



Curtin University

Teaching and Learning an Internationalised Curriculum

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**Edited and reformatted by the Office of Assessment
Teaching and Learning 2011**

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1.0 Introduction

Any attempt to implement a policy invariably begins with a statement of intent. The present set of documents sets out to support the teaching staff in their internationalisation effort with informed suggestions distilled from educational discourses on the politics of difference and the celebration of diversity. It is, unequivocally, not a set of prescriptions on correct practice, as the subject of internationalisation of tertiary education is complex, imprecise and in a constant state of change, given impetus by the forces of globalization. It intends instead to gather academic momentum in valuing diversity, understanding and responding positively to cultural difference, and developing a culture of tolerance, openness and inclusiveness. It is above all an effort to foster change to a more culturally sensitive student-centered curriculum that meets the diverse needs of all students.

In this undertaking, there is a consciousness that the educational discourse structure of the university is characteristically Australian and thus Western in essence. One is nevertheless mindful that the Australian university is developed primarily to serve the educational needs of the Australian people. However, as Australia moves towards better relations and economic integration with the rest of the world, there is increasing realization that the interest of the Australian people is better served by opening its campuses to students from around the world, in particular its Asian and Pacific neighbours (Beazley, 1992, p.1). The needs of these students set a new agenda for the university that challenges conventional thinking and presses for appropriate response. Curtin University has responded to the call to internationalise in a manner that is described by the McKinnon Benchmarking (2000) as 'consciously strategic' (p.123).

This set of documents is meant to assist in a systematic way teaching and learning that foster in the students, both local and international, an international outlook, in a learning environment that is welcoming of the rich cultural diversity that the students bring with them. It provides a framework to aid reflection, construction and implementation of curricula that lend justification to the concept of internationalization as it is embedded in the McKinnon Benchmarks. While the education offered may be grounded in an Australian learning experience, it provides the openness and flexibility of instruction that enriches learning and provides the students with the skills and knowledge that would enable them to practice their chosen professions in many other parts of the world. If education is about change, then change brought about by this educational philosophy would not occur in the international students alone but also in the hosts themselves (i.e., staff and students).

Since a university is by its very nature international and Curtin University in particular has attained significant achievements in internationalising its curriculum by

- Meeting the academic/professional, social and cultural needs of its international and local students;
- Initiating programs to integrate and foster friendship between local and international students;
- Providing international student support services;
- Developed and delivered through on-campus courses twinning programs, offshore campuses, and distance education programs that are designed specifically for recognition by international professional bodies and governments;
- Developing collaborative programs that lead to joint degrees;
- Initiating professional development training programs for staff;
- Encouraging study abroad and international staff and student exchanges;
- Ensuring a culturally diverse staff composition; and
- Promoting study abroad and student exchange programs;

The question remains as to what further outcomes are expected from the present initiative through its portfolio. The answer appears to lie, in the broadest sense, in an effort to ensure and sustain quality control in a systematic, continuous and self-auditing manner. In this, it takes a cue from the idealistic vision of Rizvi and Walsh (1998) that: 'Internationalisation of the curriculum is more than just a response to emergent global conditions, it is a framework of values and practices orientated towards heightened awareness and appreciation of the politics of difference as the basis for developing the necessary skills and literacies for a changing world' p.11) [Appendix 1]

2.0 Structure

This portfolio begins by presenting the ideas and objectives from the two major sources that drive internationalisation at Curtin University: the OECD/CERI description of an internationalised curriculum and the McKinnon Benchmarking (2000) on internationalisation and international operations. Specific aspects of the McKinnon Benchmarking related to internationalising the curriculum will be discussed to provide better appreciation of the processes of seeking international recognition for Australian qualifications. The present body of literature which focuses on teaching and learning to foster internationalisation has three parts to each subtopic. Each begins with a number of suggestions on teaching and learning strategies and techniques to achieve targeted outcomes. This is followed by theoretical underpinnings that explain whether there is any real or imagined culturally embedded difference in learning, why and how they were brought about, and possible courses of action to accommodate these differences in suggested

classroom practices that bring out the best in diversity. Finally, a self-audit instrument is included as a checklist to enable the user to employ a comprehensive approach to teaching a culturally diverse class of students.

Wherever appropriate, literature is appended for further reading on the subject matter to better inform the user of the theories and policies that underpin this internationalisation effort. Since this set of documents is by necessity incomplete because of the changing nature of a globalised world, it is called a portfolio to enable it to remain open and receptive to further inclusions as more information becomes available on internationalisation, thus allowing it to work continuously towards a more complete picture of an essentially sensitive (vis-à-vis nationalistic sentiments e.g., Morris and Hudson, 1995) and complex issue.

3.0 Definition

As in all terms encompassing a number of ideas and concepts, there is no overall consensus on the term 'internationalisation' in higher education. However, the most concise appears to be Jane Knight's definition:

Internationalization is a process of integrating an international, intercultural dimension into the teaching, research, and service functions of the institution. [Knight, as cited in Welch, 2002, p.2]

Curtin University's internationalisation program is guided by the OECD's (1994) definition of internationalised curricula as:

Curricula with an international orientation in content, aimed at preparing students for performing (professionally/socially) in an international and multicultural context and designed for domestic students as well as foreign students.

4.0 Characteristics

By this OECD/CERI (1994) definition, courses and programs that are internationalised should have the following characteristics:

- Include international subjects
- Provide an academic environment where diverse cultural perspectives and approaches are valued
- and able to be articulated and accommodated where reasonable
- Prepare students for defined international professions
- Lead to internationally recognised professional qualifications where appropriate
- Lead to joint or double degrees with overseas institutions
- Have compulsory parts of the programs that must be taken at overseas institutions
- Provide for traditional subject areas to be broadened by an internationally comparative approach

- Have interdisciplinary programs such as region and area studies covering more than one area
- Include the study of foreign languages or linguistics which explicitly address cross-cultural communication issues
- Provide training in intercultural skills
- Have curricular content specially for international students

[OECD/CERI, 1994]

Should the reader find the scope of an internationalised curriculum described above too wide and encompassing, it is because the very nature of curriculum as it is defined by curriculum specialists is diverse. For example, Print (1993) defines curriculum as

All the planned learning opportunities offered to learners by the educational institution and the experiences learners encounter when the curriculum is implemented (p.9).

Given this definition, curriculum takes on a diversity and broadness of scope that renders curriculum development, particularly an internationalised one, problematic. This document is designed to assist curriculum internationalization by bringing together the basic knowledge elements that underpin internationalization in the Australian context. Epistemological elements such as the basic concepts and their sources that drive internationalization in Australia; external and internal factors (e.g., professional, socio-economic, political and cultural considerations) that impact on the curricula; and strategies for addressing teaching and learning are outlined to provide convenient reference.

5.0 Benchmark

The McKinnon Benchmarking for Australian Universities (2000) has listed 7 important elements for benchmarking internationalisation:

- 10.1 Internationalisation strategy
- 10.2 Culture of internationalisation
- 10.3 Balanced onshore international student programme
- 10.4 Financing the international student programme
- 10.5 Students' exposure to international experience
- 10.6 Management of offshore delivery
- 10.7 Overseas links and activities

[Appendix 2: McKinnon Benchmarking (2000); Benchmark 10]

While all of these elements influence teaching and learning, the elements that most directly impact on the present effort is Benchmark 10.5, 'Students' exposure to international experience,' and Benchmark 10.2, 'Culture of Internationalisation'. Benchmark 10.5 has a list of 7 good practices that characterise an internationalised curriculum. These good practices form the basis for the construction of the present portfolio.

Internationalised Curriculum (McKinnon Benchmark 10.5)

Under its 'Good Practice' prescriptions, item 2 indicates that an internationalised curriculum should have the following characteristics.

Processes in place to ensure all students have access to internationally relevant programs of study:

- All professional programs enable professional registration in at least two countries.
- A formal mechanism at faculty/departmental level to develop and monitor internationally relevant curricula for all courses.
- Appointment and promotion criteria for academic staff require that teaching should include international perspectives.
- Curriculum review occurs with partner institutions on a regular basis.
- Staff with relevant international experience.
- OSP/sabbatical leave applicants required to demonstrate the relevance of their programs; follow-up of implementation.
- Financial support programs for staff to develop international experience and curricula.

These processes are used as benchmarks in the following scheme.

Table 1. Levels

1	2	3	4	5
International curriculum. Minimal processes in place	2 of listed processes	3 of listed processes in place	4 of listed process in place	5 or 6 of listed good practice processes in place

From the listed processes above, it is clear that an internationalised curriculum would require intervention, if it is not already present, at both the administrative/ management and teaching/learning levels. While the present document intends to focus on the teaching/learning aspects of internationalisation on an individual level, some mention should be made of the administrative/management aspects of internationalizing a curriculum at faculty (or higher) level as both are inextricably entwined.

Processes that involve academic and administrative/management inputs at the Faculty/School/Departmental/Divisional levels are those concerned with professional registration, monitoring of internationally relevant curricula, appointment and promotion of staff using international perspectives as criteria, curriculum review with partner institutions, staff development for international experience, sabbatical leave, and financial support for staff to develop international experience and curricula.

Culture of Internationalisation (McKinnon Benchmark 10.2)

However, at the day-to-day individual teaching/learning level (i.e., lesson planning and preparation, teaching strategies, curriculum form and content, assessment, interacting with students, classroom management etcetera), processes or parts thereof of developing and monitoring an internationally relevant curricula, and teaching that includes international/global perspectives, are especially relevant. At the level of teaching and learning, an internationalised curriculum cannot be effective without including the good practices that are enshrined in Benchmark 10.2 which deals with the element of

'Culture of Internationalisation' (McKinnon, 2000, p.128). The first four items on the list of good practices in this benchmark are particularly relevant. They are those processes which:

- Promote intercultural understanding, through, for example, training programs for staff and student on cross cultural communications;
- Ensure a tolerant culture and acknowledge and build on the diversity of students' backgrounds and experiences;
- Encourage the use of international students as a resource in the teaching/learning environment, especially at postgraduate level; and
- Result in interaction between local and international students in the classroom and on campus generally.

Such social and educational processes are an integral part of teaching/learning an internationalised curriculum and should be incorporated into classroom practices.

6.0 Internationalising the Curricula

Apart from teaching and learning in a manner that fosters internationalisation and developing a global perspective, internationalising the curriculum involves a number of other component activities indicated by the McKinnon Benchmark 10.5. These include: 1) developing and monitoring internationally relevant curricula; 2) seeking professional recognition in at least two countries; 3) reviewing curriculum with partner institutions; 4) academic staff development in internationalisation.

Developing and Monitoring Internationally Relevant Curricula

An internationally relevant curriculum has two major implications. It implies firstly that the curriculum must be made up of contents and activities that are international in their application. Secondly, it must consist of elements that cater to the learning needs that arise from environmental, social, cultural, economic, political and professional differences of the countries from which it receives its international students; and from where it seeks professional/official recognition. Such requirements render the choice and treatment of subject matter complex, involved and sensitive. As the need to be sensitive and judicious is ever more so important here, it is best to approach the task with some knowledge of where pitfalls can be anticipated and where care should be exercised.

6.1 The Humanities, Arts and Social Sciences

These are the areas where the most amounts of cultural variations and controversy can occur. In the culture of Western academia, literature and other texts and technology from the developed world, when they are transferred to underdeveloped countries, are commonly critiqued by the intelligentsia for elements associated with cultural and economic domination. While scrutiny for such elements such as ethnocentrism, racism, cultural mismatch, reflexive colonialism, and social and environmental relevance has its place in academia and social development, it can render practice very difficult. Allegations of value loaded perspectives are unavoidable and mistakes will be made. Decisions as to what subject matter contents to teach and how to provide a fair and balanced education is best left to the academics themselves; but it does bring to the fore the McKinnon Benchmark 10.5, 2 recommendations for staff with relevant international experience and staff placement in an overseas country (McKinnon 10.5, 3) to develop the type of experience and sensitivity that are essential for dealing with such issues.

Fortunately, these are also areas that are amenable to accommodation and adaptation. For instance, it may be possible to allow a literature student, e.g., from Indonesia, to base her/his assignment on the works of an Indonesian writer such as Pramoedya Ananta Toer giving due recognition to an Indonesian perspective. While it is inevitable that her approach to the assignment would be influenced by an Australian educational discourse, she should already

have been aware that such an outcome is unavoidable and would most likely have considered such an eventuality before she arrived. The supervising academic would, in turn, gain valuable insights and understanding of a different cultural perspective. Such cross fertilization approximates what Rizvi and Walsh (1998) describe as a 'heightened awareness of the politics of difference' (p. 11). It also lends greater meaning to the McKinnon Benchmark of monitoring internationally relevant curricula. A similar context could apply to the performing arts where plays and music could be accommodated within the teaching/learning schemes.

6.2 Mathematics, Science, Technology and the Professions

Where subject matter contents are concerned, it must be clarified at the outset that the basic mathematical, scientific and technical principles that are being rigorously taught to students are by themselves universal in nature and may not require addressing. However, it is when technologies, informed by these scientific and mathematical principles, are applied in the service of humankind, and its areas of interest, that variations can occur and need to be addressed. The areas where variations in practice can occur are more frequently encountered in the professional areas such as medicine, health sciences, engineering, accountancy, architecture, law etcetera, where such factors as quality standards, ethical, political, economic, social, cultural and environmental factors can impact strongly on the professions. Further differences in practice are also engendered by the cross disciplinary nature of professional courses such as medicine, engineering, accountancy and law. This, however, does not imply that scientific and mathematical principles cannot be controversial. If at all any aspect of present day understanding of science and mathematics is controversial, it would be an inherently international affair and one that would be receiving the attention of the world scientific and mathematics communities. Of particular relevance to this issue is a recent discussion paper by Siegal (2002) who sought to find common ground between multiculturalism and universalism in science education.

6.3 Business, Economics and Commerce

These areas are by their very nature international. Students trained to work in business, commerce and economics must have an international outlook and a global perspective in order to be competent. Goods and services are being traded more and more among the nations of the world to the extent that their economies are becoming increasingly integrated. This trend, globalization, is seen as a new stage in world development where goods, services and culture flow in an almost unrestricted manner across borders. Globalization is also seen as the extension of global capitalism with transnational corporations and an emerging transnational capitalist class playing major roles (Welch, 2002). In the face of these trends, studies in business, economics and commercial cannot be mired in parochialism. These are generally the areas of study that drive internationalisation in their efforts to inculcate competitiveness and

remain relevant. The culture of competitiveness in these disciplines ensures that students have an understanding of their partners and competitors in business, their comparative strengths and weaknesses, efficiencies and currency. Therefore, these areas of study remain the most receptive to ideas of internationalisation and globalisation. As Welch (2002) found in his survey of all 38 Australian universities, the most examples of initiatives to internationalise their curricula came from business, economics and commerce. Having said that, the question arises as to how we, as teachers, go about teaching in a manner that maximizes the acquisition of an international outlook and global perspective by our students in those areas where variations in practice can occur and internationalisation is already a culture. For this purpose, we look towards teaching strategies and tools, and select from them those methods and practices that would most effectively give our students the experience they need to be cross-culturally and internationally competent.

