UNTAPPED RESOURCES
Internationalization of the curriculum and classroom experience:
A selected literature review

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1.0 INTRODUCTION

The literature informing the internationalization of post-secondary education is substantial. Mission statements of most colleges and universities in Canada announce the importance given within the institution to offering an internationalized education. It is not only probable Canadian students will live and work in other countries or cultures during the course of their lives, it is increasingly likely that they will enter colleges or universities with prior international experience.

Informed by studies such as those carried out by Harari (1972, 2001), Burn (2001), Mestenhauser (1998, 2002), Ellingboe (1998, 1999), and Knight (1994, 1996, 1997, 1999, 2000), post-secondary institutions have adopted a range of strategies – the practice of which serves as evidence the institution is internationalized. The internationalization of the curriculum is not only one of these different strategies, it is the one recognized by educators and other stakeholders as the most important strategy by which real change can occur (Knight, 1997 and Harari, 2001).

Pioneering work done in the early 1980s and into the 1990s on the internationalization of the curriculum was carried out by Burn, Expanding the International Dimensions of Higher Education; Harari, Internationalizing the Curriculum and the Campus; Tonkin & Edwards, The World in the Curriculum, and Groennings & Wiley, Group Portrait: Internationalizing the Disciplines. The programmatic roots of internationalization of the curriculum can be traced to area studies programs, international studies, foreign language training, and subspecialties within specialties (ACE, 1995). Ideas introduced by Harari, Burn and others over 25 years ago remain relevant and useful to the revitalization that is taking place within the literature today. The literature is also benefiting from a broader participation of researchers and authors. This brings the inclusion of multiple perspectives on important questions — questions often embedded uncritically (Mestenhauser, 2002) in the institutional efforts to internationalize post-secondary education.

An examination of the internationalization of the curriculum and classroom experience is situated within a context in which the faculty member has the primary responsibility for teaching/learning and for scholarly inquiry. The findings of such inquiries, made accessible through books, journal articles, conference papers, theses and dissertations, contribute to knowledge generation while challenging conventional beliefs and practices. Within academic and other professional communities, the use of the literature to inform and challenge what we know and how we know it also serves to inform institutional policy as well as the beliefs and everyday practices of college and university faculty members. A literature review can make a useful contribution to dialogue, debate, and development of an increasingly diverse body of knowledge.

Industrialized countries around the world have gradually since the end of World War II begun to accept that non-western countries (especially following decolonialization) have something important to offer (Shute, 2002).
In discussing colleges and universities as if they share similar experiences one is likely to underestimate or lose sight of their respective uniqueness, as well as that of their departments and faculties. It is not my intent to convey the impression that post-secondary institutions or their ways of organizing knowledge and people are similar, nor necessarily are their achievements in internationalizing the curriculum.

I have attempted an integrated approach to the literature review. The approach allows me to identify and summarize separate studies that are relevant to the internationalization of the curriculum and reach some overall conclusions. The integration of such an ad hoc, nearly random literature review (Mestenhauser, 1998) is a challenge fraught with peril. The usual cautionary notes apply. A review of the selected literature represents a “snapshot” of a process that is changing, sometimes quickly. As such, the literature review will likely produce a picture that will, over time, become blurred and in need of revision and expansion.

It is possible I have unintentionally excluded important work being done, making any overall conclusion tentative. Moreover this review examines primarily North American literature in English; there is a huge body of French language and other language literature that merits attention.

Finally, the integrative analysis where it occurs is shaped by my own professional experience. I assume responsibility for both the selection of the literature and for the integrative analysis and conclusions which are entirely my own.

2.0 OBJECTIVES & ORGANIZATION

The objectives of this review are threefold. First, it is my intent to make the literature more accessible. In preparing the literature review, it became evident that access to the literature can be problematic. Even with interlibrary loans as a mechanism to gather the documents not available electronically, it became apparent that many of the documents are dispersed broadly across institutions from coast to coast. The next objective is to bring to the attention of faculty members across the country the varied, rich, and sometimes conflicting literature on the internationalization of the curriculum, and to identify gaps therein. The final objective is to draw general conclusions, which can lead to discourse, debate and the further development of the literature.

The selected review of the literature is organized thematically, and includes:

- Confusion over meaning
- The global context and learning outcomes
- The role of faculty in internationalizing the curriculum
- Approaches to internationalizing the curriculum

- Resistance to curricular and pedagogical reform
- Strategies to internationalize instruction and the classroom experience
- Untapped resources and other conclusions

3.0 CONFUSION OVER MEANING

Two concepts whose meaning and definition play an important role in trying to understand the literature are internationalization and curriculum. Clarity is an elusive quality in this literature.

