mutually exclusive techniques.

Faculty apathy can (partially) explain this lack of engagement. Since lack of engagement is such an important obstacle, exploring possible causes for it is therefore relevant.

The person of the academic. In an often-quoted article about the internationalisation of the academic self, Sanderson (2008) observed that internationalisation had been

integrated at the university level but had not yet reached individual academics. He came to the conclusion that academics' experiences, roles, and responsibilities had received little attention in the literature on Australian higher education. To that end, he introduced the concept of the cosmopolitan teacher in higher education, linking Cranton's view of authenticity in teaching (as cited in Sanderson 2008, 282–286) with cosmopolitanism. Other authors have stressed the importance of internationalising academics first, such as through training that will „need to be deliberately planned to facilitate transformational change“ (Smith & Mikelonis (2011, 90). Leask (2013, 114) has confirmed Sanderson's views. Shailer (2006, 4) observed that, „[...] many faculty either reject or are uncomfortable with the concept of internationalizing the curriculum. At the heart of that discomfort is the implicit threat to the established view of knowledge as universal and based on objectivity, truth and rationality.“ This could depend on the discipline and has therefore been included as a disciplinary obstacle (see Leask 2015, 108).

Lecturers' lack of skills. It has long been acknowledged – although lecturers play a crucial role in the internationalisation of teaching and learning (see Van der Wende 1997, 53; Mestenhauser 1998; Sanderson, 2008) – that they lack the required skills. The *3rd Global Survey* concluded that „limited experience and expertise of staff and/or lack of foreign language proficiency“ are major obstacles to internationalisation (Egron-Polak & Hudson 2010, 23). Since the survey did not distinguish between skills for research, the promotion of studying abroad, and the internationalisation of the home curriculum, it is not clear what skills the survey was referencing. Beelen (2011) argued that these skills are related to the curriculum, since lecturers do not need specific skillsets to encourage their students to study abroad. Brewer and Leask (2012, 250) observed that academic staff need numerous and varied skills for the internationalisation of the home curricula. More specifically, Sanderson (2008, 95) noted the presumption that academic staff members are equipped, both professionally and personally, to bring about educational outcomes connected with interculturality.

Thus, although both lecturers' significance and lack of skills are acknowledged, few detailed references explain the specifics of these skills and how they are connected to each other. Because they are critical to the process of internationalising the home curricula, a more detailed look is required to unpack the general references to a lack of skills.

Lack of foreign language skills. The *3rd Global Survey* noted that academics' lack of foreign language proficiency constitutes both an external and an internal obstacle to advancing internationalisation, in combination with staff's lack of experience and expertise (Egron-Polak & Hudson 2010, 225, questions 12 and 13). This combined obstacle ranks second or third worldwide as an internal obstacle, at the same level as „limited faculty interest“. It is not clear, however, what this perceived lack of foreign language proficiency really means. First of all, this is because this factor is combined with another issue. Secondly, it remains uncertain if the perceived lack of proficiency

primarily manifests itself in research or in teaching. A lack of foreign language proficiency also surfaced in a survey by the European University Association, which called for more English-language education delivery and greater opportunities for staff and students to „improve their language skills, which was also seen in the context of internationalising curriculum and classroom“ (European University Association 2013, 16). The organisation did not directly claim that teaching in English equals internationalisation, but it only stressed this single skill of academics. This survey outcome is therefore more indicative of the European University Association’s limited view on foreign language proficiency than of academics’ actual lack of this skill.

Lack of teaching skills. European universities are attaching increasing importance to teaching and learning, according to *Trends 2015* (Sursock 2015). This puts new demands on the educational skills of all lecturers. However, most of the literature on teaching and learning in relation to internationalisation has been generated in countries where English is the standard language of instruction and where the internationalisation discourse stands in the shadow of the „marketisation discourse“ (Caruana 2009, 7) and „survival“ (Webb, 2005). Much of that literature focuses on teaching international students (see, for example, Carroll & Ryan 2005; Jones & Brown 2007; Jones 2010; Carroll 2015). The necessity of professional development for teachers of international students is not a novel concept, although recognition of this need has primarily been in response to the unique demands of international classrooms (see Dunn & Carroll 2005; Brewer & Leask 2012, 249). Teekens (2000) sketched a profile of the „ideal“ lecturer in an international classroom. The title of her book chapter contains the term „qualifications“, an ambiguous word choice, as it can refer to qualities or abilities to perform a task, to a restriction, or to the act of qualifying or being qualified (*Collins English Dictionary* 2003). Teekens’ focus was clearly on competences, as she explained that the „purpose of the chapter was to specify the knowledge, skills and attitudes“ required for teaching in an international classroom, which she defined as teaching to „multi-national“ groups (*ibid.*, 36). Teekens did not write from a curriculum design perspective, and she thus did not include competences for activity. When she mentioned that lecturers should have „some basic knowledge of educational theory“ (*ibid.*, 44), she was referring to the teaching process rather than to curriculum development or the definition of learning outcomes.

