Internationalized campuses just don't happen: intercultural learning requires facilitation and institutional support

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Introduction

Globalization affects Finland’s place in the global economy, and has changed its companies’ operations internationally and its discourse on multiculturalism within society. This latter trend is expected to increase since Finland needs a future influx of foreign workers to replace its retiring native workers (Lassila 2003; Ministry of Labour 2007). One source of new workers could be international students trained in Finnish higher education institutions (HEIs) who will remain in Finland for their professional careers.

Internationalizing higher education systems is one means to address globalization challenges (van der Wende 2007). Over the past decade, Finland’s Ministry of Education and Culture (MoE) has published...
papers and directives to guide the internationalization of education (e.g. MoE 2001, 2007). Every Finnish HEI has an internationalization strategy and actively seeks international collaboration, increased intake of international degree students, expanded exchange programs, and higher international profiles (Crawford 2008). But few of these programs attend to the Finnish students and HEI personnel who will never live or study abroad.

The MoE’s *Strategy for the Internationalisation of Higher Education Institutions in Finland 2009–2015* (2009b) presents strategies and measures for internationalizing higher education. The focus of this paper is on the first strategy, which envisions a “genuinely international higher education community” (MoE 2009b, 26–31) in which all students, staff, and researchers can develop the competencies needed to participate in the international arena. Mobility (outbound and inbound) of students, teachers, and researchers is a key component of this strategy. The increased number of non-Finnish individuals is intended to “internationalize at home”; the process involves “high-quality study modules” integrated into all degree programs, completed within personal study plans, and achieved through inter-university cooperation, the use of e-learning, and the presence of non-Finnish teachers and a multicultural student body (8% by 2015). The individual HEIs, faculties, and departments are responsible for operationalizing these visions within the context of their institutional strategies.

The report rightly identifies several important deficits in the current internationalization status of its tertiary system (of specific interest here are the decline in the mobility of students, teachers and researchers in the past decade; that HEIs have very few non-Finnish teachers and researchers; and non-Finns’ competence and cultural know-how have not been used as resources to enrich the Finnish society, businesses, and higher education system), and multiple challenges to Finland in a globalized environment that higher education can address. The MoE ties these internationalization strategies to the recent reform in the Universities Act (MoE 2009a) that gives each university more economic and administrative freedom while requiring them to specialize (e.g. Carlsson et al. 2009), with the expectation that such reforms and other government policies will
result in these universities drawing additional income through national and international funding sources for research. The combination of these policies is expected to make Finland more innovative and internationally competitive, and a more integrated society. Yet an additional stressor can be found within the Finnish higher education arena that can affect an institution’s or department’s desire or ability to invest in internationalization strategies: the call from several quarters that the current number of universities (16) and polytechnics (known also as universities of applied sciences, UASs; 25) should be significantly reduced (e.g. Hautamäki 2010; MoE 2009c; YLE 2010).

Therefore, we explore three points in this paper. First, the internationalization at home (IaH) literature provides considerable research regarding practices that may have significant implications for Finland. Second, we summarize the results of two studies conducted at Finnish HEIs that explored intergroup interaction through IaH-like programs. Finally, we consider some ideas on what can be implemented to improve the likelihood that IaH could provide the outcomes that the MoE envisions for the students, and, ultimately, the society and economy of Finland.

**Internationalization of higher education institutions**

Universities worldwide face similar challenges: continual search for funding; competition for quality students, teachers, and researchers; program and curricular restructuring (Cooper 2007); and striving for quality, often in the form of international recognition. Internationalization has become one means to accomplish these various goals.

Although considerable literature on internationalization in higher education has focused on mobility, other topics, including IaH, are gaining attention. While some universities use the term *internationalization at home* in their plans, their descriptions rarely indicate how these programs or activities measurably impact their at-home students' intercultural/international development. However, educators generally accept that higher education is enriched by inbound culturally diverse students (Barker 2000; Welch 2002) and domestic ethnic minorities and
immigrants (Nilsson 2003; Stier 2003). Some of IaH’s core components include

- dimensions of international/intercultural education integrated within teaching and learning
- extracurricular activities that further internationalization and intercultural interaction
- sustained interaction between students and faculty of diverse cultural backgrounds, and
- a closer relationship between the university community and local ethnic minorities (Wächter 2003).