Internationalization: Despite the current scope and magnitude of the literature reflecting the varied practice of internationalization in colleges and universities across Canada and Europe, conceptual confusion remains around what it means to internationalize courses and internationalize teaching and the classroom experience. Internationalization has become a “catch all” for other concepts such as globalization, interculturalization, and international education (McKellin, 1996). It is perpetually misused and misunderstood (Knight, 2000). This confusion can, in part, be attributed to the multiple meanings of internationalization of the curriculum in the literature (Banks, 1999). Such failure to reach a consensus about the meaning of internationalization has undermined the cohesion of the literature and hampered institutional understanding of what internationalization of the curriculum may entail (Loughheed & Wasilewski, 1993; Banks, 1999).


The lack of critical debate leading to consensus has contributed to overly simplistic, even naïve (Mestenhauser, 2002) meanings and definitions of internationalization of the curriculum. The authors of the following studies/papers are examples of the ways in which cultural, disciplinary, and institutional lenses inform the construction of multiple meanings for the
same concept. Several authors caution against the transmission of hegemonic practices as we undertake curriculum reform. The assumed universality of knowledge which informs our cultural biases also causes us to compare all cultures with our own.


Ellingboe (1999) in her comprehensive study of five colleges at the University of Minnesota generated an operational definition to inform the process of internationalization at one large institution. According to Ellingboe, internationalization is "the process of integrating an international perspective into a university system as an ongoing, future-oriented, multidimensional, interdisciplinary, leadership-driven vision that involves many stakeholders working to change the internal dynamics of an institution to respond and adapt appropriately to an increasingly diverse, globally focused, ever changing external environment" (Ellingboe).


While Ellingboe's definition appears to be finding its way into the strategic and other institutional planning documents, there are other meanings of internationalization available to inform policy and practice. Lemasson (1999) places a "genuine openness to the world" as the perspective through which to view the internationalization of education. His choice of words is carefully crafted. Genuine openness implies that learning between and among cultures and countries is a reciprocal process, not hierarchical. Such reciprocity can only occur if we do not cling to the intellectual tradition of the universality of knowledge.


Mestenhauser (2002) also uses the learning perspective to understand internationalization. Moving to a more complex analysis of learning than the openness envisioned by Lemasson (or by learning outcomes described in a later section), Mestenhauser describes the cognitive complexities inherent in the meaning and practice of internationalization. According to Mestenhauser, internationalization is a "multidimensional learning process that includes the integrative, intercultural, interdisciplinary, and comparative construction and transfer of knowledge."


The last example definition (and there are many across post-secondary institutions), comes from the University of Calgary. Working on the transformation of the undergraduate curriculum, the university's documentation describes internationalizing the curriculum to mean:

...the provision of the opportunity to develop an intercultural awareness, whether this involves two or more nations, a single nation where peoples of different cultures cohabit. It involves a breadth of perspective and an appreciation of multiple realities. To realize this awareness requires a meaningful interface with the people, the cultural artifacts and modes of expression of a group outside one's own cultural identity.

(www.ucalgary.ca/transformation)

It is clear we do not have any shared understandings of what internationalization means. That confusion makes any discussion of the interrelationships among the curriculum and other aspects of education very difficult.

For further discussion on the multiple meanings of internationalization, see:


**Curriculum:** Given the multiple meanings attached to the word internationalization, it is a relief that relative clarity exists in what we mean by curriculum. This clarity is, in large part, the result of an extensive body of work that has been carried out over time. While debates may continue about some aspects of curriculum, two colleagues have given us a fairly clear sense of what we mean by curriculum in the context of internationalization. Ellingboe, speaking about internationalization, defines curriculum to include, “the complete portfolio of required and elective courses, the variety of disciplines, and the breadth and depth of programs offered by an institution, designed primarily by faculty, and made available to students” (Ellingboe, 1999).

McKellin (1996) focuses on the purpose of the curriculum and its inclusive practices. For McKellin, an internationalized curriculum “is curricula with an international orientation in content, aimed at preparing students by performing (professionally/socially) in an international and multicultural context, and designed for domestic students as well as foreign students”.

The current approaches to the internationalization of Canadian colleges and universities consists of nearly 20 elements (e.g. student mobility, international students, faculty exchange and travel, international development projects, etc.), only one of which is internationalization of the curriculum (Knight, 1995). All elements in the process of internationalization are not perceived as making equal contributions to the overall effort. Seeing the curriculum as one among other diverse elements serves to remind us that the curriculum is interrelated with other elements of the process. All elements in the process of internationalization are not perceived as having equal influence on institutional reform. In fact, the curriculum, according to nearly every author and study reviewed, holds a special privileged status. Everyone seems to agree that internationalization cannot be sustained without it.

### 4.0 THE GLOBAL CONTEXT AND LEARNING OUTCOMES

Groenings & Wiley (1990) argue persuasively that “internationalization is like the scientific revolution… leading up to an ubiquitous, pervasive, and permanent redirection of the intellectual framework”. Furthermore, they argue, “internationalization creates new theoretical constructs, new ways of doing research, … and the emergence of a global perspective and the involvement of increasing numbers of faculty and students”.