Veness (2010, 1002) claimed that it is unfortunate that university teachers [sic] are not required to hold a teaching qualification. This implies that teaching skills can be an issue in Australian universities.

That curriculum development is not highlighted more in the literature is logical, to some extent. Where English is the standard language of instruction, the curriculum can technically be delivered to international students without redesigning it. However, such redesign would be necessary to make the curriculum truly international in terms of both content and form. This also applies when the curriculum is delivered in English in the framework of transnational education.

The importance of professional development is acknowledged in the literature, although primarily in the context of teaching. However, Carroll (2015) addresses both curriculum design and the relevance of the discipline in both curriculum design and teaching practice.

Lack of skills for curriculum development. Several studies have reported issues with curriculum development. These issues are relevant for this article, since the definition of learning outcomes is an integral element of curriculum design and therefore, a key component of the internationalisation of the home curriculum as well.

In the Australian context, Green, Hammer and Star (2009, 7) found that lecturers struggle to define outcomes and graduate attributes when shifting from a content-focused curriculum to one that incorporates both content and process. Also in Australia, Veness (2010, 1002) pointed out that academics have no formal grounding in educational theory:

This presents educational designers with the challenge of finding ways to ensure that university teachers look beyond the content of their own courses and take into consideration context, target audience, intended learning outcomes, desired graduate attributes, assessment of academic achievement, and the appropriate evolution of curriculum.

The above quote refers to lecturers' general curriculum development skills but does not explicitly mention curriculum internationalisation.

In the UK, Jones and Killick (2007, 111) and Caruana (2010, 32) made the connection between internationalisation of the curriculum and global citizenship. Caruana observed that policy documents assume „that curriculum development is a core activity of academics in the disciplines“ and that this assumption causes confusion over exactly what is meant by internationalisation of the curriculum. In an earlier publication (2004), Caruana had mentioned „the overwhelming requirements of staff development in terms of constructivist notions of learning“.

In Canada, Bond, Qian, and Huang (2003, 6–7) found that one-third of survey respondents explicitly mentioned that they felt they lacked the skills and experience to internationalise their teaching. An open-ended question on the knowledge and skills needed by academics generated a list including „[an] interest in teaching with an international perspective“ but not skills related to curriculum development or assessment.

This suggests not only a general lack of skills for educational design but also a specific lack of skills in integrating internationalisation into that design.

Lack of intercultural competence. As the student population grows more diverse, lecturers face increased demands to be interculturally inclusive in their teaching. Sanderson (2008, 95) noted that it is presumed that academics are interculturally competent. Yet, practice demonstrates that this is not always the case.

Schuerholz-Lehr (2007) was involved in the (re)design of a week-long training focused on how intercultural competence of academics could have a positive impact on student learning. She observed that the participating academics were struggling with concepts such as internationalisation, intercultural sensitivity, international education, and global awareness. During the one-week workshop, participants deconstructed the concept of internationalisation on an on-going basis. While the training raised academics' general awareness of the issue, it did not lead to lecturers capturing intercultural learning in the formulation of learning outcomes for their students. Trede, Bowles and Bridges (2013, 452–453) conducted a quantitative and qualitative study

on Charles Stuart University's practices for preparing students for study abroad experiences. They concluded that the debate on global citizenship in programmes was superficial and that the programmes' intercultural dimensions were implicit.

Academics' lack of intercultural skills can thus be considered an obstacle to the internationalisation of the home curriculum.

Misconceptions around internationalisation at home

Internationalisation is riddled by misconceptions and so is internationalisation at home. Misconceptions can be found at all levels: from national educational policies to the levels of the institution, the faculty, the department, and the programme.