Additional components include cross-border or domestic programs, international research networks, forms of transnational education, language learning and/or lingua franca use, curriculum development, and uses of ICTs (Crawford 2008; de Jong & Teekens 2003; Larsen et al. 2004).

The IaH emphasis is on the intercultural learning that arises when students and teachers (and by teachers we mean the broadest concept of the educator’s work, including but not limited to classroom instruction, advising, supervising, and research) from dissimilar cultural and educational backgrounds interact on campus. Said differently, an international education focuses on the mobility dimension and international perspective on knowledge and events, while an intercultural education is created through a variety of programs and interaction opportunities to which both domestic and foreign-born persons contribute and from which both benefit (Crichton et al. 2004). While Nilsson (2003) considered IaH everything except mobility, we believe that outbound mobility can play a crucial role in IaH if programs are designed to systematically integrate the knowledge, experiences, perspectives, and skills gained by students and teachers while abroad (e.g. Savicki 2008; Teichler 2004; Teichler & Jahr 2001) for the benefit of their at-home peers. According to Lestinen and Riitaoja (2007), this is not happening effectively. Mobility research emphasizes that, minimally, adequate pre-departure preparation and post-return debriefing improves the likelihood of positive outcomes; recent research suggests that ongoing facilitation while the students
are abroad further enhances the developmental benefits (Savicki 2008; Vande Berg & Paige 2009).

Most internationalization strategies that include IaH elements, including that of the Finnish MoE (2009b), seem to presume that simply having international students on campus results in internationalization. The mingling of host students with international students can result in a rich and productive learning process (Ryan & Hellmundt 2003; Ward 2001), causing increased awareness of cultural diversity, development of an international perspective on and recognition of the non-neutral nature of knowledge, as well as various opportunities for cognitive and affective learning (Crichton et al. 2004; Messman & Jones-Corley 2001; Soeters & Recht 2001; Volet 2004; Ward 2001).

However, in the sparse research on host students, one point is consistent: the lack of integration between host and international students. These limited, often superficial, interactions hinder opportunities for growth in both groups (Brown 2009; De Vita 2005; Dunstan 2003; Eisenchlas & Trevaskes 2007; Peacock & Harrison 2008; Sánchez 2004; Ward et al. 2005). Research suggests several potential reasons why intergroup interaction is infrequent, thus challenging IaH implementation. Host students may feel negative emotions (anxiety, discomfort, frustration, irritation) over intergroup contact because of the innate cultural differences, and expect complicated interaction (Peacock & Harrison 2008; Sánchez 2004), although not all studies confirm this (e.g. Crawford 2008; Ward et al. 2005). Host students may fear they might inadvertently offend, embarrass, or stereotype, or that they will be misunderstood or disliked (Dunne 2009; Peacock & Harrison 2008). Thus, the “safer” route is simply avoiding intercultural contact (Dunne 2009). Moreover, the lack of intergroup socialization can impede in-class interaction, create resentment, reinforce stereotypes and negative attitudes (Eisenchlas & Trevaskes 2007), and undermine the very purpose for bringing the two groups together. Thus, an internationalized curriculum incorporates multifaceted means to address and support the full range of cognitive and, in particular, affective components of intercultural growth (Eisenchlas & Trevaskes 2007).