While Groenings & Wiley see the impacts of internationalization on the construction and transmission of knowledge, post-secondary colleges and universities in Canada have made it clear in mission statements, and other public pronouncements, that the institution itself is also transforming. The degree to which the rhetoric represents real change is yet to be determined. The political, economic, social and cultural realities and interrelationships of the 21st century are reshaping the way institutions project their identity and their educational programs. The following texts from University of British Columbia (UBC) and Capilano College are examples of the changing global context and the critical role post-secondary institutions see themselves playing in it:

Universities in Canada have a long tradition of international collaboration. Today, however, internationalization of the university means far more than inter-personal or even inter-institutional cooperation across borders. It is a necessary, vital, and deliberate transformation of how we teach and learn and it is essential to the future of Canada.

([UBC, Bridge to the 21st Century](http://www.ubc.ca/supp_docs/bridge)).

At Capilano College our mission is to enable student success in current and continuing studies, in a chosen career, in the pursuit of knowledge, and in contributing effectively as responsible citizens in a rapidly changing and diverse global community.

([www.capcollege.bc.ca/about/index](http://www.capcollege.bc.ca/about/index))

Wilson (1998) clearly points out the need to identify “what international competencies will be essential to operate internationally in the new millennium and how we are likely to acquire such competencies”. In universities, the question of what competencies (if any) and who will identify them is problematic. The emphasis on learning outcomes (competencies) for courses and programs is associated with only a few disciplines. Traditional academic programs "subsumed their outcomes and competencies under the ability of students to pass examinations as evidence that they knew the content of the course" (Mesterhauer, 2002).

The starting point for internationalizing the curriculum is difficult to determine. Beginning with what students should know (competencies) is highly problematic, at least in universities where both conventions about the authority of the faculty to determine course content and instructional approaches are well-established and accepted norms.


There appears little consistency in what authors identify as international skills and knowledge. For example, Knight (1996) asked a variety of stakeholders in post-secondary institutions what they as stakeholders thought graduates should know and be able to do. The responses generated a list of competencies and attributes for college and university graduates. On the other hand, Mestenhauser, using a cognitive lens, constructed a quite different set of competencies involved in the internationalization of learning. Further, Stanley & Mason (1997) undertaking a study of college graduates identified yet another range of competencies which, it is proposed, would enable college graduates to live and work in an increasingly global society. It does not take long before it becomes clear that both the expertise of the investigator and the scope of the study play a significant role in determining the results.

There is scant evidence of a connection between learning outcomes and what actually happens in the classroom. Therefore, the tension between the normative teaching practices in colleges and universities and this part of the literature has not been addressed. If competencies and outcomes are the accepted measures of an internationalized curriculum, it remains unclear that the majority of faculty members in colleges and universities will participate. If the outcome measures do not fit the way in which the curriculum is organized and taught, then it is possible that other curricular and pedagogical frameworks will be developed and used instead. Such frameworks are not yet clearly identified.

Curriculum design has been and probably remains strongly influenced by what the disciplines think is important for students to know. The power of the disciplines to shape the curricular agenda and the power of the faculty member to interpret and teach it makes the inclusion of other peoples’ agendas difficult. With the exception of some professional programs such as Business and Nursing, and the few disciplines that have seen internationalization as a way to revitalize themselves (such as geography, psychology, sociology, anthropology, political science), curriculum content has been substantially about the discipline, and teaching has been the often solitary domain of the faculty member. The power of the disciplines to determine content and the power of the faculty member to teach does not imply that the disciplines and members of faculty have not responded to the need to reform the curriculum. There are several significant curricular changes that have been embraced by faculty members within the last 20 years. Such changes include:

1. Introduction of technology in teaching/learning
2. Introduction of critical thinking
3. Introduction of a gendered curricular reform
4. Introduction of more diverse approaches to knowledge creation

The boundary of curricular authority is permeable. The question then shifts from an intransigent and unresponsive faculty to a discussion of under what conditions is curricular reform possible?

For further detailed discussion of learning competencies, see:


5.0 THE ROLE OF FACULTY IN INTERNATIONALIZING THE CURRICULUM

There are varied perspectives, tensions, and conflicts in the literature under review. Many of the conflicts are not openly nor directly addressed in the literature. A reasonably thorough reading of the literature brings these tensions, otherwise transparent, into clearer focus. One such tension exists concerning the content of the courses and programs. Are they driven by competency and outcome measures, are they informed by disciplinary thought, or both? Another tension exists concerning who is providing the leadership to the institution, including the curriculum during this time of unprecedented change in global and other relationships. From a general reading of the literature, a great deal has been said about mission and strategies. Most of these studies and position papers are written from the perspective of the positional leader, Vice President/President. Barbara Burn (2001) argues that "the first attempts to internationalize the campus were limited to:

1. bringing international students to campus
2. sending domestic students abroad to study in other places; and
3. funding faculty travel to international conferences and seminars"

Each of these initiatives was introduced by administrative officers, not by faculty members. Senior administrative officers of post-secondary institutions argue that faculty members were neither interested in nor available to take responsibility for these early forms of internationalization. It is also argued in the literature that international initiatives require the support of central administrative officers. The fact remains, whomever takes the leadership of internationalization in general and internationalization of the curriculum in particular has power to (1) define the problem(s), (2) set the agenda, (3) articulate strategy, and (4) harness resources (human, technical, and financial). Any failure or reluctance on the part of faculty members to fully accept responsibility for internationalization will alter, possibly fundamentally, our understanding of what an internationalized curriculum is and how we will go about participating in curricular reform.

The disciplines are also key players in the leadership of internationalizing the curriculum. Groenings & Wiley (1990) brought together seven disciplines (geography, political science, philosophy, sociology, psychology, history and journalism) and produced an important publication documenting their efforts to contribute to the internationalization of the curriculum.

There may be an element of truth in the institutional complaint that if the leadership of the organization had not taken the leadership to internationalize education, faculty members would not have done so. However, the platitude masks the reality that a great many faculty members (and some disciplines) have been involved in a wide range of international activities and programs which support the international agenda. There is a general consensus that the primary responsibility for internationalizing the curriculum is the domain of faculty members. Recognition of the historical role played by faculty members in the internationalization of knowledge is reported by Cleveland-Jones, Ames & Allard (2001) as an important starting point for internationalization. The history of professors traveling from city to city, meeting with colleagues and students from different cultures, teaching in different languages, broadening and disseminating knowledge signals why faculty are critical to the successful transformation of the university, particularly one in which there is resident expertise (Cleveland-Jones et al., 2001). Moreover, Welch (1997) extends the historical relationships between faculty and internationalization, tracing the historical roots of the relationship back to Greek and Roman antiquity. It should not be surprising then that the academic culture and tradition, coupled in part with the more recent principle of academic freedom, define who determines what is taught in the curriculum.


While arguing there is a historically important relationship between faculty members and the internationalization of knowledge, the special relationship does not mean that faculty members in colleges and universities necessarily believe internationalization is an important transformative process, which can invigorate their courses and teaching. Only a few studies challenge the prevailing wisdom that internationalizing the curriculum is the most important element in the internationalization of post-secondary institutions. One such experimental study was carried out by Dobbert (1998). In the study, Dobbert argues that "a globalized person should be able to (1) speak two or three languages in addition to English, (2) have resided in at least two non-English speaking countries, in two non-western environments for at least one year..."
each" (Dobbet). It is Dobbet's position that internationalizing the curriculum will "fall short" as a means for creating an internationalized education. It simply cannot provide the immersion required for deep learning to occur.


The extent to which faculty members in colleges and universities actually support internationalization of the curriculum remains undetermined. Green (2002) points out that faculty members are facing a critical choice with significant implications for higher education. Furthermore, institutions like UBC assert that "the university is faced with a vital need to choose its future, a future which will be shaped by its response to the forces of internationalization" (Bridge to the 21st century: Internationalization at UBC, UBC Trek 2000). The choice not to internationalize the curriculum and the classroom, asserts Green, will keep internationalization "at the margins of education".


### 6.0 APPROACHES TO INTERNATIONALIZING THE CURRICULUM

An important question raised in the literature by Harari (1992) has to do not with whose responsibility it is to internationalize the curriculum, but how to approach curriculum reform.


Three different approaches to internationalizing the curriculum are currently in use in Canadian post-secondary institutions. Based on very different assumptions, the three approaches to internationalizing the curriculum are: (1) the *add-on* approach, (2) the *curricular infusion* approach, and (3) the *transformation* approach. As can be seen in Figure 1, (p. 8), the add-on approach is at the entry level of this conceptual model and has a narrow focus, limited participation, and limited impact. The adding-on of something from a culture other than one's own represents the early attempt to internationalize the curriculum. A significant disadvantage of this approach is that "it leaves the dominant theoretical and conceptual perspectives inherent in the curriculum untouched and the international is seen through the eyes of these Western paradigms" (Mestenhauser, 1998).

