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University of Applied Sciences

Kenniscentrum Arbeid

Supporting staff development for international teaching

november 2014, Kenniscentrum Arbeid, Hanzehogeschool Groningen

dr. Marion Troia

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Colofon

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Voorwoord

Met trots schrijf ik dit voorwoord bij de samenvatting van het proefschrift van Marion Troia.

Ik spreek namens alle collega's als ik beweer dat zij voor ons onderwijs, onze studenten en docenten veel betekent als het gaat om het leggen van een gefundeerd, theoretisch concept ten aanzien van het inbedden van internationale dimensies van de curricula.

Zij heeft het doel voor onze studenten als volgt geformuleerd: "Onze studenten kunnen kennis en inzichten van vakinhoudelijke theorieën, trends en praktijken, alsmede van politiek/maatschappelijke structuren uit andere landen en culturen (ook uit ontwikkelingslanden) inzetten in hun professionele handelingen en houdingen. Zij kunnen deze kennis en inzichten creatief, comparatief, kritisch en coöperatief gebruiken binnen zelfbepaalde normatieve kaders om de eigen capaciteiten van cliënten, cliëntsystemen en organisaties te versterken, ook in internationale en interculturele contexten."

Haar visie om deze doelstelling te bereiken en de beschreven tools die docenten daarbij nodig hebben zijn niet alleen op onze curricula van toepassing. Zij kunnen heel behulpzaam zijn voor alle docenten van de Hanzehogeschool om internationalisering concreet handen en voeten te geven. Voor elke beroepspraktijk is een internationaal perspectief van belang om antwoord te kunnen geven aan de uitdagingen waar onze geglobaliseerde samenleving voor staat. Waar internationalisering voorheen als afzonderlijk onderwerp binnen de bestaande curricula werd behandeld, heeft de Hanze met de herijking van haar beleid gekozen om internationalisering te verweven in het volledige curriculum. Dit vraagt van docenten niet alleen om kennis van internationale ontwikkelingen binnen hun beroepenveld, maar ook om bredere aandacht voor culturele diversiteit en wat dat betekent voor de (toekomstige) beroepsbeoefenaar.

Dat is de reden waarom we hebben besloten om Marion Troia te vragen haar dissertatie te bewerken tot een handzame samenvatting en deze te publiceren. Wij hebben daarbij de support voor de begeleiding van Marion gevonden bij onze lector Louis Polstra en het Kenniscentrum Arbeid.

In de hoop dat veel docenten en professionals er nu en in de toekomst wat aan hebben,

Dank je wel Marion voor je prachtige bijdrage aan ons onderwijs!

Namens alle medewerkers van de Academie voor Sociale Studies,

Michèle Garnier, dean.

Preface

As anyone who has travelled the dissertation road knows the process dominates until the end of that road is reached. After the fireworks, it is time, high time, to share the outcomes outside of a small circle of experts. This monograph is part of the catalytic goals of a study undertaken between 2006 and 2012 in Groningen at the Hanze University of Applied Sciences (HG) where I am employed. The study was originally inspired by my efforts, not always successful, to help my colleagues as their teacher of English and as academic staff developer. Initially it was meant to be an applied, practitioner research to identify needs, in preparation of a pilot project, not a scientific investigation. I wanted very much to understand why Dutch teachers, who received no extra pay or status became involved in international teaching. What motivated them, what kept them going, and most of all what did they need in terms of support in the transition and changes they were experiencing?

Eventually it was only possible to take some time away from the 'day job' by committing myself to a full blown academic research. Early on several disciplines, such as academic development, English as Medium of Instruction, intercultural learning, internationalisation itself (a rather new professional field still maturing during the years of the study) workplace learning, and change theory came to enrich my thinking and frame the investigation. By bridging several disciplines this monograph offers, I hope, something for many different parties. In this condensed version, I have attempted to communicate the main points of the research in a non-technical manner.

For example, by identifying the many challenges faced by teachers who are carrying out an international curriculum either in international classrooms or in Dutch classrooms (often referred to as Internationalisation @ Home) the challenges facing those who support teachers also became clear. The dual perspective of teachers and professional developers meant that I had a dual focus throughout. It was only by approaching internationalisation and teacher/academic development through the lens of design, that I could filter out background noise in the messy complex environment of a higher education institution.

As if the multidisciplinary nature of the work was not complicated enough, the research method and approach were quite innovative. This means that the investigation, which, as I mentioned, started out as a relatively simple needs analysis for teacher professional learning support, became a complex exploration of the interweaving of theory and practice. The results were not always as intended,

there were many frustrations but in the end principles that could help professional developers to deliver tailored support across multiple settings made it worthwhile.

In addition, a number of current developments at the HG, in which in the research acted as catalyst to some extent, are identified.

Acknowledgement
First, I sincerely want to thank the TIPPERs for their patience in what must have been a confusing kind of intervention and hope that in spite of its shortcomings they did learn from their version of the TIP. I also want to thank the students who encouraged me to keep going when it was difficult to see if the TIP would have any effect. Several team leaders and members of the internationalisation team of the HG were especially supportive during the long years of the study. I will mention them here (in alphabetical order) Drs.'s: Hanneke Barents, Jolanda Donker, Iekje Smit, Ria Wiegman and Dr. Els van der Werf. It must be recognised that I owe a debt of gratitude to those who created the covenant between the RUG and the HG for sponsoring the investigation.

Finally I am grateful to the Dean of the School of Social Studies, Drs. Michèle Garnier, and the head of the Professorship Labour Participation Prof. Dr. Louis Polstra, as well as the Centre of Applied Labour Market Research for supporting the production and publishing of this monograph.

Marion Troia, senior lecturer SASS

Inhoud

Introduction: What was the study about?

University teachers in the Netherlands who are integrating international and intercultural dimensions both in their Dutch and English-medium courses and degree programmes are in a compelling change location. This entails both challenges and opportunities for staff learning.

In a recent white paper (2013) of the Hanze University of Applied Sciences, Groningen (hereafter HG) staff office's internationalisation team, certain limitations on the capacities of teachers in international teaching/learning were identified. Some of these are:

- Limited international orientation of teachers, resulting in inadequate preparation of students in the international labour market
- Limited opportunities for international mobility of teachers making an increase desirable
- Limitations in terms of English language proficiency of teachers

It is important to understand that these limitations do not mean that teachers need remedial programmes because they are somehow inadequate or deficient. The limitations come out of the new situation and can, if addressed honestly and handled skilfully, be a stimulus for greater professionalism.

This monograph is a condensed version of a doctoral research (Troia, 2013) into how to support teachers in gaining new, or enhance existing, competencies for international teaching. The investigation used an educational design research of a professional development programme, called the 'Teachers' Internationalisation Programme' (hereafter TIP). The TIP was created specifically for and during this investigation by me. The approach used was to design, execute, analyse and redesign the programme across multiple contexts with small groups of teachers from five different Schools in different settings, for different lengths of time. Elements of the programme were trialled over a period of two and a half years in three distinct cycles (hereafter called iterations).

There were two strands of research. Strand A investigated what worked or did not work to stimulate teachers' learning for English, Intercultural and Pedagogic skills enhancement **through** the TIP by offering activities and materials and studying what was effective and why. Strand B investigated what the strengths and weaknesses were of two ways of structuring and delivering professional development by a comparative study **on** the TIP as professional development support in two modes of delivery, namely a 'stand-alone' mode and an 'embedded' mode.

What was achieved?

Design research aims to achieve both practical, pragmatic goals and to discover design principles rooted in a conceptual framework. In this case, three aims on the 'practical' side of the research and two on the 'theoretical' side can be said to have been achieved to a modest degree.

Practice oriented aims

One aim was at a systems level of institutional change. It was to provide university policy makers and managers, internationalisation experts, human resources officers and teacher-educators (that is professional developers) with a critical understanding of teachers' English, intercultural and pedagogic learning needs and demonstrate how those needs can be met. In addition, insights from change theory and social practice approaches from the 'middle out' should support those involved in facilitating sustainable changes in teachers' practices.

Second, a set of principles and guidelines are provided which team leaders and/or professional developers can use in setting up their own professional development interventions. This set of principles is combined into a model called the 'Multi-modal professional development model for university teachers of applied sciences for internationalisation of the curriculum'. It can be said that this model goes some way to interweaving 'practice based evidence' with 'evidence based practice'. Its strengths are in its practicality, flexibility and cost effectiveness. The model includes four principles for developers of interventions and some advice about each principle.

A third aim was to provide professional development units with concrete, practical materials, programme models and recommendations. In fact, it might be said that the main result of the research, and its main strength, is in these outcomes. For example, when the two delivery models were trialled and compared it was found that both modes of delivery have their strengths and weaknesses (see Appendix). Recommendations were made on how best to use the strengths of each as well as warnings about the negative consequences of using the delivery modes inappropriately. Further, an Annex was provided. It contains materials developed and tried out during the different phases of the TIP explaining which materials and activities were useful and which need to be improved. The Annex is available in digital form on request.

Scientific or theory oriented aims

An interesting theoretical strength of the research is the dynamism of conceptualisation. Especially the treatment of 'transcendent learning' offers an original interpretation of this concept, introduced by Illeris (2007) in relation to adult learning. Transcendent learning will not be discussed in depth in this paper. Anyone interested in it can consult the original study.

Finally, the investigation was carried out using an innovative research paradigm namely, educational design based research or EDR. It was my aim to demonstrate that EDR can lead to theoretical and practical outcomes in a complex research environment by a sole researcher where an exploratory approach was needed. The methodology of EDR was inspired by the work of several scholars from the University of Twente (see for example McKenney, Nieveen, & van den Akker, 2006; McKenney, & Reeves, 2012). Just as transcendental learning, EDR will be referred to in a very restricted manner in this summary those with a particular interest in the approach are asked to consult the dissertation.

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1. CHALLENGES FOR H.E. TEACHERS AND FOR THOSE WHO SUPPORT THEM
Challenges

Preview of Section One

In order to describe the situation and context of the TIP, several types of challenges are identified in this section. First, the challenges coming out of the policies of the central governing board and its policy department regarding internationalisation, including certain definitions, goals and strategies, are set out briefly in so far as they directly affect teachers.

Second, challenges coming out of the requirement to use English as a Medium of Instruction (EMI) are discussed. Third, challenges of an intercultural nature are given and the competencies teachers need to acquire for successful intercultural learning are shown. Further, certain challenges related to teaching and assessment were highlighted. Finally, challenges for the types of interventions provided by professional developers posed by internationalisation are discussed.

1.1 Challenges of policy and implementation of an international dimension

At the Hanze University of Applied Sciences the Executive Board developed and have strongly supported policies for internationalising the curricula at least since 2003 when clear definitions and vision statements were made.

> Een curriculum dat tot doel heeft studenten voor te bereiden op het goed functioneren (professioneel, sociaal, en emotioneel) in een internationale en multiculturele context of omgeving, door studenten een ruime mogelijkheid te bieden om internationale en interculturele kennis en vaardigheden te verwerven [A curriculum that aims to prepare graduates to function (professionally, socially, and emotionally) in an international and/or multicultural context or environment, by providing them with a range of opportunities to acquire knowledge and skills with an international/intercultural perspective] *("Beroepsvoorbereiding in een internationaal perspectief", 2003).*

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

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

In a follow-up document (*Looking Further,* [LF] Oct. 2006) written by the staff office team for internationalisation, the goals were described in more detail. The first goal was to be achieved by including international topics into existing courses, by developing English taught minors and offering foreign languages and/or intercultural competences courses. The environment was to become more

international primarily through a numeric increase in several areas such as the number of international, English-medium study programmes, the number of students and staff involved in mobility such as internships or exchange studies, as well as increased recruitment of students and staff especially from EU countries. Also, improving facilities for foreign students was seen as part of this goal. The third objective had originally been to develop commercial educational products to sell to universities abroad but this was changed into a knowledge-sharing goal. (The aim of this was to strengthen non-commercial international partnerships and networks, LF, 2006, p.4). The 19 Schools were considered the best location for the concrete realization of most of the goals, since internationalisation had to be appropriately implemented in the curricula. However, certain requirements were identified, to ensure that the international orientation was not merely a voluntary extra to the main studies:

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

Following the policies and performance indicators associated with the policies for internationalisation, the majority of HG Schools have developed short term exchange programmes in English in the last decade. Several others have made full four year English medium Bachelor degree programmes and two Master degree programmes are also offered in English. More are planning to offer at least Associate degree programmes or an international Master's degree in the next few years.

Using English as medium of instruction (EMI), and teaching international students with Dutch students, have led to educational challenges and concerns common to all European universities. These challenges to competent international teaching faced by university teaching staff have been identified as either institutional or individual (Bond, 2003; Bond et. al 2003; Green & Olsen, 2003). Both of these types of challenges can be directly linked to professional development since they need to be addressed in order for teachers to reach appropriate levels of expertise.

The main institutional challenges are directly or indirectly derived from the policy paradoxes of university managers. In general, internationalisation is seen as an important initiative by university leaders. However, this initiative is often a

combination of marketing efforts to acquire foreign students and status enhancing activities to raise the reputation of the university abroad (Bremer & Van der Wende, 1995; Luijten-Lub, Van der Wende, & Huisman, 2005).

This point from the literature was confirmed by some interviewees at HG. Asked what they thought of central management polices several rather negative comments were expressed.

For example one teacher who had been involved in international programmes for several years by 2006 said:

> Historically, about ten years ago… the Hanze tried to get more foreign students from other countries just to get the money. And I think now their strategy for internationalisation… I am afraid it doesn't really have anything to do with internationalisation… but only with 'standing'

In terms of change management, consensus and commitment need to be developed across institutions so that early adopters are not left in marginal positions (Mestenhauser, 2007). Thus the type of change management operating in an institution may challenge mid-level managers and teachers. Especially top down, highly managerial structures have proven to be ineffective in implementation of highly centralised innovations (Fullan, 2007; Trowler, 1998).

Teachers at HG identified negative responses in their colleagues who were suffering from a 'fear factor'. Internationalisation in this context was compared to an earlier innovation, that of Competency Based Learning.

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

At many universities financial and work related constraints lead to the view that internationalisation is one of a series of undervalued and underfunded innovations, a view confirmed by Schapper and Mayson (2005) who point out that without sufficient funding, teachers cannot reach student centred learning goals with diverse groups so 'Taylorisation' and de-skilling take place. In fact, insufficient time to prepare and develop course materials has been recognised as common (Engberg & Green, 2002; Ellingboe, 1998; Bond et al., 2003). Time constraints and lack of resources are a constant challenge to teachers acting as individuals and in

teams. Two quite representative examples from early adopters at the HG support this finding:

> *Teacher A:* ……. I did not know there was a possibility to get help with translations so I did everything myself. Also, I went to [a Scandinavian country] twice in an exchange programme .. I gave a one week course in multi-media and I know that I did everything myself everything [with emphasis], all the planning, finding the materials.. …… but going back to this point of encouragement or support... all these things we do because nobody restricts us [longer pause] umm… but there is no active support .. we are not asked .. we do it because we like it... and we will do it until we are restricted by our team leader…It takes much more time to make international courses. We are just at the beginning, we think our students speak English but...I have to do much personal coaching and [offer] extra support.

> *Teacher G:* No, the team did not support me. If I asked to translate something in English, they gave me this opportunity. Look, about support… this is a subject [the main subject of the exchange programme] nobody in our department knows about but somebody has to write it and somebody has to teach it. It is a Dutch subject but in English.

In fact due to a lack of institutional support of any kind it is often up to individuals to enhance their professional capacities on their own (Teekens, 2003, p. 35). It must be remembered that in non-English speaking countries like the Netherlands teachers not only have to develop new materials, they also have to do this in a language that have not used professionally in the past. Dutch teachers interviewed had different opinions on the level of support needed to teach in English. One group believes that it requires much more time to prepare and assess course work and to interact with students.

> *Teacher D:* Well, it's two things. The first is having the idea that we are not facilitated enough for the things we do. If you teach in an international group you need more facilitation….And then there is the support for teaching in a foreign language. If you were teaching in a language that was not your own you got an extra 10% of hours for that. But that lasted only one year and then it was over. And 10% extra is not enough; you need 50% ! ….Well at least, if you really want to do it in the same way that you do in your own language you need 50% more, at least.

In contrast, a few teachers stated that the amount of extra work required for teaching in English was not so extreme. Some said that after a few years the differences in teaching in Dutch or in English became less; more like the 10% facilitated in the first year. They would still like to see that 10% extra support continued after the first year though.

1.2 Challenges of English as Medium of Instruction (EMI)

Planning for the implementation of these international curricula has sometimes been hasty. In fact, in the early period, there were cases of Dutch courses being translated and offered, with little change, as an international course (as Teacher G above noted). This is an example from an interview with a teacher who had been involved in an early international exchange semester:

> *MT:* So it was a question of a Dutch course with foreign student in the classroom?
> *Teacher H:* Yes, but then in English. When I started I expected it to be more intercultural… with international themes… and I wanted to have the students share their international experiences. But that just didn't happen in the first years. It was the Dutch programme in English.

Generally, teachers were asked to take part voluntarily. It is typical of Dutch higher education teachers to assume that their secondary school English would be sufficient for the task of teaching in that language (Vinke, 1995).

However, soon students on international programmes in this period, were complaining about the oral English of their teachers. Also the quality of instructional materials and approaches to assessment began to be criticized. Teachers have a significant influence on the quality of educational experience of international students, especially in their first weeks and months after arrival. A series of interviews with international students revealed certain qualities and abilities that make a teacher a positive figure for these students. An issue of concern that invariably came up in student-student interviews was the language proficiency. As we have seen, the policy set out demands that teachers are inspired internationally oriented professionals, but does not set out what this means in practice or how teachers can acquire such an orientation other than by taking (not always available) English courses.

Added to that, it must be recognised that when students commented on language problems they encountered with teachers there was almost invariably an element of intercultural awareness or sensitivity involved. In one student-student interview,

a foreign student recalled a course in which most of the educational materials had not been translated. When he asked the teacher for help, he was not well treated. According to a student who had interviewed him and other international students:

> It was definitely English that came up a lot. That the English was not very good, and that the teacher just said during the class 'Well, I don't know how to say this in English so....' and then just stopped. And like when they have to do something with an article and everything… just all the material was in Dutch … and he didn't really try to help out international students *(Hiemstra, 2010, p. 75)*.

