Research and Analysis of the Benefits of International Education Opportunities

A literature review on opportunities for international experience in the UK, and comparison with the US and Germany

LSE Enterprise

CFE *research*

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Executive Summary

Introduction

The British Council commissioned CFE Research and LSE Enterprise in May 2014 to conduct research to examine the impact of international experiences on individuals, employers, the economy and society. The purpose of the research is to provide evidence to inform a report that will be produced by the British Council setting out the benefits of international experiences to a UK audience of senior policymakers, business leaders/employers, education and culture sector stakeholders, think tanks and the media.

The findings presented in this document draw on a literature review that investigates the evidence on the provision, scale and benefits of different types of international experiences. The findings complement a second literature review of key evidence on the UK's competitive position and the role of skills within this.[1] The literature reviews helped to inform the design of primary research with individuals with and without international experiences and a series of case studies.[2]

The aim of this literature review is to provide a summary of the nature and scale of international activity in the UK, and to compare this with activity in the US and Germany. The focus is on outward mobility of UK-domiciled learners and the benefits offered by these international education experiences.

The review is based on analysis of approximately 150 reports and papers on international education opportunities, and information from websites of organisations that provide or monitor international experiences. We find that there is a lack of data collection and research on the scale and impact of international experiences, at both national and international levels. The most evidenced topic is international higher education, which is also the largest area of activity.

Understanding Intercultural Experience

DEFINING INTERCULTURAL EXPERIENCE

The benefits of international experience can be understood in terms of the development of *intercultural skills*. These are the set of cognitive, affective and behavioural skills that support effective and appropriate interaction in a variety of cultural contexts. The key factor in the development of these skills is the experience of other cultures – using new languages, meeting people of other cultures or nationalities, and learning new customs. Such experiences offer the potential to develop communication skills, cultural awareness, behavioural flexibility, and social responsibility.

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[1] CFE Research and LSE Enterprise (2014) *Research and Analysis of the Benefits of International Education Opportunities: A literature review on UK competitiveness and skills (needs).* London: British Council.

[2] CFE Research and LSE Enterprise (2014) *Research and analysis of the benefits of international educational opportunities: A report for the British Council.* London: British Council.

MODELS OF INTERCULTURAL EXPERIENCE

Bennett's Developmental Model of Intercultural Sensitivity offers a description of how intercultural skills are developed, and provides a means of measuring intercultural competency. This model describes the stages of development from ethnocentric attitudes (denial, defence and minimisation of cultural difference) to ethno-relative attitudes (understanding, accepting and adapting to other cultures). The central idea of this model is that intercultural competency is not developed by international travel per se, but through the experience of *cultural difference*. Hence, the greater the cultural difference experienced during an international activity, the greater the opportunity for intercultural development.

International Opportunities in the UK

PRE-PRIMARY EDUCATION

Information on the scale of international activity at the pre-primary level is scarce and there is little evidence of structured programmes of international education. No national survey has been carried out to assess the nature and scale of international activity at this level. Nevertheless, there are suggestions that learning languages and participating in activities to raise cultural awareness are beneficial as preparation for international experiences at later stages.

PRIMARY EDUCATION

At primary level, international activities tend to be focused on developing links between schools rather than travelling abroad, with 82% of primary schools having links with international schools and 62% having pen pal arrangements with children overseas. Instead of travel, most activity is based on raising cultural awareness. 'Global learning' is a cross-cutting theme within the national curriculum for Key Stage 2, yet not all schools provide the hour of language teaching per week that is recommended in the Key Stage 2 framework for languages. Most primary schools are involved in award schemes that promote global learning, including the Eco Schools Award (70% of primary schools), the International School Award (61%) and the Rights Respecting Schools Award (56%). Popular activities for raising cultural awareness include global learning assemblies (93%), fundraising (91%), values education (75%), and outside speakers (71%). At primary level, there are fewer opportunities for trips abroad than at secondary school and although some specialist group travel opportunities exist – such as for music, arts or sports related travel – searches for evidence reveal very limited results.

SECONDARY EDUCATION

The secondary curriculum has incorporated a 'global dimension' since 2000, which stated that pupils should develop a sense of identity through knowledge and understanding of the "local, national, European, Commonwealth and global dimensions of their lives". The current curriculum has dropped the requirement for global learning, focusing instead on subject-based core knowledge and skills. The Schools Online website supports classroom and professional development resources for secondary teachers, in addition to supporting the International School Award programme. The Rights Respecting Schools Award is also popular at secondary level, with approximately 1,600 schools having gained the award in the UK. The Comenius programme, run by the British Council, aims to increase the international mobility of pupils and

staff, and has been shown to develop multicultural awareness. Many schools offer trips abroad, but evidence for the scale of this activity is scarce, both in terms of numbers of schools offering the opportunities and take-up within schools, because central data is not collected. However, evidence from a European survey suggests that attending school in another country is more common than might be expected, with roughly 12% of UK respondents doing so, which is higher than the European average. Case studies suggest that the benefits of international education at secondary level include improved self-esteem, better relationships and behaviour, positive attitudes to social diversity, and greater engagement in learning.

FURTHER EDUCATION

Further Education (FE) students are able to access international education via the Erasmus programme, which offers opportunities for study, or work placements or traineeships abroad lasting up to 12 months. Data on the Erasmus programme aggregates FE and HE, so it is difficult to gauge the scale of activity in FE alone. The total number of Erasmus study exchanges from the UK in 2011/12 was around 9,000, plus approximately 4,500 work placements. Part of the reason why there is little evidence on the scale of international further education in the UK is that the FE/HE distinction is rarely used in other countries.

HIGHER EDUCATION

Travel abroad for the purpose of study is only one element in the internationalization of higher education, as there are also activities aimed at improving the efficiency and competitiveness of higher education institutions in the global marketplace. In this regard, UK HEIs are very successful at marketing courses to foreign students, contributing over £2 billion to the economy, yet there are some concerns about the lack of integration between home and international students. In contrast with the number of inbound students, there is relatively little outward mobility, making the UK a net importer in terms of student mobility. International education may comprise *degree* (or *diploma*) *mobility*, whereby a whole course is completed abroad, or *credit mobility*, where only part of a course is taken abroad. Credit mobility is catered by the European Commission's Erasmus programme, which also offers work placements in foreign countries. The scale of UK HE outward mobility was roughly 28,000 students in 2012, with little variation over the past decade. The most common destinations are the US, France, Ireland, Germany and Australia. In 2011-12, approximately 10,000 undergraduates and just over 300 postgraduate students took part in Erasmus. This represents less than 1% of the UK-domiciled student population.

GAP YEARS

It is difficult to gauge the scale of activity of gap years, but estimates are roughly 50,000 per year in the UK, with provision outstripping demand. Gap years are generally taken – and are commonly defined as – a break from full-time education. Whilst some evidence suggests that gap year-takers are more likely to come from higher social groups and better schools than students who go straight to university, other evidence suggests that gap year-takers come from poorer socioeconomic backgrounds and have lower educational attainment than those who go straight to university. It is likely that differing purposes of taking a gap year can explain these different findings. Taking a gap year has a negative effect on earnings, mainly due to removal

from the labour market, and a slightly positive effect on the chances of getting a first or second class degree.

VOLUNTEERING

Volunteering is understood to offer a range of benefits to both volunteers and to the people with whom they work. Because volunteering is generally associated with giving one's time and effort to others, it provides one of the best opportunities to develop some intercultural competences, such as community-building and contributing to social cohesion. However, evidence for the benefits of volunteering are rarely specific to volunteering *abroad*.

WORKING

The European Common Market has facilitated international movement for work, and it is suggested that greater job mobility contributes to increased GDP as well as to cultural integration. Although most people see this as a good thing, relatively few Europeans have experience of working abroad, with 4% of people mobile within the EU, and 3% outside the EU. Job mobility increases with level of education; young and educated workers are the most likely to move for work. Fewer people in the UK (77%) have not lived or worked abroad before, compared with the average (84%) in the EU27 countries.