Infusing the curriculum with international content/activity is probably the most widely used approach to curriculum change in Canadian post-secondary institutions. Its advantages include the broader participation of faculty and students, courses and programs. Its premise is that if "enough courses can be enriched with international content of some kind, the cumulative effect will be an impressive international education" (Mestenhauser, 1998.) Cogan (1996) characterizes the infusion approach as having several features, which enable faculty members to become involved in the internationalization process. The "starting points" for infusing the curriculum with international content and processes include:

- Rethinking course goals in terms of internationalization (e.g. how can course objectives be made more inclusive to incorporate local issues through global ones?)
- Examining the kinds of reading assigned to students for a course, from both books and journals, that reflect diverse points of view on topics/issues/content
- Rethinking assignments so that they allow for and encourage students and faculty members to think beyond national borders
- Using the representative diversity of the student demographics in the classroom as a teaching tool, allowing students to use their own experiences to dialogue about the multiple perspectives on the various content topics and issues under discussion
- Using one's own research, study abroad, and international consulting and conference attendance as a faculty member to enrich and enliven a course
- Inviting international faculty members as guest speakers or panelists to provide a wealth of information to students about another culture
- Capitalizing on the opportunities of an international nature at the institution and taking advantage of related activities.

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

Figure 1. Approaches to Internationalizing the Curricula

- Transformation
- Infusion
- Add-on

Figure 1 is a conceptual model based on the prior work of Banks (1999) and Mestenhauser (1998). “When information about other countries and other cultures are infused in the curriculum, the students view the experiences of others from the perspectives and conceptual frameworks of the traditional Western canon... when curriculum transformation occurs, students and teachers make paradigm shifts and view the world from the perspectives of different racial, cultural, and gender groups” (Banks).


Freedman (2002) suggests strategies to guide faculty efforts to transform the curriculum and pedagogical practice. Faculty members can:

- begin curriculum design with a social reconstructionist perspective
- broaden this perspective through the application of new approaches to learning
- present knowledge in terms of sociocultural, as well as disciplinary, contexts
- think of culture as being local and global, as well as national
- include in the curriculum the various forms of international visual culture that influence global knowledge
- reference knowledge from international sources, including sources that may be fragmented, conflicting, and multidisciplinary
- help students directly and constructively address professional and cultural differences


7.0 RESISTANCE TO CURRICULAR AND PEDAGOGICAL REFORM

Stories are widely circulated that faculty members resist any external pressures to reform the curriculum, and are even slow to respond to changes introduced within their own professional and disciplinary associations. Studies which document the hesitancy or disinterest of faculty members in internationalizing their courses and teaching practices include Green (2001); ACE (2000); Cleveland-Jones, et al. (2001), and Dobbert (1998). Dobbert points out that the rhetoric of globalizing the curriculum, such as mission statements, hides the real issues of creating an internationalized institution and persons. These issues include the necessity to build new patterns of interacting among faculty and among faculty and students.

Moving beyond the rhetoric and the near urban legend of faculty insensitivity, studies such as those carried out by Cleveland-Jones, et al. (2001); Ellingboe (1998); Shute (2002); Bond & Thayer (1999), and Dobbert (1998) have begun to name the human, structural and institutional elements within an academic culture that become problematic when either faculty or institutions attempt to work outside the established norms of the discipline or a department. A recent Canadian study carried out by Cleveland-Jones, Emes & Ellard identified sources of resistance to the introduction of curriculum and pedagogical reform at one Canadian university. It is not unlikely that some of the resistance encountered at one institution would also be factors in other academic contexts. In this study resistors included:

- Competing strategic directions.
- No common or core set of courses required of all undergraduate students.
- The professoriate feared curriculum redesign was a fundamental shift toward consumer-oriented approach, detached from the traditional understandings of curriculum.
- Faculty saw that major changes were required while the personal costs were not clear or understood.
The academic culture promotes independent thought, academic freedom and alliance to the disciplines.

Unprecedented changes were required in how faculty thought about the nature and scale of curriculum change.

To members of the faculty, curriculum redesign meant more work on top of an already overburdened academic load.


Among the other studies which focus on the culture of the discipline or the academic unit, there is general agreement on multiple sources of resistance which arise both within the academic culture and through institutional practices. These resistors can undermine individual or institutional initiatives and include:

The fractiousness of disciplines make the introduction of an international perspective another point of dispute.

Individual faculty members who are committed to internationalizing their own courses are generally at odds with colleagues and conventional career and reward structures.

Some faculty members see any change in disciplinary content or pedagogy as contributing to the loss of quality.

Internationalization of the curriculum is yet another significant reform being asked of faculty members who are already coping with earlier reforms without any recognition or support.

The continuing financial constraints experienced by colleges and universities are coupled with ever increasing expectations, making the internationalization of the curriculum yet another undervalued, and unfunded initiative.

Competing priorities leave little time and energy for yet one more change, particularly one that might require significant modifications to the basic intellectual frameworks of the discipline/field.

The lack of internationalized textbooks and readings coupled with difficult to access literature makes the process of individually initiating reform too difficult to undertake.

Too many faculty members do not have the competencies or attributes being sought in the students.