This is admittedly an extreme example. Many quotes can be given in which teachers are complemented by international students on their language and teaching. However, it does illustrate that teachers not only need to speak the language of instruction, they need to be even handed in classes with mixed domestic and international students.

Around this time, team leaders, (managerial supervisors of degree programmes) partly in response to the student evaluations and partly because teachers themselves were eager to improve their English, started demanding in-service English courses for teachers. In response, the newly established 'Expertise Centre for Languages & Cultures' (CL&C) found individual English teachers embedded in various Schools throughout the university willing to develop such courses to supplement the CL&C's own English teaching staff. The courses were generally called " classroom English" [hereafter CE] An impressive list of problems typically encountered in English medium programmes in European higher education, identified by Smith (2004) is familiar to CE teachers .

It includes, among other problems:

- inadequate language skills and the need for training of indigenous staff and students
- ideological objections arising from a perceived threat to cultural identity and the status of the native language as a language of science
- unwillingness of local staff to teach through English
- the lack of availability on the international market of sufficient Anglophone subject specialists
- uniformity and availability of teaching materials

While some CE courses were quite positively evaluated by the participants they were not universally regarded as successful. For example, while one teacher who had participated in multiple CE courses reflected positively :

> Concrete support? Yes, that was our English classes. It was very, very important for me. It started with XX [name of a male English teacher] and there were different lady teachers and you were the last one. Back then… we got the time to do these studies… not like now.

Another teacher interviewed in 2006, who was still worried about her competence to teach in English, had nevertheless chosen not to attend a second round of English lessons. She explained her decision in this way:

> Now my experience, [with the English course M T.] and that is why I did not ask to have hours for it this year, was that there was such a wide diversity of people in that class that I got kind of bored. Yeah? And no one did their homework…

In fact literature and interviews combined showed that, in general, problems appeared to fall roughly into two areas:

1. Even when teachers enjoyed the English lessons positive results on student learning were not evident, in fact, there was not much evidence of improvement in the teachers' competences for international teaching.
2. There was a pattern of a flagging of interest and engagement in the CE lessons on the part of the teachers, for example, by not showing up for lessons or not doing homework or by a reluctance to sign up for a (second) course.

In contrast, interview data at the HG showed concerns about other aspects of their role. Especially writing challenges were very common. For example:

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

In studies and conference papers based in the Netherlands, the debates regarding the impact of teaching through the medium of English [EMI] on students are far from over. The situation is not straightforward. In other words it is not that a lower level of language proficiency automatically equals an inferior learning environment. The same course taught in Dutch and in English at the same time produces comparable pass rates (Klaassen, 2000, noted that the overall academic achievements of students in the English medium studies were equivalent to the Dutch stream). This was confirmed by Airey (2003; 2004; 2006). In his dissertation however, Airey revealed that less use of the cognitive strategies such as asking

questions in seminars led to a loss of interaction and depth in discussions in the English medium classes compared to the Swedish language classes of the same course. In this debate, an apparent contradiction in levels of satisfaction has come to light.

According to Wilkinson, on the one hand:

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

while

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

Wilkinson notes that a number of variables can explain these differences. One, the actual degree of language proficiency of both teacher and students will play a crucial role in how well students enjoy and benefit from EMI. Two, the quality and nature of the teaching by content teachers may not have been adjusted to the international student groups so that students who complain about a teacher's English are actually unhappy with the teaching itself. Three, both parties see limitations. Teacher can feel that discussions are superficial compared to discussion in the native tongue and students can feel that the lessons lack 'sparkle'. (This may be a reflection of what Airey noted in his research about less questioning and other kinds of interaction in class.)

In his evaluation Wilkinson concluded that both teachers and students felt that the content had suffered somewhat but that their overall levels of proficiency in English had improved. This contradiction seems to confirm earlier findings. There is apparently an acceptable trade-off between a limited loss in precision and an international environment where language skills are enhanced because everyone is simply using the language on a daily basis.

Finally, the debate around the required level of English proficiency that teachers must have needs to be brought up. Managers seem to agree that all teachers must pass an English proficiency test. The most well regarded is the CEF [Common European Framework for languages] scale. Teachers are supposed to have at least a

C1 level. While this is a good idea as a diagnostic or base line measurement it is not helpful to take test outcomes as a panacea.
One reason for this should be mentioned although it seems only common sense. The reason is quite simply that English proficiency is not the only competence or skill needed to teach well. Educational developers in English speaking countries such as England and Australia stress that international classes and student bodies require British or Australian teachers to adapt their approaches to teaching and learning. Carroll & Ryan (2005) compare the international students to canaries in the coalmine. If teachers are to teach those students well they have to look with fresh eyes at their practices and traditions and the assumptions on which those practices are based. As a result, they will become better teachers. Those improved competences will in turn be applied when they teach the domestic or home students. This means that a neither a native speaker teacher nor a Dutch teacher who has a high level in English are automatically fully competent to teach in the international classroom.

In fact, the significance of language tests as a predictor of classroom competence is ambiguous. It must be stressed that the skills of writing professional texts such as instructions and the interactive skills needed in highly charged settings like a classroom, are not tested in such general English examinations. Therefore the complaints of students in general end-of-course surveys need to be followed up with in depth investigations to find out the range of different causes behind the negative evaluations. There is a scarcity of research on this subject (but see Soliman, 2001 for a list of commonly identified causes). Among the teachers who participated in the first iteration of the TIP for example, the lowest score in a British language proficiency test [the IELTS test] was a 7.5 on a scale of 1 to 9. Three of them had an 8. These are high scores, comfortably in the C1 range in the CEF scale. A few teachers said that they did not sign up for the TIP to improve their English but to learn more about how to deal with the same issues Carroll and Ryan discuss in relation to native speaker teachers.

In conclusion, teachers face challenges that are more complex than simply taking Classroom English courses. This complexity was not well understood or reflected in policy directives in the early phase of internationalisation.

1.3 Challenges of Intercultural learning / teaching and the internationalised curriculum

The second domain of learning for teachers is that of intercultural competence. There is widespread agreement that the cultural aspects in student learning are not just important, they are essential to the goals of global citizenship, to working in multicultural and international professional fields after graduation and to effectively learning from others during the period of study (Caruana & Hanstock, 2005). Knight, links international education directly to intercultural education. For her, a way of defining internationalisation is as two processes. First:

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

where integrating, means,

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

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

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

> Intercultural learning is not just a topic to be talked about (thinking and knowing); it is also about caring, acting and connecting. It calls for the use

> of a number of learning processes (habitat learning, social experience, social conflict, etc.), each of which requires the simultaneous activation of the multiple learning modes that polyphasic learners (Henry, 1960) need to cope with the complexities of intercultural learning. It entails the discovery and transcendence of difference through authentic experiences of cross-cultural interaction that involve real tasks, and emotional as well as intellectual participation *(De Vita & Case, 2003, p.388)*.

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

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

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

International teachers must also understand:

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

This is a challenging set of requirements indeed. Interviews with teachers at HG revealed that they have not had many opportunities to work on them. Another scholar of intercultural competence development being used at HG, Bennett, (2009; 2011) created the Intercultural Development Inventory (IDI). The inventory is part of the Intercultural Learning Lab (ICLL) used at the International Business School. Bennett also identified a set of skills and competencies for international teachers for intercultural learning. If anything it is even more challenging than Leask's set:

Intercultural Competencies Essential For Teaching Across Cultures

The effective intercultural educator has the ability to:

- Comprehend the role of teaching in the learner's culture;
- Communicate clearly to non-native speakers of the language used in teaching;
- Facilitate multicultural groups (including turn-taking, participation, use of silence, etc.);
- "Code-shift" from one communication style to another;
- Paraphrase circular or indirect statements respectfully for linear and direct group members;
- Express enthusiasm for the topic in culturally appropriate ways;
- Suspend judgment of alternative cultural norms;
- Recognize and address culture-specific risk factors for learners (loss of face, group identity, etc.);
- Develop multiple frames of reference for interpreting intercultural situations;
- Demonstrate good judgment in selecting the most appropriate interpretation in a transcultural situation;
- Ask sensitively phrased questions while avoiding premature closure;
- Avoid ethnocentric idioms, slang, and aphorisms;
- Interview a cultural informant to obtain needed information on subjective culture;
- Recognize ethnocentrism in goals, objectives, content, process, media, and course materials, as well as group interaction;
- Motivate learners based on their own values;
- Deliver courses in a variety of methods;
- Interpret nonverbal behavior in culturally appropriate ways;
- Monitor the use of humor for cultural appropriateness;
- Display cultural humility;
- Be culturally self-aware (Bennett, 2011, p.12).

1.4 Pedagogic challenges

It is impossible to separate the challenges for intercultural learning from the pedagogic challenges. It is when teachers fail to make explicit, education habits and traditions that are implicit based on long held pedagogic assumptions, that pedagogic difficulties arise. The need to be aware of the challenges inherent in the specifically national aspects of Dutch education for non-domestic students is not included in any policy documents. International students however, expect teachers to understand how the Dutch educational system affects them. As one of many possible examples, I offer this recommendation of a third year international student:

> You can't expect a student who is coming here in a completely new environment to.. to be prepared for all these (yeah) rules, norms and values of the university. So when the student comes to the teacher and asks something and he is an international student I would strongly advise the teacher to answer the question, to help the student in order to get used to these norms, values and rules so that he quickly can adapt the learning style of the Dutch system and he will… or most of the student will, have the problems to do that because they're.. like. .for a lifetime… they are used to something else and now they have to change. And for some, maybe for the German students it's not so hard here to adapt the style but for some other people, most other people, I believe, it's eh very… very strange and not easy to adapt the style. *(Focus group interview, Hiemstra, 2010, p.80).*

As a comment from the teacher's perspective, a reflection made during an interview by a teacher is given. She was the coach of such a mixed Dutch / international project group. Here she comments on difficulties experienced. I started by asking if she had known the students in advance. She said she did not and then reflected:

> *Teacher H:* Never mind,...perhaps that is only to the good. But this [the project group MT] did not work well together. It was came to nothing ... [OK] ... and .... (Long pause) ... .. And perhaps I should do a PhD about this, in the context of coaching. But I think there is something else ... [something about] international and intercultural which should be added. Because you are dealing with..[...] I experienced also that J.'s *[student from Ghana]* language was weak, but he came from a completely different culture and a different educational background that did not fit at all. And that Hungarian girl, her language was mediocre as well and she also came from a *[different MT]* university. And then there were a couple of Dutch students who were a bit lazy.

> Well that was a combination! And looking back, I think that the next time I should be able to be more involved as coach or facilitator. As it is now, you just kind of let it go. And then you have conversations with them at the end asking 'What went wrong? "But I think we should built more substance into our communication with students *[Interview, 2007; translation by researcher)*.

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

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

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

When asked "Can a really good Dutch teacher be a good international teacher, even without much experience abroad?" One teacher's response demonstrates not only the importance of a flexible attitude but the teacher's awareness of how important it is.

> *Teacher G:* Yes, as long as he [the teacher] knows English and he is open for another way of working of other people. I mean Ghanaian people or African people, they have a different idea about making appointments. If you are not open about this then you get angry and then you have a problem. So you should not try to do everything in the Dutch way, you have to be a little relaxed.....For instance Polish students leave out articles when they write a report. If you give it back immediately, *[i.e. refuse to grade it MT]* they won't understand. I think

the best thing is to not be too fanatic, not too strict. I think you have to just try to find out what the reason is and then find a solution.

Due to this high level of personal challenge professional development learning opportunities are sometimes resisted, for example by not being taken up voluntarily when offered (Klaassen, & de Graaff, 2001).

At the moment that teachers must assess international students it is not surprising that misunderstandings take place. These misunderstandings are often due to the differences in educational traditions and cultures between students and teachers. Several teachers described experiences with assessment as critical incidents. Only one example presented during the first TIP intervention is given here but it is quite typical:

MT: It can be nice to look at a kind of critical incident, so if you like we can talk about this. Could you just tell me about it, in short?

Teacher B: Well, they weren't happy with their grades. It was a stupid mistake because I didn't check with J. *[a colleague who was teaching the same course to another class MT]* before I entered mine…his grades were lower than mine, but it also raised other questions about our grading system. But now for the next block I came up with a better system, also partially acquired by your input, that …can lead to a ten and some points that lead to a minus and that seems to work pretty good *[sic]* for us. I haven't had any complaints since then. But still I am scared, because I now encounter these students that are not happy with an 8 *[strong emphasis]* and I really think there is more to life than grades. I can understand not being satisfied with a 6 or a 7 but they are sometimes... they are arrogant you know.... and really think that they deserve a better grade than they do and that's very hard. But it also has to do with them being used to getting better grades where they come from and that they are used to having more clarity about what the end result should be. I was talking to a German girl and she said that first of all it is hardly possible to fail a class as long as you participate, that's first. Okay… and then you could get a 6 and if you really participate and do alright then you get an 8.... But that got me thinking that when grading, especially in my field of classes, a ten is not impossible. With what I want them to do, if they meet all the criteria, they should be able to get one, while we think that only a professional should get a ten. That's more the way the international students think of it and I found that interesting. It is so very non-Dutch, when you look at our scales.

Understanding the needs facing teachers in terms of their teaching the European Association of International Educators (EAIE) identified a set of skills, attitudes and knowledge needed for the successful international teaching/learning regimes in higher education:

- Knowledge of field – this includes: language proficiency for speaking and interaction in both formal and informal contexts, good vocabulary for the field taught, good general lexical accuracy, ability to address and interact with audiences, good listening comprehension, being able to outline problem and issues clearly and being able to analyse them in English, etc.,
- Teaching and Learning – competencies such as giving feedback in a supportive manner, etc.,
- Mentoring – competencies such as identifying common language difficulties, providing feedback that takes current language level of students into account, etc.,
- Learning aims – i.e. the ability to design learning experiences that integrate content and language, etc.,
- Teaching and learning strategies – plan, select, model good strategies, etc.,
- Assessment and testing – i.e. being competent in designing tests in English with instructions and question types that do not confuse students, etc.,
- Functioning within the school – which refers to have a good working relationship with language teachers, and finally,
- **Continuing Self Development – this is the ability to "establish own learning goals with regard to the practice of teaching in a second language and implement these in a career plan."** (Teekens, 2007, pp. 51-52; researcher's emphasis).

1.5 Challenges to developers of training programmes, workshops or other forms of professional development

1.5.1 Constraints on time and resources

Another cause of challenges is not policy but structures of professional development themselves such as logistics or pedagogic assumptions underlying the support. For example, the instrumental nature of professional development support (hereafter PD) offered, when it *is* offered, is another type of barrier (Caruana & Spurling, 2007; Bradley, Conner & Southworth, 1994; Golman, 1998 cited in Knight, 2002, page 229). 'Stand-alone' training courses are still the dominant form of professional development support offered to university teachers for any area of training (Kennedy, 2005; Knight, 2002; Leask et al, 2007). However, a growing body of evidence is showing that it is unrealistic to expect 'one size fits all' training courses

to meet the needs of teachers who are diverse in professional function, motivation, and level (see, Rust, 1998, Fletcher & Patrick, 1998; National Research Council, 2002; Knight, 2002).

That evidence is based on studies of training in general. In contrast, serious investigations into professional development interventions specifically for internationalisation challenges facing teachers are nearly non-existent. What the approaches of developers can or might be is almost unexplored territory as Caruana's remarks, at the end of their wide ranging literature study:

> Research into the professional development needs of, and initiatives to support academics who seek to engage with 'Internationalising the Curriculum' and the role of international education specialists, education developers and educational technologists in supporting programme teams in curriculum design and innovation is sparse, yet this seems crucial to the process of cultural change necessary to embed internationalisation in HE structures and processes *(2007, p.79)*.

It may be that university teachers feel uncomfortable or even threatened by professional development that addresses areas of practice they know they are not strong in, or whose value they are unconvinced of, such as teaching skills required for international classes or intercultural competence and English language proficiency. In a study of eight schools of medicine, Rubeck and Witzke (1998) found that teaching staff members tended to join professional development on topics they already know quite a lot about and value. In one medical school students' evaluations consistently showed that there were problems with assessment and testing but almost all staff members put these areas on the bottom of their priority list for professional development. As one staff developer remarked, "It is very difficult to get faculty members to give up time to participate and to devise meaningful agendas for them" (Rubeck & Witzke, 1998, p. 35).

1.5.2 Deficiency model of professional development

An important challenge is that many of the Dutch professional development interventions for internationalisation assume a deficiency orientation (Vinke, 1995; Klaassen, 2001; 2003; 2008). This description is illustrative of the attitude of professional developers:

> In a second language lecturers are likely to cover less material in the allotted time as opposed to lecturers teaching in their native tongue (Vinke 1995). The lecturers tend to have problems with pronunciation, accent, fluency and

> intonation and lack of non-verbal behaviour (present research). Furthermore, the focus on language production influences the lecturers' didactical skills in the sense that they are less flexible in conveying the contents of the lecture material, resulting in long monologues, a lack of rapport with students, humour and interaction *(Klaassen & de Graaff, 2001, p.282)*.

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

1. Effective lecturing behaviour which suffers from a switch in language.
2. Effective lecturing behaviour which addresses the needs of non-native speaking students.
3. Awareness of second language (acquisition) difficulties.
4. Reflection on beliefs and actual lecturing behaviour.
5. Cultural issues if relevant to the first four aspects.(Klaassen & de Graaff, 2001, p.282)

Noticeable in this behaviouristic list is the relatively marginal position that cultural awareness and learning play. Cultural issues are to be addressed only if they are relevant to the first four topics. One can be forgiven for concluding that they are of secondary importance and may possibly not be relevant at all. In addition, only lecturing is considered while much of what teachers do with students does not take place in lecture halls.

This is not an isolated example. Often the support offered to teachers provides recommendations and suggestions aimed at filling gaps. In other words they are instrumental and "driven by practical concerns" and/or by individuals with strong "normative assumptions" (Kehm & Teichler, 2007, pp. 269/270).