7.0 Cultural Needs and National Objectives

Since education is now traded as a good, as evidenced by its treatment in such international bodies as World Trade Organization (Marginson, 2002) and APEC, its cultural, economic and political impacts on the countries involved is still relatively unknown. Countries fearful of losing their national identity, political cohesion, and economic wellbeing are naturally inclined to install some measure of control over the seemingly unfettered trading of educational services. Globalization brings with it fears of cultural, economic and political domination by multinationals and transnationals. More, specifically, many developing countries in Southeast Asia fear the massive outflow of funds associated with their nationals studying abroad, influences that are inimical to their culture and values, ideologies that are antipathetic to their governments, and competition that are a threat to their own education industry.

In their regulation of overseas and transnational higher education, the attention to cultural needs and national objectives varies from country to country. Interestingly, taking the three countries, Malaysia, Singapore and Hong Kong as cases, a perusal of their regulatory mechanisms indicates that their attention to cultural needs and overt nationalistic objectives range in that order from a high level to rather wanting.

In Malaysia, transnational higher education is regulated by the *Private Higher Educational Institutions Act 1996* (McBurnie and Ziguras, 2001) which requires all private higher education institutions to teach their courses in Bahasa Malaysia, the national language. However, under the Act, the institutions may teach in English if approval is given by the Minister. The PHEI Act also gives the Minister the discretionary power to revoke the approval, if he so wishes, at any time. Furthermore, where teaching is in English, the Malaysian students are nonetheless

required to attain a specific level of proficiency in the national language before they can graduate. In practice, English is the primary language of instruction in private higher education in Malaysia. Nevertheless, cultural reproduction is further assured by the requirement of the Act that several compulsory subjects are taught: Bahasa Malaysia, Malaysian Studies, Islamic Studies (for Muslim students) and Moral Education (for non-Muslim students). Students who are Malaysian citizens must pass these subjects in order to graduate (Mc Burnie and Ziguras, 2001).

Malaysia is also highly sensitive to student political activism (e.g., Netto, 2002). As such, the PHEI Act also requires private institutions set up in Malaysia to have a provision in their constitution preventing students from being involved in political activities or even expressing support or sympathy with, or opposition to, any political party or trade union with the threat of expulsion (Mc Burnie and Ziguras, 2001).

In Singapore, the control by the government over matters of national interest is of a more tacit nature. There is no open insistence on the teaching of language, religion, culture or morals by non-public higher education institutions; or prevention of student participation in political activities of the type prescribed in the Malaysian PHEI Act. The Singapore government does not have publicly available guidelines for external programs offered by foreign universities in partnership with a local institution (Ziguras, 2001). Nevertheless, control is exercised. Applications for registration are assessed by the Ministry of Education on a case-by-case basis. However, the criteria for approving or denying registration are not known to anyone outside the Ministry (Ziguras, 2001). An observation made by Ziguras (2001) puts the issue of control of higher education provision in perspective:

The Singapore government has always seen the education system as a means to shape its citizens to suit the political and economic needs of the nation, or as the ministry of education puts it, to 'mould the future of the nation, by moulding the people who will determine the future of the nation'. [Ziguras, 2001]

The situation in Hong Kong is somewhat different from Malaysia and Singapore. Evans and Tregenza (2001) interviewed Australian and Hong Kong people involved in the provision of Australian courses in Hong Kong to elicit their views regarding the regulation of non-local courses by the *Non-local Higher and Professional Education (regulation) Ordinance*. They found a common view among the interviewees that the Ordinance's requirement for courses offered to be identical to those offered in the originating country 'prohibited tailoring for Hong Kong circumstances' (Evans and Tregenza, 2001, p.6). Therefore, provisions to allow for

local content and context was found wanting. However, this weakness in legislation is addressed by the professional bodies which ensure that only those who have met certain criteria related to local practice are eligible for registration.

The examples above illustrate the political and cultural sensitivities of a number of higher education importing countries. Given this understanding, it appears necessary to be judicious in the development and delivery of curricula vis-à-vis nationals from these countries. Where a possibility exists in the social sciences (e.g., history, political science, communication and cultural studies) that would compromise the welfare of the student or offend the sensitivities of the client country, it might be necessary to exercise discretion in encouraging students to speak freely. On the other hand, the students themselves might be sensitive about discussing aspects of their own culture and religion. An awareness of their sensitivities helps to preempt breakdowns in relationships. This does not suggest that the culture of free expression and critical thinking in Australian tertiary education should be compromised. On the contrary, there is no greater need to exercise free speech and critical thinking in an intellectual discourse. Research has shown that international students themselves are very positively disposed towards critical thinking (Ramsay, Barker, and Jones, 1999). Ramsay et al. (1999) indicate that a number of students they interviewed for their research in fact commented favourably on the more open and critical approach to education in comparison to their own countries. What is suggested here is that students could still be taught these skills through judicious selection of the subject matter or topics for discussion. Often, when intentions and rationale for selecting certain topics for discussion are made clear, students respond more positively. At other times, it may be a better strategy to negotiate subject matter selected for treatment. A balanced curriculum takes into consideration both felt needs (i.e., of the student) and perceived needs (i.e., of the expert).

8.0 Accreditation, Professional Registration and Curriculum Review

The accreditation of Australian tertiary qualifications in an overseas country and the registration of Australian graduates to practice there are just some, albeit crucial, aspects of Australian universities' efforts to maintain and increase their share of the international education market. As the Higher Education Council (1996) of Australia indicates, most Australian universities strive for quality and overseas recognition so that their graduates can practice overseas as well as locally. This is all the more relevant in the light of education as an internationally traded service and the efforts led by the World Trade Organisation to reduce restrictions in services through GATS (General Agreement on Trade in Services).

In its provision of international higher education services, Curtin University now provides all four of the WTO's categories of higher education services, as described by McBurnie and Ziguras (2001), to the overseas consumers:

- *Consumption abroad*- onshore education
- *Cross-border delivery*- international distance education
- *Commercial presence*- through branch campus (e.g., Miri), twinning colleges
- *The movement of natural persons*- seminars and block teaching overseas

However, the major countries that Australian universities are servicing, e.g., Malaysia, Singapore, Hong Kong, are not completely free, unregulated markets. There are matters that are of legitimate concern to these governments. Matters such as consumer protection, protection of the local system and the advancement of national goals cause these governments to devise a variety of protective measures to regulate and control international education. The most common measures are those affected through immigration, quality control and recognition. McBurnie and Ziguras (2001) mention qualification authorities (e.g., Lembaga Akreditasi Negara, Malaysia; Hong Kong Council for Academic Accreditation), customs regulations, telecommunication laws, foreign currency controls and limitations on foreign ownership as important regulatory measures affecting trade in transnational education services.

Any attempt to have their courses recognized requires the university school or department to negotiate a maze of local and foreign stakeholder interests. Furthermore, when it comes to recognition of professional qualifications and the registration of graduates to practice locally and in overseas countries, the problems are further exacerbated by the requirements of their respective professional bodies. Even within the local Australian context, 'The relationships over regulation and accreditation of course are influenced by industry requirements, student demands, government policy, the regulatory environment, and globalisation' (Higher Education Council, 1996). Hence, as reflected in the Australian Higher Education Council's (1996) study, the relationships between these professional bodies, the universities' curricula, and the accreditation of graduates are complex, involved and not well charted. Although the universities are self-accrediting bodies, they are not independent of the professional organizations in this role. Professional organizations have a strong measure of influence on the contents of professional courses, and the subsequent employment of graduates as professional practitioners. A comprehensive account of these relationships and the issues that are still ongoing is available to the reader in a document entitled: 'Professional Education and Credentialism' produced by the Higher Education Council of the National Board of Employment, Education and Training. In this document, section 3.4.2 on Standards and Quality Assurance states categorically that the purpose of the accreditation processes is to 'ensure that

Australian professional wards have international emphasis' (p.19).

[Professional Education and Credentialism, Section 3.4.2]

Therefore, it is quite clear that apart from the universities, professional bodies in Australia have a major role in determining the international portability of Australian professional qualifications. Their relationship with their counterparts overseas is of significant importance to the international recognition of Australian professional qualifications. In practice, however, a gap appears to exist between aim and reality. This is clearly reflected in the Higher Education Council's Advice to the Minister:

Most universities pursue quality and aim for international recognition of their courses so that their graduates will be able to practice overseas as well as locally. The consultants sought the views of professional bodies on the extent of overseas influence on their accreditation and registration processes. The views differed significantly between professional fields with some showing mostly an internal orientation while several were clearly internationally focused. Psychology was largely internationally orientated while law, accountancy, physiotherapy and teaching were mainly concerned with local standards. [Higher Education Council, 1996]

In their study of the relationship between the professional organizations and the courses offered at universities, consultants for the Higher Education Council (1996) also explored the mutual recognition of qualifications with overseas systems. With the exception of computing and accountancy, the respondents' views were similarly confused. Some professional organizations such as medicine, nursing, teaching, law and physiotherapy indicated that there was no mutual recognition; while others such as engineering, veterinary science, psychology, social work, and architecture indicated that overseas recognition was available. Therefore, no clear picture encompassing all professional areas has emerged. This is not unexpected as professional practice in a number of disciplines such as teaching and law can differ significantly between countries because of the differences in the social, cultural, economic, environmental and political conditions that shape these disciplines. Moreover, different professions in different countries can have different criteria for determining recognition.

9.0 Examples of Overseas Recognition

A brief survey of the manner in which professional qualifications acquired overseas are recognized in Malaysia, Singapore and Hong Kong, three of major client countries of Australian universities, would serve to shed some light on the recognition of Australian professional qualifications in these countries. In Malaysia and Singapore, recognition and registration of professionals to practice in such traditional areas such as engineering, medicine, accountancy,

pharmacy and law are regulated by professional bodies. These professional bodies are generally charged with the responsibilities of registering or deregistering professionals, recognition of degrees and assuring ethical practice in the profession. They usually work closely with their respective Ministries and the Ministry of Education. While registration criteria may differ from profession to profession, there are commonalities in practice running across all these professions. The quality and appropriateness of basic professional qualifications are just some of the many criteria used to determine suitability. Other common requirements include a period of supervised practice, sitting for and passing additional qualifying examinations, and a number of years of working experience. All these professional bodies have lists of universities and their degrees that are recognized as qualifying degrees for the purpose of registering as a professional practitioner.

9.1 Malaysia

The Legal Profession Qualifying Board of Malaysia, for example, has on its list 14 Australian universities and their L.L.B. degrees that they recognize as qualifying degrees for admission to the Bar in Malaysia effective from 1st of May 1999. In a paper entitled 'Guidelines for Recognition of Australian and New Zealand Law Degrees' the rules regulating the recognition of qualifying degrees cover such matters as entry requirements to the degree course, duration of the degree course, subjects, twinning programmes, joint degrees, transfers, modes of study, branch campus, mature age entry and transitional, all of which are explained in the document (Legal Profession Qualifying Board Malaysia, 1998). Another similar example is the Pharmacy Board of Malaysia which has listed 6 universities in Australia, including Curtin University, as tertiary institutions whose B. Pharm degrees are recognized by the Board (Pharmacy Board, 2000). The professional bodies undertake periodic reviews of these tertiary institutions and their qualifying degrees in order to ensure that quality of training is maintained.

9.2 Singapore

A statement from the Ministry of Education of Singapore indicates categorically that there is no central authority in Singapore that assesses or grants recognition for degrees obtained from overseas universities (Singapore Civil Service, 2002). The government states that the employer should be the one deciding whether 'a degree has the qualities desired for the job and the qualifications most relevant to its needs' (Singapore Civil Service, 2002, p.3). Nevertheless, participation by transnationals in the provision of education in Singapore is controlled by the Ministry of Education. These private providers must register with the MOE which assesses the appropriateness of their curriculum, teachers, facilities, management and premises (Ziguras, 2001). Moreover, screening of degrees for acceptable professional standards in the established professions such as engineering, medicine, law and accountancy is carried out by their respective professional bodies. These bodies have lists of overseas universities and their

degrees which are recognized as suitable for registration as a professional in Singapore. An example of one such professional body and its gate keeping role is the Professional Engineers Board. In Singapore, anyone carrying out professional engineering work must be registered with the Board or, alternatively, work under a person who is a registered professional engineer of the Board. A person can only be registered as a professional engineer if he/she satisfies the Board that he/she has a degree that is acceptable to the Board and a sufficient length of post-graduate experience. According to the Institute of Engineers, Australia (2003), the Board will only accredit those engineering degrees that it considers of acceptable standards. For this purpose, the Board looks into the degree course's admission criteria, qualifications of the teaching staff, teaching and research facilities and the quality of the graduates. Recognition of some engineering degrees from an Australian university does not imply that other engineering degrees from the same university will automatically receive recognition. At the time of writing, the IEA (2003) points out that the Board only recognizes only four of the eight engineering courses offered by Curtin University. Furthermore, the applicant for registration is required to attend a professional interview and provide certificates of good conduct. Therefore, registration is an involved process and is not based on quality of training alone.

9.3 Hong Kong

The Special Administrative Region (SAR) of Hong Kong regulates the provision of 'non-local courses' by means of an Ordinance, the *Non-local Higher and Professional Education (Regulation) Ordinance*. This legislation was passed in 1996 (French, 1998) and came into effect in June 1997 (Evans and Tregenza, 2001). It is administered by the Hong Kong Council for Academic Accreditation (HKCAA). The legislation, through a system of registration, control over advertising, refunding students in cases of default, and regulating the use of premises, has the primary objective of protecting students against the marketing of substandard non-local courses. Therefore, all courses that lead to non-local degrees, with exemptions for those courses conducted by a non-local institution in collaboration with a local institution, are required to apply for registration. Information on registration details and major criteria for registration are available on their website: <http://www.hkcaa.edu.hk/services.htm>

The following criteria listed on the HKCAA (2003) website provide useful insights for internationalising curricula:

For a course leading to an academic qualification:

- *The institution must be a recognised institution,*
- *Effective measures must be in place to ensure that the standard of the course is maintained at a level comparable with a course conducted in the home country leading to the same qualifications, and*

- *This comparability in standard is recognised by that institution, the academic community and the relevant accreditation authorities in the home country.*

For a course leading to a professional qualification:

- *The course is recognised by the professional body for the purpose of awarding the qualification, and*
- *The professional body is generally recognised in the home country as an authoritative and representative professional body in the relevant profession.*

An example of an agreement for mutual recognition signed in June 2000 between the Hong Kong Society of Accountants with the Certified Practising Accountants (CPA) Australia and the Association of Certified Chartered Accountants (ACCA) illustrates the role that professional bodies play in the recognition of professional degrees. The HKSA states that the key feature of the agreement is that only the examination element for membership is recognized by both accountancy bodies. Members of CPA and ACCA wishing to join the society are required to meet basic membership criteria such as minimum age, character references and practical work experience. Applicants for membership of HKSA are also required to pass certain prescribed examinations such as Practising Certificate examination in local law and tax before they can register as members (HKSA, 2000).