Comparison of UK with Other Countries

GLOBAL CONTEXT

Given the lack of data collection, student mobility in higher education is the only form of international experience where robust comparisons are possible. In terms of international mobility, the UK is a net importer. The UK is the 2nd most popular destination in terms of student mobility (after the US), receiving 11% of the total number of globally mobile higher education students in 2012. In contrast, the UK is ranked 67th in the world for outgoing student mobility.

The US and the UK are the most popular destinations for international study, whilst the two countries with the highest number of outbound students are China and India. From the UK, the most popular destinations for degree mobility (a full course) are the US, Canada, Australia, Ireland and France.

COMPARISONS OF OUTWARD STUDENT MOBILITY BETWEEN THE UK, US AND GERMANY

Student finance (borrowing to fund education) has the potential to affect rates of participation in international study, and yet there is little evidence of this impacting on rates of international mobility to date. For example, although the US has high fees and a large amount of student debt, it remains the most popular destination for study abroad. Outbound mobility rose in Germany when tuition fees were introduced, both in absolute terms and as a proportion of its total student population. Tuition fees have since been abolished but it is too early to establish whether this is having any impact on international mobility. Furthermore, there is, as yet no evidence, to suggest that earlier trends in international student mobility were linked to Germany's policy on student finance.

The Impact of International Experience

The personal benefits of international experience are best articulated in terms of the development of intercultural skills. These are transferrable skills that have value in a wide range of jobs, including foreign language acquisition, communication and interpersonal skills, cultural sensitivity, self-directed learning, community-building, and contributing to social cohesion. These competencies have more opportunity to be developed through international experiences in which there is a greater degree of cultural difference between the individual and the host culture.

For employers, candidates with international experience offer a more rounded set of abilities and demonstrate wider or deeper experience. Foreign language skills are increasingly valued amongst international companies, as are communication and interpersonal skills more generally. Amongst UK employers, such skills are more often regarded as 'nice-to-have' rather than essential skills, but they can make the difference between two otherwise similar candidates.

In economic terms, the UK has benefited more from the inbound mobility of foreign students to British educational institutions than from outbound mobility, where skills are developed through the experiences of UK students abroad. The value of the UK's international education of foreign students was estimated at £17.5 billion in 2011. There has been no estimate of the value of outbound mobility to the UK economy, and it is difficult to see how it could be calculated given the evidence currently available. Nevertheless, arguments for increasing outbound international activity are frequently voiced in economic terms, based on the evidence that intercultural skills are linked to increased employability and global competence. However, further research in this area is needed to strengthen this argument and to take advantage of the opportunities for expanding the UK's international activity in growth areas such as China and India.

Summary of Evidence

There is a lack of evidence on the benefits of international experience. In addition to the findings of this literature review, key organisations and researchers in the field also stress this point (including the House of Lords European Union Committee, the NUS, British Council, DAAD, and the HEA). The lack of evidence has three main causes: 1) A lack of data collection at both national and international levels. This is not helped by lack of agreement on key terms and definitions, which makes comparison of available data more difficult. 2) There has been relatively little research in this area, particularly on the link between the development of individual skills and economic benefits. 3) Where evidence exists, it is not always available publicly. Much international activity occurs within private organisations, and much data is proprietary. Competition between private organisations may make sense in economic terms, but it does little to facilitate the sharing of information on this subject. There needs to be greater cooperation between organisations and states that offer international opportunities, and there should be greater provision of information on this subject. This would facilitate further research in this area, which is required in order to better understand the benefits of international activity and so that we can more effectively harness these benefits for the good of individuals, educational organisations and national economies.

01. Introduction

The British Council commissioned CFE Research and LSE Enterprise in May 2014 to conduct research to examine the impact of international experiences on individuals, employers, the economy and society. The purpose of the research is to provide evidence to inform a report that will be produced by the British Council setting out the benefits of international experiences to a UK audience of senior policymakers, business leaders/employers, education and culture sector stakeholders, think tanks and the media.

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This literature review provides an overview of opportunities for international education and other international experiences for UK citizens. Where possible the type and scale of UK opportunities are also compared, primarily for higher education mobility, with those in the US and Germany – countries that were selected based on their similarity with the UK and on the availability of evidence. The evidence cited in this report demonstrates how international opportunities can address some of the skills needs of UK employers and contribute to the competitiveness of the UK economy in the global marketplace, a subject which is covered in more detail in the accompanying literature review.

There are five parts to this review. The first section defines international education, and shows how it is understood and measured. The second outlines the range of international education provision in the UK from primary school level to postgraduate, and notes deficiencies in the availability of evidence, particularly on scale. Thirdly, we compare the UK's position with international education opportunities in other countries, including Germany and the US. The penultimate section discusses evidence for the impact of international education in terms of the benefits to individuals, employers and the wider economy. We conclude by considering the limitations of the current evidence and future areas for research.

It should be noted that this is a wide field with varying levels of evidence, therefore the level of detail on different types of experience is quite varied – for example, there is considerably more information available on study abroad programmes within higher education than other experiences. Generally, the availability of evidence for particular areas of international activity is a reflection of the scale of activity in those areas.

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[3] CFE Research and LSE Enterprise (2014) *Research and Analysis of the Benefits of International Education Opportunities: A literature review on UK competitiveness and skills (needs)*. London: British Council.

[4] CFE Research and LSE Enterprise (2014) *Research and analysis of the benefits of international educational opportunities: A report for the British Council*. London: British Council.

Methodology

The methodology for this literature review is based on a search using a hierarchical set of search terms. The scope of the review is focused on three main areas relating to international education opportunities: 1) evidence on the range and scale of activity in the UK; 2) a comparison of the UK with two other countries; and 3) a summary of the benefits to individuals, employers and the economy. The results of the search procedure were supplemented by following up on other articles cited within the material returned by the literature search – a process that expanded and focused the scope of the literature for review. This search procedure returned a total of over 150 sources. These were then evaluated by assessing methodological strength and relevance to the research themes, which allowed for the selection of the most useful and reliable sources of evidence. Although it was not possible within the scope of the review to conduct a full analysis of providers of international experience, we draw on evidence from provider websites and supporting documents, in order to illustrate certain points and to give examples in the review.

02. Understanding Intercultural Experience

This chapter presents a brief summary of how international experience is understood and how it can be measured in terms of the activities involved or the skills that it develops. It is somewhat difficult to neatly summarise current understanding of international experience, not least because there is no national or international agreement on definitions or measurement. But what is clear from the literature is that the central component of international education and other experiences is the development of *intercultural skills* through *intercultural experience*. It is not travel to other countries *per se* that is beneficial to participants and their employers, but the skills and understanding that experience of and engagement with other cultures brings.

In this chapter, these terms are explained in more detail, theoretical models of intercultural experience are presented, and measures of intercultural competence are also summarised. This knowledge serves to provide an account of the mechanisms by which the benefits of international education are understood to develop.

Defining Intercultural Experience

The formal definition of the set of skills that can be acquired through international experience is a fairly recent phenomenon. One of the earliest notions was a list of 'Characteristics of a Mature International Person' by Donald Tewksbury developed around 1948 which described such a person as "One who is able in travelling, to identify with other people and to listen and learn from them" (Kenworthy, 1970, p. 22). Today, these skills are more commonly referred to as *intercultural competence* or *intercultural sensitivity*, and are defined as a:

> Set of **cognitive**, **affective,** and **behavioral** skills and characteristics that support effective and appropriate interaction in a variety of cultural contexts. (Bennett, 2008)

Similarly, a doctoral study that analyzed the level of agreement on definitions of intercultural experience between administrators and experts concluded that the definition with the greatest consensus amongst experts and practitioners was the:

> Ability to communicate effectively and appropriately in intercultural situations based on one's intercultural **knowledge, skill**s, and **attitudes.** (Deardorff, 2006, p. 171)

The two definitions correspond with each other because they use synonymous terms: 'Knowledge' = 'cognitive', 'skills' = 'behavioral', and 'attitudes' = 'affective'. These definitions capture the general categories of competences, but not the specific types of knowledge, skills and attitudes that participants can expect to develop through such experience. In terms of specific competences, the literature cites many different outcomes of intercultural experience. Appendix 1 provides just one such long list, taken from a recent study (Deardorff, 2013). In brief, the learning outcomes of intercultural education include:

- Communication skills, including the development of language skills, plus non-verbal aspects of communication
- Cultural awareness, such as gaining wider perspectives and re-appraising one's own place in the world as well as that of other people's

- Cultural sensitivity/behavioural flexibility, including behaviour adaptation stemming from cultural awareness or empathy
- Other aspects, such as self-directed learning, community-building, contributing to social cohesion.