For a complete description of these and other aspects of the culture, see the work of:


For other studies of internationalization, including studies of resistance and motivation, see the following articles and books:


8.0 STRATEGIES TO INTERNATIONALIZE THE CURRICULUM

It is not accidental that the literature focuses almost exclusively on the undergraduate curriculum. There is a general, but informal, agreement that for any curriculum change to be sustained and meaningful, it must take place at the core of the institution, the undergraduate program. The literature in this area includes original analysis arising from sustained efforts of some disciplines to become more open to the world. It also includes overviews, secondary resources, which attempt to identify major themes.

An OECD study (1994) identifies three aspects of the curriculum that need to be examined if curriculum is to be internationalized: (1) content/subject matter, (2) job/career/profession, and (3) the needs of the learners.

Seven strategies to internationalize the curriculum are proposed by McKellin (1996):

1. infuse an international dimension into disciplinary content/courses
2. internationalize general education
3. develop international/cross-cultural collaborations
4. emphasize experiential learning
5. promote study abroad
6. integrate internationalization of the curriculum with other international activities and programs
7. promote faculty development


For the research informing these strategies, see:


Cleveland-Jones, Eras, and Ellard (2001) reporting on their experience as "social change agents" identified ways in which resistance could be overcome for faculty members who were prepared and willing to begin to internationalize their courses. The methods of support (Cleveland-Jones, et al.) for faculty development included:

- Providing expanded opportunities for faculty members to travel in order to meet with colleagues in other disciplines and other countries. Such opportunities will support faculty efforts to internationalize.
- Providing curricular and pedagogical grants to faculty members to help support the infusion of international content into existing courses or to support the development of new courses with an international focus.
- Offering workshops to help faculty with pedagogy and international content.
- Making international faculty development a top institutional priority.
- Supporting curriculum development seminars which can be taught by specialists in different regions to faculty in all disciplines.
- Meeting the needs of students who have diverse learning styles; make language programs more accessible; encouraging transferability of course credits among post-secondary institutions.
- Understanding the context of change and establishing the resources to support faculty members' efforts.


9.0 INTERNATIONALIZING INSTRUCTION AND THE CLASSROOM EXPERIENCE

What does internationalizing instruction mean? Regardless of which approach is taken to internationalizing the content of the curriculum (add-on, infusion, transformational), the question of which instructional strategies best support the learning objectives of an internationalized curriculum remain. Unfortunately, an understanding of such instructional practices remains a relatively unexamined question (Morey & Kitano, 1997; Vertesi, 1999). Overall, the literature is driven by studies seeking
to define the language issues or to develop strategies through which to internationalize the institution. The literature on internationalizing instructional strategies and the overall classroom experience is nearly nonexistent.

Morey & Kitano (1997) remind us that with "few exceptions, colleges and universities are built upon difference ... different disciplines, different ways of thinking about the world, different methods of research, different perspectives among colleges". Students trained in other cultures bring their own values, beliefs and perspectives that they have learned through family, culture, religion and schooling. Instructional strategies used by many faculty tend to assume all students are alike. Indeed, little accommodation has been made by faculty for student difference. Vertesi is very clear on how the traditional Anglo-American lecture and discussion format can marginalize students and thereby undermine any efforts to internationalize the content: "As post-secondary students are becoming increasingly diverse (international and domestic), as the most recent Statistics Canada study on the Canadian population indicates, classes are still taught in the traditional Anglo-American lecture and discussion format". Mestenhauser (2002), Vertesi (1999) and Flowerdew & Miller (1995) all caution that the conventional instructional strategies with which North American students are familiar, such as expressing their own ideas and seeing the professor as a guide and facilitator, and the behaviors appropriate to this model (i.e. small and large group discussion, role play, case studies) may in fact be "highly offensive to students from other cultures" (Flowerdew & Miller). There is evidence that many faculty members in colleges and universities have already begun to reconsider and modify their approaches to teaching to ensure the broadest possible participation and learning of all students. But, it is not clear that such changes (which benefit the learning of everyone) are being implemented even in a minority of classrooms.

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When silence or reluctance to participate in group work is understood by a faculty member as a weakness or general unsuitability of a student for a course or program of study, there is a considerable risk that the international student's abilities are being misjudged. Students from cultures that reward regurgitating facts cannot quickly become critical thinkers nor can students from a tradition of remaining silent in the classroom quickly feel comfortable with role play, games, or simulations (Morey & Kitano).

The literature argues that the conventional "teacher-centred" North American-based instructional strategies disconnect students' learning from their lived experiences and expertise. It also undermines the success of students (international and domestic). McKellin (1996) suggests faculty members ask themselves three questions as the starting point for internationalizing their courses:

1. What are the international dimensions of my subject area and how can I integrate them into my course(s)?

2. What knowledge, skills, and attitudes do my students require in order to function in this field or practice this profession or use this training in an international setting?

3. What are the learning needs of my students (international and domestic) and what is the best way of addressing them in the classroom and in assignments?