The attitude of the Hong Kong government vis-à-vis trade in educational services is best summed up by Nigel French, the Secretary-General of the University Grants Committee of Hong Kong: 'Legitimate competition on the basis of equivalent standards of provision is welcomed. However we also wish to protect our consumers from "cowboy" operations and "diploma mills" ' (French, 1998, p.5).

Therefore, given the number of players in a curriculum process involving both local and foreign tertiary institutions, governments, professional organizations, and other stakeholders, curriculum review in a continual manner (Benchmark 10.5, 2), and in tandem with client needs, appears an imperative for the university. Curriculum reviews should then become part of Benchmark 10.6 prescriptions for good practice which includes: 'Quality assurance and accreditation measures which assure the university and clients of the integrity of both campus and distance education programs offshore' (p.132).

10.0 Internationalisation and the Teaching Staff

In relation to international experience of staff which is a key factor in McKinnon Benchmark 10.5 and 10.2, the point should be noted that Australia already has the highest proportion of teaching staff who have acquired their highest qualifications from a foreign university. The "highest earned degree from another country" is a measure often used as an index of

internationalisation. Welch (2002) indicates that some 20 percent of the respondents surveyed had earned their highest degree from another country. This measure under-represents the true strength of Australian academics' international experience since it does not take into account academics from foreign countries who have earned their highest degrees from an Australian university. However, a breakdown of the figure into the countries from where these highest degrees were earned indicates that they were overwhelmingly from English speaking countries, the United States (44%), United Kingdom (26%) and Canada (10%). Australia's Asian neighbours and the sources of the majority of its international students appear to be under-represented.

The rapid pace of change occurring presently in every discipline makes it an imperative for Australian academics to keep abreast of contemporary changes and developments in order to remain current and relevant. Maintaining close and continuing contacts with colleagues overseas, carrying out international or collaborative research, working and teaching overseas are just some of the ways that Australian academics can remain internationally focused. Moreover, as Welch (2002) describes it, '...it is important to know and understand one's neighbours, partners and competitors' (p.7). From the trade perspective, the need to be internationally focused is further underscored by recent trade agreements such as those under APEC and GATS (Marginson, 2002) which seek to liberalize services of which education is a component. Moreover, understanding and working collaboratively with one's neighbours 'demands a much more sophisticated appreciation of regional cultural, political, economic, religious, and social traditions' (Welch, 2002, p.7).

A way to achieve these objectives is by operationalising the McKinnon Benchmark 10.5, 3 on good practice which indicates that: "25% of academic staff will have recent research, teaching or practice supervision experience, with a duration of more than four weeks, in an overseas country within the last three years" (p.131).

Additionally, it is useful for teaching staff to learn a new, culturally distant, language as part of teaching skills development as it would give the learner a heightened appreciation of the difficulty of learning and articulating abstract concepts in a language and culture that is not one's own. Language skills are also an important element of staff development (e.g., Haigh, 2002). With the experience of communicating in a newly acquired language, the connection between the lack of language skills and the perceptions of plagiarism, memorization, the lack of reflection, the lack of critical thinking, and the pressure of examinations and coursework, would become clearer. Haigh (2002) says, 'However, those who have a working knowledge of a second language will appreciate how difficult it can be to follow a native speaker in full spate' (p.59).

While this may not absolve the offending student of blame, it helps to add a new dimension to the deficient student equation.

Both Welch (2002) and Haigh (2002) indicate that internationalization places added demands on staff that are already shouldering a very high workload. The point arises that time must be made available to them for reflecting on their current practice and investing new energy in making changes. Otherwise resentment will ensue and further efforts to internationalise will be futile.

Figure 1. Self-Audit Checklist

1. The lecturer is well informed on international issues, standards and practices in his own discipline/professional area.
2. The lecturer has developed a range of teaching skills and strategies to cater for a culturally diverse classroom.
3. The lecturer has developed international contacts in his own teaching or professional area.
4. The lecturer has recent research, teaching or practice supervision experience, with a duration of more than four weeks, in an overseas country within the last three years (McKinnon Benchmark).

10.1 Theoretical Underpinnings

Given the challenges of international competition and the new skills needed to ensure that internationalization is infused into teaching, subject matter contents, structure and organization of course, professional development of the academic staff should be seen as an integral part of the whole process of internationalization (Leask, 1999). In advocating staff development and training as a vital element to the internationalizing process, Haigh (2002) makes the observation that

- Few staff have taught outside their own national context;
- They have never lived as a “foreigner” or a “social minority”;
- They may be ignorant of the educational traditions that produced the new students they try to teach; and
- They may not have the perceptual skills to understand their own cultural traditions in a manner that allows them to represent it and preserve its integrity in a multicultural situation; and thus
- They cannot understand outsiders’ reaction to their own tradition.

While this critical observation may not apply across all universities or to all staff in all instances, they do provide useful indicators for self-evaluation. Haigh (2002) contends that most anthropologists have long believed that these skills are best acquired by direct experience. He

suggests faculty exchange for research and opportunity to work with the educators of student source areas. This contention is consistent with the objectives of the McKinnon Benchmark indicated above. In the Benchmark, internationally experienced staff are described as those staff with 'significant experience abroad including teaching sabbaticals; teaching in offshore programs; research projects with international partners; active role in International Associations' (p.135).

Speaking in terms of the U.S. experience, Green (2002) points out that a number of American colleges that have achieved significant progress in internationalizing undergraduate experience also provide opportunities for teaching staff to travel overseas in order to conduct research, meet with colleagues, or accompany students. The outcomes indicate that participating staff had been transformed by the experience in every case, particularly those who had little international experience beforehand. The investment had a plough back effect in that, with increased interest and enthusiasm, their teaching and their research likewise improved.

Staff development for internationalisation encompasses more than just increasing cross-cultural awareness, sensitivity and understanding. It needs to focus on teaching and learning processes as well as content. Students from different cultures vary in their approaches to learning. An understanding of how students learn must inform the teacher's approach to facilitating learning in order for it to be appropriate and thus effective.

11.0 Developing Internationalised Programmes and Courses

The rationale for internationalizing the curriculum is not just premised on giving local students a richer learning experience that would allow them to practice their profession internationally but also the observation that simply enrolling international students in courses designed for Australian students for Australian conditions are often inappropriate. As Welch (2002) says, 'Comparativists have long pointed out that such unrenovated course designs may not reflect the context in which the knowledge is to be applied by international students' (p. 10). This is particularly true for the social science courses such as education in which cultural background to a very large extent informs learning and student/teacher relationships. It is also a matter of equity. Course content must be adjusted so that it does not advantage local students on account of better exposure to local conditions (Haigh, 2002).

Nevertheless, Australia already has a long history of providing education to a very diverse international clientele through its association with the Commonwealth and the Colombo Plan. Experience in the past had informed practice to put Australia among the most successful of tertiary education providers internationally. The present effort to further internationalize its

curriculum may be seen as a move to further refine what has already been achieved; and to keep pace with the changing global environment.

In its efforts, Australia is assisted by its use of English as the medium of instruction. Except for language courses, almost all other programmes and courses in Australian universities, regardless of whether they are located in Australia or overseas, are delivered in English. In this respect, Australia has an advantage over other developed countries in its provision of tertiary education to an international clientele because English is increasingly recognized as a global language (Welch, 2002). However, there is emerging interest among Australian universities in exploring the possibility of delivering courses in the language of the client, for example, in Mandarin for Chinese students. While it may still be a long way away before programme delivery in the client country's language becomes a common phenomenon, it does reflect the willingness of Australian tertiary education to be flexible and innovative in order to be more responsive to the needs of the students.

At the heart of the internationalisation program is the desire to give all students a better understanding of the world in which we live and the ability to work effectively in international professional environments. On a more functional level, perhaps a quotation from Gurin, Dey, Hurtado, and Gurin (2002) would serve to provide a useful, albeit corporate, perspective:

Diversity in academic institutions is essential to teaching students the human relations and analytical skills they need to thrive and lead in the work environments of the twenty-first century. These skills include the abilities to work well with colleagues and subordinates from diverse backgrounds; to view issues from multiple perspectives; and to anticipate and respond with sensitivity to the needs and cultural differences of highly diverse customers, colleagues, employees, and global business partners. [General Motors, as cited in Gurin, et al., 2002, p. 361]

Internationalisation of the curriculum could occur at three different levels of the curriculum process: 1) Programme/Course Level; 2) Unit Level; and 3) Delivery/Instruction Level. At the course level, internationalization would involve a number of common practices such as:

- Teaching part of a programme in an overseas country.
- Having joint degree programmes with an overseas country in which not all parts of the programmes are designed and taught by Australian academics.
- Study overseas programmes where students may take a number of courses overseas and have these accepted as credits for their degree.

- Short overseas sojourn for intensive instruction by foreign teaching staff; or project based instruction that requires them to research and collect their data from a foreign country.
- Programmes that lead to internationally recognised professional qualifications.
- Professional degree programmes specifically designed to cater for the needs of international students and overseas professionals in order to satisfy recognition and registration requirements in their home country.
- Programs, especially postgraduate research programmes that allow the students to carry out research on matters affecting their own countries.

Furthermore, internationalization could be achieved at the course development level by including contents and activities that

- Are based on comparative studies;
- Have an international focus;
- Are interdisciplinary in nature;
- Have an international component;
- Give students a choice of national contexts on which to base their study; and
- Approach the subject matter through cases, simulations and role plays that provide insights into contexts and conditions.

Finally, the internationalization process is better sustained if all courses developed are audited for international quality.

Figure 2. Self-Audit Checklist

1. The curriculum developer designs programmes to maximize interaction between local and international students.
2. The curriculum developer designs programmes to support interaction between international students and the local/regional communities.
3. The curriculum developer designs courses that do not advantage any particular group of students on account of better pre-arrival exposure.
4. The curriculum developer designs courses that have an international component (international subject, area/region studies, issues).
5. The curriculum developer designs courses that have an international or global focus.
6. The curriculum developer designs courses that are multidisciplinary in nature.
7. The curriculum developer designs courses using teaching and learning strategies that maximizes understanding of context and conditions.
8. The curriculum developer includes study visits and intensive course overseas by foreign lecturers where possible.
9. The curriculum developer designs courses based on comparative studies.
10. The curriculum developer provides opportunities for international students to conduct their studies based on their own countries' needs and conditions; and allows them to use data from their own country as resource.
11. The curriculum developer makes provisions, where appropriate, for delivering parts of the course offshore.
12. The curriculum developer allows appropriate units to be taken in a suitable overseas tertiary institution and accepts successfully completed units as credits towards the student's degree.
13. The curriculum developer is aware of major aspects of foreign governments' sensitivities on cultural, economic and political issues related to tertiary education.
14. The curriculum developer has adequate knowledge of how and why client countries regulate tertiary education provision by overseas universities; and the organisations responsible for administering these regulations.
15. The curriculum developer keeps abreast of developments in client countries of rules and regulations governing the provision of tertiary education.
16. The curriculum developer understands the curriculum requirements of the client countries' professional organisations and their registration procedures.
17. The curriculum developer establishes and maintains contacts with foreign professional bodies in his/her area of specialty.
18. The curriculum developer designs programmes that lead to internationally recognised professional qualifications.
19. The curriculum developer designs programmes that include the study of foreign languages and intercultural skills.
20. The curriculum developer includes contents designed specifically for international students.
21. The curriculum developer designs programmes that lead to joint degrees with foreign academic and professional institutions.

11.1 Theoretical Perspectives

Before embarking on developing an internationalised curriculum, it is useful first to review in a nutshell what outcomes the curriculum developer wishes to achieve by internationalisation. For this purpose, an adaptation by Haigh (2002) of the University of South Australia's indicators for a graduate who demonstrates an international perspective as a professional and a citizen serves as a useful model.

Table 2. Graduate Qualities targets for international curricula

Graduate Qualities Indicator (motif)	Generic indicators of graduate quality in an international Curriculum (A graduate from an international curriculum should display the following attributes as a professional and citizen)
1. Open to 'Otherness'	A willingness to think globally and inclusively, able to consider issues from a variety of perspectives and worldviews
2. International perspective	Awareness of the implications of local decisions and actions for international contexts and communities and of international developments, decisions and actions for local communities and contexts
3. Self- aware	Awareness of own cultural tradition and its perspectives in relation to other culture and their perspectives
4. Aware of international professional contexts	Appreciates the relation between his/her field of study locally and professional traditions elsewhere
5. Respects 'Otherness'	Appreciates the importance of multicultural diversity to professional practice and citizenship. Accepts and values diversity in language and culture.
6. Understands 'Otherness'	Understands the basic tenets of different world-views. Able 'to see the world as others conceive it'. Appreciates the complex interacting factors that contribute to notions of culture and cultural relationships. Recognises intercultural issues relevant to professional practice.

Adapted from Haigh (2002, p. 53)

To further consolidate these concepts into a more practical format that can be used to guide curriculum design, Edwards, Crosling, Petrovic-Lazarovic and O'Neill (2003) constructed a 3-level typology that describes the various stages of learning outcomes envisaged and the approaches that could be used to achieve these outcomes.

Table 3. A typology of curriculum internationalisation

		Teaching strategy	Teaching Method	Outcome Learning
Level 1	International Awareness	Infusion of international perspective in general curriculum	Supplement existing curriculum with international examples; recognise origins of knowledge	Student expect and respect differences, have an international attitude
Level 2	International competence	Engagement with the specialist international dimension of the discipline	Add international study options, have students engage with international students, in-depth study of international subjects	Students are capable of performing their profession for international clients
Level 3	International expertise	Immersion of students in international study	Study (possibly in a foreign language), live and work in international setting	Students become global professional, at home in many locations

[Source: Edwards, Crosling, Petrovic-Lazarovic and O'Neill (2003)]

This typology has merit in that it reflects the major stages of change from an assumed monocultural perspective to one that is held by professionals who are competent in international settings. It also provides a concise description of the types of support and facilitation that are necessary for enabling the students to reach these goals. Another of its strengths, according to the authors, is that it can be incorporated into existing curricula.