Internationalisation at home is an alternative to study abroad. This misconception is frequently found, e. g. in the national educational policies of the Netherlands and Sweden as well as within universities. Perceiving internationalisation at home as an alternative for students that do not have the opportunity or inclination to go abroad leads to continuing to consider internationalisation equivalent to mobility. It also, curiously, considers mobility for a minority of students the norm and practice for the great majority as an alternative. There is another important implication of this misconception. When internationalisation at home is considered an alternative for study abroad, the duration of internationalisation at home may be limited to a semester, the usual period of time that students spend abroad. At the same time, universities have high aims for their students in terms of intercultural communication, critical thinking and world citizenship. These aspects require attention throughout the entire curriculum, rather than in a single semester.

Pars pro toto. There is a tendency to regard components of internationalisation as equal to internationalisation in its entirety. In some cases, this means only focusing on the informal curriculum or on electives with an international or intercultural character.

Internationalisation at home equals teaching in English. Internationalisation at home is focused on all students. In continental Europe the great majority of students are enrolled in programmes that are delivered in the local language.

The curriculum of these programmes can be internationalised without changing the language of instruction e. g. by using literature and cases that bring different perspectives into the learning environment. Using sources in English does not require the teacher to discuss these in English. Sources can even be used in translation since they retain their original perspective, also in translation. Besides, most students will be able to understand English as a 'listening' language, for example in a guest lecture. Including sources in English (or other foreign languages) requires that the teacher also focuses on foreign language aspects, for example by incorporating the principles of Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL).

Internationalisation at home equals preparation for mobility. Many mobile students may enter the university with the intention to study abroad or at least with an

openness for considering to do so. For them, the home curriculum can contribute to their preparation and make them familiar with different perspectives on the discipline. For students who do not belong to the 'cultural elite', the home curriculum can make them see the value of going abroad and empower them to make use of the opportunities. Preparation for mobility is therefore an important aspect of internationalisation at home but certainly not equivalent to it.

Internationalisation at home equals offering electives. Since internationalisation of the home aims to reach all students, it is not sufficient to limit international and intercultural components to electives that will be followed only by a minority of students. It should be an integral element of the compulsory curriculum.

Internationalisation at home equals making international students feel 'at home'. While the informal curriculum provides opportunities for international students to meet local students, it does not cover the full range of internationalisation at home. While both groups of students may learn from this, this learning is not assessed and therefore the extent of it will not be known. It should also be stressed that internationalisation at home is primarily for the benefit of home students and not (only) for that of international students.

Internationalisation at home is the responsibility of the international office. The dominance of study abroad as the main form of internationalisation has led to international offices being considered responsible for internationalisation in all its aspects. At continental European universities, international offices indeed have a wide range of tasks beyond mobility and many international officers see themselves faced with the expectation that they will also deal with internationalisation at home. At the same time, international officers themselves, with the best intentions, contribute to the proliferation of the misconception that the international office, rather than academic programmes, could be responsible for the international dimension of teaching and learning in those programmes.

Internationalisation only starts when students enter higher education. Students who enter higher education may have had a wide range of experiences with internationalisation. Many primary and nearly all secondary schools have activities for internationalisation, such as exchanges with schools abroad, international projects and online collaboration. Universities can build on these experiences when they develop the international and intercultural skills of their students.

Internationalisation at home means starting from zero. Existing curricula contain many opportunities for building international and intercultural learning opportunities. Instead of constructing added-on modules for international and intercultural learning, opportunities should be built into existing modules and integrated within the disciplinary subject. It is therefore important to use the term 'internationalised' rather than 'international'. The former implies that current practice can remain intact but in a different approach. The latter could lead to the belief that there are 'national' and

,international' components of the curriculum, whereas in reality they are integrated and inseparable.

Obstacles to internationalisation at home

Making internationalisation at home a reality is a complicated process, since it involves many stakeholders, such as specialists in curriculum development, internationalisation experts, managers and, most important of all: the academics. Below are a number of known obstacles that can negatively impact the process of internationalising the home curriculum in programmes of study.

Lack of institutional strategies for support. Internationalisation at home may be exceptional in that it relies less on top-down policies than on bottom-up development. While institutional policies may support the implementation of internationalisation at home, the discipline and the context of individual programmes of study really determine their international and intercultural dimensions.