1.5.3 Problems of relevance of content of professional development

The lack of tailored and subject specific professional development opportunities is a challenge for developers. The difficulty is that generic workshops lack relevance. This makes them unpopular and not well received by teachers. Even the most helpful literature offered to universities teachers concerning internationalisation is generic. That is to say it is focussed on how to teach international students in general with examples of good practices, guidelines and tips on common areas of concern such as making instructions more explicit or being more explicit about assessment (for instruction see: Leask, 2004; Lim & Ilagan-Klomegah, 2003; Mullins

et al., 1995; Samuelowicz, 1987; Ryan, 2000; for assessment see: Caruana, 2006; Jones & Brown, 2007; Ryan & Carroll, 2005). Many of these guidelines are sound and well founded on the real experiences of the authors involved. This is not a criticism of these materials, only that they are generic and might, in the context of high time pressure and lack of confidence, be taken too much at face value. More and more of such support is being offered through university websites which aids dissemination greatly (A good example with links to several other university sites is from the University of British Columbia, made by Sherri Williams (2008/2014).

This problem is recognised at the HG. In order to have more customised support for particular kinds of professional development (deskundigheidsbevordering in Dutch), it was decided that educational advisors (part of whose duties are to act as professional developers) would simultaneously be employed in the central educational/professional development department (called Onderwijs en Onderzoek in Dutch, or O&O) and be seconded to particular Schools. This embedding was created to address the problem of bridging the central educational development opportunities to the local needs of Schools. However, the results have only been partially successful. Especially in terms of internationalisation there has been a gap. The educational advisors are exclusively Dutch. They have studied education from a Dutch perspective. The main areas of expertise that they exercise appear to be retention, assessment, and curriculum development for competency based learning. Seldom have they worked as university teachers in any subject area and until very recently none had international experience. Some educationalists / professional developers cannot speak English very well for example.
Even when they have no problems with language, providers of professional development such as workshops, courses or training sessions to multiple groups of staff often use a generically designed intervention because it is efficient in terms of time investment. Typically, a database of the generic design elements or components are selected by the developers each time they are asked to provide a training on the same area of skill. How that selection is made is not always clear. Sometimes, developers have little time to do a thorough needs analysis, sometimes they seem to believe such rigorous preparation is not necessary because the intervention was successful in the past. Also, because many of them regard themselves as generalists who are not even supposed to offer tailored support, they are not highly motivated to find and incorporate specific domains of 'knowledge'.

Thus, for a combination of reasons, the changes made to the generic programme may be fairly marginal with a high level of reliance on what was made for other groups. Key components such as theories and models are not adapted. Many core learning materials and activities are altered in some rather superficial way to

make them more acceptable to a new group. This is often the case even when an intervention moves from a central location into a specific setting such as when it is given as result of a request from a specific faculty or department. In fact, the developer primarily relies on the teachers in the group to come up with the specifics that make the training relevant. They see their responsibility to be one of 'knowledge free' facilitation of process. This contrasts with the movement to relate to the disciplines and departments in professional development elsewhere (Blackwell. Gibbs & Shrives, 1999; Bond & Shrives, 2003; Solem, Chalmers, Diabiase, Donert & Hardwich, 2006; Leask et al 2007; Gibbs, 2013)

1.5.4 Ambiguity of position of professional developers

"I feel like a freelancer, it gives me autonomy, which I like, but sometimes it's lonely." (M. Riemersma personal communication, 2014).

Embedding on secondment means that educational advisors have a sensitive and somewhat contradictory operational space. One the one hand they have a good deal of freedom to offer advice since they are not directly accountable to the School management but to a manager in the central staff office. On the other hand, this autonomy makes them rather isolated. Being proactive is not expected of them and often not appreciated as they are not seen as experts in content. They are supposed to wait for requests from teachers or School managers who can disregard their suggestions with impunity. This results in them being wary of intruding on the territory (turf, see Blackmore, Chambers, Huxely & Thackwray, 2010; Beacher & Trowler, 2001) of the content experts and somewhat hesitant in offering critical advice.

A further difficulty is that embedded staff developers are seen as an extension of the School management team by many teachers and therefore are not completely accepted since it is assumed that they are carrying out the management's agenda (Gibbs & Coffey, 2000. p. 39). It is, after all, the management that gives them their major assignments. These assignments focus on accountability issues, such as lowering drop-out rates or increasing standardisation in teaching methods and/ or seeing to the implementation (including evaluation) of School Year Plans . This leads at times to a distance between them and the teachers. In the English stream Schools and degree programmes, where a number of the teachers are not Dutch and sometimes do not have a high level in the Dutch language, there has often been no customised educational / professional support offered, only English language versions of generic university wide training programmes.

1.5.5 Weak sustainability of professional development interventions

Finally, even when useful and relevant tools, guidelines or didactic approaches are provided in generic workshops, participants who learn and are enthusiastic find it difficult to put them into practice after they return to their departments. Workshop participants who attempt to introduce new ideas, such as student centred teaching, find that their "initial impetus" for change is often "lost in the increasing tide of competing and conflicting priorities of everyday academic life" (Leask et al 2007, p. 10). Further, workshop or PD programme experiences are often:

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

This is a difficult problem at the HG because even individually created courses, made by one teacher, are expected to fit with several other courses into the combined or integrated study programme. As a result, if an individual teacher wants to carry out an innovation he or she learnt about during a professional development workshop, there are serious constraints on how far that innovation can be accommodated within the collaborative orientation of the curriculum teams. A chronic problem with sustainability is certainly not unique to them. Trowler (2004) speaks of the Teflon-development metaphor (non-stick enhancement) as common among academic-staff developers.

The areas of difficulty highlighted here can and often do occur in combination with each other. They are not mutually exclusive. When time constraints and lack of facilities are evident teachers feel unsupported. When the content of a programme is not experienced as relevant, partly due to the lack of time to tailor it sufficiently, the participants may also begin to question the competence of the PD developer so that both messenger and message are rejected. When the PD intervention, due to its generalist goals and materials, cannot or does not address and seek to reduce the difficulties of sustainable follow up, the participants may be put in the frustrating position of being undermined by immediate colleagues or managers. This may cause them to question not only the relevance but the capacities of the PD developers as agents of change.

A final point about the limitations of professional development relates to the nature of the learning it engenders. Boyle, While & Boyle (2004) noted, regarding

investigations with school teachers, that in contrast to sharing practices with colleagues, conventional PD interventions, "do foster teachers' awareness or interest in deepening their knowledge and skills. However, these approaches to professional development appear insufficient to foster learning which fundamentally alters what teachers teach or how they teach." (p. 45).

A set of learning challenges such as those described above for teachers who are making the transition from Dutch to international teaching requires a great deal of preparation, skill, patience and understanding on the part of professional developers. The kind of interventions they develop and provide must be able to meet those multiple and complex set of needs and to be efficient in terms of time, relevant and sustainable. In order to achieve these kinds of goals, professional developers are starting to use change theories in their efforts to offer professional teacher learning support to enhance teachers' competences.

1.6 Professional development as enhancement from a practice perspective

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

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

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

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

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

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

According to this perspective:

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

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

> Successful change must be sensitive to the histories and identities of those involved (as they will impact upon how innovations are put into practice) and recognise that change is a constructive process shaped by the heads and hearts of those involved.
>
> … a change model based on social practice theory suggests that successful change requires congruence between an innovation and the context of its introduction (though both will be re-shaped in the process) *(Trowler et al., 2003, p.18)*.

A cluster of relevant theories pointed out by the group are: Activity Systems (Engström, 1987); Soft Systems Methodology (Checkland & Scholes,1991); the aspect of Communities of Practice, i.e. CoPs that describe how groups learn (Lave & Wenger, 1991); the concept of the Implementation Staircase (Reynolds & Saunders, 1987); Non-formal and tacit learning (Eraut, 2004) produced and accessed as 'rules' (Blackler, 1995); and concepts of Translation and Reconstruction (Beach 2003; Tuomi-Gröhn & Engström 2003).

This list is not exhaustive, but a selection used by practitioners and researchers in recent years that have been helpful. Certainly it is not necessary to use all of them when involved in a change process (Bamber et al., 2009, pp.9-15). Trowler, Fanghanel & Wareham (2005) argue that a practice perspective is particularly suited to higher education change because the most significant aspects of change processes in teaching, learning and assessment involve social interaction at the level of the workgroup.

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

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

Professional / staff development departments of some universities who have signed up to the Bologna agreements have been evolving in the direction of programme and curriculum development expertise centres using this view of change theory (see Appendix 1, Colet & Durand, 2004, for an interesting example). This means, for example, that PD staff are acting more as bridges between different teams of teachers who are occupied with different aspects and have thus different learning needs, within this university-wide innovation (Gibbs, 2004) and less as trainers of individual teachers (Gosling, 2001). The argument for the potential benefits of using a social practices approach to change is compelling under these circumstances.

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

1. Changes are stimulated by dissemination of good practices, i.e., 'practical embodiments of useful and interesting teaching' exemplars that act as beacons;
2. The offering of resource incentives will bring about and support the motivation to bring about, changes;
3. Taking advantage of the policy discourse, i.e., the institutional rhetoric to justify changes;
4. Appealing to the academics' professional imperative to improve and enrich the learning experience of students to motivate them to take changes on board;

5. Seeing change as embedded in and a direct outcome of ICT developments this 'technological determinism' means that learning and teaching processes will simply have to adjust (Saunders, Charlier & Bonamy, 2004, pp.5-6).

Meso level Approach

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

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

Change Management

Top Down **"Middle Out"** **Bottom Up**

Engagement + Capacity for Change

- **PROCESS** of change – creative, complex, unpredictable
- **PEOPLE** and skills central to practice change – individuals/groups/communities
- **CULTURE** supporting positive innovation – cognitive & affective dimensions – beliefs & confidence in capacity for change, concepts of time, context- history, discipline base

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

It would be wrong to understand the middle out approach as ignoring or discarding top down or bottom up initiatives. On the contrary, good management driven policy pillars and exciting local 'enclaves' of excellent practices for improvements can be drawn into it. One example (Saunders in Bamber et al., 2009, p.96) shows a sequential pattern for the implementation of an innovation, the Quality

Enhancement Framework (QEF), in Scotland. The institutional mechanism for introducing QEF moved from:

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

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

It this set of concepts about enhancement, social practice and a meso-level "middle out" approach which were used in the design of the TIP interventions at HG. The story of the interventions will be narrated in section two.

1.7 Problem Definition

This literature study formed one part of the mapping of the problem. The other part was based on investigating views of the stakeholders at the HG. Conversations, interviews, consultations and meta-teacher experiences were conducted to map these stakeholder perspectives. Some examples taken from interviews have already been given. Also a university-wide survey of 500 teachers at HG (Kostelijk et al 2006) and policy documents concerning internationalisation of the curricula were analysed.

The analysis of these internal documents and the interviews with stakeholders showed that the challenges facing teachers as described in the literature did exist at HG and that they mattered to the stakeholders. These investigations pinpointed the discrepancies between the needs of teachers for competency enhancement in several domains and the actual professional development support offered to them. Also the discrepancy between the corporate strategy and the need to focus on teacher learning was uncovered. Further difficulties in Classroom English courses were confirmed by several meta-teachers.

In addition, findings from the baseline survey showed that teachers, from their own perspective, had far to go to achieve the competence needed to act confidently and appropriately in unexpected situations with people from other cultures, a finding that confirmed the intercultural challenge described in the literature. The

survey also showed serious issues regarding teacher motivation and commitment that were hitherto not addressed in any forms of PD.

The study of literature and the investigation of the two research perspectives of a) professional development improvement and b) English, Intercultural and Pedagogic competency enhancement were clarified and confirmed. Therefore a dual focus was found to be crucial to solving the problem, which was shown to be worth trying to solve. This made it possible to identify the core problem statement which was:

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

1.8 Methods

As noted earlier, an educational design approach (Wang & Hannafin, 2005; Van den Akker et al., 2006; McKenny & Reeves, 2012) was used to investigate this question. The approach was inductive, with iterative steps and constant interweaving of enactments and analysis. The research was carried out using used a mixture of methods including: participant observation, field notebooks, analysis of internal 'grey' literature' and interviews. The research design followed the pattern suggested by experts in this approach such as Wang & Hannafin (2004).
In educational design research having a theoretical framework that supports and guides the process is important. The framework of this research had four pillars:

- Multiple content domains combined
- Implicit change theories
- Social practices perspectives on contextualisation
- Tacit, embedded 'knowledge-in-practice'

Propositions were made on the basis of these pillars. The propositions were used in designing the prototypes and to direct the analysis of candidate explanations and solutions for each iteration's prototype as enacted during the interventions. Because it was an insider research a feedback committee was formed to help lessen the potential for insider bias. Research questions focus on two strands in relation to the interventions. One strand of questions focuses on research **through** the interventions (strand A) and the second set of questions focuses on research **on** the interventions (strand B).

Strand A Main questions:

How might an innovative in-service programme for internationalisation provide experiences that enhance teacher professional learning in three domains and why? Which factors stimulated or constrained self-directed, transcendent and practiced engendered learning approaches for teacher professional learning for internationalisation?

Strand B Main question:

What might be a template design for a generic intervention aimed at teacher learning for internationalisation that is capable of being effectively contextualised for integration ofdomains and learning approaches and how might that contextualisation be carried out? The areas of investigation, both in strand A and strand B, are illustrated in the figure:

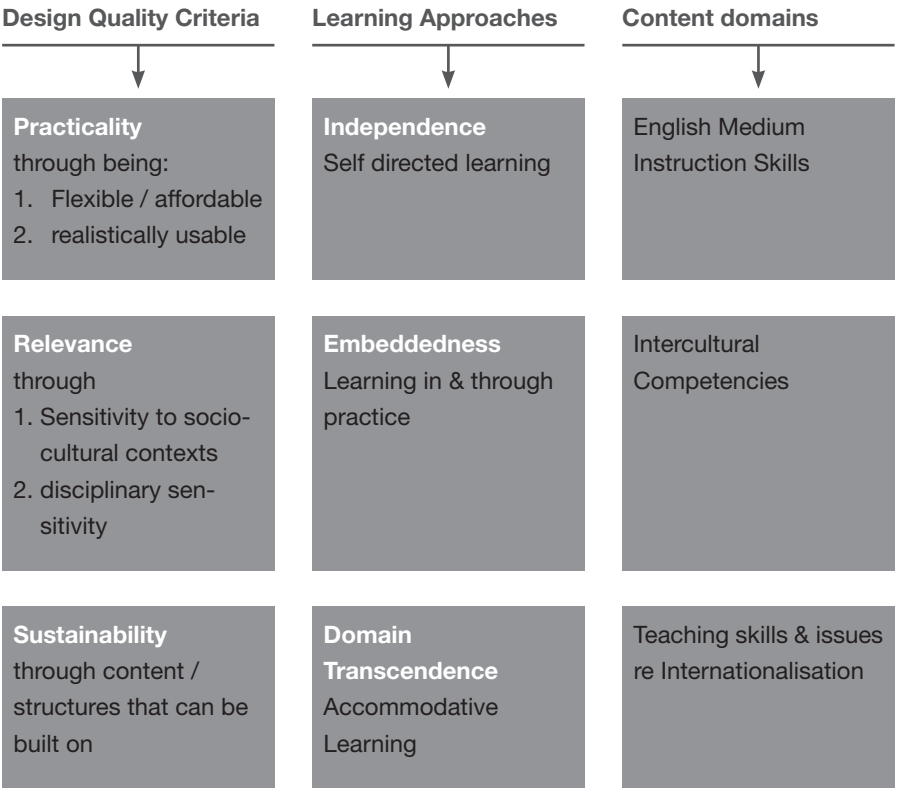

fig. 1. Design quality criteria & Scope

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University of Applied Sciences

2. HOW OUTCOMES WERE REACHED; NARRATIVES OF THE TIP INTERVENTIONS

The TIP Tale

Preview of section two

This section will provide a condensed narrative of the evolution of the TIP. As one can easily imagine that evolution was not simple. It is an example of an exploratory investigation in the messy swamp of a real world setting. Educational design research carried out by a practitioner in his or her own place of work has several levels of complexity. To start, in designing and conducting interventions while investigating them at the same time, the potential for role conflict is strong. Like others in this situation (see for example Orrill 2001, p.20) I found it difficult to balance the responsibilities of professional developer, teacher of English, coach, colleague, and researcher. For example, in order to study the effects of a loosely structured, multidisciplinary intervention on the 'self directedness' of the teachers, I had to deliberately make the programme goals and time frame less fixed in advance than the teachers expected or were used to. This caused them some confusion. However it was a fruitful approach which produced multiple insights. Thus on certain occasions I had to choose to protect the research aims at the cost of success in the short term. In spite (or perhaps because) of the complexity the story of the TIP as it changed over the different settings and groups of teachers who worked with it is a tale worth telling. I am deeply grateful to them for allowing me the chance to use their experiences as the 'stuff' of my research.

The TIP was offered four times in three distinct iterations. The first iteration is called 'Piloting the Routes'. It tells the tale of the pilot and makes clear what went well and what had to be improved (2.1).

The second iteration is called 'From piloting to full trial' This second iteration studied the progress and effects of the changes made after the pilot as the TIP was being enacted (2.2).

Finally, in the third iteration a new programme was made and tried out two times in different settings embedded in two Schools. This iteration is called 'Going Local' (2.3).

2.1 TIP 1 Piloting the Routes

Researchers have to start with hunches. Often the study involves areas of knowledge and skills that they do not yet have. After the analysis and exploration phase the first trial of the TIP programme took place. The programme was a complex one.

Lead up

In June 2007, the head of the Expertise Centre for Languages and Cultures offered me the chance to take time away from my regular teaching duties to develop an innovative programme going beyond 'Classroom English' in the next academic year. The year before I had taught one of the Classroom English courses and filed a report on the limitations of this provision. It was agreed that the new 'course' would be innovative in content and methods.