At the first level, *international awareness*, the students' assumptions are challenged. They are encouraged to reflect on their assumptions and beliefs. At the same time, efforts are made to stimulate their interest in non-domestic issues and to appreciate the different cultural bases from which knowledge is derived and applied. In this way, the students are sensitized to the different cultural interpretations that are possible within a subject matter. This leads to the next level in which the student learns to look at issues from the perspective of other cultures and to formulate appropriate culturally sensitive responses. To be able to arrive at this point, students should be provided with international study options and encouraged to work with international students. Finally, the third level is reached when students are able to work competently in an international setting. For this, they require exposure to professional work abroad. Some of the recommended strategies to give students this exposure are international work placements, double degree programmes with universities located in different countries, studying a semester at a

university in another country, and other study abroad options. [Edwards et al., (2003). *Internationalisation of Business Education: Meaning and implementation-* provides a useful ideas of how the various internationalization values and aims may be operationalised]

12.0 Teaching for Effective Learning

Today, one of the biggest challenges faced by teachers in higher education is the diversity of the student population. Diversity not only implies variations in learning ability but a range of socio-cultural and economic factors that influence student learning. How teachers go about addressing these diversities can have major implications for student learning and the success of tertiary programmes. As Biggs (1999) says, 'Good teaching is getting most students to use the higher cognitive level processes that the more academic students use spontaneously' (p.58). Therefore, improving student performance through teaching interventions is not only possible but highly probable if the right methods are selected and applied skillfully.

12.1 Assimilation or Accommodation?

In deliberating on the appropriate teaching approach vis-à-vis a culturally diverse class, the question invariable arises as to whether to take an assimilative or an accommodative approach. Volet (1998) argues that the assimilation approach is inadequate because it is based upon subjective and inaccurate perceptions of student learning, is value-laden, and paints a deficit model based on ethnocentrism. On the other hand, the accommodation model is also not satisfactory because it is too customer based and cannot practically cater for all styles of learning (Volet, 1998). This raises a number of difficult questions because there is a body of research evidence indicating that when teaching techniques are compatible with the learning styles of the students, even those experiencing learning difficulties are able to reverse them and become high achievers (e.g., Gay, 2002). One would then have to focus on the commonalities in learning that run across cultures and use a variety of teaching and assessment methods that does not disadvantage any particular group. Both Biggs (1999) and Volet (1998) suggest good teaching run across cultures and the best approach is to teach in a manner that maximizes effective learning by all students, both local and international. This philosophy lends comfort to the idea that one could safely use adaptive methods based on sound learning principles, regardless of whether they are, or seem to be, assimilating or accommodating.

12.2 Constructivist Framework

Before any discussion on good teaching and effective learning can be fruitful, two important perceptions must be clarified at the outset. Firstly, there must be consensus that teaching is not about mere transmission of information. It is about the teacher's role in bringing about a 'conceptual change in the students' understanding of the world' Biggs (1999, p. 60). Secondly,

there must be agreement that learning is about students engaging actively in constructing ideas and concepts for themselves based upon their previous knowledge or experience. These are fundamentally constructivist ideas. Biggs (1999) believes that constructivism can provide the framework for the teacher to reflect. He further describes it as being broad based, empirically sound, easily translated into practice, and is readily understood. Having said this, and having provided the constructivist teaching guidelines later in this document, it is now necessary to examine how to provide students with the learning activities that are likely to result in the desired learning outcomes. For this purpose, we can turn safely to Biggs' (1999) description of an 'aligned system' of instruction.

12.3 Aligned System of Instruction

The aligned system of instruction is essentially a system that brings the learning objectives, the teaching and learning activities, and the assessment into alignment. It is a criterion-referenced system which ensures maximum consistency between the three components. Central to the system is the use of verbs to effect alignment. These verbs, such as theorise, explain, reflect, apply and relate, are higher order verbs, while others, such as describe, memorise, lists or recognize, are lower order verbs. These performance words can be used to construct learning objectives that drive teaching/learning activities and assessment. Examination orientated students often use assessment to drive their learning activities. Regardless of direction, the different levels of cognition described by the verbs should be the reference for designing learning activities. This system of instruction focuses on the teaching of content to all students; and assesses them on their learning rather than on discriminating the good learners from the bad as in traditionally norm-referenced methods. [The paper by John Biggs (1999), *What the Student Does: teaching for enhanced, learning*, is essential reading for learning more about the aligned system of instruction.]

Figure 3. Self-Audit Checklist

1. The lecturer uses Bloom's Taxonomy or the SOLO Taxonomy for constructing learning objectives.
2. The lecturer designs learning activities that are aligned with the learning objectives and assessments.
3. The lecturer uses constructivist principles and concepts to guide teaching and learning.
4. The lecturer uses performance verbs to construct learning objectives and articulates learning objectives at the start of the lesson to facilitate student learning.

12.4 Theoretical Underpinnings

Teaching for effective learning is governed by a number of variables, the most obvious of which are student ability, student approaches to learning, teacher ability, teacher approaches to teaching/learning, learning environment, curriculum, teaching methods and assessment. All these factors interact synergistically within the system to produce a certain learning outcome. In order to provide an understanding of priorities and focus in teaching, Biggs (1999) uses a systems model to formulate the assumptions underlying three common theories of teaching:

1. *Learning is primarily a direct result of individual differences between students.*
2. *Learning is primarily the result of appropriate teaching.*
3. *Learning is the result of students' learning-focused activities which are engaged by students as a result both of their own perceptions and inputs and of the total teaching context.* [Biggs, 1999, p.64]

As he explains, the first level is not satisfactory as it assumes that learning occurs through the direct transmission of information using mostly straight lecture methods (i.e., teacher-centred strategies). If students do not learn, it is because they suffer a deficit in learning. Hence, Biggs (1999) calls it *blame-the-student theory*.

Level two is an improvement but still not satisfactory because it places the onus fully on the teacher. Teaching is still conceived as a transmission process, but of concepts and understanding. The success of students rests on what the teacher does, especially with regard to management of the learning environment. This time, the blame is on the teacher.

The third level of teaching represents a rounded integration of learning facilitation, appropriate learning activities, and assessments into a system that focuses on the students and what they actually do to achieve the desired learning outcomes. That system is reflected in the aligned system of instruction indicated above.

Lesson planning for an aligned system of instruction must begin by clarifying the level of understanding that is required to achieve a satisfactory level of achievement. The hierarchical nature of knowledge is defined in a number of models, the most useful and practical of which are the SOLO Taxonomy and Bloom's Taxonomy. Both of these taxonomies can be used to guide the construction of learning objectives and assessments.

13.0 Planning a Lesson that Fosters Internationalisation

As in all formal teaching, careful planning and preparation enhance effectiveness and efficiency. Apart from learning objectives, lesson planning that considers the following accords with the internationalisation objectives indicated above.

1. Do the objectives listed need to deal with variations in practice that occurs from place to place or country to country? If so,
 - i. How do they vary?
 - ii. Why do they vary?
 - iii. What do the students need to know in order to be recognised practitioners internationally or by their own country's professional body?
 - iv. How many examples need to be introduced in order to ensure that the learning of basic principles is enhanced by an understanding of why and how practices may vary?
2. Are there internationally agreed upon perspectives and standards of practice that have to be highlighted?
3. What sorts of activities need to be structured into the lesson in order that student learning is enhanced both in terms of an understanding of principles and variations in practice?
4. Has a variety of teaching/learning aids, techniques and strategies been used to cater for the different learning styles and preferences of a culturally diverse class?
5. Have written materials such as brief notes, overhead transparencies or computer-mediated communication been prepared to assist those students who have difficulty in oral comprehension?

Figure 4. Self-Audit Checklist

1. The lecturer is familiar with the curriculum requirements (i.e., employers, professional bodies) of the countries where the students will be practicing.
2. The lecturer has included, where appropriate, international content, comparative and cross cultural perspectives and approaches in the lesson contents.
3. The lecturer plans a student-centred rather than didactic instruction.
4. The lecturer provides for negotiated or student constructed learning.
5. The lecturer prepares a lesson using a variety of teaching/learning aids, techniques, methods and strategies to cater for the diverse learning styles and preferences of students.
6. The lecturer uses opportunities available for inviting international visiting academics to interact with students.
7. The lecturer uses overhead transparencies and written outlines as aids to comprehension.
8. The lecturer has considered using computer-mediated communication to supplement or support his/her teaching.
9. The lecturer plans group activities and assignments that maximize interaction and cooperation between culturally diverse students.

13.1 Theoretical Underpinnings

University studies, by their very nature, are international. Textbooks and examples are drawn from around the world in a manner that is intuitive and almost second nature to academics. That being the case, the question arises as to what else is there to be internationalised since the curriculum is already largely an internationalised one. To answer this question, three objectives come into focus:

1. Subject matter taught must be internationalised to the extent that the knowledge and skills outcomes meet professional standards that allow the students to practice internationally or in specific countries.
2. Pedagogically, internationalisation can be used to strengthen student learning of subject matter principles and theories.
3. Lecturer must provide students with a broader worldview and the concept of world citizenship.
4. The style of teaching should be flexible and student-centre.

With these objectives in mind, it must also be iterated that a balance needs to be established between the learning of Australian content and international content to the extent that student professional competence is maximized. This is to ensure that education is firmly anchored in an Australian educational system while providing the flexibility for students to apply their professional skills and knowledge in other parts of the world. Moreover, there are research and informal indications that offshore students value studies based on the Australian context as this offers them an opportunity to look beyond their own local environment (e.g., Soliman, 2002). In which case, international students are, on their own accord, seeking international perspectives. Australian contents in an Australian context provide opportunities for international students to move beyond situated learning as they see at first hand how things work in a different condition and context. This is an advantage which 'stay-at-home' students do not have; and thus further justifies international content. Needless to say, a balance has to be established between teaching Australian and international content. Where the balance lies is best left to the individual lecturers who are experts in the field.

Including international content into a lesson strengthens learning in a number of ways consistent with constructivist principles:

It provides multiple representation of reality.

Multiple representations avoid oversimplification and represent the complexity of the real world. [Jonassen, as cited in Chen, 2000]

A number of researchers have found that computer-mediated communication (CMC) methods are a useful tool for supplementing or supporting student learning for CHC students (e.g., Kelly and Ha, 1998; Smith and Smith, 2002). Both groups of researchers indicate that Chinese learners find the information available on-line valuable support for their learning. Moreover, on-line quizzes or self-assessments are also popular among these students who are known to be strategic in their orientation towards examinations. Kelly and Ha (1998) point out that the asynchronous nature of CMC allows students time to reflect on the subject before they compose a message. This, together with effective feedback (Ayre and Nafalski, 2000), is of particular assistance to reticent students. More importantly, Smith and Smith (2002) mention the use of CMC in collaborative group learning in which a topic is discussed by students receiving feedback from peers and teachers until an understanding is reached. These strengths of CMC can be harnessed and put to good use in the teaching of international students.

14.0 Lesson Delivery and Classroom Interaction

In a culturally diverse classroom, students come with a variety of learning traditions ranging from a conservative authoritative learning environment to one that is reflective of the teaching and learning styles of the host country. Therefore, the academic's beliefs about student learning approaches, especially that vis-à-vis deep and surface learning, is constantly being challenged by new research findings. A paper by Anna Jones (1999) [Appendix 4] highlights this dilemma. It suffices here to say that there are still large gaps in our understanding of the learning approaches of different cultural groups. In view of this complexity, teaching and learning is best approached through an awareness of differences that can arise from:

1. Cultural differences in interpersonal interaction
2. Lack of language skills
3. Previous learning environment that informs approach to learning
4. Differences in teacher/student expectations
5. Possible differences in rhetorical patterns
6. Differences in worldviews

It is indeed important, as pointed out by Jones (1999), to...*think about our own assumptions about teaching and learning, identifying what we expect and value, and making this transparent and modelling it for all students* (p.8).

Nevertheless, a review of literature on Chinese learning styles produced the reassuring indication by a number of researchers such as Biggs (1996a, 1996b) and Chan (2001) that Chinese learners develop their learning approaches in response to the environment. Empirical evidence that learning approaches are not inherent in Chinese learners but developed in response to the

environment is provided by Chan (2001). Therefore, one may interpret this as indicating that if the teacher creates an environment that fosters learning in a particular fashion, one could expect the students to rise to the occasion (Volet and Renshaw, 1996).

The perception above leads then to the question as to whether there is an approach to teaching that can work across cultures. Chan (2001) cites Biggs as arguing 'that principles of good teaching might exist across cultures, although educators need to be sensitive to the teaching contexts and the characteristics of the learners involved' (p. 183). Among the principles of good teaching that would stand out in this case are those embedded in constructivism.

14.1 Constructivism as an Andragogical Orientation

Academic staff seeking to encourage international students to engage actively in learning would find constructivist teaching a useful tool. Without going into the highly involved theories of constructivism, the idea central to constructivism is that knowledge is actively constructed by the learner rather than passively received. Researchers (e.g., Chan, 2001; Biggs, 1996a) have found that the concepts in constructivism are not incompatible with the teaching and learning of the Chinese. Biggs (1996a) mentions researchers describing teaching approaches in China as constructivist.

The rationale behind the use of constructivism in a culturally diverse class is that it acknowledges that learning is 1) socially constructed, 2) related to what the student already knows, and 3) related to the strategy that the learner uses to acquire knowledge. All these are consistent with the effective teacher's need to understand the students' prior knowledge of a subject matter, the social environment and contexts in which their existing knowledge was acquired, and the student's learning styles, before they can effectively address student learning. Constructivist principles are also compatible with the academic's desire to foster meaningful learning. Moreover, as indicated in the last item, it encourages cooperative effort which is a desirable factor in internationalisation. [Chan (2001): Promoting Learning and Understanding through Constructivist Approaches for Chinese Learners]. A perusal of constructivist characteristics would serve to guide teaching using this approach. The eight characteristics that distinguish constructivist learning environment as proposed by Jonassen (1994) are:

1. *Constructivist learning environments provide multiple presentations of reality.*
2. *Multiple representations avoid oversimplification and represent the complexity of the real world.*
3. *Constructivist learning environment emphasized knowledge construction instead of knowledge reproduction.*

4. *Constructivist learning environments emphasize authentic tasks in a meaningful context rather than abstract instruction out of context.*
5. *Constructivist learning environments provide learning environments such as real-world setting or case-based learning instead of predetermined sequences of instruction.*
6. *Constructivist learning environments encourage thoughtful reflection on experience.*
7. *Constructivist learning environments 'enable context- and content- dependent knowledge construction'.*
8. *Constructivist learning environments support 'collaborative construction of knowledge through social negotiation, not competition among learners for recognition'.*

An Internationally Friendly Approach to Teaching

Therefore, there are a number of teaching/learning strategies that can be used to achieve greater internationalization.