Top-down policies do not guarantee that implementation takes place. This is illustrated by practice in the Netherlands where many universities have included internationalisation at home in their policies but failed to develop strategies for implementation (Van Gaalen & Gielesen 2016, 154).

On the other hand, the absence of top-down strategies has not prevented programmes of study to develop initiatives for internationalisation at home. At programme level, many activities could be identified at Dutch universities, often without the central level of the university being aware of them. However, it is not clear to what extent these activities have been planned purposefully, are assessed and reach all students. Therefore, we do not know what it means that 64 percent of European universities report that they have developed activities for internationalisation at home (Sursock 2015, 32).

Stacking top-down policies on the heads of academics. Many universities, when implementing internationalisation, follow a 'funnel' approach in which they start with general policies at the highest level, e. g. at European level and stack up policies: those of the European Union, national policies, institutional and faculty level. Academics may feel overwhelmed by all these policies and end up discussing the meaning of internationalisation as a concept rather than the implications for the programme.

Considering internationalisation of the curriculum different from curriculum development.

Internationalisation of teaching and learning is in fact identical to curriculum development. In practice, internationalisation and curriculum development are often considered two different and unrelated processes. Leaders and managers may consider internationalisation an additional burden for their staff and try protecting them by declaring that internationalisation has a low priority. The phenomenon that managers shield their staff from internationalisation may be called the *Cerberus-effect* (Beelen, 2017b).

Another aspect of this is that resources for curriculum development are not used to internationalise the curriculum, thereby fueling the argument that resources are not sufficient to internationalise a programme of studies.

Lack of educational skills. Another key issue in the implementation is the lack of skills of academics to internationalise the home curriculum. This is recognised as a major obstacle to internationalisation around the globe in the Global Surveys of the International Association of Universities (Egron-Polak & Hudson 2014, 68). Universities offer but few deliberate options for professional development to remedy this.

Another issue is that many academics are not adequately prepared for their tasks as teachers or that training in teaching methodology does not include the international and intercultural dimensions of the curriculum.

Educational support not readily available. Internationalisation at home is basically curriculum (re)development. Therefore, specialists in the educational field should be involved in the process. However, educational support is not always directly available for academics in programmes or departments. In some cases, educational developers are placed at central level in universities and are therefore more difficult to assess. Yet, virtually all universities will have educational expertise available within the organisation.

Lack of dedicated professional development for internationalisation. Most universities offer professional development options to their academic and administrative staff, either through a unit at the central level or through their faculties of education. These professional development options usually include foreign language training, some form of training for teaching in international classrooms and intercultural sensitivity training. Not many universities offer training that is specifically dedicated to internationalisation of the home curriculum and internationalisation of learning outcomes. Professional development that is offered in departments and programmes to teams of academics tends to be more effective than training at central level, that only a few ‘champions’ in the programme participate in.

Lack of recognition for engaging with internationalisation of teaching and learning. When quality and quantity of research output are the only criteria for the performance of academics, there is little incentive for them to get involved in internationalising the home curriculum. When research collaboration is the only aspect of internationalisation that counts, academics cannot be expected to devote much time to developing their teaching. Therefore, human resources policies should include recognition of the work that academics do for the international and intercultural aspects of teaching and learning.

(Presumed) lack of facilities. While the Global Surveys indicate that lack of resources is the key obstacle to internationalisation, it may be doubted if this is really an issue for internationalisation at home. After all, internationalisation at home is a form of curriculum redesign. If presented under that label, available resources for curriculum development can be used, as can resources for professional development. If extra resources are required, academics should be specific about what they need, e. g. in terms of training, outside expertise or time. Asking for money or resources without a clear purpose

will likely not impress. A good argument for investment in internationalisation of the home curriculum is that the outcomes will benefit all students while investments in mobility will only benefit the mobile minority.

Lack of a consistent educational terminology. Universities do not always consistently use educational terminology. Terms such as learning objectives, learning outcomes, learning goals, competences, and many more may all be used synonymously within the same institution and sometimes within the same department or even in the same programme and within the same document.