Language issues also present significant stumbling blocks to intergroup interaction. The need to adapt one’s language style, or to decipher
embedded identity issues or cultural values, creates negative emotions (Brown 2009; Dunne 2009; Peacock & Harrison 2008). The Finnish context is further complicated because host students and most internationals speak English as second-language users. The linguistic ability of any student group, including Finnish students, can vary; many understandably lack confidence (Taajamo 2003), have difficulty with complex syntax or vocabulary (see Kim 2001), or find communicating in a second language emotionally or cognitively draining (Crawford 2008). The traditional Finnish communication style might also impact interaction, including which topics are suitable for conversations (Carbaugh 1995), the use of silence (Sajavaara & Lehtonen 1997), and perceptions of social distance (Tulviste et al. 2003).

Other barriers involve lack of commonality on interests or practices, differences in age, or unequal familiarity with popular culture or sports (Dunne 2009; Peacock & Harrison 2008). Preferences in socialization spheres (e.g., public versus private) create situations in which the different groups would not even have opportunity to socially interact (Dunne 2009). The literature also suggests that often the multicultural classroom, a natural venue for intercultural interaction and internationalized processes and content (Chang 2006; Crichton et al. 2004; Hurtado 2003; Ryan & Hellmundt 2003; Soeters & Recht 2001), is often ineffectively managed, lacks specific cross-cultural learning goals and measurable outcomes, and misses opportunities to employ intercultural collaborative work groups or encourage intergroup interaction (Peacock & Harrison 2008; Ward 2001). Left to their own choices, students will naturally gravitate toward work groups comprising mostly host members or international members, even though students generally see value in diverse perspectives on group tasks (Eisencllas & Trevaskes 2007; Peacock & Harrison 2008; Summers & Volet 2008). De Vita (2005) and Leask (2009) note that for intergroup collaborative work to be meaningful to students’ intercultural learning, it needs sufficient preparation, guidance, management, and support.

The role of the teacher on the internationalized campus, and particularly in the classroom, cannot be underestimated. Teachers, the vital link in students’ internationalization (Cushner 2008), need to actively assist students in managing conflict, addressing difference, and reflecting on
experiences so that positive outcomes are possible, even from difficult situations (Hurtado et al. 2002). The literature suggests that classes and coursework be reconsidered regarding content and pedagogy, classroom structure, and expectations on learning styles and assessment, so as to encourage student engagement in all aspects of the learning process and with their co-learners (Hurtado et al. 2002). Ideally, teachers can be seen as “cultural translators and mediators” (Cushner 2008, 172), connecting course content to events and knowledge within global and local environments (Green 2003). But researchers (e.g. Stone 2006; Ward 2001) find little evidence that higher education teachers are adapting either their content or pedagogical methods.

Leask (2009) says internationalization takes place within formal and informal (beyond the classroom) curricula; both are equally important in supporting and furthering the intercultural/internationalization practices of the other. Activities outside the classroom (e.g., clubs, sports, workshops, festivals, study trips, internships) and residential arrangements (e.g. programs and integration within residency halls, dining halls, commuting circumstances) offer multiple opportunities for engaging dissimilarity (Henderson 2009), although the same barriers exist as within the classroom. Yet, unlike passing, perhaps superficial, classroom interactions, informal curricula activities offer opportunities for more in-depth interactions and perhaps relationship building. Therefore, Klak and Martin (2003) recommend that some elements of the informal curriculum, particular extra-curricular activities, be included within the formal curriculum. Moreover, structured formal and informal curricular programs may support intercultural friendships that could also benefit intergroup relations through the extended contact hypothesis (Pettigrew 1998; Wright et al. 1997). This potentiality is important in Finland, where relatively few Finnish students have classroom contact with students with a dissimilar background.

Finally, the literature addresses the nature of the curriculum at an internationalized HEI. Briefly, the discussion questions whether discipline-specific curricula are in fact the preparation students need in a global environment (Leask 2009). Some researchers suggest that curricula should provide foundational knowledge of the field, with the balance of any cur-
riculum filled with other essential skills and knowledge, such as communication (intercultural, negotiation, conflict management), critical thinking, and learning-to-learn skills; observational, analytical and reflection development; and fostering a pluralistic worldview, all which would allow students to understand and connect with world events (Cooper 2007; Volet 2004; Yershova et al. 2000). Further specialized learning would take place in advanced academic degrees and through lifelong learning (Ericsson 2000; Tuijnman & Boström 2002; Yorke 2003). Cooper (2007) emphasizes that a truly internationalized curriculum promotes the likelihood of essential attitudes and skills to permeate all disciplines and programs so that all students benefit.