1. Taking greater care in making explicit your expectations to the students.
2. Preparing students for classroom interactions. International students may not be familiar with the culture of interaction in an Australian setting. Even setting the ground rules or guidelines for classroom interactions, such as groupwork, would preempt a number of problems. [See Appendix 6 for example.]
3. Asking for feedbacks and answering student queries.
4. Modeling your own thought processes, for example, explaining how you rationalise in order to arrive at certain conclusions.
5. Encouraging students to contribute their experiences in classroom discussions.
6. Encouraging students to ask questions based on what they see as differences in their own environment.
7. Building on students' understanding of a subject matter, albeit that their prior understanding may have been acquired in a different setting.
8. Where appropriate, explaining ideas and concepts using analogies that students can identify with.
9. Encouraging students to relate various experiences acquired under different cultural or environmental contexts to basic principles and theories.
10. Encouraging students to work in culturally mixed groups

Figure 5. Self-Audit Checklist

1. The lecturer reexamines assumptions about international student learning.
2. The lecturer uses strategies to encourage maximum interaction between local and international students.
3. The lecturer acknowledges the cultural diversity of the students' backgrounds and uses international students as a resource.
4. The lecturer uses international examples and perspectives in his teaching.
5. The lecturer discusses the cultural underpinnings of knowledge, thought and professional practice.
6. The lecturer invites guests with international experience to speak to the students.
7. The lecturer probes student's prior understanding and experience of the subject matter.
8. The lecturer builds on the existing knowledge of the students.
9. The lecturer encourages the students to be more confident in expressing their own ideas.
10. The lecturer regards wrong responses to questions as useful clues to student learning.
11. The lecturer provides scaffolding for students to achieve the desired learning outcomes.
12. The lecturer uses opportunities for relating students' experience of conditions and contexts in their own countries to subject principles and theories.
13. The lecturer makes explicit his/her intentions and rationale in selecting materials and methods (e.g., subject matter for discussion, group work).
14. The lecturer prepares the students for classroom discussions and interactions, making explicit expectations and, where appropriate, providing ground rules in order to maximize benefits from interactions (e.g, everyone must be given an opportunity to speak).
15. The lecturer models his own thought processes by making explicit the steps he has taken to arrived at certain solutions or conclusions.
16. The lecturer uses analogies that all students can relate to in order to facilitate learning.
17. The lecturer uses a variety of teaching/learning techniques that caters for the diverse learning styles and preferences of the students.
18. The lecturer makes time available to meet with students individually to discuss study related matters.
19. The lecturer allows students enough time to answer questions.
20. The lecturer creates a warm and accepting classroom climate.
21. The lecturer supplements his lectures with written notes on OHPs, Power Point, or hard copy.

14.2 Theoretical Underpinnings

The challenge faced by an academic in managing and facilitating the learning of a culturally diverse class is best served by a review of research findings on student learning. A brief survey of the continuing debate on student learning styles and strategies would make the need to examine one's assumptions about the international student and their learning self-evident.

14.2.1 Learning Styles

A number of earlier researchers on student learning tended to construct a deficit model of the Asian learner. Much of the conclusions made about Asian student learning were based on surface observations and simplistic views of cultural differences. Credibility was given to the view that Asian learners, in particular the so called "Confucian Heritage Culture" students, were rote learners who do not question, were unable to reflect, analyse, think independently and

organise their ideas in a logical and linear manner (Jones, 1999). However, evidence from more recent research is mounting that this view is highly flawed. While differences may exist as a result of differences in culture and previous learning environment, they may not be as large or as immutable as stereotypical views would suggest. Stereotypical views, as in all ideological constructs, deny the passage of time.

Challenge to the stereotypical view of Confucian Heritage Culture students as passive, reproductive and surface learners comes from the work of such scholars as Kember and Gow (1990), Biggs (1994, 1996), Lee (1996), Mok, et al. (2001), Biggs and Watkins (1996, 2001) and Volet (1998). Volet (1998) describes early Australian literature on international students' learning as atheoretical and anecdotal. From his research, Biggs (1994) concluded that CHC students generally have a more academic approach to learning (low surface and high deep) than Australians and that their academic performance in international comparisons is also consistently higher than students from most Western countries. Given these hard data, Biggs (1994) suggests that there is a Western misconception about the learning styles and strategies of students from CHCs. This misconception is further attested to by a research carried out at the Royal Melbourne Institute of Technology on 1235 students to compare the learning approaches of local and international students. Results indicate that there was no significant difference in overall deep or surface learning between the two groups (Ramburuth, 2000). The deficit model has also been challenged recently from the perspective of international students from India (Ninnes, Aitchison & Kalos, 1999).

In the course of our learning and thinking about other people, especially those whom we meet for the first time, it is natural to generalise. Stening (1979) explains that stereotyping is largely part of a person's need to categorize objects in his environment which, for reasons related to inadequate experience or information, the person is unable to discriminate between at the individual level. In pondering Stening's explanation, I would suggest that the truth of the matter is better served by substituting the word 'generalising' for 'stereotyping' since the latter is a more extreme form of the former. Therefore, people make generalisations all the time. However, overgeneralization to the point of stereotyping is not desirable. As pointed out by Bem (1970): *Sometimes, for example, stereotypes are based on no valid experience at all but are picked up as hearsay or are formed to rationalize our prejudices. Then, too, stereotypes are frequently used to justify shabby treatment of individuals on the basis of assumed group characteristics which neither they nor the group, in fact, possess* (p.8).

Stereotyping can damage learning in several known ways. Firstly, it can lead to misdiagnosis of student learning, thus compromising the teacher's ability to guide students according to their

individual needs. Secondly, students are known to be notoriously sensitive about teachers' opinion of them (Reid, 1989). Negative stereotyping, communicated to students either knowingly or unwittingly, alienates them from the teacher. Winning back their confidence becomes a difficult task. Thirdly, for the less confident students, stereotyping can result in self-fulfilling prophecies.

Differences in the personalities, culture and experiences of a class of international students informs their learning styles and preferences. Some are more visual learners, others learn better by engaging in learning activities, yet others learn better by working with peers. Using a variety of teaching/learning aids, techniques and strategies helps to meet the diverse learning needs of the students.

In essence, what should be avoided assiduously by academic staff handling a culturally diverse class is creating a classroom climate in which a threat of stereotyping (Gay, 2002) is felt. While this idea is not new in a university that has achieved considerable success in internationalisation, reiteration brings it to a conscious level for continual processing. One may argue that it is not just a matter of care for learners under one's charge but one of social justice. In a situation where there is inadequate knowledge by the lecturer of the students' personal and socio-cultural backgrounds, and insufficient cultural capital on the part of the students to function effectively in a new environment, misunderstandings are rife. Both staff and students must be aware of such pitfalls.

14.2.2 The Rote Learning Myth

Rote learning is generally taken to mean learning by memorising without attention to meaning. Many students from the Far East, the so called CHC students, appear to the Western observer to indulge in a high degree of repetitive learning that has been interpreted as 'rote' learning. As pointed out by Biggs, such an interpretation is incorrect in as much as the student's intention with respect to meaning is not taken into account.

The rote learning myth is further demystified by a recent research carried out by Entwistle and Entwistle (2003) who concluded that deep learning occurs even if the student sets out to learn by memorising. In their analysis of the relationship between memorising and understanding, the researchers make a distinction between 'memorisation' and 'committing to memory'. They describe memorising as 'a largely mechanical and unreflective process of *forcing* knowledge into memory by conscious effort'; while committing to memory is repetitive learning 'with understanding being sequentially deepened and regularly checked' (p.36). Therefore, they warn against too readily linking intention to a specific approach to learning. They contend that deep learning can include a degree memorisation, especially of specific details or terminology; while a surface approach to learning can result in at least a small amount of understanding

even if it is reproduced from lecture notes. In this respect, their description of 'committing to memory' seems to resemble the 'deep memorising' or 'repetitive learning' as a strategy to achieve deep learning observed among CHC students. Given this observation, Biggs (1994) made an astute observation of the difference in approach to learning between the West and the East. In the West, people 'believe in exploring first, then in the development of skill; the Chinese believe in skill development first, which typically involves repetitive (not rote!) learning, after which one would have something to be creative with' (p. 48). This approach would be familiar to Westerners learning oriental martial arts where the kung fu master's maxim of 'Learn to do it properly first, the logic will come to you' underlie all training.

There are a number of plausible reasons why students use memorising strategies to cope with their tertiary education. Biggs (1994) mentions students choosing a repetitive learning strategy in order to optimise retrieval in the examination. Kember and Gow (1990) reported an interview of Hong Kong students who intimated that when the subject is badly taught and they have insufficient time to reflect, they use memorising in order to pass their test. This points to the relationship between student learning and teaching. The other nexus between learning and teaching appears to lie in students' response to examinations. In places such as Singapore and Hong Kong where the education system is strongly assessment-orientated, there is a tendency to memorise model answers (Volet, 1998). Examination orientated surface learning is also observed by Smith, Miller and Cassini (1998) who attributed it to a fear of failure among Chinese students.

Another common complaint by academic staff teaching international students is the tendency of some students to carry out what has been described as reproductive learning. In this, students are said to reproduce exactly what has been taught by the teacher without incorporating their own reflections and ideas from other sources. Volet (1998) explains that this tendency is exacerbated by the difficulty of studying and writing in a second language. Students unable to express their own ideas in the language of instruction will find it difficult to avoid reporting their newly acquired knowledge verbatim. Therefore, reproduction of learning is used as a coping strategy where inadequate powers of expression limit the student's ability to articulate his/her reflections on the subject matter. The idea underlying this coping strategy appears to be that if one reproduces what the teacher says, he/she cannot fail one because the facts that they have provided are all present in the reproduced answers. As Kirby, Woodhouse and Ma (1996) say in regard to second language learners, *...Asian university students commonly respond to the intense pressure for academic achievement by adopting memorization strategies, and this may be particularly for such students in English-language (L2) universities. Another reason why L2 students, particularly those who are less fluent, may tend to adopt strategies such as*

memorization arises from the relative difficulty of working in L2. [Kirby, J. R., Woodhouse, R. A., and Ma, Y., 1996, p. 144]

14.2.3 Language Difficulties

Students learning in a second language will have more language associated learning difficulties than the majority of local students. While language-based classes would ameliorate the problem, the system is constrained by time and cost. Time is a factor not only in learning grammatically and syntactically correct English but also in acquiring sufficient understanding of the culture that underpins language. Basic understanding of the host culture such as language strategies related to politeness that enables students to gain acceptance and to interact comfortably with mainstream staff and students alike take time to acquire.

Problems associated with language difficulties among students are exacerbated by inadequate screening of students for entry requirements in English proficiency. In her research on the English language entry requirements of 37 Australian universities for students of non-English speaking background, Coley (1999) has this to say in her conclusion:

Apparently the “gold rush mentality” referred to in “Degrees for sale” (Latham, 1995), often expressed in more noble terms by the universities as their desire for “internationalisation”, in many cases determines the international students’ suitability for university study. It has also become evident from the Survey that much of the documentation on English language entry requirements for NESB applicants needs to be corrected and updated to avoid confusion and misunderstandings. Finally, it can be concluded that doubtless many of the communication problems experienced between staff and NESB students at Australian universities stem from inadequacies in the English entry requirements. These requirements need to be reviewed within the individual institutions and on a national level.

[Coley, 1999, pp.15, 16]

This contention is also supported by Haigh (2002) in his observations on minimum language requirements set for entry by nearly all universities. He says, ‘This language requirement and the language used in instruction must be equivalent. If it is not, it beholds instructors not to punish the students but rather to tackle the system that admitted them to the course inappropriately’ (p.59). A survey carried out by the Commerce and Economics Faculty of the Royal Melbourne Institute of Technology indicated that as many as 79% of the international students in the faculty require language support in comparison with 21% of local students (Ramburuth, 1999). Moreover, by matching the students’ writing grades with their average academic results, the survey found that students with higher levels of language competence tended to perform better than those with lower language competence.

To a significant degree, the observations of international students' reticence and lack of participation (e.g., Samuelowicz, 1987; Ballard, 1987; Soliman, 2002), may also be attributable to language deficiencies. Robertson, Line, Jones and Thomas (2000) researching international student problems using the Delphi technique indicate that: 'Because they were so sensitive to their language inadequacies, their full participation in classes was then extremely difficult' (p. 100). This reticence will be reduced if the environment is a supportive one in which students with limited spoken language abilities are given more time to construct and articulate their ideas. Supplementing lectures with written materials, e.g., brief notes, overhead transparencies or online texts, would go a long way towards helping students with listening difficulties.

The research findings indicated above puts the role that language proficiency plays in the academic performance of international students in better perspective. They also point to the pressing need for language support services.

14.2.4 Other Cultural and Personal Factors

It is also possible that other culturally embedded and personal factors are involved in generating learning deficits, including:

1. The perception that teachers are repositories of all knowledge and that the answers they are given are complete and cannot be challenged.
2. The attitude and values of the student in regard to learning and the purpose of his/her attendance of university (i.e. credentialism versus education).
3. The motivation, aspirations and competitiveness of the student concerned. The more motivated the student, the greater the effort to produce work beyond mere reproduction.
4. A lack of confidence in their own cognitive abilities and the fear of being wrong (i.e. losing face).
5. Examination orientated learning.
6. Family pressure and expectations (e.g., Ramburuth and McCormick, 2001).
7. Anxiety caused by worries about money and family at home.

The discussion above relates mostly to CHC students who constitute just one of the innumerable international student cohorts on Australian campuses. In regard to CHC students, it may be useful to view their passive and compliant approach to learning as the product of a socialisation process which emphasizes strict discipline and proper behaviour (Biggs, 1994). Taking this point further, the adjustment of the international student on an Australian campus could be seen in the light of a resocialisation process in which students are required to move 'from an academic culture based on a set of values and expectations that are congruent with their general

socialisation to an environment lacking familiar support structure' (Biggs, 1994, p. 56). It is thus easier, from this viewpoint, for the lecturer to empathize with the predicament of the international student attempting to adjust to a new environment.

While it is difficult to pin-point the exact nature of the student's problem, there are some useful strategies that can be used to encourage positive behaviour and attitudes towards learning. For instance, teachers can demonstrate tolerance for ambiguity and encourage participation by complimenting students as much for their efforts as for their correct answers. Students are encouraged to participate if mistakes are not looked upon as failures but as valuable resource for the teacher to evaluate learning and provide corrective feedbacks. In keeping with the concepts embedded in social learning theory, teachers could also model professional behaviour and work ethics that elicit similar positive attitudes and values in the learner.

Nevertheless, there will be a small number of students who will find it hard to adjust and have poor learning strategies that are deeply ingrained. These students are the exception and it helps to remember that students-at-risk run across all cultures.

One useful strategy to encourage students to perform in particular ways in regard to learning is to articulate clearly and unequivocally what you expect students to do, how you expect them to perform and what outcomes you expect them to produce.