In summary, intercultural experience can be defined in terms of the benefits that it brings to the individuals who participate.

Models of Intercultural Experience

Models of intercultural experience or competence are useful because they provide starting points for identifying the benefits of international experience and understanding how they are developed. Amongst the most well-established models is Milton J. Bennett's (1986/1993) *Developmental Model of Intercultural Sensitivity* (DMIS). Bennett emphasises the point that intercultural competence is developed through exposure to cultural difference:

> The underlying assumption of the model is that as one's *experience of cultural difference* becomes more complex and sophisticated, one's potential competence in intercultural relations increases. (Hammer, Bennett & Wiseman, 2003, p. 423. Original emphasis.)

Bennett's model has six levels or stages of development, divided into two groups of three (Figure 1). Each stage represents a different way of engaging with cultural difference. The first group of 3 stages is labelled *ethnocentric*, in which "difference is perceived as immutable and threatening", whilst the second group is *ethnorelative*, where "difference is perceived as malleable, as a source of renewal, of equilibrium" (Bennett, 1993, p. 1).
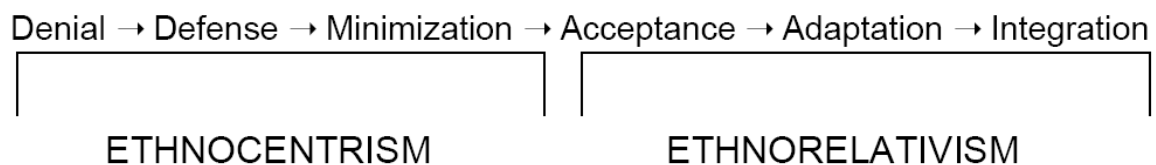
Denial → Defense → Minimization → Acceptance → Adaptation → Integration

ETHNOCENTRISM   ETHNORELATIVISM

Figure 1: The developmental model of intercultural sensitivity. [Source: Bennett, 2004.]

The meaning of the stages is explained as follows:

> The first three stages are denial [*there is no difference*], defence [*against the difference*] and minimization [*of the difference*]; they are more ethnocentric, while the second three stages are acceptance [*a new way of seeing*], adaptation [*a new way of acting*] and integration [*a new way of being*]; these stages are ethnorelativist. (Bennett, 1993.)

This model is useful because it provides the means to differentiate between levels of intercultural development, and therefore to identify the potential benefits of international education. A similar developmental model was drawn up by King & Baxter Magolda (2005), whose *Model of Intercultural Maturity* is also based on the idea that competences develop over time. King & Baxter Magolda's model is based on evidence from longitudinal studies, and comprises three stages of development ('initial', 'intermediate' and 'mature'). Each stage is described in terms of the cognitive, intrapersonal and interpersonal elements of personal development. The model has yet to prove its validity with a wider range of people than the students in the longitudinal study (Reid, 2013, p. 46), and so it is less well-evidenced and less

widely accepted than Bennett's, but the authors "encourage other scholars to extend and test the model" (King & Baxter Magolda, 2005, p. 589).

An alternative model has been developed from the findings of a doctoral research project on the assessment of intercultural competence by Darla K. Deardorff (2006). This is a 'pyramid' model of intercultural competence which shows how personal attitudes and actions lead to desired outcomes of adaptability and effective communication. Compared with Bennett's model, Deardorff's is more complex. The relationship between the various elements is not very clear, but it is based on the understanding that intercultural competence depends on the acquisition of underlying elements, which occurs through a transition from personal attributes to interpersonal outcomes.

In summary, models of intercultural experience are useful because they articulate the benefits of international experience in terms of the skills, knowledge, attitudes and/or behaviours that are developed through intercultural experience. Whilst these theories describe the effect of intercultural experience in general, this includes international education experiences. In addition to describing the benefits of international education, these models also offer an *explanation* of the mechanism by which these competences develop. For example, Bennett's (1993) model proposes that it is *the experience of cultural difference* that is responsible for the development of intercultural competences. Bennett's DMIS model is widely cited amongst the literature on international education, as is Deardorff's (2006) 'pyramid' model. However, although both models were based on findings from empirical research, the validity of the models themselves has yet to be tested. There is opportunity, therefore, for further research in this area. This could be informed by knowledge from psychology, including knowledge of language acquisition, cognitive or emotional development; and sociology, including theories of cultural expression and transmission, cultural identity, and adaptation.

Intercultural Experience in European Policy

The concept of intercultural competence is its formal incorporation into the Common European Framework, which provides guidelines for teaching, learning and assessment of foreign language education. This incorporation provides an example of the practical application of the concept of intercultural competence. The Framework mainly concentrates on language learning, which is just one element in the breadth of intercultural skills, but it also considers how lingual skills relate to and develop from intercultural experiences:

> The linguistic and cultural competences in respect of each language are modified by knowledge of the other and contribute to intercultural awareness, skills and know-how. They enable the individual to develop an enriched, more complex personality and an enhanced capacity for further language learning and greater openness to new cultural experiences. (Council for Europe, 2012, p. 43)

The Framework notes that when two people from different cultures interact face-to-face, they share the same physical environment but they experience different observations and interpretations of that context. The effect of intercultural experience is to "increase the area of congruence" between the two:

> This may be a matter of an exchange of factual information. More difficult to bridge are differences in values and beliefs, politeness conventions, social expectations, etc., in terms of

which the parties interpret the interaction, unless they have acquired the relevant intercultural awareness. (Council for Europe, 2012, p. 51.)

We may conclude that international experience is not the only way to develop intercultural competence, for example Hall & Toll (1999) note that home-based activities to develop intercultural competence provide useful preparation for international experiences, but travel abroad is the most common approach. These activities are labelled 'Intercultural Awareness Raising' (IAR) activities, undertaken in the preparation of UK higher education languages students for a period of residence abroad. The authors state that "Awareness raising activities/tasks should offer students insight into the processes involved in adapting to change and, ultimately, being 'intercultural people'; such activities, if well-designed, should help students to contextualise and learn from their prior and future experiences" (Hall & Toll, 1999, p. 8). A list of IAR activities for developing specific intercultural competencies is included in Appendix 2 and demonstrates that a range of classes, schemes and activities can contribute to raising intercultural awareness for students. By extension, and although not the focus of Hall and Toll's work, it seems likely that a range of activities, such as home based, web or social media-based learning, school links and others could help support raising intercultural awareness for the wider population.

Key Concepts

This section briefly articulates some of the key concepts and contemporary trends/ phenomena that make international education opportunities relevant today. Its purpose is to clarify some relevant concepts and to define the terms used in this review.

Globalisation: The tendency for greater interaction between nations – that is, the movement of people and the exchange of money, products, services and ideas – and the increasing diversification of society as a result. Globalisation was occurring before the term became widely used in the late 20th century, but there is no consensus on when globalisation started.

Internationalization: The activity of educational institutions (particularly higher education institutions, but also non-educational organisations) intended to improve efficiency or competitiveness, quality of partnerships and cooperation in the context of globalisation. Jane Knight's (2003) definition of internationalization is generally accepted:[5]

> The process of integrating an international, intercultural or global dimension into the purpose, functions or delivery of post-secondary education.

International experience: A broad term to cover all forms of cross-border experiences. This includes experience of non-educational activity (work and leisure) as well as study abroad.

International education/trans-national education (TNE)/study abroad:[6] International experience that involves formal education, or vice versa.