Studies of two Finnish Buddy Programs

A Buddy Project of voluntary social interaction

The Buddy Project of the University of Jyväskylä is a student-union organized program that brings together Finnish and international students for voluntary social interaction. Each semester, registrants are assigned, usually randomly, into groups of approximately four Finns and four international students, depending on the number and ratio of registrants. At the program “kick-off,” the groups are designated and then some ice-breaking activity takes place. The group members then organize their own meetings and develop relationships.

Crawford’s (2008) study sought to determine if and how Finnish students who had never lived abroad could develop intercultural competency by interacting with international peers on a voluntary basis. She conducted semi-structured interviews with 11 volunteer “at-home” Finnish informants: seven participants from the Buddy Project cohort of Autumn 2003 and four from a single group that met in Autumn 2002 and Spring 2003. Additionally, four Buddy participants who had lived abroad six or more months were included in the study for comparison. The interviews addressed a variety of areas, including the nature of interaction within the group; informants’ perceptions of their interaction, intercul-
tural skills, and any development from their interactions; motivations for participation; aspects learned about their own and other cultures from their interaction experiences; and aspects of their preparation for, behavior during, and reflection after interaction.

Among the interview results was that many of the groups did not maintain ongoing interaction after the kick-off, a typical outcome according to the informants. Issues such as language difficulties, time constraints, and motivation impacted if and how often the groups met. Yet even when the groups met, the informants did not necessarily reflect much on the nature of the interaction or any subsequent intercultural growth.

It also became clear that interaction between members of the host culture and international students is not a clear or simple path. Issues such as one’s intercultural knowledge, the nature of the individual’s motivation, one’s personality and temperament, how observant and/or reflective the person is regarding the interaction, and group dynamics can affect not only what the at-home informant experienced, but how he/she made sense of it. Moreover, the Buddy Project has no formal organization providing any type of ongoing support. Some informants felt “alone” in the process and expressed desire for more institutional/organizational support, particularly in the early weeks when they were unsure of how to interact effectively.

Very few of the informants could point to any measurable time observing dissimilarity (in self or other) or reflecting on own or others’ cultural behaviors, even when some informants had developed good friendships with international buddies. The majority of them emphasized the search for similarities rather than differences. While this is essential for relationship building, and considered a good outcome in intercultural interaction and adaptation (Kealey & Protheroe 2000; Kim 2001), it does not allow for exploration of cultural differences on multiple levels, from which important learning can take place.

Crawford also found that simple interest is not sufficient to sustain interaction with diversity: The informants who fared best in this study were those who had clear interest, plus an emotional engagement, sustained action, and commitment to engagement. Without this “engaged motivation,” the difficulties that arise in intergroup interaction could
result in at-home students backing away from the challenges, and thus losing out on intercultural development, as well as friendships.

Finally, despite literature that indicates that at-home students can develop intercultural competency even if they do not spend significant time outside their home culture (Nilsson 2003; Paige 2003; Stier 2003, 2006; Teekens 2003), Crawford concluded that at-home students would not encounter a full enough range of experiences, particularly within the affective areas, to cause perspective change or transformative learning, which are essential to achieving intercultural competency. Nevertheless, some students did demonstrate growth in areas of intercultural learning. While that cannot replace the value of an abroad experience, it does provide important developmental perspectives to at-home students that might not be gained otherwise.