Characteristics of the programme

The intervention designed for this iteration was a standalone, generic programme of 15 weeks. It included the three content domains and tasks to stimulate the three approaches to learning. The programme design was overly ambitious. There were six participants from three Schools. The majority had quite a lot of experience with international teaching. Two were working full-time in a four year international degree programme and on exchanges programmes. Three worked internationally only part of the time but when they did it was quite intensively. One of these, for example, had been the developer of the exchange programme in his curriculum team. The remaining participant had not yet taught on an international programme but was planning to start giving training workshops in English in the following year. One can safely say that most of them were 'early adopters' who joined the pilot out of interest.

This first prototype had several strands. In one strand, independent learning was meant to be stimulated by a set of self-assessment tools and self-study materials. Teachers were also meant to become collectively more self-directed by having to make their own decisions about the learning programme's order of content; they were expected to decide on the choice of domains that would be studied during the sessions. Further, there was a task to carry out an action learning research project. There were also plans to go on excursions and invite guest speakers. Thus it can be said that the content was very rich and the activities highly varied.

Results

Dialogic approach integrating English with reflection on experiences

Some interesting results for the areas of learning were first that incorporating an English language rhetorical structure with experiential learning worked well.

A particular combination of two tasks proved particularly fruitful. It consisted of wedding an English writing assignment using a 'situation/problem/solution' structure to a presentation of an intercultural incident that the teacher had actually experienced with international students. This combination came about rather spontaneously because the teachers were not able to carry out an action research project as planned.

During their reflective presentations, teachers showed strong problem solving tendencies which incorporated reflection. Most of the teachers told stories about overcoming problems linked to their practice as teachers of international groups. One teacher had spent real efforts on trying to puzzle out what had gone wrong with the Asian student in a project group and the other teachers were clearly absorbed by the problem presented. Another teacher, quoted earlier, described concerns on how to deal with the grading issue. She presented discrepancies between her own values coming from the Dutch traditions of grading and a genuine surprise at how different the values of her international students were and in this process came to realise the validity of those other values, which represented a shift in her frame of reference regarding assessment. Two more presenters had strong narratives of intercultural encounters including some misunderstanding and how these were overcome. In fact, if there is one disposition that seems to characterise these teachers it is the strategies and preoccupation with puzzling out, that is using reflection-on-action, and overcoming problems. This is such a strong result that it may perhaps be a common characteristic among Dutch teachers.
Second, in terms of multiple perspectives for learning about the meaning of internationalisation teachers were looking closely at assumptions they held and assumptions held by colleagues they know well. In creating a dialogic approach to learning, it proved effective to first, stimulate teachers to identify their views on the purpose of internationalisation and subsequently, to engage in discussions on the ambiguities of this innovation including ethnocentricity (Otten, 2003). Having a wide range of topic domains, such as policy & strategies, intercultural competencies, language for teaching and pedagogy for international groups, provided rich content to discuss internationalisation. These different areas made it easier to approach key issues from multiple perspectives which suited the ambiguous nature of their experiences.

Also, there was disagreement on how to integrate international dimensions into the curricula. Some teachers thought a 'standalone course' in intercultural competencies was sufficient and as much as could be realistically achieved at this time while for others this was a cause of frustration. Examples of worst case scenarios were described, in which an international or intercultural workshop or two are

bolted on to existing courses without either the teachers or students understanding what is behind the workshop activities or assignments. Such conflicting views coming to the surface can stimulate a deeper analysis by teachers. Especially in the area of changing attitudes in intercultural encounters reassessment is essential. The comments at the end of the TIP 1 and also those sent to me a year later seem to support this kind of shift.

Unintended result

At the end of the first iteration the self-study line was shown to have failed. Several explanations were suggested such as time pressures and the conflating of the overload on in-sessional materials with the self-study materials. Also it was suggested that teachers favoured learning styles did not fit with this kind of self-study. The action learning projects also did not materialise, as mentioned above, except in one case.

Concluding comment

It is worth considering at least, that experienced practitioners as these prefer to solve educational problems through informal learning using their tacit knowledge and interactions with colleagues or students (Eraut, 2004, 2007). Informal learning was a major framing concept of this study (Eraut, 2004; Day, 1999; Marsick & Watkins, 1990). That importance appears to be justified by the TIP 1 sessions and the interviews. Learning strategies linked to the task at hand are evident. That may help to explain why there was little enthusiasm for independent learning objects, portfolio tasks and homework assignments. The benefits of tacit learning that were evident to some extent in the TIP 1 occurred through:

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

2.2 TIP 2 From Pilot to full trial

After having carried out the pilot and revised it, it was imperative to give this new version a trial under, if possible, similar circumstances. The Head of the Expertise Centre for Languages and Cultures had always planned to sponsor me to offer the TIP in a more formal setting. This was through the newly established Corporate Academy (hereafter CA). The main puzzle of this iteration, apart from seeing how the changes to the pilot programme identified above, had worked out, was to explore the limits / merits of a generic PD intervention for teacher learning.

The head of the Expertise Centre for Languages and Cultures anticipated that perhaps up to 15 teachers would sign up for the TIP. In the end only six did. Three of these came from the same School making the balance weak. Two of the others were not simply teachers who taught or developed modules in the international stream: they were coordinators of the implementation of internationalisation at their respective Schools.

One of the revisions concerned the way English language learning materials were offered. The first change was that self study was made optional. Second the materials were provided on the internal electronic learning environment instead of in a folder This in effect marginalised the self-study line for English and at the same time increased the variety of English exercises that could be done interactively. This change was influenced by the failure of the participants in iteration one to take up the English mini-programmes. Making them optional in iteration two meant that the mini-programmes were available to the teachers who were strongly interested in this form of learning. Other teachers who wanted a more interactive way of improving their English were going to be provided with more in-sessional and integrated activities. These teachers would, it was presumed, not feel that they had failed in some way if they did not take up the self-study line.

Key Events

There were in fact 15 'input' sessions over a five month period. Session records from the start show how three participants (two from the School that had sent three teachers) did not have a clear learning goal, beyond English practice. The first weeks were focused on what internationalisation means with reading texts and students who were invited to give their opinion. A research finding about resistance triggered divisive responses.

On the positive side, every participant gave a presentation about their teaching. Some teachers used these presentations as a rehearsal for a mini lecture with an international class. Those presentations and the discussions that followed can be seen as a form of proactive reflection. All of the presentations were recorded on video. English language feedback was given or offered afterwards.

In this version of the TIP teachers were supposed to decide on the order of topics themselves, after the first three sessions. The participants took turns in writing up the session record after the third session. In one record the recorder noted that the group was not showing initiative and leaving most of the work up to me. In fact, they were unable to agree on which topics to cover in which order and after a session devoted to how to carry on the programme they decided to leave the

topics and the order of the rest of the sessions up to me rather than take on the responsibility themselves.

Action research was introduced early. Abbreviated action research proposals were made by all participants. However, none of the projects were carried out, primarily due to lack of support from team leaders. The three teachers from the same School stopped working on their joint project plans when their team leader said he was not going to give them any time or resources to do those projects. Even so, one of the coordinators incorporated ideas and materials covered in the input sessions plus work she had done on her action research plan into a policy proposal in her school which contributed to a change the direction of internationalisation there. The other coordinator used his action research plan's ideas as part of a Swedish / Dutch students' project to set up an international sports office for foreign students. Thus in spite of not carrying out a proper action research project these two participants did link the TIP activities to their own work in their Schools.

Outcomes relating to stimulating factors for learning from TIPs 1 & 2

After the second iteration it was possible to use insights from outcomes of certain propositions of both TIP interventions to identify design principles for effective professional development interventions. First, simply offering online self-study materials misses important aspects of the practices and learning traditions of teachers. Offering an optional digital learning path needs to be linked in a form of blended learning, that is, it needs to connect to topics or themes that are being covered in face-to-face meetings.

Second, after iteration two, it became clear that in principle, participants will take responsibility for the sequence of topics only if they are in a context where it pays off to do so. If there is a benefit such as a joint product or a qualification then such a system of involvement is possible (see Brew & Barrie, 1999 and Dall' Alba, 2005). In individual feedback moments several TIP teachers said that they were too unclear about the goal of the TIP to make decisions about the order of topics. They would have liked to have a common goal to work towards. The action research projects were supposed to be that common goal but since they did not materialise, a sense of grew.

Outcome three had to do with balancing the domains and with proactive reflection. It was inspired by the stimulating effects of combining challenging content with dialogic and transcendent learning. As to the depth of discussion, the outcome was satisfactory. Interaction can be said to have been dialogic and complex. Combining visits from outside experts and especially inviting students to

the sessions gave them a rich dimension. One recommendation is to make student involvement an integral part of the TIP in future. If TIP groups of teachers would organise events and invite students to have a say in what they arrange, deferring to the students as 'experience-experts' the depth of learning about the intercultural with international education can only increase.

During the TIPs 1 & 2 it was seen that the backgrounds of the teachers were diverse concerning how much English they had studied in the recent past. Those who had not studied Classroom English courses appeared to want more of this type of practice, others did not. One lesson that the professional developer could learn is to insist on in-take interviews in advance of an intervention, which failed to happen in the case of TIP 2.

Regarding the proactive reflection, there was an encouraging outcome. Teachers were able to use the presentations in their lessons making a bridge between the TIP and their practices. It would therefore be useful to always include proactive reflection in professional development interventions whether they are workshops, seminars, continuous profession development leading to a certificate or part of an internal curriculum reform.

2.3 TIP 3 Going Local

2.3.1 Interim analysis and revision of core programme

Between TIP 2 and TIP 3 there was a period of revision based on an analysis of the first two interventions. This interim period allowed for a new programme design to be made before the TIP was offered, not as a 'stand-alone' programme but as a core programme map and template from which elements (like modules) could be selected and combined in different ways.

The re-envisioned design

A design process approach (Knight, 2001) was followed in re-envisioning the generic TIP programme as a course map and/or template. This process approach does not set out tightly defined outcomes but identifies learning encounters and activities that fit with learning aims instead. The analysis of the prototypes of iterations one and two led to the solution of arranging the domains under overarching thematic clusters. There were now three sub-themes, all related to the umbrella theme of internationalisation of the curriculum.

Sub-theme 1: Why Questions

The trajectory started with a set of 'Why and What' questions to explore the meaning of internationalisation for the participants. This was put first since it was most important to pay attention to the personal meaning of the innovation (and the changes it brings for the teachers). How experts define internationalisation engages teachers in looking at the issue from multiple perspectives which stimulates transcendence as multiple mental schemes are activated. Examples of English language domain in the Why theme block are exercises in composing definitions in academic and scientific English (Annex, p.44/46). There are also exercises where disciplinary teams formulate their interpretations of internationalisation based on terminology from the specific field involved. Intercultural domain learning in this theme can be combined with English when a phenomenon like acculturation is explored using the language of cause and effect and the language of process taken from academic English. A pedagogic exercise regarding the 'Why' theme could be a lecture which convinces students of the added value of a model or theory which has international implications or significance. Intercultural exercises aimed at experiencing the many meanings of intercultural difference are included in this thematic block. This cluster can be used with any specific group; it can cross disciplinary boundaries for example because it deals with the 'subjective meaning of change' (Fullan, 2007) which affects anyone involved in major changes.

Sub-theme 2: Who Questions

The second sub-theme consists of materials and activities to address the significance of international education from the perspective of various stakeholders in a set of 'Who' questions. These challenge teachers to consider their practices of internationalisation through the eyes of others, which also stimulates reflection from and with multiple perspectives. In this theme, individuals and groups must ask themselves where they stand in relation to significant stakeholders. Questions and joint decisions on how to address the expectations of others stimulate practice based cognition where the knowledge is not a commodity but is generated through the activity of sharing ideas and experiences with others. Included in this cluster are activities that require participants to use 'managerial English' in order to view their teaching and curriculum development actions and decisions from the point of view of managers in professional fields. Also the intercultural models of Hofstede, Trompenaars, TOPOI (Hoffman, 2002) etc. are used in this block to support the teachers in imagining IoC from the position of other stakeholders. This cluster too can be used across boundaries since no single group in a university can avoid engagement in the long term with those in other functions or disciplines, however more tailoring may be needed than when WHY questions are being adapted.

Sub-theme 3: What and How Questions

The final sub-theme is about solving problems that teachers experience in carrying out the changes. It consists of a set of 'What and How' questions. These focus on specific ways in which teachers' professional practices are affected by internationalisation such as how they coach multicultural teams or how they deal with the issues of feedback and assessment with international students. Heuristic approaches, using critical cases are used. This theme engages curriculum teams in the examination of their common use of instruments, language, pedagogic practices as a community. It is thus highly stimulating for practice based learning. It also leads to teams taking ownership of the pedagogic concerns so that they can change their practices.

For each of these thematic blocks, there are, first, materials for discussion of complex issues with models, examples of trends, etc. Second, skills' practice materials for English language, intercultural sensitivity and communication, are offered. Third and finally, work embedded extension activities are provided that can be carried out by small groups or couples or individuals. There are more activities, materials and exercises than any group would actually want to do, so that choices are always available. This range of learning materials meant that themes could be expanded or contracted, depending on the group's interests and requirements. In principle the order could be shuffled although this did not happen. The order of the themes was always the same but the emphasis they received was not always equally important.

There was a second component of the revised TIP core programme which consisted of a chance to carry out an action learning project. In contrast to the two earlier iterations the action learning component was now optional. It was only to happen if there was sufficient time and motivation. It consisted primarily of individual projects that were to take about 10 weeks to carry out. A presentation in a public arena was envisioned for the projects.

The timing and balancing of the elements will be selected on how they best integrate content, skills and practice under the umbrella topic of international teaching for each group. In general, TIP A is meant for anyone who has organizational duties regarding internationalization (either instead of or in addition to teaching duties). TIP A can have a combined practice-oriented research as second component. TIP A is conceptually deeper than TIP B. TIP B is a follow up of Classroom English, it is shorter that TIP A. TIP B is almost exclusively focused on teachers who have only teaching duties in international classrooms. TIP B does not include the second component. There will be more focus on language in TIP B than in TIP A.

Themes / Issues / Trends / models of IoC / Internationalisation @ Home	Skills / for English and Intercultural competences and communication exercises	Transfer / embedding in own practices
Theme 1: WHY questions Expert definitions of International / Intercultural aspects of Higher Education University policy defined/ rationales/strategies for implementation - curriculum issues - What does IoC mean to us?	Defining terms and concepts in English / ICC definitions of culture: exercises Dutch classics / advanced writing (I)LOs: active verbs and descriptor terms for learning outcomes,	TIPA – analysis of School documents for definitions / own models etc. TIP B - teachers bring own important theory texts to explore how to deal with vocabulary and reading comprehension and tips on techniques and instructional language
Processes of Intercultural learning Change processes in departments / Schools I@H what is our ambition?	English for describing processes in disciplines, explaining models theories etc. exercises on ICC development as a process (f.e.IDI) nexus of culture / language Intercultural dimensions & principles of teaching / learning	TIP A - inventory of ICC in own School: mapping and proposals how to bring about changes? TIP B – teachers give mini lectures on a model and have three ways to explain it and check if sts have understood,
Theme 2: WHO questions Stakeholders perspectives 1 The Home and the international Student The teacher	Language of discussion and project work / instructional procedures ICC exercises on learning and teaching styles - How do student learn? What do sts want to learn about intercultural competence? Getting into the shoes of another	TIP A - exploration of the role of students in the implementation and the roles of teachers in own School TIP B - examples of projects instruction, BLAs etc. Presented and improved for language and intercultural aspects; including getting sts feedback

Themes / Issues / Trends / models of IoC / Internationalisation @ Home	Skills / for English and Intercultural competences and communication exercises	Transfer / embedding in own practices
Stakeholders perspectives 2 The professional field Academic counterparts Management	English for management : vocabulary of leadership in HE and in the professions - ICC exercises on corporate culture i.e. Hofstede, Mole Trompenaars etc.	TIP A - What does IoC mean to a ....? Analysis of these stakeholders' views and TIP participants reactions TIP B integrating a model or approach from a different national / cultural direction into a course specification
Theme 3: WHAT & HOW questions Typical Challenges / difficulties Internships / Research supervision , assessment & feedback issues Discipline expansion/ Group work / interaction	English for Sit/pro/sol ICC for conflict management / group dynamics / Communicating during problems and reflecting afterwards – language of feedback & assessment criteria	TIP A – presentation of actual cases with internships etc. Suggestions on how to solve them TIP B - presentation of cases with problems identification of ways to handle these in future

fig. 2. Course map/template of the TIP Component One

Component Two – practitioner research

The practice oriented research will be participant driven. The facilitator(s) will support the process in every way but will not dominate the activities. The group will act as a democratic learning community. Projects with research can include student participants. Also extracurricular activities such as attending lectures in English or going on bench marking visits will take place. Participants can, if desired, carry out a mini teacher action research project, using templates and models and share this with other participants and subsequently with colleagues or other interested stakeholders.

Intended Learning Outcomes

The competencies needed for an excellent university teacher in international classrooms have been identified. As part of the TIP individual participants will choose a number of learning outcomes directly related to their own teaching and do an action learning investigation into it. Participants will keep a record of plans, actions, feedback and reflection resulting in a mini-case study and a portfolio of revised teaching materials.

International orientation goals - by the end of the programme the participant should be able to show that he/she can:

- *describe and explain the complexities of implementing international elements into the Curricula and international education @ Home*
- *identify and select the best policies and practices of IoC*
- *carry out a small scale action research project on an aspect of IoC*

Language goals -by the end of the programme the participant should be able to show that he/she can:

- *write more accurate study materials with clear instructions*
- *improved skills in an area of individual choice*
- *proofread own tests and study guides and give feedback to colleagues on their study guides and tests*
- *identify individual patterns of error*

Intercultural goals - by the end of the programme the participant should be able to show that he/she can:

- *reflect on the cultural baggage of Dutch teachers including their own*
- *cultural context(s)of the international classes using models and theories from IC*
- *evaluate IC aspects of teaching/learning materials (including the identification of bias)*
- *develop IC materials and evaluate them*

Practitioner goals- by the end of the programme the participant should be able to show that he/she can:

- *interact confidently with international group*
- *advise departmental mangers and colleagues on strategically incorporating IC and international elements into the curriculum*
- *identify competence areas to work on in future*
- *develop and evaluate own teaching/learning materials*

2.3.2 Contextualisation

The TIP course map/template was a generically designed intervention that could be used together with a systematic and rigorous form of contextualisation, one which captured the contingent and situational aspects of multiple learning environments. The adaptations were not restricted to some marginal alterations but could change any aspect of the generic design before delivery and during delivery. The first requirement was that the intervention would not be offered to any and all potential users in the university but to specific users in specific settings. It was essential, if the many potential benefits of bringing development to specific groups were to accrue, that a different premise than straightforward transfer was devised. Especially since the programme aimed to stimulate and support changes, the awareness that change is 'always inserted into a context, never into a white space' (Trowler, 2009, p.144) was crucial.