Inherent in McKellin's questions is the assumption that learning in post-secondary institutions should be learner focused, or at least achieve a better balance between the learner-focused and traditional approaches. Understanding the learning needs of students requires a faculty member to get to know her/his students. There are no studies to document how frequently faculty members get to know their students, their life experiences, their home communities and their learning styles.

While the academic discipline plays a large role in determining the content of a program of study, faculty members have the responsibility and freedom to interpret that content, create syllabi, select textbooks, assign readings, create assignments, and access resources in support of the course objectives. Most faculty members assume that learning occurs primarily from the structured content of a course (Mestenhauser, 1998). The literature is relatively silent about pedagogy. There are a few studies (one of which is rooted in creating multicultural classrooms and pedagogies) that give us some general understanding about instructional strategies that could support the principles of internationalizing the curriculum.


The first step for a faculty member to take might be to create a climate in the classroom that "honors, respects, and encourages diversity (Morey & Kitano). Moving from a teacher-centred to a learner-centred focus of instruction is an important element in all the strategies discussed. Student empowerment signals a shift from the conventional faculty-centred instruction to a learner-centred instruction; or at least a more balanced approach than what is normally present in North American classrooms.

The suggested approaches to internationalizing instruction and the classroom experience in Table 1 are summarized from the work of Banks (1999), Morey and Kitano (1997), and Vertesi (1999). Contextualized learning, cooperative learning, case studies, and prepared participation are teaching strategies with their own literature. The instructional literature is not reviewed in this report. It might, however, be useful to briefly comment on some issues and offer a few cautions regarding the use of these instructional strategies in the context under review.

The various ways in which faculty members communicate to students what is important in a course plays a role in establishing a climate of respect and valuing of students’ knowledge and experience. Such respect can be conveyed through the use of language, exemplars from the cultures and communities represented by the students in the course, the range of readings from different cultural perspectives, assignments which bring diverse students together, and evaluation strategies which reflect varied learning styles. It has “become essential for faculty to make a deliberate effort to learn about students’ cultures and cultural differences in order to become more aware of their own ethnocentric behavior” (Myles, et al.).

Bennett (1993) picks up on the ethnocentric focus of learning in many college and university classrooms reminding us that we judge individuals from other cultures by our own cultural norms. Students who come from different learning traditions should be considered an asset and not, in effect, be “discounted” by faculty members in their attempt to broaden their students’ understanding of subject content (Bennett).

Instructional strategies that are likely to connect internationalization of the curriculum to the learning that takes place in the classroom context appear to centre on contextualized approaches to learning (Morey & Kitano, 1997; Banks, 1999; Mestenhauser, 1998; Myles, et al., 2002, and Vertesi, 1999). This approach to instruction draws on examples, analogies, and experiences that reflect the students' lives. The use of this instructional strategy, in its different forms, requires teachers to get to know their students, their life experiences, and communities (Vertesi). This can be accomplished, while respecting the privacy of the students, in a variety of ways. Students could be asked to share their experience and learning traditions through (1) keeping journals, (2) writing autobiographies, and (3) applying concepts within the course to the “conditions and experiences in their families or communities” (Morey & Kitano).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 1</th>
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<td>Internationalizing instruction and the classroom experience: Suggestions from the literature</td>
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<tr>
<td>1. Value and respect difference in students</td>
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<tr>
<td>2. Learn about students’ lived experience/expertise</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Select textbook and readings not only for international content but for the instructional approaches which support a learner-focused instruction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Create course syllabi that explicitly value different perspectives and learning traditions and introduce a range of teaching strategies that encourage student diversity to become an asset to the classroom experience</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Organize course content around themes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. In class work, including assignments, make clear the ways in which diverse student experience and expertise will be recognized as a valuable learning resource</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Identify a range of resources (students, faculty, community) which will be brought into the course to broaden perspectives on the content</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Incorporate contextualized learning strategies, such as role play, simulations, case studies in classes and linked assignments</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Incorporate cooperative learning strategies in classes and ir assignments</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Incorporate the use of “prepared participation” in course work</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Provide for a range of approaches to evaluate student learning</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The use of case studies – another approach to contextualized learning – is a teaching strategy with which many faculty members will be familiar. An important suggestion in the use of case studies is that students should not be required to provide only one
answer to the question(s) (Morey & Kitano). Specifically seeking diverse responses to a case analysis can facilitate discussion among the students in which the variety of lived experience of students (international and domestic) will more likely become known and utilized.

Cooperative learning is typically described as an instructional strategy in which students work together in small groups in which the students contribute their own talents, are responsible for learning through their own contributions as well as through those of others, and are rewarded for performance of the group rather than performance of individuals (Morey & Kitano). Such collaborative group work, either as an in-class or an out-of-class assignment, is an opportunity for students from diverse backgrounds to work together and get to know one another. There is a caution, which suggests that (1) power imbalances in the course or the program will likely be replicated among members of small groups unless issues of power and marginality are discussed in advance by the faculty member, and that (2) without at least a basic understanding of how groups can address issues of difference, even conflict, there is a likelihood that international students will, even in cooperative learning contexts, remain invisible and silent.