Lack of an institutional language policy. Not all universities have a language policy. Yet, in all programmes, also those delivered in the local language, literature and other sources in foreign languages will be an integral element of teaching, learning and research. Graduates will also need to communicate with fellow researchers and give (conference) presentations in English. Teachers will need to facilitate students acquiring these skills. Therefore, an institutional language policy will be helpful to determine general levels of proficiency in foreign languages for both students and teachers according to the Common European Framework of References (CEFR). Such a policy will also determine what language training the university makes available and what support teachers can get from language coaches.

Lack of a structured approach to academic mobility. The *Erasmus Impact Study* (European Union 2014) claims that the Erasmus programme has a great impact on study programmes ‚at home‘. This would happen through the mobility of academics who learn skills abroad. However, this claim cannot be substantiated for several reasons. First, the respondents were mobile academics themselves and the self-reported positive effect of their mobility have not been verified, e. g. through assessing the effects on student learning. Second, the volume of mobility of academics within the Erasmus programme is quite small. Third, we know that it is often the same academics that travel repeatedly while others never do. Fourth, and building on the previous reason, there is evidence to suggest that academic mobility may have negative consequences in the sense that it leads to a separation between the static majority of academics and a „mobile elite“ (Sursock 2015, 72).

Enablers for internationalisation at home

Starting with the graduate profile. Instead of focusing on individual modules, it is advisable to start with the profile of graduates and the competences they will need as professionals in their field.

Discussing transversal skills within the programme. The following list, derived from World Economic Forum (2016), can be used as a starting point for the discussion within the discipline and the programme:

Top 10 skills in 2020

1. Complex Problem Solving
2. Critical Thinking
3. Creativity
4. People Management
5. Coordinating with Others
6. Emotional Intelligence
7. Judgement and decision making
8. Service Orientation
9. Negotiation
10. Cognitive Flexibility

Continuing with internationalised learning outcomes. Internationalisation is in the process of changing from input-focused to outcomes-focused. This means that we are no longer content with a certain amount of international and intercultural input but that we want to ensure that this input is suitable to reach the desired outcomes. Since internationalisation is now increasingly integrated into teaching and learning, it should also be part of the learning outcomes.

For this reason, internationalised learning outcomes are the backbone of the Certificate of Quality in Internationalisation (CeQuInt), introduced across Europe in 2015 (Aerden 2015). Academics are not always familiar with or skilled in formulating or articulating learning outcomes in general. Therefore, involving the support of educational specialists is a critical success factor in internationalising curricula.

Bringing in external voices. Representatives from the professional field can give good indications of the skills that they expect from graduates, now and in the future. However, a meaningful discussion with these representatives requires some preparation. Not all academics will have direct access to employers in the professional field but employers can be found through alumni. It requires careful preparation to consult employers or other external parties.

Representatives from the professional field may have a different understanding of terminology that is current in universities. 'Internationalisation' may be understood as 'export' in business practice or 'intercultural communication' as 'speaking English' in other professional fields. Therefore, surveys of employers have their limitations and qualitative interviews may have more meaning.

As a point of orientation for consultation of employers, a range of studies on employability is available from many different contexts.

Some of these studies have been conducted at European level, such as the study by Humburg, Van der Velden and Verhagen (2013) and the *Erasmus Impact Study* (European Union 2014). Others appeared in the context of individual countries, such as Finland (Centre for International Mobility 2014), Australia (Lilley 2014) and The Netherlands (The Netherlands Association of Universities of Applied Sciences 2014). Yet other studies were conducted within individual universities (e. g. Funk u. a. 2014) or focused on a single programme at six Dutch universities of applied sciences in The Netherlands (e. g. Kostelijk, Coelen & de Wit 2015).

Involving colleagues in the discussion. Developing a meaningful internationalised curriculum can only happen within programmes of study and requires involvement of more than the champions. A key aspect is therefore discussion among academics and not just the ‘usual suspects’.

Getting support from curriculum developers. Internationalisation of the home curriculum is basically curriculum redesign. Every university employs specialists in teaching and learning that have expert knowledge on articulating learning outcomes, aligning these with assessment and on designing learning activities. Curriculum developers or educational specialists have not always been involved in internationalisation but they are key stakeholders when it comes to curriculum design (Killick 2018).

Involving students and alumni. Alumni can provide valuable insights on how and to what extent their study programme has prepared them for professional practice.