A Buddy Project with compulsory participation

The Buddy Project in HAMK University of Applied Sciences (Bethell 2009) has been implemented with multiple student groups since 2008 as part of compulsory English and communication studies. The international students are first-year mechanical engineering degree students; the Finnish students are typically part-time mechanical engineering degree students, who are usually older than the international students and employed. The aims for the international students include integration and familiarization with the local community; improved cross-cultural adjustment (Furnham & Bochner 1997) to reduce culture shock (Adler 1975; Oberg 1960); improved English communication skills and some basic Finnish language acquisition; and the development of networks to help them gain insight into the Finnish working environment and culture. The aims for the Finnish students are in line with IaH and include intercultural communication experience and the possibility to introduce their workplaces in English.

In the initial project implementation, only one facilitated meeting was arranged at the start of the course when all the students met each other for the first time. As a response to feedback from the first implemen-
tation, later implementations have included two further facilitated group meetings during contact lessons. Students were given worksheets and during the initial meeting they collected information on their randomly selected buddies. Finnish students were expected to take their international buddies on a tour of their workplaces, conduct a simulated job interview with the international student, and write a report/study diary of their experiences and tasks. International students were expected to visit their buddy’s workplace, prepare for the job interview, and write a final report/study diary. These tasks and all communication were conducted in English. The students selected the form of communication; however, versatility and practice in communications techniques – SMS, face-to-face, phone, e-mail, and instant messaging – were encouraged. The students worked independently; the lecturers acted as facilitators, when necessary. The written tasks were assigned as compulsory parts of the course and evaluation was based upon the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (Council of Europe 2001).

In the initial project, the lecturers frequently facilitated and encouraged communication during the course. Experiences and problems were discussed during contact lessons and through e-mail; all other discussion between the students took place outside the classroom. Based upon student feedback and the time constraints of the teachers, the second implementation of the project in 2009 was slightly different: A discussion environment in Moodle 1.9x was established and fewer contact lessons facilitated the communication process.

Students in both implementations reported positive experiences and the aims of the project were achieved. Moreover, concrete results beyond the original aims were obtained: friendships, some summer workplaces for the international students, and continued contact after the project. The Finnish students said they benefited from significant intercultural experiences and English-language communication. However, some Finnish students complained that the project took too much time and effort. This concern needs to be addressed: How to motivate students regarding the need for this internationalization process in their working environment.

The fact that the Finnish students were older, a potentially significant cultural difference (see Dunne 2009), was, in fact, a positive aspect, since
they frequently adopted the role of Finnish “parents” and helped the younger international students adjust to Finnish life. In regards to communication, the lecturers noticed that communication in the second implementation was not taking place in the Moodle environment and assumed that it was taking place outside the environment, as in the initial implementation. However, the feedback revealed a reduction in actual communication, as compared to the initial implementation. One of the main reasons for this could be the reduction in encouragement and facilitation by the lecturers. This project highlighted the role of the teacher as a facilitator in the internationalization process. A major barrier to maintaining sufficient levels of facilitation is time and monetary resources.

Some implications of the studies

Cushner (2008) lends support to Crawford’s conclusion that true IaH, in terms of developing intercultural competencies, cannot be achieved for host students who never live for a significant period in another culture. In order to achieve such competencies, students need the affective experience of being the “other,” to see and examine the many assumed (ethnocentric) aspects of one’s home culture from alternative perspectives, to feel unsure about what is what and how to manage in an unfamiliar reality, sometimes without adequate tools and support – and to confront these realities 24/7 (Cushner & Mahon 2009). These experiences cannot happen in one’s home environment, where an individual usually knows what is expected and, if not, knows how to obtain information and, if things get too tough, can back away from difference into his/her comfort zone of familiarity.

And multiple studies (see e.g. Allport 1954; de Vita 2005; Leask 2009; Pusch 2004; Teekens 2003; Ward 2001) confirm Bethell’s conclusions that successful intergroup interaction must be facilitated and have structured support by knowledgeable HEI personnel, lest the students’ motivation and activity atrophy, and groups again gravitate toward separateness, with lost learning opportunity.