14.2.5 Cognitive Modeling

As there are aspects of Western learning styles that are unfamiliar or not salient to first time students, international students cannot be expected to rise to the lecturer's expectations unless these methods of learning are demonstrated to them. In explaining social learning, Athanasou (1999) points out that cognitive skills and attitudes are largely invisible because they are by their very nature internal and personal. Unless these skills and attitudes are made obvious through words and deeds, i.e., modeled for the students to emulate, they remain inaccessible to the learner. The author explains that cognitive modeling, in which the model verbalises his/her thoughts and reasons for performing in a particular manner using modeled explanations and demonstrations, has been proven to be effective in the learning of a number of such skills. He cites research on teacher behaviour that indicates few teachers take the necessary steps to verbalise or model their own thinking processes for the benefit of students (Athanasou, 1999).

Modeling is especially necessary for tertiary academic processes such as research, essay or thesis writing and accrediting sources of information. These processes fall within a genre that may be taken for granted by the teaching staff. However, they require knowledge of procedures, rules, moral ethics and formats that have to be learned and can only be acquired over a

significant period of acculturation. A clear example lies in deductive and inductive approaches to scientific research. The application of either of these approaches may be intuitive to the seasoned researcher, but it would require careful explaining and modeling over a period of time to initiate new students to such approaches. While the students from Australian schools may, as a whole, be better exposed to such cognitive processes, it cannot be assumed that they are familiar with the processes. In this respect, it is better to regard the Australian cohort as another member of the international makeup of the class.

14.2.6 Face-to-Face Contact

International students, especially those from Hong Kong and other so called CHC countries are disposed towards seeking face-to-face contact with teaching staff, especially after lecture hours (Soliman, 2002; Kelly and Ha, 1998). This seems to be a culture based phenomenon and derives from the relationship of Chinese students with their teachers. CHC teachers are known to spend a good deal of time interacting with their students both inside and outside the classroom (Kelly and Ha, 1998). On the other hand, Western teachers are said to take a more “professional” approach to students’ need for informal contact by presenting themselves as caring persons but allocating time strictly within the bounds of office hours (Kelly and Ha, 1998). This difference does not augur well for student/teacher relationship when a similar expectation is carried onto Australian campuses where a Western cultural practice prevails. How these conflicting expectations are resolved remains moot. Nevertheless, it would appear that time made available for face-to-face contact may work towards fostering better relationships with CHC and other students.

14.2.7 Need for Structure

Another important difference in the teaching and learning of Chinese students vis-à-vis Western orientated education is their perceived need for structure in instruction (Smith and Smith, 2002; Smith, 1999) or what has been described as a step-by-step teaching/learning process (Kelly and Ha, 1998). As Kelly and Ha (1998) explain: *...many Chinese teachers were concerned with transmitting basic knowledge, not as an end in itself but as a building block for intellectual skills such as knowledge application, problem solving, or critical thinking: the familiar step-by-step intellectual approach. A second theme among Chinese teachers was of orchestrating the learning experience: estimating how much knowledge needs to be given to students as a basis for analysis and critical thinking and how much structure students need. The Western teachers were also likely to emphasise the growing intellectual independence of their students, but seemed inclined to skip over early, thorough preparation of students in achieving this end. Specific subject or discipline knowledge was often seen as irrelevant. Rather it was seen as a vehicle for teaching thinking skills and approaches to problem solving.* [Kelly and Ha, 1998, p.34]

This suggests that different cultural experiences lead to different expectations which, in turn, lead to misconceptions. Therefore, it behooves lecturers to be aware of these differences, to be explicit in their requirements/expectations and to give time for students from another learning culture to adjust.

15.0 Assignments

An assignment is any task or work that a lecturer sets for students to complete as part of a course of study. The assignment may involve an investigation, completion of certain exercises, a design or development project, a problem solving project, an evaluation/critique, and a research or inquiry-based project. In higher education, the assignment is a common method used to foster independent learning and higher order thinking skills. Therefore, a whole course of study or a part thereof may be based on assignments alone. This is often referred to as the assignment method. The learning that can be derived from an assignment, apart from subject matter knowledge, includes such generic skills as research skills, teamwork skills and genre specific communication skills. However, the desired outcomes can only be produced if the assignment is thoughtfully constructed. Poorly constructed assignments is said to contribute to students' difficulties in completing the assignment to their own and the lecturer's satisfaction (Hobson,1998). It also affects the ease and reliability of assessment.

In crafting a carefully considered assignment, lecturers have four major tasks.

1. They must decide on the aims and objectives of the assignment.
2. They must work out what the students are expected to do to meet their expectations, the appropriate level of difficulty of the tasks, and the resources and time available for completing the assignment.
3. They must decide how the assignment is to be evaluated and graded.
4. They must communicate their requirements and expectations effectively to the students.

All too often, the expectations of the lecturers are not clearly communicated to the students.

Hobson (1998) says that 'professors may well know their own expectations about the end products at the start of the assignment, but they rarely share that information with students' (p.52).

A well-planned and constructed assignment has a number of common features.

1. It explains clearly to the students the aims and objectives of the assignment and what they can expect to learn from it.
2. It is consistent with learning outcomes identified in the curriculum.
3. It states clearly what the students are expected to do and provides guidelines as to how the lecturer wants them to do it.

4. It is set at the appropriate level of difficulty, taking into consideration individual differences in ability.
5. It takes into consideration the time and resources required to complete the assignment.
6. It encourages students to bring to the assignment their experiences, culture and backgrounds.
7. It allows the student to negotiate the assignment topic to encompass subjects that are relevant to their own home conditions.
8. It states clearly the datelines for the assignments to be submitted. There are clear procedures for requesting extension of time. Penalties to be imposed on late submissions are made clear and emphasized.
9. If the assignment is a very challenging one, provision is made for the students to consult the teacher or other experts in the field.
10. It is planned and constructed with assessment in mind. Assessment should include detailed feedback to reinforce and guide student learning. Hence the assignment should be promptly marked and returned to the students.
11. It states clearly the assessment criteria for marking and grading the assignment.

If an assignment is too large, the lecturer can break it up into a number of smaller sequenced assignments. These are called linked assignments. Each part leads naturally to the next one and all parts are separately assessed.

A difficulty that can be anticipated among first year students, especially international students, is their lack of familiarity with the culture and procedures associated with assignments. Therefore, specific guidelines such as the structure and format for reporting, the amount and type of research required and the citation format (e.g., APA, Harvard) must be provided. Experience indicates that a sample of a previous student's completed work addresses a large number of fundamental questions related to writing, formatting and structuring.

Students should be advised to seek help early at the onset from the proper support networks (e.g., LSN) if they lack familiarity with writing in the required language and genre, research procedures, reporting formats and other academic skills.

The minimum of information required to guide the student through the assigned work is indicated in the diagram below.

Figure 6. Assignment Topic

Assignment Topic:	
<i>Due date:</i>	[State day, month, year; or semester week number]
<i>Task:</i>	[State the task]
<i>Purpose:</i>	[Briefly state the purpose]
<i>Objectives:</i>	[State learning objectives]
<i>Format:</i>	[Indicate reporting format e.g., research paper, major paper, workplace reports, periodical article]
<i>Audience:</i>	[The audience for which the article is written]
<i>Length:</i>	[The minimum number of words]
<i>Overview:</i>	[Provide a brief description of what, why and how you expect the work to be carried out. Indicate the minimum treatment, quality of work and outcomes expected]
<i>Grading Criteria and Mark Distribution:</i>	[State the main criteria for assessing the assignment and the distribution of marks]
<i>Contact details:</i>	[Provide staff contact numbers (e.g. email, telephone) required for seeking assistance]

Assignments are an excellent teaching strategy for fostering internationalisation. Topics can be negotiated to allow international students to work on subject matters that are relevant to their own home conditions. The information elicited by international students in their assignment tasks could contribute significantly to the intellectual discourses underlying difference and the social, economic, cultural, political and environmental contexts from which differences arise. More importantly, they provide food for thought and directions for further research that strengthen the platform on which internationalisation is built.

Hence, an assignment must be thoughtfully constructed to guide student learning. This can be achieved by posing a suitable challenge, capitalising on the strengths of the students, and providing enough support to ensure that the experience is rewarding. Furthermore, keeping track of students' progress and providing constructive feedback not only enable timely intervention when it is needed but help to avert common malpractices such as submitting work that are not their own.

Figure 7. Self-Audit Checklist

1. The lecturer has constructed the assignment with clear learning objectives that are in line with learning activities and assessment.
2. The lecturer has constructed interesting and challenging assignments set at an appropriate level of difficulty.
3. The lecturer has articulated the learning objectives to the students.
4. The lecturer has ensured that there is sufficient time and resources available to complete the assignment.
5. The lecturer has provided written guidelines making explicit his/her expectations and specifying reporting format, date due, and marking criteria.
6. The lecturer has provided opportunities for students to base their assignments on subjects that are relevant to their own home environmental, professional and cultural context.
7. The lecturer has provided continuous support and monitored progress in order to ensure successful learning experience.
8. The lecturer has provided prompt and constructive feedback.

15.1 Theoretical Underpinnings

Assignment fosters independent learning. It may be seen as an extension of the work done in a classroom or serve as the main teaching tool in a complete course of study. In completing an assignment, students engage actively in completing tasks that would reinforce or extend their understanding of a subject matter. Students learn to look at a problem critically and analytically, develop a hypothesis, plan and initiate a course of action, collect information or data, monitor their own progress, analyse the information, construct a reasoned argument, reach a conclusion and test the argument against wider reality. Carefully constructed assignments can encourage critical reflection on specific issues. Students learn to be self-reliant and resourceful; and to develop research and problem solving skills. They learn to trust their own judgments, cooperate with others, and develop an understanding of where and how to seek help when they need it.

Where assignments are set as group projects, students learn to cooperate with each other and work as a team. In which case, all the skills that accrue from working as a group will benefit the students. Before an assignment is given the lecturers must be very clear in their minds as to what they hope to achieve with the assignment. For a better understanding of its functions, assignments can be grouped according to purpose.

15.1.1 Consolidation

These are assignments designed to strengthen students' understanding of materials that have already been taught. Students are set questions and exercises that require them to recall and demonstrate understanding of previously acquired information. In this manner, they are made to revise and consolidate their learning.

In higher education, assignments may also be in the form of exercises that give students practice in recently acquired skills and procedures to strengthen their abilities in these areas. Most assignments are in the form of providing answers to specific questions that test understanding and application. There may be calculations to be completed, questions to be answered to test understanding and recall, technical drawings to be completed, problems and issues to be pondered over and commented upon, or materials to be prepared.

15.1.2 Extension

Extension assignments are given to students to extend their learning beyond what has been taught by the lecturer. Often, this method is used because the lecturer does not have sufficient time to adequately cover all aspects of a subject area. Students may be made to research a topic or a subject matter. This requires the student to read beyond the textbook, conduct surveys, carry out experiments, and make observations or inquiries. Alternatively, the students may be set an assignment that requires them to work out the solution to a problem. In doing

so, they learn to analyse the problem, work out the relationship between various component parts of the subject under study, develop a hypothesis, and try various approaches to solving the problem. Therefore, extension learning is a useful strategy to encourage further learning in an independent and self-directed manner. This is especially useful when the lecturer wants the students to take greater responsibility for their own learning, and to develop other technical and generic skills (e.g., research skills, teamwork skills or report writing skills). Extension learning is also an effective strategy for encouraging students to explore further for themselves subject areas, both local and international, that stimulate their interests. In an internationalised curriculum, students can be encouraged to carry out studies on subject matters based on their own home conditions. Many individual or group assignments at university fall into this category. Extension type assignment is especially suitable for internationalising the curriculum as the subject matter for the project can be negotiated. Comparative studies of different systems in different countries (e.g., legal system) provide greater understanding of conditions and context engendered by cultural and environmental differences.

15.1.3 Evaluation

Evaluation assignments are designed to involve the students in a higher order of learning. In this type of assignments, students may be asked to critique or interpret a piece of work. Students may be asked to interpret certain plans, instructional procedures, project proposals or laboratory findings to assess their understanding of the material. Students may also be asked to critique a piece of work for their aesthetic qualities or professional skills. They may be asked to evaluate the impact of certain world events on the social, economic, political or environmental conditions of countries around the world. For instance, they may be asked to evaluate the actions of certain world powers in the Middle East and their impact on world peace and security; or the effect of globalisation on poorer nations of the globe. Alternatively they may be asked to evaluate certain procedures for clarity and effectiveness; or certain finished products for quality of work or compliance with specifications. Evaluation tests the highest order of thinking skills in the cognitive domains of Bloom's Taxonomy. A computer software programme may be evaluated for user friendliness or appropriateness for a certain application.

15.1.4 Innovation

Innovation assignments are common in courses associated with the creative professions. Students may be required to produce a short film, a play script, architectural or landscape design, a piece of art or craft, or an advertising poster. Innovation assignments commonly require a combination of knowledge, skills and the students' own creativity to complete. The learning here spans the whole range of cognitive, psychomotor and affective domains described by Blooms Taxonomy. In addition, they require inputs from the student's own creative abilities.

Care should be taken to make sure that the students have sufficient basic skills before they are set such assignments. In order to innovate, the students must have enough understanding of the subject matter and sufficient skills to be innovative with. This is a higher order learning strategy. For instance, in teaching town planning, students may be given an assignment to plan the location, amenities and infrastructure facilities for a small recreational park in a small town.

Innovation assignments are excellent strategies for teaching an internationalised curriculum because it allows for the free expression of creative talents of culturally diverse students. By its very nature, creativity and innovation do not emphasise norms. It welcomes new and unfamiliar approaches to solving problems and addressing needs.

An important factor to consider in designing assignments is that it should be set at a suitable level of difficulty, and that the expectations of the lecturer must be reasonable. An overly demanding assignment can lead to confusion and frustration. Students anxious to obtain the desired grade but are unable to cope with the demands of the work are more likely to copy assignments. This is especially true of those who do not value learning (Robinson and Lai, 1999).

16.0 Group work

Since group work is neither a new development nor a teaching strategy that is unfamiliar to the academic staff, its discussion in this section is focused primarily on its relevance to teaching a culturally diverse class of students. Broadly described, group work occurs when two or more students work together on an assigned task. It is assumed, therefore, that in any form of group work a degree of co-operation or interaction occurs among the group members (e.g., Woolfolk, 1998). The level of co-operation in group work defines its complexity which may range from simple nominal group discussion to complex problem solving tasks. Among the more commonly used group work strategies are group discussion, group simulations and role play, group research, inquiry learning, and co-operative learning. However, it is useful to note at this juncture that a number of texts (e.g., Killen, 1998) treat group work, cooperative learning, and problem solving as separate teaching strategies.