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[5] Brandenburg, U. & de Wit, H. (2012). 'Higher education is losing sight of what internationalization is all about'. *The Guardian*, Monday 2 April: www.theguardian.com/higher-education-network/blog/2012/apr/02/internationalisation-labeling-learning-outcomes

[6] This report cites sources that refer variously to each of these three terms. For the purposes of this study, we may treat them synonymously, as defined above.

> Exactly defining TNE has always been difficult, but the basic principle involves the delivery of higher education programmes in a different country from the one where the awarding/overseeing institution is based. (British Council & DAAD, 2014a, p. 6.)

This definition of cross-border education, which is also shared by UNESCO,[7] would also include distance learning (courses undertaken wholly in one country and accredited in another), but because this is beyond the scope of the current literature review it is excluded from this report. Because international education involves crossing borders of national education systems, it is often classified as non-official education (CIMEA, 2004, p. 2). *N.B. In this report, we use the term 'international education' inclusively to refer to study abroad at all levels of education, and not exclusively for higher education (as some sources do).*

International mobility/student mobility: The movement of people between countries for the purposes of international education. There are two ways of identifying mobile students and their country of origin: 1) those who are not usual residents of the country of study, and 2) those who received prior qualification in another country. (Note that in some literature 'international mobility' may refer to mobility in general, including for purposes other than education.)

Programme mobility / degree mobility / diploma mobility: International education where a whole course is completed abroad. Usually relatively long-term mobility, in contrast with credit mobility (see below).

Credit mobility: International education where part of a course is undertaken abroad. Relatively short-term mobility, where students return to the 'home' (awarding) institution.

Intercultural experience: Exposure to a different culture. This may be via international travel, but not necessarily. Conversely, not all international experiences necessarily involve intercultural experience. Therefore, the term 'intercultural experience' provides a useful distinction with 'international experience' for discussion of the benefits of international education opportunities.

Culture: Notoriously difficult to define, culture can be understood as the collective beliefs and behaviours of a society. It includes the physical artefacts of a society (e.g. art and architecture) as well as the intangible systems, structures and practices that produce them (e.g. language and aesthetics). This broad conception of culture is distinct from previous ideas which restricted it to the aesthetic activity of the privileged social elite (e.g. 'fine art' or 'classical music'). The contemporary understanding is derived from Edward Tylor's (1871) definition of culture as:

> …that complex whole which includes knowledge, belief, art, morals, law, custom, and any other capabilities and habits acquired by man as a member of society.

Intercultural competence: Being interculturally competent means having the skills, knowledge, attitude and behaviour to function effectively in a globalised world. The development of intercultural competencies is a primary reason for participating in intercultural experiences.

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[7] "All types of higher education study programmes, or sets of courses of study, or educational services (including those of distance education) in which the learners are located in a country different from the one where the awarding institution is based." (Council of Europe, 2002)

Intercultural skills: The set of transferrable skills that derive from intercultural experience and which comprise intercultural competence. This may include foreign language skill, cultural awareness and sensitivity, behavioural flexibility, and empathy.

Intercultural education: Formal or informal learning that develops intercultural competencies or skills. This need not take place in another country or culture; it can include home-based activities aimed at raising intercultural awareness in preparation for experiences abroad. Principle III of UNESCO's *Guidelines on Intercultural Education* provides a good working definition:

> Intercultural Education provides all learners with cultural knowledge, attitudes and skills that enable them to contribute to respect, understanding and solidarity among individuals, ethnic, social, cultural and religious groups and nations. (UNESCO, 2006, p. 32)

The UNESCO guidelines also state that this principle of intercultural education can be achieved through "direct contacts and regular exchanges between pupils, students, teachers and other educators in different countries or cultural environments", which are international experiences that are the focus of the present literature review.

Overall the concepts of intercultural skills and how these are developed through international and other experiences are a helpful way of interpreting the key benefits of international experiences. In the next chapter, we look at the nature and scale of international opportunities for people in the UK. This covers opportunities ranging from pre-primary education to university, and also includes opportunities to train or work abroad.

03. International Opportunities in the UK

This chapter presents evidence on key types of international opportunities available in the UK, covering the areas of school-level, post-compulsory education, and then gap years and volunteering. It gives evidence of current programmes, and outlines available evidence on the type and scale of provision at a range of educational stages, and opportunities outside education. Evidence for this activity is patchy, largely because there is no national database of opportunities and no national data collection on international mobility. Furthermore, the academic literature and publicly-available information tends to focus on international experience in higher education. The balance in the coverage of available information is likely reflective of the activity in this area, but without better data collection it is impossible to gauge the extent to which this is so. Therefore, this chapter concludes that there is a need for better data collection or primary research on the scale of different types of international experience, particularly outside of higher education.

Due to the wide variety of opportunities for international experiences and the lack of common frameworks for defining and measuring it, it is challenging to map the nature and scale of activity across nations. Acknowledging these constraints, the remainder of this chapter aims to provide a summary of international opportunities in the UK, and the following chapter compares this with opportunities in Germany and the US, primarily at the higher education level, as this is where comparable data is available. The sections include evidence of both formal, structured international education and informal international experiences. Understandably, we find that there is much more available evidence for the former type of activity than the latter. This means that the evidence presented in this report is likely to be somewhat biased by the relative lack of available documentation on the nature and scale of international education opportunities in individual (as opposed to organisational) circumstances. As a result, the following evidence is based on a mixture of academic sources and information from the private sector including publicly-available information from websites and organisations' reports.

Pre-Primary Education

There is evidence to suggest that there are benefits of having more than a year of pre-school education in general,[8] but there is a lack of research and available data on the international dimension of pre-school education. For example, a major European longitudinal study of young children's development from pre-school to the end of Key Stage 1 (Sylva *et al.*, 2005), based on a sample of 3,000 children, looked at the conditions for effective educational development in terms of a wide range of factors (including type and duration of pre-school experience, home environment, learning environment background characteristics, staff qualifications), but the study says nothing about international education or intercultural development.

Given that a majority of the benefits of international education are based on the development of language skills and on cultural understanding and sensitivity, the potential for benefits to pre-

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[8] E.g. Mostafa, T. and Green, A. (2012) *Measuring the Impact of Universal Pre-School Education and Care on Literacy Performance Scores*. http://www.llakes.org/wp-content/uploads/2012/07/36.-Mostafa-Green.pdf

school children – who have yet to develop linguistic fluency and cultural awareness – may be more subtle. Yet it also offers potential for creating a platform for developing greater language skills and increasing cultural understanding: insofar as some international pre-school activities may be linked to achieving bi-lingualism or to building a personal link with another culture, therefore we might assume that there can be positive effects later in life for children who have had pre-school international experiences. There is a wide literature on bilingual children, and beginning to learn a second language through pre-school is a viable way to begin on a path to building longer term linguistic skills. Systematic evidence for the impact of international travel on pre-primary learners appears limited, although there have been positive reports of the benefits of bilingual pre-school experiences, reported in the press.[9] Nevertheless, it is international experience, not language learning *per se*, that is the focus of this report, and therefore we must conclude that there is a lack of evidence on the scale and impact of international education at a pre-primary school level in the UK. There has been no national survey of primary schools to investigate the nature and scale of international education, nor any study that evaluates the impact of this activity.

Primary Education

EVIDENCE OF ACTIVITY

At primary level in the UK, opportunities for international education tend to be based on links between schools rather than travelling abroad. For example, a primary school could set up a link with a school in France, starting with staff exchanges, and later involving written correspondence between pupils followed by a video conference between classes. The staff exchange develops teachers' language skills, with benefits passed on in terms of language teaching ability.