Both studies point to the fact that intergroup experience needs to be
consciously planned, encouraged, facilitated, and supported by teachers and staff, and students prepared for engagement not only when they are going to a dissimilar culture but, and especially, for experiencing dissimilarity within their home culture. The research is clear that, without intervention, successful intergroup interaction – and gains in intercultural knowledge and skills – will happen only for a very small, very motivated, minority of host students, those who embody “informed cosmopolitanism” (Peacock & Harrison 2008).

**Internationalization: Changing rhetoric into reality**

The outcomes of these two Finnish Buddy Project studies and abundant international research underscore the fact that internationalization of higher education does not simply happen, no matter what the governmental or institutional vision. “Comprehensive internationalization is a change that is both broad – affecting departments, schools and activities across the institution – and deep, expressed in institutional culture, values, and policies and practices. It requires articulating explicit goals and developing coherent and mutually reinforcing strategies to reach them” (Green 2002, 10–11), and that “everything an institution does should be permeated by or imbued with an international – or perhaps better, a multinational, multicultural or multiethnic – perspective” (Cooper 2007, 523). Although the role of internationalization of learning in higher education has been advocated for two decades, the literature around the world and in Finland suggests that putting the idea into practice remains in the margins of higher education activity (Cushner 2008; Green 2003), although some programs and departments have achieved world-class international environments and outcomes, often as a by-product of operations, not by design (Hoffman et al. 2010).

Thus, we agree with Cushner (2008): Students and, by extension, societies and businesses, will not benefit from intercultural and international perspectives until internationalization becomes central to and integrated into higher education. This is especially critical in Finland, where most students are not enrolled in international degree programs that, by their
very nature, weave international/intercultural practices and concepts into learning processes.

That said, we recognize the many constraints facing contemporary Finnish HEIs. The literature provides multiple ideas on how HEIs could internationalize, but space does not allow us to present many. Moreover, limited resources, in particular, may mean many good ideas remain beyond the reach of most teachers and departments. Therefore, the internationalized and intercultural learning processes may need to progress from adaptations to how teachers teach, how they prepare coursework and assessments, how they invest their time in collaborative and networked interaction with colleagues, and the shifting of limited resources to assist as many teachers as possible develop the skills needed for internationalized education. Based on our own experiences and observations, informed by the literature, we offer several suggestions1 for internationalizing, presented within themes.

Matters of the curriculum and teachers’ development. While a complete curriculum reassessment through the lens of an internationalized education and 21st labor needs would be most preferred (see e.g. Cooper 2007; Leask 2009), it may not be practical in the current higher education environment. Nevertheless, the curriculum can be adjusted in concrete ways to make teaching more internationally effective and that offers students a different vision of contemporary higher education. This would also affect the teaching and planning processes that teachers undertake to fulfill course requirements. We propose three concrete areas:

- Individual courses can be internationalized in a wide variety of ways: The only limitations are imagination and effort.
  - Establish a network of colleagues in the same disciplines at universities in other countries and work collaboratively to integrate international and intercultural perspectives on the subject matter into core courses and key electives. Such a network could facilitate peer teaching within a blended learning environment.

1 Additional suggestions, as well as a more fundamental vision on higher education in the 21st century, will be presented in Crawford and Bethell (in preparation).
(via live or asynchronous online or video presentations) to all students in the network’s course, supported by an in-class teacher in the native language.

◊ Draw on and integrate into the course content the experiences and knowledge of diverse others already in the classroom: foreign degree and exchange students, returning Finnish exchange students, and at-home students of diverse ethnic or cultural backgrounds.

◊ Encourage or require students to keep blogs or learning diaries (mediated, video, or paper-based) for reflection on issues regarding engaging dissimilarity at home (or during exchange), or in exploring international perspectives on courses.

- The curriculum for degree programs also can be rethought and reworked to provide coherent international and intercultural perspectives throughout the entire learning period.

◊ The MoE already recommends that exchange periods be integrated more explicitly within degree structures. Therefore, when the exchange plan is being conceptualized, means for intentional learning of international and intercultural issues, as well as means for capturing the exchange students’ intentional learning for the benefit of their at-home peers, need to be built into the predeparture, exchange period, and debriefing programs.