To ensure that knowledge, skills and attitudes presented and exercised in the template were sensitively translated, (Trowler speaks of *domestication,* a form of taming) a series of coherent steps was undertaken before the interventions in iteration three. Also, a heuristic, communicative and flexible approach during the in-School interventions (resonating with Kessel's relational approach, 1999, see in particular the list of competencies p. 66) was part of the developer's plan. It anticipated that adaptations in relation to emerging issues, themes, and interactions might be necessary. In this way complex learning could be stimulated in a highly educated and diverse group (Knight, 2001). Systematic adaptation is an approach derived from the social practices perspective. An important pre-intervention step was to foreground key aspects of the contexts of the upcoming interventions. A protocol or tool was designed based on several sources to help structure the procedure:

1. Describe the key elements of the existing programme or intervention

- Aims & Goals
- Intended outcomes (when applicable & agreed)
- Design (process and structures)
- Types of assessment, evaluation or monitoring
- Activities
- Tools and resources

2. Profile the local context in which the intervention will be used

Consider elements in the learning environment - not all need to be filled in

- Main tasks (history behind tasks; Long term / short term; Individual / group)
- Current challenges / issues of concern or interest ; Level of urgency

- Incentives
- Interactions (who does what? in what way? how often? frequency of contacts; communication flows; physical proximity ; types of interactions)
- Discourses
- Practices (including traditions, routines, taken-for-granted understandings etc. systems like)
- Patterns of Power (who carries responsibility for what? style of leadership)
- Resources (tools, funding , technologies and artefacts, workload and other work conditions)
- Roles of members (if applicable)
- Values / ideologies (if discoverable)
- Key facilitating factors
- Key potential obstacles

3. Predict possible paths of implementation: Identify ways the programme might be refracted or domesticated in this context

Try to imagine from the perspective of the people working in this context how they might 'bend' the programme's path to suit their needs and interests. What would they spend more energy on? What might they skip over?

Contextualisation/Translation/Mapping check list (based on Trowler in Bamber et al, (2009 p. 143 -146); Knight (2001, p. 377); Eraut (2004) and Sharpe (2004).

As a result of the procedure, a context profile was produced including facilitating and constraining factors. Predictions on what would be beneficial in terms of changing the core programme were made. The profiles and predictions helped to adapt the elements from the course map of the TIP. The course map formed the basis of two interventions in the third iteration.

TIP 3A was a project to revise the curriculum of one year of a bachelor programme. TIP 3B was a mini version of the entire course map offered to two senior teachers of a four year international degree programme. For brevity's sake only TIP 3A will be narrated here.

2.3.3 Narrative of TIP 3A Recalibration of the third year curriculum

Characteristics of the intervention

The adaptation was requested by a team leader of a four year bachelor programme. This team leader's goals were to review the curriculum and in that review consider what teachers in his team themselves needed and wanted to learn (he had held individual meetings to discuss the professional development goals of each member of his team).

As assignment giver, the team leader and his assistant regarded me as facilitator in the recalibration process. In fact this intervention might be described as a form of consultancy (see Shrives & Bond, 2003; O'Niell, 2010). In other words, in iteration TIP 3A, the key characteristic was that the professional development goals were subordinate to the process of curriculum reform. The decision on how many sessions there would be was not made by me. Only four sessions were requested. This meant that the design requirements were heavily determined by the logistics. The way in which the core programme was adapted to these requirements consisted of maintaining the themes as themes but devising or selecting materials and activities that were more specific to this disciplinary area than the ones developed for the generic interventions such as the exercises for practising writing definitions in English noted earlier (Annex pp.45/46) and the use of arguments from another university faculty in the same disciplinary area (Annex, pp. 79/80). About half of the materials and activities came from earlier interventions. Whenever possible they were used with little or no changes made. The earlier intervention sessions had lasted for two hours, these sessions lasted for three hours which may not appear significant but did require adjustments which were of course not theoretically driven but were not unimportant pragmatic alterations.

New materials were related to the discipline. New aids to experiential learning were introduced. These were an activity for intercultural learning (Annex pp.65-66) and a list of rationales for internationalising a curriculum from another university accompanied by a set of discussion questions (Annex pp.79/80).

Issues relating to strategy were uppermost on the clients' minds and they were reflected in the themes of the sessions.

Key Events

Between the first and second session the developer and team leader had a meeting to set out strategic choices to put to the team for their feedback. These choices were especially in relation to intercultural communication. The second session drew out views on what intercultural skills meant to the teachers and how having or not having them might affect their lessons. Several agreements were made including changing how the teachers welcome the new students during the introduction

week. A record of agreed points was sent to all for approval. The third session held was during a team study day. An experiential learning cycle (recently designed for just this type of session) was presented (see Annex pp. 65/66). One part of the cycle was to describe a critical incident. Several teachers recalled incidents in groups and in plenary brainstormed new ways to bring Dutch and International students together. These ideas were later put into practice in the revised introduction week. An interesting part of the activity was that one of the youngest and least experienced teachers in the team made concrete suggestions that everyone took up.

The final session was a group planning for the entire following year. The team leader reported that international students had been interviewed over the changes suggested during the study day. Other teachers had asked to have a video made of their lessons next year so study them for typical Dutch mannerisms. During the long morning session teachers proactively reflecting on how the curriculum changes might affect their teaching. The artefact that directed the discussion was a large digital plan of the curriculum for the academic year. Teachers kept pointing to one or another part of this chart, suggesting how one element could be moved or how two different elements clashed and needed to be harmonised.

Conclusion of TIP 3 A

The adaptation of TIP 3a was successful in terms of combining domains and using learning situated in local practices. The predictions made about what the participants would like to use, based on the TIP template and the contextualisation check list, proved to be quite accurate. For example it was predicted that the issue of intercultural competences would be important to the participants in this intervention and indeed how and why changes should be made to an existing module for intercultural management skills played a significant role in the sessions. From the discussions about this issue teachers said that they had gained a new insight into themselves as well as the curriculum. Also it was predicted that using language taken from the discipline in which the group teach would be important for bridging the TIP elements to them and this also proved to be the case.

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3. OUTCOMES FOR TEACHER LEARNING

The main outcomes in relation to teacher learning

3.1 What materials, events and activities could be provided in a programme to stimulate enhancement in the content domains of linguistic, intercultural and pedagogic competencies?

(results in answer to question **through** all interventions, Strand A)

How the content domains stimulated teachers' competency enhancement is presented below. After each content domain, one learning approach will be discussed. Thus self-directed learning is considered in relation to the domain of English skills enhancement. Embedded learning is considered in relation to improved intercultural competence. Finally, transcendent learning is discussed in relation to the domain of international teaching competencies.

In other words:

Domain	**Learning approach**
One – English competences	Self-directed, independent learning
Two- IC competences	Embedded , informal & tacit learning
Three-Teaching skills for international groups	Transcendent, accommodative learning

This does not mean that only one type of learning happened in relation to each domain. Of course all three learning approaches occurred in all three domains. However to illustrate the main points in brief, it seems easier for the reader to consider one learning approach for one domain.

3.1.1 Domain no. 1 - measures relating to English language learning and discussion of self-directed learning

Summary based on field notes, participants' evaluation, TIP records and participants' texts

- Explicit English exercises and assignments as well as integrated, implicit feedback on grammar and vocabulary were stimulating but the needs and wants of participants were uneven and difficult to harmonise. Teachers did not *want* to agree on the order and amount of English in the programme on their own.
- Reading skills' support proved necessary with pre-reading, post discussion and vocabulary tasks found to result in improved participation around complex issues of policy.
- Self-study materials such as self-assessment forms, diagnostic tests and online or blended learning materials were offered but used only marginally or not at all, although it was appreciated that they were made available on the intranet site. However uptake was poor and no teacher made personal learning goals for English.
- Just-in-time mini-input sessions, primarily about typical Dutch errors were always well received.

- Some teachers declared that they had not signed up for the TIP to improve their English.

An unintended outcome reoccurred across all three iterations. It is related to teachers taking responsibility for their own English language learning. During the first iteration, as noted in the narrative, many self-assessment and self-study materials were printed out and placed in an individual file. Tasks were set to use these materials. However most teachers did not take advantage of them. During the evaluation a few teachers said they did not want to study English very much but did enjoy practising informally. Others said they lacked time.

In the revised design of iteration two the materials were placed digitally on a learning environment. Unfortunately, making the self-study materials optional via the 'Blackboard' did not have the aimed-for effect. It was not the case that one or two highly motivated self-directed learners used them and the others did not as I had predicted after iteration one. In fact, when asked for an evaluation, all of the participants stated they had not done any of the English mini-programmes. Instead of doing them, other ways of learning independently were mentioned. One teacher said that he liked talking with other people, preferably native speakers. Others favoured watching TV or films as ways to improve their English. One enjoyed reading romances. Half of them also asked to be given specific assignments and to get feedback on those assignments from me. None of them, however, were attracted to separate self-study in the manner offered to them in the mini-programmes through the Blackboard site.

Discussion: Who decides what the direction of learning is and who should take charge?
Various explanations are possible for the failure to take up independent learning for English. One could say that these teachers were displaying a certain kind of self-directed learning but not the kind that results in taking responsibility for systematic self-study of English including making their own learning plans. Self-directed learning or SDL, is a complex term, open to multiple interpretations. One problem that Candy (1991) highlighted was the confusion between SDL as, on the one hand, *autodidaxy* and SDL on the other hand, as engagement in *seeking and participating* in learning opportunities. In the self-study line in the TIP programme my understanding as developer was that independent learning of English is a form of autodidaxy. (By the way this is also one of the 'qualities' of an ideal international teacher according to Teekens, 2003 a & b.) In contrast to this understanding, the motivations, expectations and actions of participating teachers regarding English during the actual versions of the TIP were ambiguous. As advanced learners of English these participants had a well organised and flexibly accessible English

language knowledge base. At the same time, they had only limited experience with autodidactic strategies for using this knowledge base to increase their language proficiency. Instead they tended to use opportunistic strategies such as engaging in language activities that they found pleasurable. Only a few wanted to intentionally combine just-in-time consultations with me as language expert and peer feedback with fellow participants (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990) which could fit with Candy's second definition of SDL as *participation*. It is then perhaps unsurprising that these teachers were more interested in engaging in English enhancement practice in interactive, informal ways rather than making explicit learning plans with set timelines and evaluation moments, even though that would have given them much more control.

Added to this is the fact that participation in a complex phenomenon. Participation assumes some degree of responsibility. Just how much responsibility for what should be taken by whom is not quantifiable. The TIP participants could not agree on who should set the goals and tasks for their English learning during the first two iterations. Some wanted English during every session, some once every three sessions, others during no sessions. This outcome confirms difficulties pointed out by Sfard (1998) regarding the nature or intensity of learning when it is regarded as participation or engagement. She maintained that both the type and the degree of learning in the 'learning as participation metaphor' are open to question.

To explain the lack of responsibility taken by the TIP teachers, a model developed by Hiemstra and Brockett, the Personal Responsibility Orientation model (1994, p.11) is useful. Responsibility is the driver behind self-directed learning in different 'orientations' (one could also say different strategies). Thus the learner can take responsibility in the interaction between learner and teacher, but responsibility is also a characteristic of self-study when the learner is independent of a teacher or fellow students. According to this model, learners must take ownership for self-directed learning in social contexts for those contexts to be effective, just as they must 'own' a self-study learning plan.

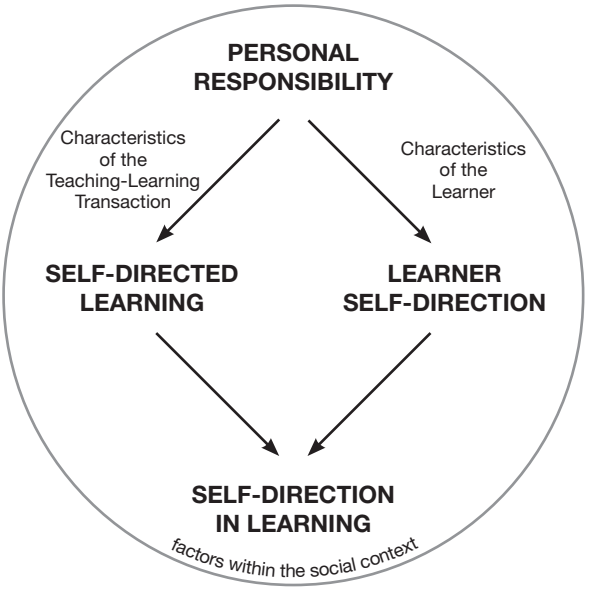


fig. 3. Hiemstra and Brockett's personal responsibility orientation model (1994, p.11).

Self-directed learning is thus characterised, by Brockett & Hiemstra as well as Trembley, by some degree of learner control or ownership of the project such as its 'content, objectives, resources, process, and/or evaluation' (Trembley, 2000, p. 210). The process required to realise these forms of control are often not precisely identified. In this case, when forms of control were unclear in terms of who decided what kind of English materials or activities were to be practised during TIP sessions the effect was to make everyone harden in their own strategy. To illustrate the description of teachers' reactions noted above, the person who liked to 'learn by chatting' refused to do any prepared exercises at all. Two people who felt insecure about their English demanded that I make a tailored list of areas for them to work on, one teacher denied wanting to have anything to do with English and another wanted to read voraciously on his own. The result was that everyone felt undirected rather than self-directed.

Systematic self-directed learning for English never materialised. This does not mean that no English was learnt. Teachers gave presentations followed by feedback on their English, which was valuable. Also in TIP 3 short exercises targeting typical Dutch errors were appreciated. Reading and discussing many articles about internationalisation did strengthen vocabulary. Several TIP participants stated emphatically that their English had improved and there is no reason to question their experience and self-evaluation of their learning.

3.1.2 Domain no. 2 findings relating to intercultural awareness and communication skills enhancement (IC) and embedded learning

Summary of findings regarding Intercultural Competence (ICC)

- Intercultural learning was found to be important, interesting and challenging by all participants; it was always linked to their own teaching experiences
- The majority also explicitly expressed the similarities between intra and intercultural differences during interviews and welcomed the idea of melting the diversity agenda with the IC agenda in their own teams and curricula
- However a high degree of attention paid to issues of IC in the curriculum was not welcome to a minority, who also did not see a link between policies for intercultural learning and the policy concerning diversity.
- Published materials with exercises on IC models and theories were welcomed. They were only able to address cognitive learning, not accommodative learning, but had some benefits as a first exposure to the models. The fact that the materials could be taken over and used with students in their own practice, increased their value. A published self-assessment test meant to be a lead-in to a workshop on cross-cultural competence in teachers in higher education, proved to be useful in surfacing quite different responses in different interventions. One important aspect of the pre-produced test was that its own culturally biased language was an avenue of teacher learning.
- IC skills enhancement was linked to curriculum reform resulting in valuable group / collaborative learning in one intervention.
- There appeared to be a lack of alignment regarding the importance of IC in the wider HG community as well as among some of the participating teachers. Some members of the feedback committee saw the focus on IC as a kind of bottom up challenging of the status quo and were rather concerned that issues of intercultural challenges were out of place as serious topics for the TIP. Others, especially students who came as guests to sessions or were in the committee, disagreed. According to them, IC skills and awareness of their teachers were very important and needed to be stressed in the TIP.

  The best time to offer PD support for IC was not clear. Most teachers stated that they would not have signed up voluntarily for an IC intervention if offered before they started teaching international courses or modules. It was their actual work embedded experiences that triggered the willingness to participate in workshops or other interventions.

Discussion: Connecting informal learning embedded in the workplace, to intercultural competence.
How significant is intercultural learning and how significant should it be?

The importance of intercultural learning is shown in the interventions. It seems to be quite significant in the view of a majority of participants. This finding fits well with the significance of interculturalality for teachers implied in the lists of required skills and attitudes of Leask (2007) and Bennett (2011) given earlier. As we have seen, these lists represent a daunting learning challenge.

Indeed experts (Stier, 2002; De Vita & Case, 2003; Ottewill & MacFarlane; 2003; Caruana & Handstock, 2005; Leask, 2007b) argue strongly that lecturers, teachers and tutors need to apply principles of inclusion and the attitudinal changes required for this are great. This is supported by Bond et al, (2003) in a large survey across Canada. In their report they state that

> We asked what faculty members thought they and their colleagues needed to know to be able to internationalise their courses. The majority (84%) of the respondents agrees or strongly agrees that knowledge of students' needs, learning styles, and cross-cultural experiences is important *(Bond, Qian, & Huang, 2003, p.8)*.

However, the urgency and high demands of intercultural learning appear at odds with the literature of professional development on the continent, whose primary goal seems to be meeting the linguistic challenges (Airey, 2003, 2004, 2006, 2009; Hartiala, 2000; Wilkinson & Zegers, 2005). What can be said with some degree of safety is that courses or workshops focusing on intercultural awareness and skills are rather rare in non-English language higher education and when offered, seldom voluntarily taken up (Klaassen & de Graaf, 2001). In the interviews with TIP participants the point was also made that before having experienced intercultural issues with students most teachers probably would not have followed an IC course.