Group work is singled out for treatment because a number of researchers have indicated that work involving collaboration and cooperation among small groups of students is particularly suitable for structuring the learning of Asian students on account of the collectivist nature of their society (Tang, 1996; Bodycott and Walker, 2000; Ti, 2001). Bodycott and Walker (2000) point out that students in their classes in Hong Kong were reluctant to participate in critical and open discussion at a whole-class level. They ascribed this to a number of plausible explanations:

a lack of language confidence or competence, fear of loss of face, and an unwillingness to stand out above others. Students were also said to be reluctant to question their peers' opinions for fear of making the other person lose 'face'. However, when these students were structured into small groups, their participation and learning improved.

The following discussion will use formal cooperative learning to represent the group work genre because it is one of the most versatile and dynamic forms of group work commonly encountered in tertiary education. Used correctly, it is effective in facilitating the learning of a range of generic workplace skills beside content knowledge. Johnson, Johnson and Smith (1998a) provide the following concise description of formal cooperative learning. *Formal cooperative learning is students working together, for one period to several weeks together, to achieve shared learning goals aimed at joint completion of specific tasks and assignments* (p. 33).

Four major stages describe the work of an instructor using formal cooperative learning: 1) making preinstructional decisions; 2) explaining to students the task and the concept of positive interdependence; 3) monitoring students' learning and intervening to assist students with tasks or with interpersonal and group skills; and 4) assessing and evaluating students' learning and helping students process how well their groups functioned (Johnson, et al., 1998a).

Making preinstructional decisions

This stage is similar to lesson planning and preparation where learning objectives about knowledge and skills are decided; the time frame for completion for the project is established; and the materials and resources needed for the project are worked out. The task set must be defined in a manner that requires students to work together for its successful completion. This means that students in each group must have a common goal, play distinct but interdependent roles, be interdependent for resources, and receive rewards (as a group) for the outcomes. Research indicates that greater benefits could be derived from group work if the task set requires students to solve open-ended problems, preferably in partnership with industry (Colbeck, Campbell and Bjorklund, 2000).

The instructor has also to make decisions on the size of the groups, the method of assigning the students to groups, and their respective roles in the group. This is arguably one of the most difficult aspects of the exercise. Left to themselves students are likely to choose those with whom they feel comfortable. For maximum benefits to be derived from internationalization, it is necessary for the academic staff to assign students to groups in a manner that ensures maximum diversity in the group. The groups should be diverse in terms of ethnicity, gender, age, abilities

and experience. Besides international students, female students are known to feel undervalued and marginalized.

Group size is important because there is evidence that large groups tend to invite more opportunities for “slacking” (Colbeck, Campbell, and Bjorklund, 2000). If possible, groups should ideally be made up of between 3 to 6 students. Moreover, students who have had prior successful experience in group work should be fairly distributed among the different groups. Research indicates that students with prior positive experience of group work either in school, at university or out-of-class (e.g., work) tend to bring teamwork skills to the current project (Colbeck, et al., 2000).

Explaining the task and the concept of positive interdependence

The task must be clearly defined with clear guidelines on expectations, assessment criteria, distribution of marks, and grading. If students do not have prior experience of group work, guidelines on how to work in groups should be provided. Furthermore, it is necessary to explain to students the concepts and strategies required to accomplish the task. For instance, positive interdependence and individual accountability must be stressed. Since no group can function effectively without a leader, the students must be encouraged to elect a leader or rotate the leadership among themselves.

Monitoring and intervening

At this stage, the function of the instructor is to monitor the effectiveness of the group, provide evaluative feedback and help students resolve problems that might impede their progress. The instructor should systematically observe each group as it works.

Care should be taken to help students develop interpersonal and group skills. If conflicts among members should arise as a result of differences, the instructor may have to help them resolve these differences. However, students should be encouraged to resolve the problem among themselves first before seeking intervention. Should differences be irreconcilable, the contending or recalcitrant students may have to be reassigned. However, intervention must be timely since reassigning students to different groups too late in the process can disrupt work progress.

Students should also be encouraged to record the various stages of their work. Making sure that students keep records of their meetings, with action points and responsibilities, helps the lecturer to determine their progress and assess individual contribution.

Assessing and evaluating

This is the stage where group learning is evaluated and the performance of each student is carefully assessed. Both the quality and quantity of learning may have to be assessed. In a single-lesson group work, the instructor could close the lesson by discussing the processes and outcomes with the class as a whole, providing such feedback as are necessary for the students to reflect on their respective performance. Alternatively, he/she could facilitate closure by allowing students to discuss their own work among themselves in their respective groups. In either case, both the results of their efforts and the effectiveness of working as a group should be discussed.

Assessing group assignments generally requires the awarding of marks or grades. Depending on the learning objectives constructed for the exercise, assessing group work may involve assessment of both process and product components of learning. Furthermore, if the individual contribution of each student were to be taken into account in order to reward excellence, assessment becomes more problematic. A way to address these problems is by making each student submit individual role reports in addition to a collective group report for assessment. Further judgments on individual contributions may be derived from minutes of meetings where action points and responsibilities were recorded (Colbeck, et al., 2000).

Students must be given guidance on how to work cooperatively in teams, especially in regard to the sharing of leadership and management roles in group work processes. Research carried out by Colbeck et al. (2000) on seven major universities in the United States indicates that students received little or no guidance from their instructors about how to work cooperatively in teams. Without such guidance, the authors found that “students with high level motivation became leaders and those with low motivation became slackers” (p.78). They also found that in extreme cases, leaders reported doing most of the work in the team project.

In groups made up of culturally diverse students who are not experienced in cross-cultural interaction, a degree of ethnic stereotyping and tendency to select according to cultural familiarity is inevitable. This should not detract the instructor from his/her aim of maximizing learning from diversity. Students who are reluctant to engage in cross-cultural teamwork should be reminded of the multicultural reality of the workplace in an increasingly globalised world.

Figure 8. Self-Audit Checklist

1. The lecturer has provided specific instructions and guidance on how to work in groups early in the course.
2. The lecturer has explained to the students the benefits of working in groups (e.g. real world experience); and the professional importance of developing group skills.
3. The lecturer has divided the students into groups of 3 to 6 members.
4. The lecturer has assigned students to groups making sure that the group is ethnically diverse.
5. The lecturer makes sure that each group has more than the token number of minorities.
6. The lecturer has taken into consideration the prior experience of students who have had successful experience working in groups in order to ensure that they are fairly distributed among the groups.
7. The lecturer structures the learning activities such that interdependence among group members is maximized.
8. The lecturer makes explicit his expectations and the criteria he/she uses to assess the work of the group.
9. The lecturer designs group work that rewards both group and individual effort.
10. The lecturer monitors the activities of the groups continually in order to provide constructive feedback and, if necessary, timely intervention to resolve conflicts.
11. The lecturer encourages the students to resolve their differences amicably among themselves first before seeking intervention.
12. The lecturer provides closure by discussing learning outcomes.

16.1 Theoretical Underpinnings

Preparation of students for the workplace of the 21st century must take cognizance of industrial and commercial companies' increasing reliance on effective teamwork for their productivity. Moreover, real world problems are often open-ended and require creative, team-based, problem-solving skills for their resolution. Therefore, preparation of students for the workplace cannot be adequate without exposing them to real world processes where they have to work in teams, often of diverse composition in terms of gender, ethnicity, age and abilities, to find creative solutions to open-ended problems.

16.1.1 Fostering Interdependence

Although there is evidence that students, thrown together without prior preparation and guidance often manage to work together as a group successfully, there is little reason to leave learning to chance. Careful planning and judicious intervention by the instructor can provide better assurance of group cohesion. Group cohesion and cooperation occurs when students are dependent on each other for their common good and success. Instructors can foster interdependence by structuring activities that require students to interact interdependently.

Four types of group interdependence are identified by Johnson, Johnson, and Smith (1991):

1. Goal interdependence
2. Reward interdependence
3. Role interdependence
4. Resource interdependence.

Briefly, goal dependence occurs when group members have similar goals and motivations; reward dependence occurs when students realize that their reward at the end of the project depends on the performance of everyone in the group; role dependence develops when students become aware that each member has specific responsibilities that will impact on the project's success; and resource dependence occurs when students become reliant on each other to provide information and resources required to complete the task.

16.1.2 What students learn

In solving open-ended problems, students learn to define the problem, develop a hypothesis, generate alternative solutions and apply their skills and knowledge in order to solve the problem. On the other hand, in inquiry-based cooperative learning, students learn to formulate a hypothesis, design experiments to test the hypothesis, collect and analyze the data, draw conclusions and carry out follow-up studies if necessary (e.g., Ahern-Rindell, 1999).

The skills and knowledge that students develop from group work are varied and quite extensive. Group-based problem-solving encourages students to take greater control over their learning and to relate their learning to real world situations. Properly designed, group problem-solving can be interesting and challenging. In these and other respects, it encompasses important ideas about learning embedded in constructivism. Apart from content knowledge, the skills and knowledge that students derive from group work, gleaned from a number of different sources (e.g., Killen, 1998; Johnson, Johnson, and Smith, 1991; Colbeck, et al., 2000), may include:

- Leadership skills
- Communication skills, especially in cross-cultural interaction
- Social skills
- Technical skills and process knowledge
- Organisational skills
- Teamwork skills i.e., the ability to work with others in a team
- Problem-solving skills (i.e., research, knowledge integration, analysis, critical thinking, application, evaluation, synthesis, risk taking, metacognition and other cognitive skills)
- Conflict management
- Appreciation of diversity

In a meta-analysis of research conducted on cooperative learning, Johnson, Johnson, and Smith (1998a) found that cooperative learning promotes higher individual academic achievements than do competitive approaches. Its relevance to internationalisation derives from its ability to promote greater liking among the students for each other, even among students from different ethnic, cultural, language, social class, and gender groups. Research on cooperativeness indicates that it is highly correlated with a number of indices of psychological health, among which is greater self-esteem and social skills. In relation to the student's attitudes towards college, the meta-analysis indicates that cooperative learning promotes more positive attitude towards learning, the subject area, and the college, than does individualistic learning.

16.1.3 Basic elements of cooperative learning

Johnson, Johnson and Smith (1998b) mention five basic elements that distinguish true cooperative learning from other forms of small group work. For group work to be truly cooperative there must be:

1. Positive Interdependence

Each student in the group must believe that he/she cannot succeed without the cooperation and contribution of other members of the group. Lessons can be made cooperative by building into it mutual learning goals. Positive interdependence can be strengthened by: a) adding point rewards; b) dividing resources; and c) assigning group members complementary roles.

2. Individual Accountability

Students must be made accountable for their own performance and to understand that they cannot live off the contributions of others without contributing any themselves. In this respect, assessment by the instructor and group members, and feedback provided by the assessors are valuable in ensuring accountability. Instructors can enhance individual accountability by: a) testing students individually; b) have students explain what they have learned to others; and c) observing the group and documenting the performance of each member.

3. Face-to-Face Promotive Interaction

This element involves students encouraging, supporting and helping each other to reach their goals. In essence, students interact in a positive manner to share information and ideas, and complement each other's learning.

4. Use of Teamwork Skills

Unless students have prior experience working in teams, it is unlikely that effective teamwork skills would arise spontaneously from all members of a student group. The skills required are leadership, communications, decision-making, conflict management, trust-building and group as well as individual responsibility. These skills must be acquired in the process of carrying out the group work, assisted as much possible by guidance from the instructor.

5. *Group processing*

This last element derives from students' own assessment of how effectively they are in working as a group, and how well they are achieving their individual and group goals. Students meet from time to time to discuss their progress, collate their information, address problems and decide on the next course of action until the whole project is completed.

16.1.4 Common Problems

While cooperative learning offers a large number of advantages, it is not free of problems. As Johnson et al. (1998a) say, 'Simply assigning students to groups and telling them to work together does not in and of itself result in cooperative work' (p. 28). Many students do not know how to work cooperatively with others. This situation is exacerbated by internationalisation where cultural differences can lead to misunderstandings. Often too, students who are used to direct instruction may resist change. These should be seen as teething problems that can be overcome by adequate guidance, continuous monitoring to enable timely intervention where necessary, and articulating expectations clearly at the outset of the exercise. As Johnson, et al. (1998a) opine, teamwork skills such as leadership, decision-making, trust-building, communication and conflict management have to be as purposefully taught as academic skills. Explaining to students the professional benefits of group work and rewarding the group as a whole for its successful completion are other possible motivating strategies.

Students are also likely to indicate preference for choosing their own groups. Accommodating this request would result in students selecting friends, those they judge to be able and similarly motivated, and culturally similar persons (Colbeck, et al., 2000). This defeats the purpose of internationalisation in inculcating tolerance of diversity and enriching learning through alternative and diverse viewpoints. Assigning students to specific groups in order to ensure diversity in abilities, ethnicity, gender, age, experience and other personal and social differences may be met with resistance in the beginning; but careful monitoring, guidance and timely intervention usually produce positive outcomes. Moreover, experience indicates that successful groups are usually able to find ways to capitalize on the strengths, and make up for the weaknesses, of their members. They are likely to achieve this by dividing the tasks up among themselves so that each does a part in which he/she excels or can best manage.

Disagreement between students is another common phenomenon in group work. Often, a student's ideas, understandings and opinions about a subject matter are different from that held by another member of the group. This is not necessarily counterproductive if students are committed to seeking agreement through positive engagement with differences (Colbeck, et al., 2000). If intellectual conflicts that are handled positively with each opposing member arguing

the merits of his/her case and subjecting these differences to the scrutiny of other members, and seeking verification through tests and trials, they can lead to higher levels of learning and cognitive development (Johnson, et al., 1998b). Moreover, Colbeck, et al. (2000) contend that disagreements about project tasks can lead to creative solutions.

Positive engagement with differences can be enhanced by instructors providing written guidelines to students at the very outset of the exercise. Alerting students to possible conflict situations and teaching them how to avoid such conflicts can do much to preempt negative encounters. A good example of such a guideline is one provided by Killen (1998) for productive participation in group work. [Productive Participation in Group Work—Guidelines for Learners (Killen, 1998, p. 76)] Notwithstanding the positive aspects of disagreements, it appears that conflicts over personal issues can lead to negative group experiences, especially those related to gender and ethnic differences (Colbeck, et al., 2000). Colbeck, et al. (2000) mention research findings which indicate that isolated token members of minority groups often bear the brunt of interpersonal group conflict; and that their contributions are often undervalued by majority group members. Given this situation, they recommend that instructors who teach courses in which women or students of colour are underrepresented should make sure that each team includes more than one minority group member.