◊ Additionally, the MoE (2009b) calls for international learning to be integrated into the student learning through their personal learning plans. One way to facilitate that is through a “passport” scheme, a document created and updated by the student throughout his/her degree program where all of his/her intercultural experiences that faculty members can verify are certified. Such a process would not only provide a means for the administrators to oversee and support the formal and informal international/intercultural learning of students, but also exemplify that such learning takes place through diverse means and in multiple venues. The passports also could provide official record of such learning for the benefit of the students’ CVs, since international competencies are increasingly required in the workplace.
Because the informal curriculum can provide opportunities for intercultural learning that will support and supplement the internationalization of the formal curriculum, providing a firm and formal foundation of intercultural knowledge and skills opens any number of interesting possibilities for learning. Including a course early within the curriculum that provides basic but very important intercultural theory, practices, and skills would allow students to develop the knowledge and skills needed to critically engage dissimilarity and international issues, whether in the classroom, around campus, through the media, and within their societies. A similar course could be offered to teachers and staff.

- The teacher in any internationalization process is the keystone, since teachers provide not only the formal content of internationalized learning but provide the foundation for much of the informal intercultural learning that students will undertake outside the classroom. Therefore, attending to the needs for international and intercultural development within teachers, researchers, and staff cannot be minimized. For brevity, we focus specifically on teachers here.
- As learners themselves, teachers need to take an active role and advantage of opportunities to develop pluralistic perspectives and measurable (as well as tacit) knowledge and skills in intercultural and international issues. Through workshops or in-service programs, for example, teachers could learn how to integrate and support different voices within the discussion of field-specific content; address conflict, ethnocentrism, lack of motivation within the classroom, and/or the effects of culture shock upon international students; present course materials and pedagogical practices that are sensitive to differences in learning styles and cognitive styles, and so forth.
- Throughout the year, most universities host perhaps dozens of foreign guests, speakers, researchers, and/or exchange teachers/administrators. Through prior arrangements, many of these individuals may be willing to participate in some forum integrating international perspectives. Establishing a formal process for identifying such individuals and informing teachers of when
they will be on campus would allow teachers or departments to extend invitations and arrange programs for students or staff.

◊ Finally, embracing diversity and alternative perspectives can also be facilitated through interdisciplinary or cross-disciplinary interaction throughout the campus or abroad. Such activities will also offer benefits for preparing students for professional lives in which scientific fields are not as segregated as they are on university campuses.

**Mobility.** The literature underscores that this facet of higher education internationalization remains essential. However, these programs need to be pointedly reviewed to keep the outcomes and benefits of mobility from being simply an individual consumption of the exotic (see Messer & Wolter 2007) or a matter of mobile bodies but not mobile minds (Neave 2004).

- As noted above and in several EU and Finnish MoE documents, student exchange needs to be integrated into the curriculum in a way that does not deter students interested in a study period, internship, or traineeship abroad. Moreover, students need facilitation to maximize their learning potential, before, during and afterward (Savicki 2008; Vande Berg & Paige 2009). Oversight of such processes can be accomplished by academically- and experientially intercultural-qualified individuals within the program, department, faculty, or institution.

- Exchanges are important in helping individual teachers develop their intercultural and international perspectives, since their sensitivity toward diversity is significantly increased through their own first-person experience of being “the other” (Cushner & Mahon 2009). However, since many teachers find it difficult to spend long periods in another culture because of their professional and family responsibilities, multiple short-term experiences may be necessary. In such a reality, sufficient preparation – knowledge, skills, reflection techniques, etc. – and debriefing so that their experiences can be as developmentally productive as possible – are particularly critical for outbound teachers.
• A means to systematically capture the learning and insights of returning mobile teachers and students would be valued as a means to reinvest within the university community the perspectives and knowledge gained during the abroad period (see e.g. Miller & Fernández 2007).