The British Council offers support for teaching and learning of languages at primary level. This includes the *Connecting Classrooms*[10] programme which encourages primary teachers to find a partner school either via the British Schools Online[11] database or the European Commission eTwinning platform.[12]

The Institute of Education published a report on the practices and impacts of engagement with international themes in primary schools in England (Hunt, 2012). The subject of the report, "global learning", has a slightly different focus than 'intercultural' learning, which – unlike most international education opportunities – does not necessarily involve travel abroad:

> Global learning is a term used to define aspects of the whole school curricula that relate to people's place within the wider-world, their relationships with others, their histories, their presents and futures. Global learning connects the local to the global and advocates that

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[9] Richard Garner, "Teaching in tongues: the bilingual pre-school tapping new potential", *The Independent*, 31 December 2013: www.independent.co.uk/news/education/education-news/teaching-in-tongues-the-bilingual-preschool-tapping-new-potential-9032047.html

[10] https://schoolsonline.britishcouncil.org/programmes-and-funding/linking-programmes-worldwide/connecting-classrooms

[11] https://schoolsonline.britishcouncil.org/

[12] http://www.etwinning.net/en/pub/index.htm

people throughout the world are agents in interconnected, sustainable and thoughtful living. (Hunt, 2012, p. 14)

From September 2014, primary schools in England will be required to teach a foreign language at Key Stage 2. Research by Cable *et al.* (2010), which contributed to the introduction of policy to teach languages at primary level, finds that "Very few schools were providing an hour of language teaching per week as suggested in the Key Stage 2 Framework for languages" (DfES, 2005). Approaches to teaching languages included three broad models: class teachers teaching their own classes, one or two internal or visiting external specialists, and a mixture of these two approaches (Cable *et al.*, 2010, p. 144), however, no single approach was found to be more effective than any other. The research also found that the development of intercultural understanding was seen as "an important underlying rationale for languages" (p. 1). The report also suggests that there is a need for more teacher training and professional development in this area (p. 147). There is potential for this new education policy to contribute to strengthening the intercultural competence of a new generation of learners, but the extent to which it ultimately impacts on the UK's international mobility, social mobility and the economy remains to be seen.

EVIDENCE OF SCALE

There is no national record of international education opportunities in the UK, therefore we cannot accurately or comprehensively identify the scale of this activity at primary level. However, one report by the Institute for Education (Hunt, 2012, p. 36) suggests that 82% of primary schools have links with international schools and 62% have forged pen pal arrangements with children overseas (Figure 2). A survey on language trends in English schools suggests that 95% of primary school respondents taught language in their curriculum in 2013, and 97% the previous academic year (Board & Tinsley, 2014, p. 32). This survey also shows that the proportion of primary schools that offer no language provision is higher in academies (10%, compared with 4% for other schools), which are not required to follow the national curriculum.
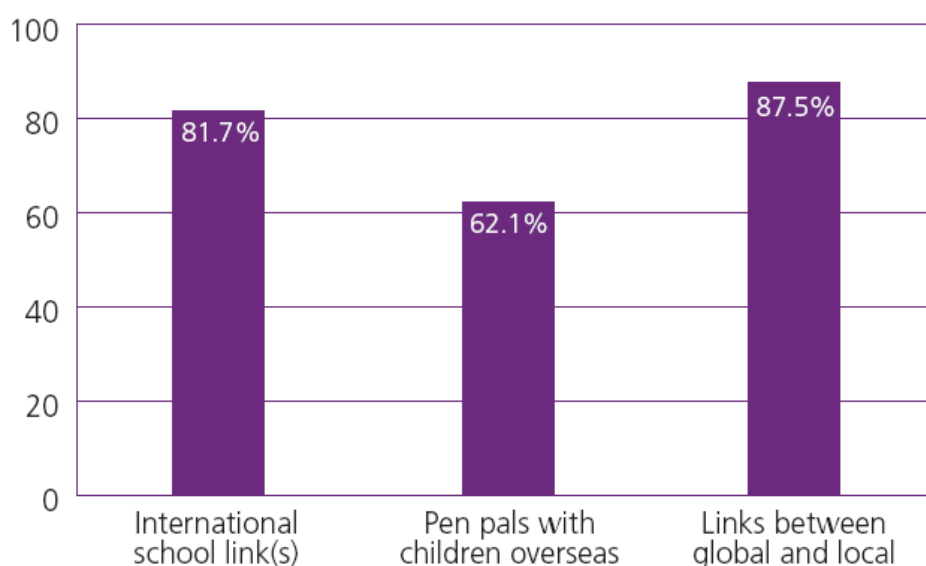

Figure 2: Proportion of primary schools adopting local and international links. [Source: Hunt, 2012, p. 36.]

A small number of evaluation reports exist that relate to international education opportunities within primary schools. For example, there are reports on the *eTwinning* (Vuorikari, 2012) and

Connecting Classrooms (Edge, Higham & Frayman, 2011) programmes in the UK which describe successful partnership activities through case studies. The report on *eTwinning* identifies eight characteristics of "high momentum" international partnerships: school context, school's innovation history, the eTwinning team, team activities, enablers and obstacles, impact of the eTwinning team, plans for the future, and lead teacher. However, the report does not disclose the names or school types, so it says nothing about the scale of activity in UK primary schools. Similarly, the Schools Online website[13] hosts a range of resources to help primary schools establish international partnerships, but has no publicly-available evaluations or reports that could evidence the scale of this activity. On the other hand, Vuorikari's (2012) report on *eTwinning* includes eight primary schools amongst the case studies, but only one of these is based in the UK. Like the *Connecting Classrooms* report, this study also focuses on the characteristics of successful teams and approaches, and so this report is a useful resource for teachers, but is unable to provide information on the scale of this activity in the UK. A new evaluation report on the *Connecting Classrooms* programme by Ruskin Education is due to be published soon.[14]

A web search reveals a number of private providers of educational trips offered to primary school aged children. One example is Diverse School Travel which offers trips outside the UK to France, the Netherlands and Spain, typically lasting four or five days and including visits to historic sites and taking part in activities.[15] Similarly, Tours for Groups[16] and NST Group[17] offer a number of trips aimed at primary aged children to France, Germany and Belgium. It is not possible from a website review to gain an indication of the scale of uptake for these activities, but it is clear there is a market for this activity and school groups travelling abroad is a feature in primary schools. The online search shows there are fewer trips aimed at primary aged children in comparison to secondary aged children, suggesting it is a smaller market. It is also likely that some specialist group travel opportunities exist, such as for music, arts or sports related travel, but searches for evidence at primary level revealed only very limited results, so these have not been drawn upon in this review.

In conclusion, there is little research or data collection on international education opportunities at primary school level in the UK. Similarly, none of the main providers of international education opportunities offer publicly-available information on the scale of their activity in UK primary schools. It would be relatively straightforward to plug this knowledge-gap and map this activity by conducting primary research, for example via an online survey emailed to primary schools, which could be considered for future research.

EVIDENCE OF IMPACT

There is evidence that 'global learning' (that is, education *about* other countries and cultures, not education *in* another country) at primary level brings benefits to schools including

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[13] http://schoolsonline.britishcouncil.org/classroom-resources/primary-languages

[14] http://ruskineducation.com/?p=1700

[15] www.diverseschooltravel.co.uk/primary-school-trips.asp

[16] www.toursforgroups.com

[17] www.nstgroup.co.uk/primary/

enhanced community cohesion, school ethos (i.e. institutional values) and pupil voice (the inclusion of students' views in schools' decision-making). A report by the Institute for Education (Hunt, 2012, p. 17) shows that global learning in primary schools includes theme-related teaching sessions, award programmes, school linking programmes, and cultural exchanges. The results of a survey show that primary school teachers understand the aims of global learning to include the development of respect and responsibility (76.5%), interest in other countries and cultures (60.4%), the broadening of pupils' horizons (47.5%) and community participation (41.9%) (Hunt, 2012, p. 29). In terms of impact, 52.8% of teachers said that global learning had resulted in "some important changes within the school", and 14.5% reported that the impact "has reshaped the way the school approaches most things" (although "most things" is not defined) (Hunt, 2012, p. 49).This particular study focuses on global learning in UK primary schools, not on international education experience outside the UK, although the evidence from other age groups does suggest that international travel experiences outside the UK have similar or greater benefits in general, which are likely also to apply to primary school children.