The prepared participation approach to instruction is yet another way in which the faculty member can deliberately, in support of the overall course objectives, increase the emphasis on student-centred learning. Two examples of prepared participation are reported by Morey and Kitano (1997):

Example One: ... ask students to respond in writing to any question or idea you (as a teacher) want them to explore. Then, in any number of structured ways, have students summarize their work and explore the implications of what they have written and share it with the whole class or a small group.

Example Two: ... have the students at the start of the class write down a couple of sentences about what they learned from the last class. They can also be asked to identify ideas or concepts that were confusing or to give examples of how the major ideas/concepts from the last class would be addressed in a different cultural context. The students' work could either be shared in small groups or presented to the class.

The benefits of such prepared participation strategies are shared among all participants, including the faculty member.

For further information about instructional strategies and creating a classroom environment which supports internationalization principles, see:


While many fields of inquiry do not yet have a robust body of knowledge contained in a literature, this gap in the internationalization of the curriculum and instructional practices is problematic given the importance that has been attached to the field by so many educators.

Within academic and other professional communities, the use of the literature to inform and challenge what we know and how we know it also serves to inform institutional policy as well as the beliefs and everyday practices. Whose knowledge is informing institutional practice?

Not only is there a continuing lack of consensus, even clarity, about meanings, there are only weak connections among the different aspects of the literature. It also appears that those leading institutional reform have chosen to set aside, at least for the moment, the fact that faculty members have the authority for curricular reform. There are some examples of collaborative institutional effort in colleges and universities across the country. Institutional research can make an important contribution to the literature. They need to publish!

The disconnection about which I am speaking exists between institutional leaders and three groups; faculty members and students (international and domestic) who, having been immersed in one or more cultures other than their own, have knowledge, skills, and experience which constitute resources that remain untapped and unsupported, and the general academic community. Shute (2002) documents the failure of universities to invest in the continuing professional development of faculty members who undeniably retain authority over the curriculum. Such investment is necessary if the majority of faculty members are to become full contributors to curricular and pedagogical reform. Adapting a syllogism introduced by Shute (2002):

- Internationalization of the university curriculum depends primarily on faculty experience.
- Faculty experience is not being sufficiently cultivated.
- Internationalization of the curriculum is therefore not sustainable.

There is scant evidence in the literature that the continuing professional development of faculty members is a priority of colleges and universities. Yet, how can the internationalization of the curriculum proceed without faculty members who have the knowledge, skills, and experience required for the kind of curricular and pedagogical reform envisaged by internationalization? There is a yawning gap in the literature, reflecting the lack of activity of this type.

Another untapped resource is the large numbers of international students and domestic students with international experience, skills and expertise. The mere presence of international students on college and university campuses has been seen as sufficient evidence of internationalization. Various studies (Bowry, 2001; Vertesi, 1999) refute this contention. While the presence of international students on campuses is welcomed (sometimes for economic rather than educational reasons) their presence in the classroom does not contribute to the internationalization of the course or the teaching pedagogies. The presence of foreign students does not even make a positive impact on the education of domestic students except in limited situations where the pedagogical approach enables students to share their individual knowledge and experience. What the literature suggests is required to internationalize a classroom experience is a shift from teacher-centred to learner-centred pedagogy. The use of contextualized teaching strategies would provide international students and domestic students with international experience the opportunity to have their experiences respected and valued within the conventional classroom. The near silence in the literature that little, if any, change in instructional strategies is actually happening is of real concern. The gap between what has been found to be effective teaching practice for curriculum reform, and the actual teaching strategies being used by faculty members in Canadian post-secondary classrooms needs to be studied and reported.

Calling for more studies is expected, particularly in this context. What I want to suggest, however, is that researchers (faculty and students) collaborate and take different perspectives. Most of the literature reviewed here takes the institutional perspective. There is benefit to research partnerships between and among faculty and international students in the examination of all aspects of the curriculum and pedagogy. This shift in perspective away from the conventional Western perspective is itself an attempt to broaden our worldview in a way which has the potential to create significant change in post-secondary institutions.


Editor's Note: Page number references have been eliminated from all quoted material in this paper for ease of reading.
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CBIE acknowledges the contribution of the Canadian International Development Agency to the publication of this research paper and numerous other papers and books.

CBIE Research Millennium Series No. 7

UNTAPPED RESOURCES

Internationalization of the curriculum and classroom experience: A selected literature review

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Series Editor: Mary Kane

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Price: CBIE Members $20
Non-members $28
Postage, Canada and US: add $4
Other countries: add $6

ISSN: 1133-4404
ISBN: 1-894129-45-8
Également disponible en français.
The views expressed in this paper are those of the author.

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