Benchmarking with international partners. Programmes of study all over Europe, and beyond, face similar issues with regard to internationalising their curriculum. Benchmarking graduate profiles, modules and policies and practices for internationalisation with international partners provides insights into the own practice.

Involvement of the international office. The international office is not responsible for teaching and learning, or for the internationalisation of it. Yet, international officers are often considered responsible for all things international or they even consider themselves responsible. They are important enablers since they are usually familiar with the concept of internationalisation at home and have expert knowledge of partner institutions that can provide guest lecturers or benchmarking partners. In addition, they may have resources for implementation of internationalisation at home. Therefore, it is advisable to discuss plans for internationalisation at home with the international office.

Avoiding 0-measurements until they are due. Starting with a 0-measurement, in which current practice is assessed, is not the best approach, although it is frequently found. It may lead to including more opportunities for international and intercultural learning, based on the activities identified in the 0-measurement. These activities may however not lead to the desired aims. Therefore, the best approach is to define the international and intercultural aspects of the graduate profile first before determining to what extent the current curriculum already achieves these.

Interdisciplinary approaches. Internationalisation aims to provide different perspectives on the discipline and on the ways in which disciplinary content is learned. These perspectives do not have to come from across borders but can also be found in other disciplines in your own university.

Involving local cultural organisations. Different perspectives can be supplied by local cultural groups, both on campus and off-campus. Particularly in major cities, the diversity of the population provides rich opportunities for this.

Using online collaboration between students. Online collaboration provides access to perspectives from across the world. The personal networks of academics often form the basis for such collaboration. Such projects require careful planning and support and are a new area of activity for many academics (Lambooy 2018).

Assuming ownership of learning outcomes. In many universities, academics are not directly involved in formulating learning outcomes, which does not generate a sense of ownership. Yet, with the appropriate support by specialists in education and internationalisation, academics should be in charge of (re)formulating learning outcomes and aligning these with assessment. Educational specialists have a role to play in aligning module learning outcomes with those of the programme.

Including local and global perspectives. Graduates will work in one or more locations in which global trends will interact with local trends. It is therefore relevant to not only know those global trends but also to be familiar with the local situation. Skills for global citizenship therefore implies that skills for local citizenship are also developed.

Building on secondary education. Many students enter the university with international experience, either from international school projects, study abroad, travel or a gap year. Likewise, their cultural background may have given them a considerable advance in intercultural communication and the development of transversal skills. Making these experiences and skills explicit and visible helps to demonstrate that international and intercultural dimensions are already part of the learning environment.

Including non-academic staff in international mobility. The Erasmus+ programme provides opportunities for mobility of all university staff, both academic and non-academic. Supporting staff with an international outlook can make a significant contribution to the internationalisation processes of faculties, departments, programmes and support services.

Conclusion

While many universities have included internationalisation at home in their policies, they have not always been successful in designing strategies or professional development opportunities for academics in programmes of study. Yet, the success of internationalisation at home depends on academics and they should therefore be supported in the internationalisation of teaching and learning by leaders, managers and educational developers. Internationalisation at home starts and ends with the academics.

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Schon längst sehen sich Universitäten nicht mehr als ‚Elfenbeintürme‘, in denen abgeschottet von anderen gesellschaftlichen Bereichen Forschung und Lehre stattfindet. Vielmehr betreiben sie heute verantwortungsvoll gesellschaftsrelevante und gesellschaftsfördernde Forschung und Lehre. Der vorliegende Sammelband nimmt diese ‚Responsible University‘ in den Blick und zeigt auf, welche vielfältigen Facetten verantwortliches Handeln in Studium und Lehre haben kann. Wie begegnen Hochschulen einer zunehmend heterogenen Studierendenschaft? Wie können Lehrende Diversität in der Hochschullehre konstruktiv nutzen? Welche methodischen Ansätze können zur Förderung sozialer Teilhabe und Stärkung benachteiligter Personengruppen sowie zum Erwerb interkultureller Kompetenzen beitragen?

Hochschullehrende, FunktionsträgerInnen an Hochschulen und alle an universitärer Lehre Interessierten finden im Sammelband Responsible University theoretische Zugänge wie auch praktisch orientierte Reflexionen und Berichte rund um den Themenkomplex Verantwortung in Studium und Lehre an Hochschulen.

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ISBN 978-3-7011-0439-0