Students and other stakeholders at HG invited to sessions, interviewed or asked for feedback from the committee, generally agreed that being multicultural was in principle, a good thing for the HG or for their School. But not everyone wanted it to have a dominant place in the curriculum. Certain responses to the activities in the intercultural domain could be plotted along a continuum using the intercultural sensitivity levels of Bennett. A minority of views of participants could be said to fall into the Bennett 'minimisation' stage of difference while most were more open to the intercultural differences that came up during activities (1993; 2011). Only once during all the TIP iterations was there a rather reserved and cool response to inclusivity which seem to confirm the view of Mestenhauser & Ellingboe (1998). They state that many members of faculty at universities do not have sufficient international or intercultural experience to recognise the significance of

intercultural communication skills and international knowledge and thus do not link them to their teaching / learning agendas. This outcome for Dutch teachers is rather surprising, considering that Mestenhauser & Ellingboe were referring to university teachers in United States who may have never travelled abroad. The teachers at HG are cosmopolitan globe trotters by comparison.
Nevertheless, from 2006 to the present, the minimisation of intercultural competence can be detected in the plans for internationalisation of certain business and technical Schools at HG that do not include intercultural learning or communication as a priority in the curriculum.

Regarding the TIP participants, the point is not that most teachers were not interested in intercultural learning. On the contrary, it was shown that the interest level was invariably high. But the interest was mainly in hands-on materials they could use with their students. It can be said that prepared materials, such as exercises to practice the key components of the onionskin or other models, did provide the teachers with opportunities to understand these influential theories of culture. The learning though was mostly cognitive. This finding fits well with tacit rather than formal learning. In other words it was not the exposure to models and theories of intercultural awareness or communication that teachers found valuable it was providing these ideas in a format that teachers could use in the workplace that made them attractive. Eraut found that most workplace learning took place in this informal way rather than through formal professional development activities. For example, in investigating what embedded learning is and how often it occurs, Eraut's research results showed that 75% or more of engineers and nurses regarded their learning as a 'by-product of the work' (Eraut, 2007, table 4, p.15).

Moreover, intercultural learning is, as we have seen, not primarily cognitive but attitudinal. One must learn it by 'caring, acting and connecting' (De Vita & Case, 2003, p.388). This was reflected in the comments of the international student member of in the feedback committee. She urged the researcher not to give up in the face of resistance but to continue addressing difficult issues in the TIP because "It is easy to learn models like Hofstede or Bennett, but it is difficult to live what they say" and this struggle is the hard reality of international students as 'We live this every day."

De Vita and Case add that the type of learning is complex. It is doubtful if the TIP interventions offered authentic opportunities to a sufficient degree for practices to change in the contexts of the Schools. That does not have to mean that they had no value.

In fact, exposure is a logical first step when an area is not well understood as is the case with intercultural competences. It goes without saying that it needs to be complemented with other types of learning that are embedded in the workplace and that do stimulate commitment. Thus the exploration of various commercial materials was not as unsubstantial a result as it may appear to be at first sight, only the lack of follow up is regrettable. As a first step in an on-going professional quality enhancement trajectory, it is practical, cost efficient and relevant to the teachers. It is also potentially useful for their students and colleagues.

Two, the interventions did offer affordances, in that dialogue could take place through various kinds of interaction. A self-assessment test for teachers in higher education (of the intercultural competence based on Hofstede's dimensions (Annex pp. 49-52) was the most useful instrument in these interventions. Part of its appeal was that different groups could respond in quite different ways to it. It was even possible to transcend domains because the English of the test was itself culturally loaded, which the teachers recognised and in one case dealt with proactively. In terms of their personal attitudes and motivation in learning from and about intercultural interactions, including miscommunication, only a few 'one off' remarks confirmed what Paige (2005) had written, namely that teachers could be put off by the personal confrontation with their own ethnocentricity.

However, the personal range of views and some tools for using models etc. are only one side of the steep challenges of intercultural awareness. The other was shown in the feedback given on the PD activities in committee meetings, where it became clear that intercultural issues are contested in the wider community at HG. In situations where ethical dilemmas are common and where unambiguous codes of conduct are hard to formulate and harder to actively ensure, it is not surprising that resistance and marginalisation occur (Hermans, 2005).

In order to enhance the intercultural attitude at the university, it is not sufficient to provide professional development workshops or even a series of self-discovery tasks related to classroom interactions even though they will be welcomed and helpful, encouraging and stimulating for the teachers involved. In this area especially, there must an alignment between policy aims to instil an inter/intra-cultural 'mind-set' in every student by graduation. This can only occur when teams of teachers reinforce the desired attitudes with each other and with the students in the actual learning / teaching environment. The commitment to support long term professional development (including embedded practitioner research with community inquiry groups made up of teachers, administrators and management) is the way most often suggested in the literature to deal with ethnocentricity (see

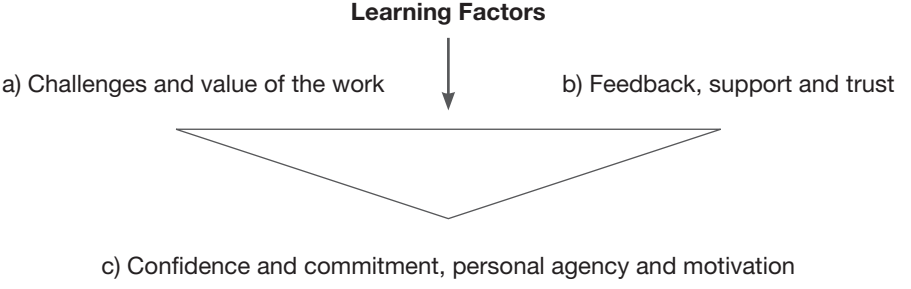
Caruana & Handstock 2005 for overview). No PD programme like the TIP can compare to such an enhancement approach.

One advantage of enhancement as direction is that the power relations and tensions between various actors in the university can be the object of study to understand and bring hidden biases to the surface. Also, the need for sufficient time to process tacit knowledge in moments when experienced staff members face a difficult change, such as the changes required for dealing with international dimensions and students, is highlighted. In such situations they are again in the position of novices. The resistance of a minority, noted above, reflects just such a situation. This kind of change:

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

All of the above makes a case for stronger embedding of professional development for intercultural competences.

Eraut's research on mid-career learning in professional work contexts showed a three way relationship between a) the nature of the work or task(s) b) relations to 'others' involved and c) certain personal qualities or characteristics. The learning factors' triangle has these three elements as does the context factor's triangle. The three elements are mirrored in the two triangles. When these *6* elements are present, learning has a good chance of happening.



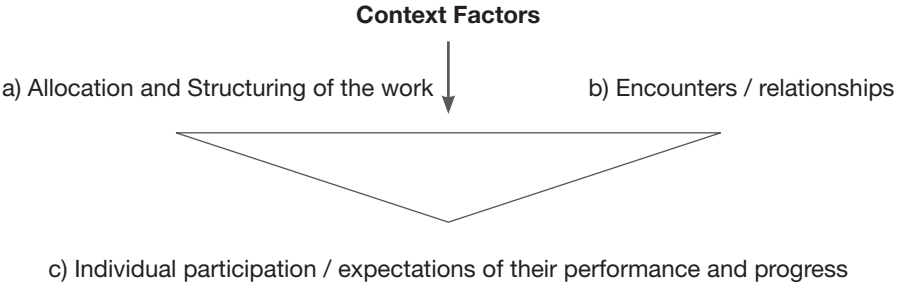


fig. 4. context & learning factors (Eraut, 2007, p.22).

The elements of each triangle are also not separate but affect each other. For example, the **learning** factor's triangle includes a) the degree of challenge and the value the work has from the perspective of the learner: Is it a new responsibility? Does it bring new pressures, etc.?
That degree of challenge in turn has a major influence on c) the personal characteristics of confidence, commitment, and motivation. However, especially mid-career professional need to feel confident not only in themselves but also in their colleagues and line managers, which is a reflection of b). Will they try to throw up obstacles out of jealousy or rivalry? As we have seen, intercultural competence is psychologically challenging and seems very difficult to achieve individually. Will teams of teachers be open to the changes in intercultural practices? In other words, is there b) trust and support for this cultural change?

Trust, feedback, and encounters as factors in intercultural learning
As the factors show, for learning to be successful, feedback from clients, colleagues and managers is as crucial as support. If international students are unhappy as some examples of critical incidents demonstrated, according to this model, confidence will be lacking. When the action learning project plans made by the teachers were stopped due to managerial lack of support, teachers' confidence in the TIP in themselves and internationalisation all took a knock. That is unfortunate as Eraut takes pains to make clear that by far the most important factor affecting learning at work is confidence. One reason for this is that it takes confidence to be able to be proactive and being proactive is essential in seeking out and committing oneself to learning opportunities.

Mid-career respondents to Eraut's surveys show that what the term 'confidence' means to most of them is self-efficacy (Bandura, 1995). This could explain why the retrospective presentations of critical intercultural incidents caused such intense

discussions. These teachers are normally highly confident but in these incidents their confidence was shaken and they were determined to figure out what had happened. Because they had come to trust each other, sharing dilemmas was a normal way of puzzling out a problem. The critical incidents were encounters that clearly mattered to them.

This determination to understand and therefore be more confident in dealing with international groups in future confirms the view of Trowler, Saunders, & Knight (2003), who also stress that confidence is the key to successful change processes. In the literature of teacher development, efficacy has been identified as a stabilizing factor (Connelly & Clandinin, 1999; O'Connor & Scanlon, 2006; Clark, 1997). Studies of academic identity (Henkel, 2000) and teacher thinking (see overview in Clark & Yinger, 1977) have made a similar point.

Practice theory for intercultural awareness and development

Teachers, social workers, counsellors, public health and public services workers of all kinds are working in the practice tradition. Practitioners in these traditions are engaged in developing and maintaining shared understandings that can be expressed in communication and dialogue within everyday life experiences. As their types of communication are becoming more varied, the ways they interact with these culturally different-others, and with tools, are part of this engagement (Blacker, 1995). Thus the modest tools offered during the various versions of the TIP fall into the 'practice theory' approach. Knowledge is more than simply being pragmatic, it is 'best characterised as 'action, participation, and transformation of individuals within specific social and cultural contexts' (Delandshere, 2002, p.1473 cited in Schwandt, 2005, p.328). It is not a phase of doing, followed by a retreat into deliberation. There is change in the practitioner's identity and 'way of being' as well as in the situation (Schwandt, 2005, p.328). In other words, practice learning can lead to 'mindset' and 'heartset' changes in teachers and it is an embedded learning approach.

Schwandt's (2005) work on practice theory is particularly helpful for advancing an insight into embedded learning for practitioners of education or health services who need to engage with their own and others' ethnocentricity. This area cannot be done through cognitive learning as we have seen. An embedded, practice approach to learning can offer opportunities to deal with these difficult issues.

As De Vita and Case were quoted earlier 'real tasks and emotions' must be involved in intercultural learning. Schwandt shows that practice as the focus of learning has long been marginalised because practices are seen as subjective, contingent and

thus not generalisable. It is hard to imagine anything more 'ungeneralisable' than intercultural communication no matter how many prescriptive 'do's and don't's ' for IC are published.

Schwandt's view is inspired by the Greek concepts of praxis and phronesis (see Kessels & Korthagen, *1996* for confirmation of the Greek roots of human resource development). They involve judgments which are 'engaged, embodied, and enacted' (Coulter & Wiens, 2002, cited in Schwandt, 2005, p.321). Embodied means that judgements regarding differences in for example gender or ethnicity are not ignored but taken into account. Knowledge as manifested in practice is 'contingent, socially enacted and constitutive of the self and others' (Schwandt, 2005, p.321).

The fact that the TIP participants had such a strong interest in the tools provided shows that they were attracted to the type of learning characteristic of the practice theory paradigm.

3.1.3 Domain no. 3 findings relating to issues of international teaching and discussion of transcendent learning

Summary of findings regarding pedagogic skills for teaching/learning/assessment

- The evidence from the interventions showed that of all the issues of teaching, experiences of assessment related to international students were most interesting. There were both positive stories, where teachers and students found each other, and stories where the interaction was not felicitously worked out. This linked the domain of international teaching to the domain of intercultural competence and to limitations in language proficiency.
  - How to align their courses better was a recurring focus
  - How to integrate international / intercultural dimensions into educational programmes was a repeated feature of the intervention. A stimulating factor in relation to teaching regimes was the growing awareness of what internationalisation of the curriculum means, in terms of definitions, rationales and strategies. These debates also stimulated subjective meaning making for the teachers themselves. There was not always consensus in the core programme interventions but more agreement was reached in the Schools contextualised interventions on the rationales at least

Discussion: How does a focus on transcendent learning suit improvement of pedagogic skills?

Because teachers had to face the challenge of new environmental demands they needed to accommodate to new ideas. After a study of learning theories, the most appropriate way of achieving that seemed to be through interaction with other participants and *with content* in a novel manner. In this way teachers would bring

different environmental realities as well as different content expertise with them. This meant that the learning required of them was not only interdisciplinary in an intellectual sense. Learners constructing meaning cognitively to acquire new content knowledge or new skills, use dispositions they have built up, called schemes, or sometimes, mental patterns. Different types of learning are triggered by the different ways that these patterns are structured. As the complexity of the mental schemes required to achieve successful learning increases, a typology of increasingly complex learning types can be identified. The typology of four levels that Illeris maintains is based on the work of Piaget.

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

Increasing complexity of learning tasks (Illeris, 2007, pp.42-47; 2003, p. 402)

The TIP programme, which moved iteratively back and forth across the domains, is characteristic of the third most complex level of the four, accommodative learning.

In the area of their teaching practices the TIP participants were encouraged to combine the content domains of English and Intercultural skills with questions of

pedagogy. In addition to cognitive challenges, that this involved, the TIP included a multiplicity of content which was complex enough to challenge teachers in 'social, linguistic and cultural acts' that characterise 'all learning across disciplines' (Crichton & Scarino, 2007, p.4.13).

Furthermore, accommodative learning is said to be transcendent by Illeris. Transcendence in this context is not to be interpreted in the sense of being supreme or in any spiritual sense. Transcendent learning occurs when patterns that are in place are broken down and contexts and domains are reconstructed so that new links can be fitted in both cognitively and psychologically, which requires a great deal of energy and engagement. 'In particular, breaking down or giving up an insight we have worked hard to gain and have become accustomed to building on' is ... 'a process characterised by anxiety, bewilderment and confusion and requires a certain amount of strength' (Nissen, cited in Illeris, 2007, p.43). This is a kind of 'complicated demolition' (loc. cit). Because the process is individual, the learning that goes with it will also be individualised.

The result is that learners, even highly specialised experts, who have studied the same field, will have different conceptual and emotive schemes.

According to Illeris (2003, p.402) in order to learn transcendently

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

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

Transcendence can be stimulated when the learning is conceptually difficult, counter-intuitive and 'troublesome'. This offers learners an opportunity to 'cross a conceptual threshold' that is irreversible (Meyer & Land, 2005). The stimulus can also come from a learning experience that is less confronting, but still has the potential to 'open up a new border across the 'lifeworld horizons' or to lead to a

new capacity to interpret what is seen (Killick, 2010, p.61). This can be a positive experience.

Meyer and Land describe several types of stimulus for transcendent learning. One is when something triggers learners to start to see the 'interrelatedness of concepts' they had previously considered to be separate. This emerging insight into interrelatedness is stimulated when 'bounded disciplinary knowledge' is crossed (Meyer & Land 2003, cited in Killick, 2010, p.62).

This type of stimulus was highly relevant for the current research, because is means transcendence is about the internal changes in the learner which are directly derived from the nature of what is being learnt. It was this understanding of what stimulates transcendence that influenced the choice of the multiple content domains.

The results of combining the domains within the teaching challenges of internationalisation produced several positive products and activities. A successful one combined a rhetorical structure called the "Situation/Problem/Solution" often referred to as ' sit/pro/sol'. This structure was applied to aid analysis in regard to intercultural sensitivity and pedagogic issues. Teachers in three interventions out of four identified structural elements of a case about a buddy programme written as a 'sit/pro/sol' text. They found errors in the English and speculated on the causes and effects of buddy programmes at HG. They linked this discussion to the role of teachers in helping in the orientation the international students.

The 'sit/pro/sol' structure and the case led to participants recalling their own intercultural experiences with international students. The teachers' enjoyment in discussing some rather difficult issues and also their confidence in being able to tackle such problems heuristically was apparent. At the end of their discussion of the case, (Annex, p. 40) the teachers of TIP 1 decided to give presentations concerning the reconstruction of a critical incident involving international teaching using a sit/pro/sol structure for their presentations. A five step instruction was offered as a guide:

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

The linguistic requirements for these steps were identified at the same time (Annex pp. 41 ,42). The presentations were quite successful as a medium for reflection on their intercultural competences and as an informal way of improving English skills.

Intercultural communication, especially in situations of assessment and coaching, were, as noted above, the strongest areas of concern in the domain of pedagogy expressed in interviews and during sessions. Many activities and materials in the TIP revealed the perspectives of teachers regarding the challenge of being sensitive to students from other cultures in the context of marking, evaluation and giving feedback generally. The problems with coaching which were discussed in sessions and interviews almost always revolved around the language and cultural aspects that became acute in situations of assessment.

This finding conforms to the literature of IoC. Much of the most helpful literature offered to universities teachers is focussed on how to teach international students with examples of good practices, guidelines and tips on specific aspects of concern such as making instructions more explicit or being more explicit about assessment.

Examples of learning activities which combined the three domains, revealed three distinct levels of interaction with international students around issues of assessment. One level was when teachers in all of the interventions except the Corporate Academy, reflected on some degree of failure to find out what was going on in project groups. Generally, they concluded that they were not well prepared to judge the outcome of such projects. The stories illustrate that it is difficult to distinguish when a problem is primarily cultural and when (or if) it is primarily linguistic. When a teacher in the predesign phase said that there were problems between African, Eastern European and Dutch students in a project group, she seemed to make little distinction between language and culture. First, the 'mediocrity' of their English was noted but issues of diligence were lumped into the same evaluation. Where did language stop and study attitude start as barriers to that group's success? That teacher was convinced that a coach needs to find out more about the process of such a group in order to understand the areas of discontent better. It was not clear to her how she could become that type of coach, one who can interpret this type of dynamic. The literature does not provide a great deal of help with coaching.