**Administrative support.** Teachers’ success in integrating elements of internationalization into their courses relies significantly on the support and facilitation of the institutional administration at various levels. In some cases, it may require a new perspective on what constitutes quality education and fidelity to the fields associated with the department or faculty, and what “teaching” at a 21st century HEI entails. Nevertheless, concrete steps by administrative personnel could include

• Facilitating teachers’ efforts in networking with international colleagues and its impact on classroom teaching.
• Allowing teacher facilitation and support of student learning within interactive learning environments to be considered equal to class contact hours when designating teachers’ workloads.
• Provide department-, faculty- or institution-wide access to qualified experts as consultants or workshop presenters on topics such as e-pedagogy, intercultural theory and skills, experiential learning, and managing and benefiting from in-class diversity.
• Work with teachers in uncovering external funding sources for collaborative work or research on the various aspects of integrating international perspectives within the curriculum and specific courses/programs.

**Students.** All of the suggestions proposed above are in vain if the students themselves do not see the value for their personal and professional lives and make the effort to engage diversity, explore alternative perspectives on knowledge, and commit to integrating any number of internationalized components within their learning process. However, students should not be assumed to innately understand the need for any of these aspects of 21st century higher education, and thus such needs and the underlying rationales may get far more traction if made explicit.
• During the initiation to each student’s developing their personal learning plan, the role of internationalization, intercultural issues, blended learning, and the emphasis on critical thinking, collaborative and independent learning, and lifelong learning within their degree program can be clearly explained. With this background, students can then make better choices regarding their degree requirements and choices for independent learning.

• Each semester, a variety of programs and events take place at on- and off-campus venues, where students can meet dissimilar others and hone their intercultural skills, or experience alternative perspectives. Some means to inform students of such offerings could be instituted, and students encouraged to engage these informal curricular opportunities.

Financial resources. Very few concrete programs are initiated – let alone continue – without adequate funding. This is especially true in an era of HEI reform, when HEI leaders are devoting more time to finding funds to pay for programs. The MoE (2009b) indicates that some supplementary funding for internationalization can be negotiated, but it is unlikely such funding will be significant enough for every program in every institution to make significant changes. Yet even small increments may be useful in providing a structure for teachers to develop their skills, learn new techniques or technologies, access research, and collaborate more closely with colleagues abroad. Moreover, if HEIs indicate that internationalization is a key strategy, then it follows that some institutional funding could be focused on the realization of this strategy, at least on par with other key institutional strategies. Based on our experience, one way of improving financing potential for internationalization projects is to integrate them with ICT projects.

This paper has addressed the Finnish Ministry of Education’s (2009b) strategy for internationalizing higher education through programs emphasizing internationalization at home and mobility. We fully concur that this strategy is essential for preparing HEI students for professional lives in a global environment and for an increasingly diverse society.
While HEIs are not the only educational venue for exploring the multifaceted elements of internationalization, they do offer a unique opportunity for impacting student populations for a variety of reasons, not the least of which are the normative value of friendships, intellectual development, and access to a diversity of opinions and experiences (Antonio 2004; Klak & Martin 2004; Pascarella & Terenzini 1992).

As the literature presented earlier in this paper indicates, internationalization and intercultural development do not simply happen: Desired outcomes are more likely if facilitated, but done so within research findings appropriate to the task, learning objectives, and pedagogical applications. While tertiary-level educators clearly appreciate the need for integrating an international perspective and for assisting students and teachers in intercultural development, real constraints exist in achieving those goals. We provided a few concrete ideas on how HEIs, specifically at the department and program level, can concretely move toward internationalization. While every new process takes additional time, and in some cases may require additional funding, these suggested projects represent rather conservative approaches, representing baby steps rather than large strides.

While we personally feel – and the literature supports our perspective – that a dramatic rethinking of the higher education process is in order, we recognize that few institutions will be able to implement in the short term such a significant shift in conceptualizing and presenting higher education. Therefore, for the majority of institutions, slow but steady progress toward internationalization must suffice. The process begins with the first step.

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