Secondary Education

EVIDENCE OF ACTIVITY

Developing intercultural competencies has also been discussed at the secondary school level. Since approximately 2000, schools in England were required to incorporate a 'global dimension' into the curriculum. The policy developed by the Department for Education and Skills in collaboration with the Department for International Development defined 'global dimension' in terms of eight key concepts: global citizenship, conflict resolution, diversity, human rights, interdependence, social justice, sustainable development and values and perceptions (DfES, 2005). Curriculum guidance material helped teachers to integrate these concepts into secondary teaching and learning. At that time, intercultural education was incorporated into the aims of the national curriculum for secondary schools, which stated that

> The school curriculum should contribute to the development of pupils' sense of identity through knowledge and understanding of the spiritual, moral, social and cultural heritages of Britain's diverse society and of the local, national, European, Commonwealth and global dimensions of their lives. (DfES, 2004)

In contrast, the aims of the current national curriculum (DfE, 2013) do not mention a global dimension, international education or intercultural awareness. Instead, it places greater emphasis on subject-based learning and core knowledge. There have been a few studies on the global dimension of secondary education between these two formulations of the national curriculum, but comprehensive evidence for international educational activity is relatively scarce, and it is difficult to determine to what extent the national curriculum's change in emphasis towards this aspect of secondary education may affect the type and scale of activity in schools today in addition to the knowledge, skills and behaviour of pupils.

Within secondary level education, the *International School Award* (ISA) is an accreditation programme to support international education in schools.[18] The programme is run by the British Council, as part of the Schools Online website which hosts classroom and professional

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[18] https://schoolsonline.britishcouncil.org/accreditation-and-awards/isa/uk-schools/about

development resources for supporting international education. An earlier evaluation of the award by Ofsted (2006) found that in many schools with an ISA, a significant amount of teachers' and pupils' time was involved in international work. The Ofsted report also noted that the self-evaluation forms that are used to evaluate the award within schools rarely included an evaluation of the impact of the international dimension on young people's enjoyment and achievement.

Over 3,000 schools have gained the ISA in the UK, but the programme is also available to schools in other countries, with over 10,000 international schools currently involved.[19] Schools that take part in the programme develop links with schools around the world and gain accreditation for their work. A similar programme is the *Rights Respecting Schools Award* (RRSA) by UNICEF UK, which is based on recognition of the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC).[20] This UK-wide programme started in 2004 with aims to integrate with cross-curricular school initiatives such as the global dimension and sustainable development. As discussed below (in the section on Evidence of Scale), this programme covers 1,600 schools in the UK.

As part of the *European Lifelong Learning Project*, the British Council also administers the Comenius programme in the UK. Comenius is designed to increase the mobility of pupils and staff across the EU and to enhance language learning and teacher training. An evaluation of Comenius in the UK (Cook, 2012) found that the international school partnerships enhance the curriculum and develop multicultural awareness, particularly in learners, and also support staff development. However, the focus of this evaluation is on the value of Comenius school partnerships specifically rather than on international secondary education activity in general.

It is common for secondary schools to offer international trips for school children in order to provide positive international experiences. Sources on the exact scale of this activity are limited, both in terms of numbers of schools offering the opportunities and take up within schools, because central data is not collected. Activities may be organised by schools themselves, or by numerous external travel providers. Trips range from student exchanges, trips to major cities and ski trips, to "adventure" experiences outside of Europe. Of course, outside of the school system altogether, many UK children also achieve positive international experiences through private travel directed by their families. Again, there is no formal record of such activity.

Outside of mainstream schools, there are international schools – such as Atlantic College, an international residential school in the UK – which provide international experiences to schoolchildren. They provide a model of a deliberately international education, based on the International Baccalaureate. This approach aims to provide a transformational experience for students, and generally results appear to be good, although we were not able to source an evaluation. These schools clearly cater for only a small minority of children (350 students over two year-groups at Atlantic College, about a quarter of them from the UK), whilst one source suggests that there are 59 international schools in the UK (although we were unable to access the definition used in this case).[21]

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[19] https://schoolsonline.britishcouncil.org/programmes-and-funding/linking-programmes-worldwide/connecting-classrooms/accreditation-and-awards

[20] http://www.unicef.org.uk/rrsa

[21] ISC Research, http://www.iscresearch.com/information.aspx

EVIDENCE OF SCALE

The research into international opportunities in secondary education leaves gaps in knowledge about the scale of activity. The available evidence is largely comprised of case studies investigating the impact of specific activities in selected groups of schools, rather than wider surveys measuring the range and frequency of international education more generally. Information on the take-up of individual programmes gives some idea of scale, but can only provide an incomplete picture. For example, a report on the *Rights Respecting Schools Award* (Sebba & Robinson, 2010) claims that 1,600 primary and secondary schools have registered for the award in the UK, but offers no more detailed data. Given that there are over 24,000 schools in England alone, the proportion of schools involved with the RRSA is quite low (6.6%). Similarly, the 3,000 schools involved in the British Council's *International Schools Award* is also a minority (12.5%).

Our search procedure was unable to locate reliable quantitative evidence that could highlight the scale of international education opportunities in secondary education in the UK (such as the number of pupils studying or travelling abroad). However, it is clear from an internet search that there are numerous providers of international experiences to school-aged children that can be used by schools. Individual providers do not tend to divulge data online on the numbers of children involved in their programmes, but the range of activity and countries is extensive, including all continents, and activities ranging from city visits or exchanges, to trekking or volunteering projects. The International School Consultancy (ISC) Group produces reports on the international education market, and offers a potential source of information on the scale of activity in this area. However, ISC reports and data are proprietary and offer little publicly-available information.

A Eurobarometer survey, by the European Commission, found that 12% of UK respondents had attended school in a country other than the UK, which is higher than the EU27 average (European Commission, *Geographical and labour market mobility*, 2010, p.56). In addition, 4% had attended university in another country and 6% had participated in training in another country. This would include current UK residents who were previously resident in another country, so does not refer exclusively to UK citizens – approximately 4% of UK respondents to the survey had come to live in the UK from another country. Even so, the rates of attending school or university in the survey seem high, and give evidence that attending school in another country is more common than might be expected. As this is based on survey evidence, rather than observed mobility, further research would be required in this area.

EVIDENCE OF IMPACT

A research paper on the global dimension of secondary schools in England, *Global Dimensions in Secondary Schools* (Bourn & Hunt, 2011), notes that there has been a lack of research into this subject and that the existing evidence for impact leaves many gaps in knowledge. The authors suggest a number of possible reasons for this, including the low profile of international education amongst researchers and policy-makers in the UK, and an emphasis on funding short-term projects rather than long-term programmes. Furthermore, the paper outlines:

> Where a Global Dimension is embedded within the curriculum, as one of a range of approaches in school, it is difficult to attribute impact, and unless directly requested by inspection bodies, evidence is rarely sought and found. (Bourn & Hunt, 2011, p. 6)

The 3-year study on UNICEF's *Rights Respecting Schools Award* (RRSA) suggests that this programme has been beneficial for pupils, parents and teachers. The impact of the programme, as identified by external research (Sebba & Robinson, 2010) and schools' self-evaluation, includes the following forms of intercultural development:

- Improved self-esteem and well-being
- Improved relationships and behaviour (reductions in bullying and exclusions and improved attendance)
- Pupils feel empowered to respect the environment and the rights of others
- Improved engagement in learning
- Positive attitudes towards diversity in society and the reduction of prejudice

However, this research used a relatively small sample of case studies and did not compare evidence with non-RRSA schools, therefore the positive outcomes evidenced in the case study schools can only be *associated with* – and not directly *attributed to* – the RRSA. Also, the specific focus of this study on the RRSA means that it cannot offer information on the scale or impact of other forms of international education in secondary schools in the UK.

Generally, the lack of quantifiable data on the scale and impact of international experiences in schools places a limit on the level of analysis that can be achieved. A key recommendation could therefore be a greater focus on these activities, both by researchers and school policymakers and inspectors.