Another level of interaction was more decisive, although it took place after the assessment was done. This was when teachers encountered complaints about marking after a course. In the example given from TIP 1 one, the teacher took steps to revise her marking scheme after having consulted the students who were

unhappy. She was also puzzled by the difference in norms between students from the neighbouring country and was clearly finding it difficult to accept the non-Dutch norms. The study of intercultural values in Hofstede seemed to have helped to justify the flexibility she needed to show in marking her students in future.

The third level was captured in the in interview with one of the seven teachers from TIP 3A. He described how he took proactive steps by making sure the groups understood what he wanted from them well in advance, that is, by making expectation explicit. This is a practice strongly recommended in the literature (McCallum, 2004; Caroll & Ryan, 2005; Kurucz, 2006/2008). However this teacher had discovered it on his own. There was no help from the educational advisor embedded in his School involved in this discovery.

The concept of transcendence is not well known. Only Illeris and a few others have written about it. Still I believe this aspect of accommodative learning is highly appropriate to describe the kind of learning that took place through the interdisciplinary character of the TIP.

3.2 Which factors stimulated or constrained self-directed, transcendent and practicedengendered learning approaches for teacher professional learning for internationalisation?

(question answered **through** the interventions - Strand A)

The results showed how the concepts of self-directedness, embeddedness and transcendence stimulated or did not stimulate learning. A number of possible ways in which the TIP design stimulated learning were highlighted. It goes without saying that almost all activities and or materials were designed to combine content domains and learning approaches. Many examples of these materials and activities can be found in the Annex to the dissertation. Among them, problem solving in various forms, such as writing critical cases (Annex pp.*65-66*) or preparing and giving presentations revolving around the problems and puzzles teachers encountered in their assessment and coaching of project work (during iteration 1 and interventions 3a and 3b) were characteristic of a stimulating combination of transcendence and intercultural aspects of teaching, learning and assessment. When a teacher worked on filling in the matrix of language exponents (Annex, p.30) he or she was naturally combining English with pedagogic domains within an independent learning approach that was found to be rather effective by the few teachers who did attempt to fill it in. A constraint on this type of learning was the lack of incentives to work outside of the allotted hours given to attend the sessions in the first and second iterations. Also the lack of structure including sequencing of

the domain topics, deadlines for tasks and concrete products had the unintended outcome of reducing these positive effects on both independent and transcendent learning in these interventions.

In spite of those constraints, accommodative learning that was transcendent was also stimulated in all interventions through the engagement with contested issues, which triggered an unusual dialogic space. Examples of materials that had this stimulating effect were the multiple definitions of internationalisation especially the views of the central management, presentation of views of critical scholars like Mestenhauser, (Annex pp.71-75) and in iterations one and two, invited guests who presented challenging ideas. However in the first two iterations, the effects of this stimulating learning were constrained by one, the fact that the groups had no combined purpose making it necessary to keep up the dialogue until a consensus was achieved and two, a lack of familiarity with each other. As Eraut pointed out confidence in oneself and one's colleagues are crucial for learning among experienced professionals.

The execution of action learning or action research projects was designed to stimulate independence and practice-based learning at the same time. In the stand-alone interventions, that is iterations one and two; almost all of the projects could not be operationalised due to logistic restrictions. It was remarkable however that even making action research *plans* had some long-term effects. In one case, the materials developed to support such a project were used with students who then executed action research projects. In another case an aborted plan was taken up by colleagues in a later intervention, albeit in a truncated form. In fact in this way the action research materials acted as tools, which could be used to scaffold student learning.

The combining of independence and embeddedness in contextualised 'in Schools' interventions during iteration three took the form of joint tasks and/or synergetic problem solving that led to concrete changes in the curriculum such as the inclusion of intercultural skills into the project management module, or the joint production of a tool such as the self-assessment test for teachers based on Hofstede's dimensions. These outcomes were supported by the openness and honesty of the discussions that led to them, thus the outcomes were also stimulated by authenticity in communication made possible by the fact that participants worked in the same team and knew and clearly respected each other. Thus the form of self-directedness was not individual, but of teams directing the topics in interventions 3a and 3b. Independence in terms of self-study was also constrained in interventions 3a & b by the lack of time noted in the first iterations which makes this a strong negative

finding. The following figure visualises the interlocking factors described, none of which can be isolated. The constrainers, a-e, impinged on the stimulators, 1-5, but the stimulators softened the negative effects of the constrainers.

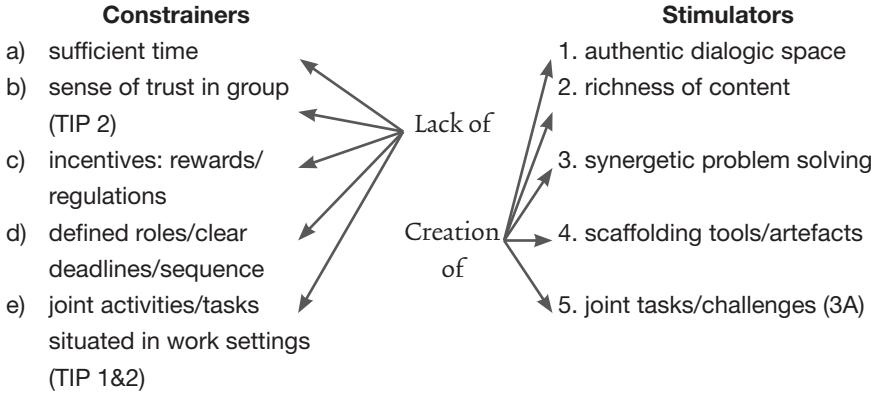


fig. 5. Factors contributing to stimulating and constraining accommodative, self-directed, embedded and transcendent learning during the TIP interventions

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4. OUTCOMES FOR PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT SUPPORT

Outcomes in relation to professional development

The design approach to this investigation led to improvements in the TIP across the iterations. The final iteration was the most successful. It was carried out at minimal cost, took only a limited time (4 sessions over a few months) and had sustainable effects. Certain conclusions may be drawn from this.

4.1 Success in adapting the core programme

The main reasons that the TIP adaptation of the redesigned core programme worked in the third and most effective iteration, were the relevance and quality of the contents, the sensitivity to and respect for the differences between participants which engendered mutual trust and flexibility and the strong connection to immediate workplace challenges. These are emergent properties, i.e. taking what is known about good professional development and making from them a new architecture.

A confirmation of this approach may be found in O'Neill's advice for novice developers who are starting a curriculum revision project together with university teaching teams (2010). One the basis of a survey of experienced developers, she created a model for a process for curriculum revision. This includes several factors or aspects that were used in TIP 3A. In her process model the start is a "dialogic approach of listening and questioning" which allows the developer to get a good grasp of the current needs and pressing issues. These include for example "Why change your curriculum / programme?" or "What do students need to know?" Stark's planning filters (2000) such as "Awareness of the drivers for change, Discipline of those developing the curriculum, Institutional strategy and Time-frame for change"(p. 68) were used by O'Neill. These filters were addressed first, while making the contextualised profile of the group and its most urgent challenges, and second, during the actual session plans and execution.

4.2 Professional Developer as change agent

The decision to move the TIP into the Schools as in TIP 3A, was not lightly made. A good deal of what had been developed was sacrificed to make sure that nothing except the most relevant materials and activities were brought before the three Groups. The aim of the TIP is not only to instrumentally improve PD design and approaches. As Blackwell and Blackmore repeatedly stress in their major study of strategic staff development in higher education, "staff expertise is the most important asset in a university; without it literally nothing can be achieved." (2003, p. 22). Staff development should serve many needs. According to Blackmore and Blackwell (2003) among them are "to ensure that all staff are fully prepared for their work, ...are able to develop to their full potential and that they work efficiently and effectively, both individually and collaboratively" (p. 22). This is no modest agenda. It demands no less than a developmental culture to achieve and maintain such aims .

Using PD as a way of stimulating change in the organisational culture was always a goal of the TIP. The level of challenge of this aim cannot be underestimated. Any kind of change in culture in a complex organisation is fraught with difficulties but when a lone actor aims to bring about any kind of meaningful change as part of a small, marginal "cottage industry" intervention like the TIP, it would be naïve to expect much success. Trowler, Saunders, & Knight (2003) had advice for any change – agent in this regard. They warn there is no unified culture throughout the university, but a configuration of multiple cultures. These different kinds and levels of cultures are manifested in different ways. It is vital to connect to these differences and to be prepared for surprises as members of the university will interpret the changes within their own level and type of cultural frame. Appendix 2 reflects on the role(s) of the professional developer in the change process.

4.3 Design principles as heuristics

After the analysis of the three iterations of the TIP in relation to what could be discovered, both *through* the interventions and *on* the interventions, it was possible to develop a heuristic for wider use.

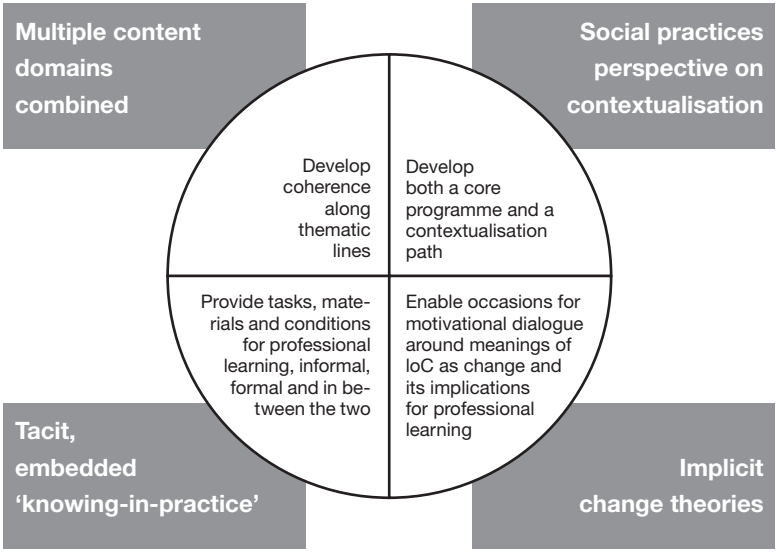

fig. 6. Principles for the design and implementation of sustainable, relevant and practical professional development interventions for enhancing internationalisation of the curriculum in multiple modes of delivery.

Details of the model

Multi-modal professional development for university teachers for internationalisation of the curriculum

Principle 1: Transcendence across context and content areas stimulates lasting learning in complex and ambiguous professional challenges in organisations undergoing rapid change. Accommodative and holistic learning is triggered by challenges and cognitive input that transcend disciplines and fields of expertise.

Heuristic: Develop coherence along thematic lines

Professionals who are engaged in internationalisation can be supported by combining areas that feed into each other such as language improvement for academic exchange with students and colleagues, opportunities for exploring individual and group requirements for better intercultural awareness and communication, materials and activities to strengthen professionals' in carrying out their teaching/learning/assessment tasks. It is helpful to have a theme that is meaningful and open to multiple stances. Such a theme can provide an overarching perspective. Involvement of experts to develop quality materials in subject areas can be a safeguard against a planning or reform bias. Expect the area of intercultural interaction to have high priority and prepare for flexible approaches to engage with it so that synergies with other domains are a logical imperative.

Principle 2: The social production of knowledge and expertise demands that professional development in the workplace be contextualised to take account of social practices. Not only what motivates and what content is required need to be identified, but also when learning takes place, with whom it does, where it happens and what the learner is actually busy doing, what kinds of actions, tasks, incentives, interactions etc. motivational, relational, contextual/organisational and content factors need to be taken into account There are constant, and complex interactions between individuals and groups and their environment. Contexts factors that can enable or hinder learning are coming to be understood but not how those factors differ from one context to the next.

Heuristic: Develop both a core programme and a contextualisation path

Steps A – F can serve as a guide for a contextualisation procedure (for flow chart see end note)

a) *Identify, and where needed, develop the generic core intervention programme.*
   Create a template that can generate either versions of a stand-alone programme or a mould from which parts can be selected and used in various local formats. (see accompanying volume for examples).

b) *Profile the local contexts for each practitioner group. Predict the key potential obstacles and facilitating factors in them.*
   Think of factors such as (disciplinary) discourse, practices, interactions, patterns of power, incentives, tasks, and position in chronology of the implementation of internationalisation, etc. In making the profiles, interviews are conducted and primary sources consulted.

c) *Predict the possible path of implementation.*
   Try to imagine from the perspective of the people working in this context how they might 'bend' the programme's path to suit their needs and interests. How would they refract it in order to be more congruent with their perceived needs and interests? In each case ask what both individuals and groups might emphasise and/or downplay if it was in their power to bend the programme to their taste. When dealing with an established group, get a sense of that group's interrelations if possible. Identify incentives using what you have understood of the group's main aspirations (and perhaps fears) if it is a development team or group.

d) *Identify concrete elements in the generic programme that can be changed to achieve a better fit.*
   In this step, consultative meetings can be arranged in which the proposed adaptations are shown to the team leaders and/or members of the teams for feedback. Ensure involvement and support of participants especially from meso levels. Expect intercultural learning to be the most challenging and potentially the most rewarding domain, use terminology, models etc. taken from fields / disciplines of learners.

e) *Collect a platform of ideas, design an adapted intervention, making it as finished a product as you can.*

This can mean working in ways to be 'unmanaged' in homeopoietic[1] management – creating something that has integrity but is open and flexible, above all it is a wise judgement call on the basis of a complex and difficult reality, not a clear solution but an intuitive attempt. Think of tools and materials that will build confidence. Calculate the efforts in time and energy it may cost to deal with tough challenges.

Set up an observation schedule and a range of feedback instruments for formative evaluation (Pragmatic design paradigm), plan feedback moments, expect to revise / adjust the intervention as planned.

f) *Behave as a knowledgeable guest.*

Do not forget the importance of social interaction and incorporate social events when possible during the interventions, Also keep in mind the importance of yourself as model of the 'open mindset' curious about inter and intra cultural differences. Show interest and respect. Be aware of the local situation in as many of its facets as you can; beginning with what you know from the profile. Keep a log, adding observations to gain an ever deepening understanding.

1 Poiesis means 'a making, creation' or 'creative production'; homeopoiesis refers to designing with others (homeo- means 'like or similar').

Principle 3 Learning is constituted and reconstituted in practice. Learning that is contingent, engaged, encultured and embodied has implications for professional development. For communities; it is purposeful, shared interactions that use tools and most of all language which members use to 'move' each other. This learning cannot be divorced from ethical dilemmas, when practitioners must decide on complex issues where no one theory or enshrined practice will deal adequately with the competing and contradictory facets of facts on the ground.

Heuristic: Provide tasks, materials and conditions for professional learning, informal, formal and in between the two.

This focus is facilitated by workshops and other types of relevant input sessions not being offered alone but always intertwined with support (through tailored consultation and feedback) for authentic workplace tasks with colleagues and/or students such as: course designs, assessment procedures and materials, events such as a study day or seminar, media products, reports of practice-oriented research, with reflection and analysis incorporated into the products.

Provide and guide in the use of tools for problem solving, exchange of experiences, group and individual reflection, guidelines for practice oriented research projects, middle and long term planning with multiple iteration or cycles in trajectories; mind-mapping tools, etc. Power relations, gender relations, inter and intra cultural relations are significant stimuli for learning and resistance to learning. Provide trigger questions for capturing critical incidents and guides for preparing ways to reflect on them such as intervention sessions.

Provide task variety through a community site with forums for pairs, or groups, portfolio templates with blended or online learning tasks, a data base of valuable articles with language and/or discussion tasks included, links to useful websites etc.
Develop tasks that integrate different areas such as pedagogic insights, intercultural communication skills and language, focus on early evaluation and feedback rather than no evaluation or summative evaluations.

Principle 4: Effective learning for internationalisation requires personal and professional commitment on the part of individuals and groups. This necessarily involves all parties in what the changes mean to them and to significant others. Both good policies (top down) and good local practices (bottom up) are engaged.

Heuristic: Enable occasions for motivational dialogue around meanings of IoC as change and its implications for professional learning

Building on the perspectives surfaced through the overarching theme, ensure space for challenging own practices and policies in group prospective and retrospective reflection. Consider what theories of change are influential in local contexts. The contours of several change theories can be identified and alignment found between them (for example following practice based exemplars; giving rhetorical support; pushing the values of professionalism). As PD provider, make your own 'action or change theory' clear, enable others, including change agents like managers, to articulate theirs. Connect the change theories for IoC to objectives for participation in professional development activities. Communicate, communicate, communicate…do not avoid the tough issues, have respect for resisters and for different teaching constructs. Build trust and commitment. If possible conduct intake conversations and an introductory / informative session so that teachers can decide whether they want to participate on the basis of having a good grasp on what is involved.

Trust building dialogues engage professionals in constructing what IoC means for them, at their own stage of development, instead of feeding in a pre-set message or offering best practices as commodities for consumption. There are opportunities to work on rethinking individual or team strategies, designs and plans for internationalisation, when relevant, top down polices such as curriculum requirements and graduate learning outcomes, are included in this process which flows over into identifying goals and tasks for professional development to address them. If inspiring practices can be presented in an interactive way they should be welcomed. Build confidence by stressing what the teachers already know and what they can realistically learn by doing rather than stressing gaps or deficiencies.

In making decisions about the form, content and modes of delivery of a professional development intervention for internationalisation this flow chart, derived from the model, can help the developer.