Problems can also arise if a member of the team lacks motivation and does not complete a fair share of the group's workload. Colbeck et al. (2000) indicate that students have a variety of strategies to deal with the so-called 'slackers'. Some would try to avoid having slackers in their group. Others would try to motivate them or find them tasks that would capitalize on their strengths. Yet others would report them to the instructor. Since larger groups are known to provide greater opportunities for slacking, groups should be kept small. It is also necessary for the instructor to monitor group efforts regularly and closely in order to minimize problems associated with slacking. Student records of meetings are also suitable sources of information for evaluating individual performance. In order to reduce inequity as a result of unequal effort, the instructor should make provisions for rewarding group outcomes as well as individual efforts. For instance, a group assignment may call for a group report and an individual report from each member describing their own role in the project. The same marks may be awarded for all members for the group report and additional but separate marks may be awarded for their individual reports.

In closing this section, it must be reiterated that cooperative inquiry learning and problem solving with students working in groups are highly sophisticated and effective teaching/learning strategies. They are sophisticated because they reflect the best qualities of learning embedded in student

centeredness and constructivism. Above all, they facilitate real-world learning and the development of professional and cross-cultural skills. The learning outcomes of these types of cooperative learning usually exceed expectations if they are meticulously planned and judiciously supervised.

17.0 Assessment

As indicated by Ramsden (1992) and reiterated by Biggs (1999), assessment has two functions:

- 1) to indicate whether the learning has been successful;
- 2) to convey to the students what they are expected to learn. In these regards, assessments are also opportunities to motivate students and to provide them with feedback on their learning.

17.1 Aligned system of instruction

In order for it to be a fair and appropriate assessment, a test must, as indicated above, be aligned with learning objectives and learning activities (Biggs, 1999). Biggs (1999) points out that a mistake often made by teachers constructing tests consistent with a norm-referenced format, one that discriminates between the more able and the less able students, is the assumption that there is no inherent relation between what is taught and what is tested. On the contrary, criterion-referenced assessments focus primarily on whether the students have successfully learned what they have been taught. Therefore, criterion-referenced assessments are the fairer methods because they endeavour to find out what the students have actually learned rather than measure their individual standing for the purpose of comparing them with each other along a scale. Fair assessments emphasize purpose and correct focus, but will not eliminate differentiation altogether. A degree of differentiation is inevitable in any form of assessment. Moreover, it is necessary to provide for motivation by rewarding effort and excellence. If differentiation does occur, it should be the natural outcome of the difference in students' ability to demonstrate more or less of effective learning consistent with the learning objectives and activities.

Moreover, if the purpose of tertiary education is to achieve higher learning outcomes such as critical thinking, self-directed learning and the ability to apply knowledge in novel situations (Watson, 1999), then it must also be aligned with the assessment. In other words, the assessment should be designed such that it rewards these higher order learning outcomes. As Dawson (2001) so astutely observes, 'the desire to complete tasks to the assessors' satisfaction is a characteristic of extrinsic motivation' (p. 47). Therefore, if we as educators wish to shift the students' motivation from extrinsic to a more intrinsic one, Dawson (2001) suggests using assessment tasks for its transformation.

Although much is known about good practice in assessment, it nevertheless remains a complex matter subject to continual review. New issues surface when the usual assessment practices are applied in places where cultural norms cannot be assumed, especially in classes with international students. In these situations, there are issues of equivalence and equity that remain unresolved. For instance, students who have learned the language of the dominant culture as a second language are known to be disadvantaged when assessments involve essay type reflective questions (e.g., DeVita, 2002, MacKinnon and Manathunga, 2003). Similarly, value loaded questions and culture bound responses are unlikely to produce fair outcomes. Issues in assessment of these natures are too large and involved to be adequately discussed here. While the whole picture remains unclear, it is best to use a variety of assessment strategies and methods to ensure, at least to a degree, that no single cultural group is grossly disadvantaged by assessments that are inordinately biased in favour of a particular group.

17.2 Assessment Tasks

Hence, for the purpose of reviewing briefly the various types of assessment tasks and the kinds of learning assessed, Table 4, constructed by Biggs (1999) provides a concise and comprehensive summary.

While there is a selection of methods that can be used for assessing particular kinds of learning, the choice of methods is unfortunately constrained by a number of factors. Constraining factors include university policy, time, availability of resources, professional requirements and class sizes. Therefore, in choosing assessment methods, compromise may have to be sought between thoroughness in testing and the limits set by the constraints. This highlights further the inherently problematic nature of assessment.

Table 4. Some different assessment tasks and kinds of learning assessed

Assessment mode	Most likely kind of learning assessed
Extended prose, essay-type -Essay exam -Book -Assignment, take home	Rote, question spotting, speed structuring open As for exam, but less memory, coverage Read widely, interrelate, organize, apply, copy
Objective test -Multiple choice -Ordered outcome	Recognition, strategy, comprehension, coverage Hierarchies of understanding
Performance assessment - Practicum - Seminar presentation - Critical incidents - Project - Reflective journal - Case study, problems - Portfolio	Skills needed in real life Communication skills Reflection, application, sense of relevance Application, research skills Reflection, application, sense of relevance Application, professional skills Reflection, creativity, unintended outcomes
Rapid assessments (large class) -Concept maps -Venn diagrams -Three minute essay -Gobbets -Short answer -Letter to a friend -Cloze	Coverage, relationships Relationships Level of understanding, sense of relevance Realising the importance of significant detail Recall units of information, coverage Holistic understanding, application, reflection Comprehensive of main ideas

[Source: Biggs, J. (1999). What the Student Does: teaching for enhanced learning]

A review of the research on teaching/learning styles in many of the Asian countries indicates that a large proportion of the international student population comes from countries where examinations drive learning. Since teaching/learning in higher education in Australia emphasizes process (i.e., taking the correct approach to learning such as participation, taking a critical or analytical approach) then this should be articulated and made clear to the students.

17.3 Variety and Flexibility

In order to ensure that assessment caters for the needs of students with diverse personal and cultural characteristics, it is also advisable to distribute assessments over a period of time, across course work and final examinations (i.e., formative and summative). There are cultural, gender and age differences in disposition towards particular types of assessment and the manner in

which learning is assessed. Making assessments flexible and inclusive in terms of culture, gender and age elicit responses that are more indicative of effective learning and thus ensure greater equity. Flexibility and inclusiveness should extend beyond choice of testing methods to encompass valuing other ways of knowing and negotiating assessment topics that are relevant to the students' world views.

17.4 Making Explicit Expectations and Assessment Criteria

Students from a non-Western culture need time to acquire the cultural knowledge that would enable them to meet the assessment expectations of the lecturer. Unless expectations are made explicit, they are prone to reproducing the type of evidence of learning that they were socialized to produce in their previous learning environments. Making explicit expectations, especially in writing, would go a long way towards preempting unacceptable practices. For instance, it is good practice to provide clear assessment guidelines and make explicit assessment criteria. The following are some examples:

- Indicate that students will be assessed for their participation in tutorial discussions.
- Indicate that students' personal experiences and previous learning are valued.
- Indicate that students are expected to be critical in their engagement with an assignment topic.
- Indicate that students must engage with up to date research content.
- Explain why they are required to work in culturally diverse groups.
- Insist that students carry out broader reading in addition to the materials they are given.
- Explain how the essay or assessment product ought to be structured and presented.
- Provide them with a breakdown of the assessment marks and grading.
- Give the students an idea of the criteria that would be used to identify excellence; if possible, give them an example of a good finished product.
- Explain referencing requirements and make sure students understand what constitutes plagiarism.

Although these are everyday practices that may be familiar to Western educated students, they are not skills and knowledge that can be assumed in a culturally diverse classroom.

Furthermore, if assessment is carried out by persons other than the lecturer or experts, then time and effort must be taken to educate and acculturate international students to these methods of assessment. Students from competitive, examination orientated countries are often dismayed by the idea of peer or self assessment. They often do not associate these forms of assessment with serious learning.

Figure 9. Self-Audit Checklist

- 1) The lecturer has aligned his assessment with learning objective and teaching/learning activities.
- 2) The lecturer has used a variety of assessment tasks and methods to ensure that no particular group of students is severely disadvantaged.
- 3) The lecturer has used both formative and summative assessments to ensure that assessment is distributed over a period of time.
- 4) The lecturer has made his expectations explicit by providing clear assessment guidelines
- 5) The lecturer has made grading criteria explicit and known from the start.
- 6) The lecturer has selected the appropriate tasks/activities for assessing high order learning both in terms of generic and content specific skills and knowledge.
- 7) The lecturer uses assessment to provide students with feedback on their learning.
- 8) The lecturer has used assessment to motivate students to learn.
- 9) The lecturer has taken the students national backgrounds (e.g., culture, politics, education and religion) into consideration in assessment.

17.5 Theoretical Underpinnings

In as much as assessment attempts to elicit proof of learning, it has also become the driving force that shapes teaching and learning (e.g., Johnson and Kress, 2003). A number of researchers indicate that assessment has a 'backwash' effect on student learning. (Dahlin, Watkins and Ekholm, 2001; Tang and Biggs, 1996). Backwash is said to be the students' approaches to learning that are influenced by students' perceptions of the demands that the test seem to make. Given these influences, there is increasing interest in exploring the possibility of using assessment to foster deep learning (Dahlin, et al., 2001). For this reason, both Biggs (1999) and Watson (1999) advocate aligning assessment with learning objectives and learning activities so that the system becomes more efficient and properly focused on higher order learning outcomes.

Higher education in the West is based on a number of fundamental premises that have to do with ways of knowing, what is appropriate knowledge, structuring and presenting information about what one knows (MacKinnon and Manathunga, 2003). These premises form the template against which all knowledge is matched for indication of learning. Although this works well for local students, it presents a problem in international education since students from another culture arrive in Australia with a predetermined set of cultural understandings about learning and proof of learning based upon their home experiences. This mismatch of cultural knowledge is often the root of miscommunication between staff and students, giving rise not only to negative cross-cultural perceptions but also to ethical issues of fairness in assessment. For this reason, MacKinnon and Manathunga (2003) challenge the assumptions in assessments driven by the dominant culture's literacy and promote the idea of culturally responsive assessment in which

flexibility, choice of topics, and appreciation of culturally derived knowledge form part of the assessment agenda.

The suggestion to use a variety of methods in assessment finds further support in a research using multiple-choice tests, coursework assignments and essay response examinations carried out by De Vita (2002) on students enrolled in a first-year business studies programme in the UK. He found that assessment by examination places international students at a particular disadvantage compared to other assessment methods. While his research did not reveal the causes of disadvantage, it nevertheless points to the greater risk of unfair testing when a limited range of assessment methods is used.

A culturally responsive assessment should begin by developing an awareness of the cultural underpinnings of one's own knowledge and education. This is essential for developing an appreciation of other cultures and ways of knowing. Yet appreciation alone is not sufficient to devise a pragmatic approach to assessment. Cultural contradictions that present a dilemma are quite often encountered in assessments. For instance, on an essay topic inviting critique of gender bias in employment, how should the staff respond to answers provided by a student from a conservative religious background where men and women occupy quite separate social space or strata? However cogently the student may argue his case based on his own cultural precepts, any disagreement with gender equality would present the examiner with a dilemma. Is the student to be marked down despite that fact that students are told that their opinions will be valued and that they are required to be critical? While this question may seem unanswerable at this point in time, the problem is being addressed to some extent by the international students themselves who will quite often intimate that they know that they are in a Western society; and that pushing Western values in assessments will earn them high marks. In this respect, they have demonstrated an understanding of context.

However, there are promising indications about how such ethical dilemmas may be resolved. For instance, the University of South Australia conducts a course on international ethics and values which 'sets out to acquaint students with significant examples of issues and dilemmas in business ethics and values, together with their theoretical context, their international dimensions and possible ways of dealing with them' (Harris and Bretag, 2003, p. 180). Based on lecture, case studies and activities (analysis, debate, essay and reflective journal), students learn approaches to decision-making and moral development. The authors, Harris and Bretag (2003), describe the course as international in that it includes sources outside the Western canon and examines the impact of different national value systems and religious traditions on business practice. They assert that the course 'places less emphasis on dilemma resolution and more on ethical awareness and overcoming the difficulties of compliance that are significant for practicing

managers' (Harris and Bretag, 2003, p. 180). How well courses such as the one above will work depends to a very large extent on how deep or profound the insights of the lecturers are into 'national value systems and religious values' from the perspective of an outsider looking in. It would require, as Halse and Baumgart (2000) say, 'teachers whose intercultural understanding can enable them to discern complex and changing patterns of similarities and differences across cultures' (p.472). While the cases may be outside Western canon, 'decision making and moral development' may nevertheless still be grounded in a Western discourse. These dissonances seem emplaced to pose a continuous challenge to internationalisation and lend further credibility to the McKinnon Benchmark's call for more placements of academic staff overseas to develop international experience. Furthermore, shared programmes and reciprocal relationships across cultures and geographical locations can enhance intercultural understanding through first hand experience of other cultures and perspectives (Halse and Baumgart, 2000).

Just as importantly, in assessing student performance, expectations and assessment criteria must be made explicit from the start. It is only when students have a clear understanding of the assignment's parameters, expectations and criteria that they are able to work purposefully towards meeting these requirements; and thus render their learning efforts effective and efficient. [Howard, H, and Bretag, T. (2003). Reflective and Collaborative Teaching Practice: working towards quality student learning outcomes]

18.0 Conclusion

This discourse attempts to construct a systemic process for internationalizing the curriculum by synthesizing what is currently known about the subject. As in all major investments, internationalisation is not a once-off undertaking. Nor are the input, process and output components of the production system expected to remain unchanged with the passing of time if it were to remain competitive in the provision of an international education service. For this reason, this system is called a portfolio because it remains open and incomplete, inviting contribution in an ongoing fashion.

It goes without saying that a system, by its very definition, cannot work without the energy and commitment of its component parts. The university community as a whole and, to a lesser extent, all stakeholders in the country have a role in making internationalization a success. By implication, there is no 'other' in a system, only a community of members working interdependently towards a common goal. In which case, appreciation of diversity can only mean appreciation of the component parts in all their roles, functions, shapes, colours and complexions; without which the system does not work.

However, acceptance of difference has never been easy or natural. Ideological construction of difference derives from surface interpretation of difference, predicated on gross generalizations. Therefore, assumptions must be reexamined. Yet it appears that generalization is necessary for human cognition. Overgeneralization leads to the alienation of those so categorized as the 'other' upon whom all that are less than normal, hence deficient, are heaped. However, cognition will not recognize 'otherness' if diversity is seen as normal variations of values within a continuum. With this perception, the tendency to live by generalizing fades as the rationale that each individual is a unique combination of values within an multitude of continuums common to all gains acceptance.

The commitment, sensitivity and tolerance of the university, stakeholders and community at large can be rallied to produce the synergy required to achieve the quality of teaching and learning envisioned by the McKinnon Benchmarks.

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