Further Education

FE students taking courses at a higher level (i.e. Level 4 or higher) are able to access international education opportunities via the Erasmus programme (further details of which are presented in the next section on higher education). Students in FE can undertake either study mobility (also known as diploma mobility), where they undertake a study period of 3 to 12 months at a higher education institution abroad, or work placement or traineeships in companies abroad, lasting from 2 to 12 months. Across all Erasmus countries, students on higher vocational programmes made up only 0.6% of the total study outward mobility (out of a total of 204,744), and 11% of work placement outward mobility (out of a total of 48,083) (European Commission, 2013a). The total number of study exchanges from the UK in 2011/12 is 9,094, plus 4,568 company placements (however, this is for both FE and HE level) (European Commission, 2013b). Within published analysis of Erasmus statistics, in general, the distinction between FE and HE students is not broken down in detail, making detailed summaries by country difficult; therefore total numbers of students by country (FE and HE) are further explored in the next section on higher education mobility. From 2014, UK Vocational Education and Training organisations can apply for both learner and staff mobility under Erasmus+, which is being managed by EcorysUK.

Vocational education and training (VET) that incorporates an international dimension is offered by a range of organisations, but almost all of these provide very little public data on the scale of activity. For example, the British Council's *Skills for Employability* programme, has specific opportunities tailored for over 100 destination countries (e.g. for China[22] and the UAE[23]). The

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[22] http://www.britishcouncil.cn/en/programmes/education/employability/about

programme comprises funding and support for international experiences, college partnerships, policy developments, and research.[24] Other organisations that facilitate international VET include:

- The **International Vocational Education and Training Association** (IVETA), which is a network of vocational educators including training organisations and businesses[25]
- UNESCO's **International Centre for Technical and Vocational Education and Training** (UNESCO-UNEVOC), which promotes activities through a network of UNEVOC centres in 165 countries[26]
- **Education International**, whose mission is to promote greater access to VET overall, including cross-border provision[27]
- And a host of smaller organisations, such as the Otto van Guericke University Magdeburg, which offers a study program of international vocational education in collaboration with Anglia Ruskin University and others[28]

There is scant evidence on the impact of international education at the level of further education. As with other levels of education discussed in this report, this would seem to be largely due to a lack of data collection and research in this area, but also to the lower levels of activity compared with HE. It is perhaps also related to the fact that the FE/HE distinction is rarely used outside the UK and Australia; in the US it is known as "continuing education", whilst other countries may not make the distinction amongst their post-compulsory levels of education.

Higher Education

EVIDENCE OF ACTIVITY

International mobility is much more common in the UK at higher education level, and as such it is possible to include greater detail on this level of experience than other levels of education. This activity has many different labels, including international education, student mobility, and trans-national education. UNESCO defines trans-national higher education (TNHE) as:

> All types of higher education study programmes, or sets of courses of study, or educational services (including those of distance education) in which the learners are located in a country different from the one where the awarding institution is based. Such programmes may belong to the education system of a State different from the State in which it operates, or may operate independently of any national education system. (Council of Europe, 2002)

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[23] http://www.britishcouncil.org/learning-skills-for-employability-uae-country-vet-strategy-vocational-education-training.htm

[24] http://www.britishcouncil.cn/sites/britishcouncil.cn/files/brochure_of_skills_for_employability.pdf

[25] http://www.iveta.org/

[26] http://www.unevoc.unesco.org/go.php

[27] http://www.ei-ie.org/en/websections/content_detail/3267

[28] http://www.ovgu.de/en/Education/Before+you+start+studies/Study+Guide/Master/International+Vocational+Education.html

As stated in the Key Concepts section earlier in Chapter 1, this definition encompasses a slightly wider range of activities than the focus of this literature review. For example, this definition would include distance learning, which is beyond the scope of the current review because it does not involve travel to other places and first-hand experience of other cultures. As such, trans-national higher education can be seen as a subset of international mobility, which is the subject of this review. With this caveat in mind, information pertaining to trans-national education is nevertheless still largely relevant to the present discussion.

There are many different types of international higher education. CIMEA (2004, pp. 2–3), the Italian organisation for information and advice on study abroad, lists the following forms of TNE:

- **Franchising** – whereby an HEI from one country grants another institution in another country the right to provide their programmes. Student nationality does not matter

- **Programme articulations** – whereby inter-institutional agreements are made to jointly design, provide and/or validate a study programme, with credits recognised by both institutions

- **Branch campus** – a campus established by HEI from another country

- **Off-shore institution**

- **Large corporations**

- **International institutions**

- **Distance learning arrangements and virtual universities**

As a result of this wide range of institutional activity, there is a similarly wide range of stakeholders (and roles) in TNE, including:

- **Students** (consumers)

- **Academic institutions** (providers)

- **Teaching and support staff** (facilitators)

- **National / International organisations** (coordinators)

- **Government** (enablers and regulators)

- **Employers and the community** (beneficiaries)

- **Local institutions** (potential competitors and collaborators)

International activity in UK higher education is supported by the International Unit, which undertakes research and provides information to HEIs, and by the British Council, which provides international education opportunities for young people and supports the building of partnerships with universities to facilitate these opportunities. International students are a significant part of the UK HE system, and they make a substantial contribution to the economy. The higher fees that international students pay contributed a total of around £2.2 billion to the value of UK education exports in 2008/09, as estimated by BIS (Conlon, Litchfield & Sadlier, 2011, p. 22). The high presence of international students in UK universities, particularly on postgraduate courses, arguably contributes to an international outlook and character of UK

higher education for home students, notwithstanding concerns over lack of integration between home and international students in terms of socialisation.[29]

There is a distinction made between periods of study abroad in higher education: 'Diploma/degree mobility' refers to periods of study that encompass the attainment of a whole course abroad. In contrast, 'credit mobility' refers to shorter periods of study abroad where the purpose is to undertake just one part of a course, such as one module. The Erasmus programme is one example of credit mobility, for both education and work purposes. A recent report by the British Council (2014) suggests that in the UK a record number of students now consider studying a whole degree abroad ('diploma mobility'). The *Broadening Horizons* report also shows that in the UK the main academic driver for study abroad is "to gain credit for my field of study" (33% of respondents). Non-academic drivers relate to gaining experience of other cultures (20%) and having an adventure (19%), in addition to improving employment prospects (17%) and building confidence (15%) (British Council, 2014, p. 13).

EVIDENCE OF SCALE

There is more data on international activity in higher education compared with other sectors. This situation reflects not only the scale of activity in this area, but also the many ways of measuring it. Related to this though, the evidence on scale tends not to disaggregate into more detailed models of TNE discussed in the section above. The majority of studies and reports also focus on inbound mobility (foreign students studying in the UK) rather than outbound mobility (home students studying abroad). For example, annual reports by the Observatory on Borderless Higher Education (e.g. Verbik & Lasanowski, 2007) ostensibly report on student mobility in general, but in fact almost all the data concerns inbound mobility, especially when looking at individual countries. Establishing the scale of UK student mobility has been hampered by a lack of centralised data collection system, but some reliable evidence is available from large-scale academic studies and from international organisations. This statistical evidence is somewhat inconsistent, and provides slightly differing accounts of the volume of HE student mobility. However, there are some reliable sources of information, such as the UNESCO Institute for Statistics, which offer detailed data on student mobility for the UK and other countries.

The UK is a net importer in terms of student mobility. Figure 3 illustrates the data for the flow of internationally mobile students between 1999 and 2012, showing a clear trend of increasing inbound net mobility. This is driven by increasing inbound mobility, the scale of which clearly dominates the net trend compared with the scale and static trend of outbound mobility.