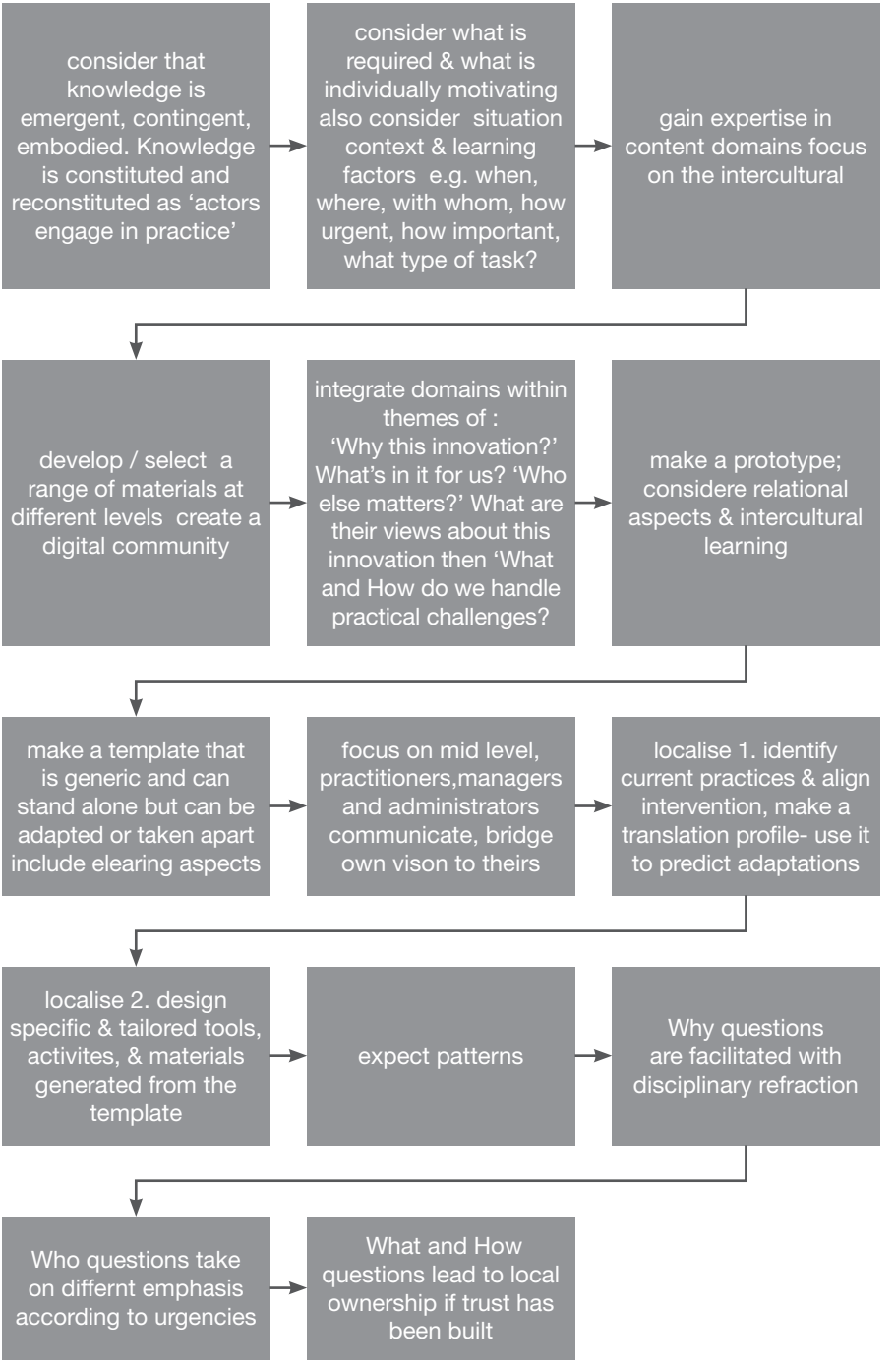

fig. 7. Heuristic design shorthand as flow chart

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5. SUMMARY & RECENT ACTIVITIES

Summing up

Selecting what is most interesting from an educational design study for a wider reading public has been a challenge. The ability to keep improving the TIP based on interweaving concepts from experts from several disciplines was complex but illuminating for the researcher. The question is, how important is it to the reader at whom this monograph is aimed? Also, the opportunity to suggest more than one explanation and more than one solution during each intervention is one of the strengths of this research approach. However, taking the reader along on the weaving in and out and the bumps along the way is another matter altogether. The story of each intervention produced a wealth of data, linked to design propositions made and those readers who enjoy such detail are referred to the actual study. In this condensed version I decided to severely shorten the narratives of the interventions (and even drop one altogether) because it seemed that no matter how enlightening the TIP tale is for fellow design-researchers it simply requires too much for those who after all, are most interested in the results.

Instead I have presented a selection of sources on the various challenges that teachers face and that managers need to understand. These challenges led to clustering three content domains rather than one or two, such as the earlier Classroom English courses had done. This was the first research perspective (Strand A). The results have been offered for English, Intercultural and Pedagogic skills' enhancement for teachers and approaches to support their learning. Notable was the difference in the degree of experience or engagement with this kind of teaching and with mixed Dutch and international student groups. Those who only teach a module once a year were primarily interested in English enhancement, while the coordinators of internationalisation of the curricula wanted to explore the intercultural and pedagogic aspects more deeply.

Further, literature study also resulted in the second research perspective of two possible modes of delivery for professional development interventions:

A) a 'stand- alone' mode with teachers from different Schools and different levels of involvement with international educational programmes and

B) an 'embedded' mode where the intervention was linked to an on-going curriculum reform project (Strand B). The results from these two modes of delivery are arguably important for management and professional developers because those results showed the strengths and limitations of each (see comparative table, Appendix 3). These characteristics can help them in making decisions when they are planning what kind of support they want to provide to teachers.

Looking forward: recent developments

Development 1 aimed at supporting teachers

As the TIP results showed, the lack of a rewards to work towards was demotivating for individual teachers. Also, arranging a set programme intensive and long enough to effect sustainable changes in teaching behaviours was unrealistic in terms of resources. Partly in response to these findings a professionalization route that will lead to an advanced qualification as 'University teacher competent in international programmes' has been developed selectively incorporating results from the TIP research.

The self-study course uses a range of competences already created in the form of a matrix, the ICM or International Competence Matrix (Werf, 2010; 2011). This matrix was officially recognised by the governing board of Hanze UAS as a university wide instrument in 2012.

Several insights from the research have influenced the approach to a new professionalisation track. Instead of offering a fixed programme, the ICM matrix, together with TIP products, form the online learning route on which a mainly self-directed 'course' is based. Can do statements, rationales and a number of learning outcomes have been identified in relation to the competences, then suitable and appropriate skills, attitude and knowledge enhancing assignments have been developed. Teachers can make choices about which of these is most suitable for them. They can also argue for alternative assignments to meet the same learning outcomes. This increases their independence and ensures locally contextualised learning spaces. Assignments are varied in type; from embedded, experience based and quite informal to stand-alone and quite formal assignments. It is possible to carry these out individually, with students or with colleagues. Assignments stimulate transcendence by combining domains whenever possible. Some material developed for the research provided in the Annex was used. In order to validate the qualification, a portfolio approach to evaluation, which includes a wide variety of products, has been made. Some of these 'products' are self-and or peer-assessed. The entire portfolio will be evaluated by the developers who are also mentors.

Not only teachers can follow the advances internationalisation professional track. Each competence also includes assignments that coordinators of internationalisation projects can do. Participants will be substantially supported by these flexible routes and the qualification awarded. A pilot scheme is set to start in February 2015.

Development 2 aimed at supporting PDers (educational advisors)

Another recent development is the current creation of a toolkit for educational advisors. (This incorporates results from Strand B, regarding PD provision.) This

toolkit includes 'hands on' materials and more conceptually based background articles. The toolkit will be offered to the advisors to support them in the facilitation of the process of internationalisation starting with a pilot in February 2015. It has three main sections. One provides materials and tools to help advisers in stimulating discussion on policies and project plans at programme level. The second section offers materials that advisers can use to facilitate curriculum developers in integrating international and intercultural dimensions into their curricula. Some of these are quite straightforward tips, suggestions and examples of good practices. Others are more provocative. They should trigger debate on the direction of internationalisation.

Section three offers more detailed materials to support teachers in the three areas covered in this research, that is tips, suggestions and advice on English, Intercultural and pedagogic issues. The toolkit will itself be a learning instrument for the advisors. The advisors will exchange their experiences with it and add their own ideas and materials to it, ensuring local relevance. In this way a collaborative, dialogic process will be started that can be sustained over a long period that adds to the advisors' capacity to enhance the capacities of teachers.

Finally, these activities can make use of the various 'products' of the research including the TIP template (pp. 39/40); the contextualisation tool (pp.41/42); the heuristic (pp. 63/68); and the Annex materials. These allow developers, teachers and managers to meet practical needs. They incorporate certain principles first identified for successful commercial products by Braun, adapted for curriculum development by Kleiman (2009). The TIP is · innovative · displays a logical structure· is honest (future developers can learn from the mistakes as well as successes) · is consistent (based overarching concepts) and finally, after the first overly complicated prototypes · is minimal in design.

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6. APPENDICES

Appendix 1: Example of middle out approach to internationalisation

The example of a university – wide strategy for innovation related to internationalisation, that uses a change theory from the middle out, is described by Colet & Durand, (2005). It tells of the policies of the University of Geneva. The Deans of the faculties and the Rector's office of this university were already deeply involved in the changeover to the Bachelor / Master structure before they started the middle out approach.

At an early point in this process, they considered and then decided not to use a quick fix method of cutting up the existing curricula into two and thus administratively meeting the Bologna requirements for two levels of degree programmes. Instead they decided to leverage this change into a major university wide reform. There was a development team called 'FormEv'. FormEv was made up of 5 professional developers. Their expertise was recognised by the Rector and Deans and they were asked to lead the project. The FormEv team used the concepts of Knight & Trowler (2001) as a guiding approach. First, they recognised the departments as 'the true sites of educational development' (2005, p. 171). Following the ideas of Trigwell et al (2000) as well as Trowler et al (2003) they spent time on building up working groups in these departments, also connecting them to immediate line management. Nurturing a positive attitude became the next goal. They used ideas from Knight (2002) and others (Martin, 1999; James 1997) to establish a distributed model of academic development using communities of practice.

A commission was formed with representatives from every department. This commission was chaired by the Vice-Rector of Teaching. It met every month, with small groups meeting in between times to carry out studies that they could report on at the next monthly meeting. Issues such as defining learning outcomes were covered but also teaching practices and environments that stimulate 'higher-order learning competencies' (p. 171). The group also worked on and finally produced a guide book for all teaching staff to help with internationalising departments' curricula. This commission resembles an action research group.

Also significant was the forming of working groups of non-teaching staff such as financial & legal experts to deal with the upcoming problems of logistics. his is the only example I have found of a professional development team that worked with non-teaching and teaching staff alike as part of the same educational project.

In the past at the University of Geneva, curriculum development was seen by teaching staff rather as it was in the Netherlands. It was a task that had to be done

"with as little effort as possible, so as not to interfere with research activities" (loc cit. p 172). Now, it took on a whole new vision, aligned to the university's innovation. Teachers who were revising or creating courses for the Ba/Ma were invited to submit a draft to the FormEv group. Because FormEv was authorised to report to the Rector on the quality of the new plans, teachers who were revising their courses or whole curricula became eager to work with the educational development team. It had to hire new members who worked directly with Dean's offices. The aim was to create a continuous dialogue across each faculty. Also seminars were organised and the FormEv team were invited to senior staff meetings to explain and inform professors about progress.

This rather expansive description is given to show that it is possible to connect internationalisation to staff development in a way that aims to change the entire institution based on a theoretically driven vision. Colet and Durand had no illusions. It was going to take many years and new hindrances would appear. For example inertia which sets in because the formal approval process for new curricula takes too long. Also participation by teaching staff is far from unanimous. There is, as Trowler et al predict (2003), naturally resistance. So the reform has moments of stagnation interspersed with moments of advancement. One thing that the developers have become aware of is the high levels of knowledge that are expected of them beyond 'formal training periods (Beaty, 1998; Shrives, 2003; Fielden, 1998; Webb, 1996)' (loc cit. p. 173).

In future, they planned to move towards collective counselling of teaching staff rather than individual counselling since making the new curricula is often a matter of department or faculty level change. These developers were worried about the Model B of Piper, that is, getting too cosy with management and losing their close ties to education. But they decided to use an integrated model of change. In doing so, they changed themselves. First their understanding of change processes grew and their view of quality assurance led them to focus less on promoting teaching development to supporting academic leadership (loc cit. p. 175). Second, their theoretical frame of reference expanded. This conceptual background had to be well enough defined for them to be able to articulate it to others, integrate it with institutional realties and make it work for positive change. (p.177).

They learnt that quality enhancement depends on the context, that is, the setting of the institution which had to include commitment by senior members of teaching staff and a clear quality policy. This example shows how many conditions are required for an innovative internationalisation project.

Appendix 2: Multiple roles of professional developer

The systematic adaptation approach

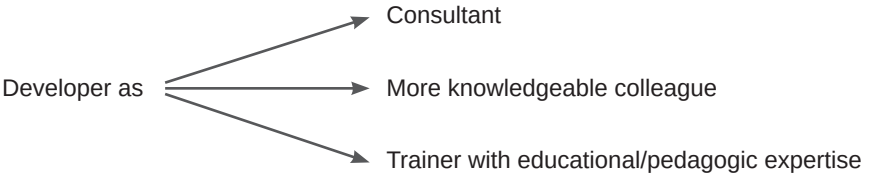
Under the social practice model of change and change management, success is defined as outcomes on the ground which best serve the needs of both planners and implementers (Trowler et al., 2002, p. 19). There are naturally many differences in the three interventions planned and delivered based on the TIP.

However, the investigation demonstrated that in the third intervention it was possible, on the basis of a thorough profiling of local learning environments, to plan changes to the TIP design that stimulated complex and meaningful learning. This served the need of the PD developer to have a wider pallet of tools, activities, and materials but also of attitudes and skills. The concrete implementation of products and actions made by the participants as well as the absence of any negative feedback point to at least a degree of successful outcomes from their perspective.

The growing understanding of the complexity of the PD developers role, or rather roles mentioned at the start of this summary are interesting to highlight here at its conclusion.

Roles of a professional developer

More than 30 years ago , Boud & McDonald (1981) identified three roles in higher education staff development in a small booklet on consultancy. They are:



Role 1: Consultant with a sensitive approach to needs analysis

In some ways the systematic adaptation approach resonates with the consultancy cycle. Shrives & Bond (2003) described this cycle in detail in relation to higher education professional development. In the consultancy cycle five of the seven phases take place before delivery. They are: gaining entry, contracting, collecting data, making sense of the data, and generating options. The in-depth focus on data gathering and analysis are similar to the systematic approach.

The pre-delivery phase of data gathering also has some overlap with Wisker's (2003) thorough approach to needs' analysis. Wisker was certainly positioning herself as a consultant in her approach. One of Wisker's concerns with conventional approaches to needs analysis is familiar to PD developers involved in internationalisation, namely that teachers are viewed as deficient, not having the competencies to carry out internationalisation adequately. Wisker noted that professional development trajectories that work out of a deficit model are never liked. She says that "academics are notorious in their distaste for and rejection of this kind of industrial and commercial problem – solving model" (p. 27). She is convinced that identifying and planning to meet needs must be carried out in negotiation, that is in consultation with the teachers. To get development activities started that will have long term impacts on practice beyond the intervention itself, the needs analysis must be tailored. "This goes far beyond... the identification of a problem. "(30).

Problem based trajectories are typical of professional development support in the Netherlands. In fact, as noted in relation to the challenges for teachers in internationalisation, most, if not all, of the Dutch PD programmes often have a deficiency orientation (Vinke, 1995; Klaassen, 2000; 2001).

Role 2. PD provider / Trainer with pedagogic expertise

In an interesting study of a collaborative training given by a teacher of engineering and an academic developer McAlpine and Harris (1999) showed that the academic developers explicit knowledge of subject aspects of engineering and the engineer's explicit pedagogic knowledge both grew strongly. This is not surprising but the engineer's tacit pedagogic knowledge, that is his knowledge of teaching engineer in its own disciplinary terms also grew. This shows that interaction between the PD (in this case termed ''academic') developer had a positive influence not only as experts in teaching methods but also in disciplinary epistemology. They concluded that what they were doing was cultural boundary crossing.

On the other hand, it is important to note there that there is a temptation for PD providers to overplay this aspect of their composite role. When the PD developers

are focussed on improvements based on their conviction of their expertise, that very conviction can lead to an insensitive 'improvement' which has contributed to the poor reputation of PD courses. (Cannon., 1983).

Role 3: Colleague who has expertise in a certain area

The TIP investigation has shown that having an area of expertise such as intercultural communication was extremely important during the three interventions. Teachers clearly appreciated having sessions from someone who they perceived as expert. Further, my being a teacher of English made me respected, since English language proficiency was highly valued and aspired to. The importance of being able to enthuse and energise cannot be underestimated. Teachers are learners and like all learners they respond well to passion, dedication and inspiration when engaging with a novel and challenging area. Perhaps the multitasking required is best described by Champion et al. (1990). They see the provider of professional development as an extremely versatile and skilled colleague who can take on if needed, nine different roles: Partner, Modeler, Teacher, Hands on expert, Technical advisor, Facilitator, Counsellor, Reflective Observer and Coach.

Appendix 3: The relative strengths and limitations of stand-alone/ non-contextualised and embedded/contextualised interventions in regard to the criteria of viability, legitimacy and efficacy?

	Stand-alone delivery based on a course map	Contextualised - In Schools delivery using elements from a course map
Potential strengths based on the final course map	can be coherent and multi layered can be made longer or shorter, can be credit bearing or not can run parallel with individual learning projects but will be more expensive in that case can be adapted at low cost in time and effort and still provide challenging and valuable learning opportunities focus on authentic learning using range of approaches	can be coherent and multi layered can be made longer or shorter, can be credit bearing or not can run parallel with individual learning projects can stimulate bilateral professional development focus on authentic learning using range of approaches
Demonstrated Strengths	brought people together who had never had contact before with highly different views which gave a wider insight into the topics rich content and wide choice benefitted those who had a strong motivation and own learning goals	knowing-in-doing emerged in team activities that have direct and lasting effects on a large body of students the language of the discipline helped to leverage the work place into a learning space adapted at a reasonably low cost when a protocol was used skilfully worked catalytically with management innovations projects or quality enhancement policies took advantages of existing team strengths for group dynamic

	Stand-alone delivery based on a course map	Contextualised - In Schools delivery using elements from a course map
Encountered Limitation or challenges	no long term relationships caused lack of commitment and made extension / project work difficult guest speakers or events were very hard to arrange due to lack of funds was difficult to link in work practices large gaps between members' goals due to differences in work functions and backgrounds no guaranteed workplace support from line management almost always individual	needed wide knowledge and a strong database to build upon required high skills of consultation / facilitation by provider - limited control of direction needed to take the existing culture into account

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