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[29] For example: 'Foreign students: Overlooked and over here', *The Independent* (27 September 2007), http://www.independent.co.uk/news/education/higher/foreign-students-overlooked-and-over-here-403595.html
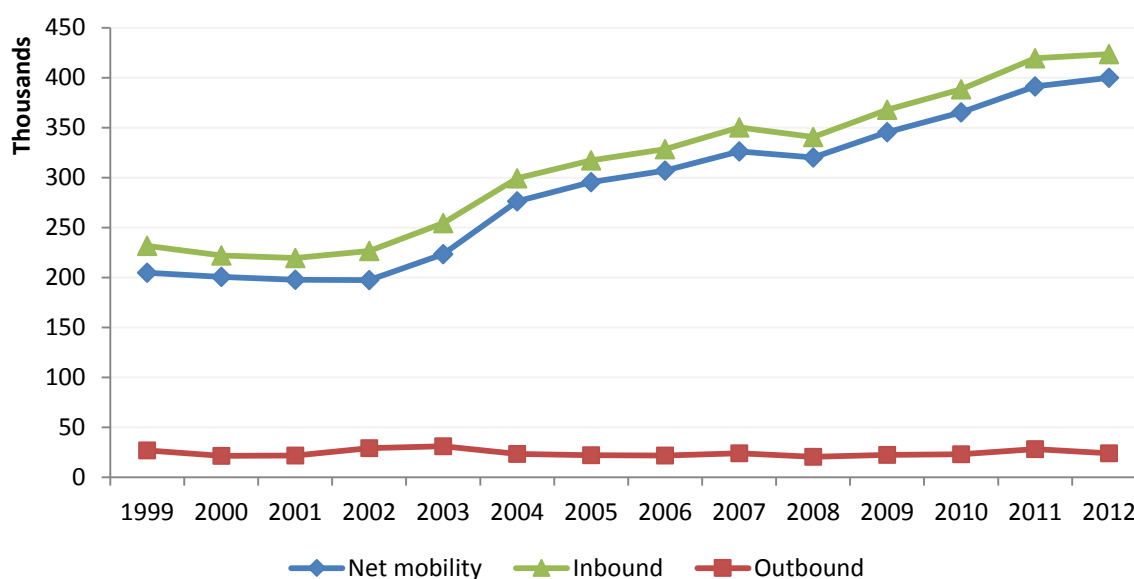
Figure 3: Internationally mobile students in the UK, 1999–2012. (Net mobility = inbound – outbound.) [Data source: UNESCO Institute for Statistics, 2014.]

In terms of degree/diploma mobility – that is, students who have undertaken the whole of their degree in another country – the OECD and UNESCO provide some comparative data across countries. UNESCO figures put UK outward mobility at approximately 28,000 students in 2012; this level of activity has fluctuated around this figure since 1999, as shown in Figure 3 (data on UK outward mobility is also shown alongside the equivalent for the US and Germany in the comparison section, p.44 onwards).

UNESCO data can also be used to estimate the main destinations of UK students. The top ten destinations for 1999–2012 are shown in Figure 4. The most common destinations are the US, France, Ireland, Germany and Australia. These countries have remained fairly consistent over the past 10 to 15 years, although there have been some changes as illustrated in the chart, in particular a reduction in UK students travelling to Australia after 2003 (note there is no data for Australia for 2001). We further examine the UNESCO data later in this review when considering the relative scale of UK outward degree mobility compared with Germany and the US, including equivalent charts of the top 10 destinations for students from these countries.
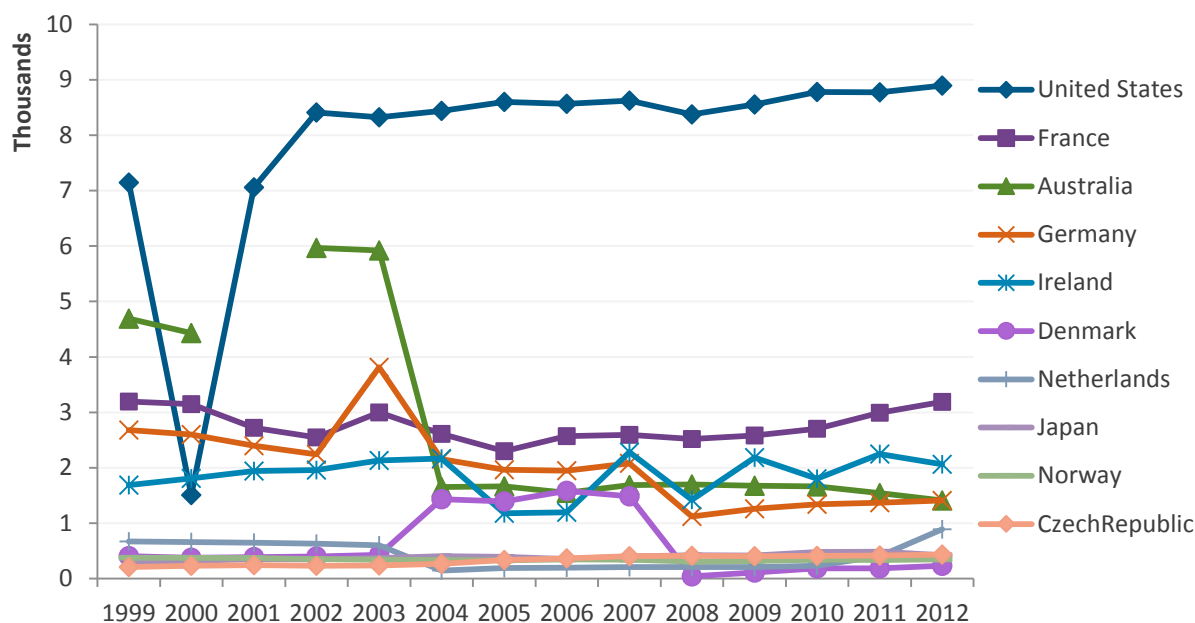
Figure 4: Destinations of outbound students from the UK (top 10 countries), 1999-2012. [Data source: UNESCO Institute for Statistics.]

Moving from degree/diploma mobility to credit mobility – that is, where someone takes only a part of their education course in another country – we have evidence of scale from the Erasmus programme, since 2014 called Erasmus Plus. This is a European Commission programme for FE and HE that was inaugurated in 1987 and formed one of the four programmes within the Lifelong Learning Programme. In 2007/08, work placements were included in the programme in addition to academic. There are 33 participating countries: the 28 EU member states plus Iceland, Norway, Liechtenstein, Turkey and the Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia.[30] The British Council has been the National Agency for Erasmus in the UK since 2006. Erasmus provides opportunities for international education at a range of levels of HE, as illustrated in Table 1 (below). This data comes from one of the few studies that focus on outward student mobility in the UK (Carbonell, 2012b). Overall, the take up represents less than 1% of the total UK-domiciled undergraduate and postgraduate populations, with take up for Masters level being proportionately lower than Bachelors level.

Erasmus	Bachelor 3 years	Bachelor 4 years	Masters	Doctorate
Total	1,176	8,849	338	n/a

Table 1: Number of UK Erasmus students in 2011-12 by degree type. [Data source: Carbonell, 2012b, p. 25.]

Erasmus Mundus was a programme designed to improve academic mobility and cooperation between Europe and the rest of the world.[31] Running from 2009 to 2013, it comprised scholarships for postgraduate study and teaching abroad. The programme supported a range of

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postgraduate study including masters, doctoral, post-doctoral study, as well as funding partnerships with HEIs outside the EU. The European Commission was responsible for managing the programme, with the Education, Audiovisual and Culture Executive Agency responsible for its implementation. From 2013 onwards, international education activity continues under **Erasmus+**, the new EU programme for education, training, youth and sport.[32] Another form of credit mobility open to students from the UK is the British Council's Generation UK, which is a 3-year programme launched in 2011 aiming to attract 15,000 UK students to participate in study or work internships in China.[33] Unfortunately, there are no reports on the take-up for this programme or the extent to which it has met its aims.

Figure 5 illustrates the number of incoming and outgoing Erasmus students in the UK. It shows that in the past 5 years there has been an increase in both inward and outward mobility. The figures for 2011-12 in this chart (13,662) are higher than those in Table 1 (10,463) for two reasons: firstly, the European Commission (2013a) data includes Erasmus work placements, whereas Carbonell (2012b) covers study-related Erasmus activity only; secondly, Carbonell's data represents only 74% of HEIs, which equates to 88% of UK student mobility.
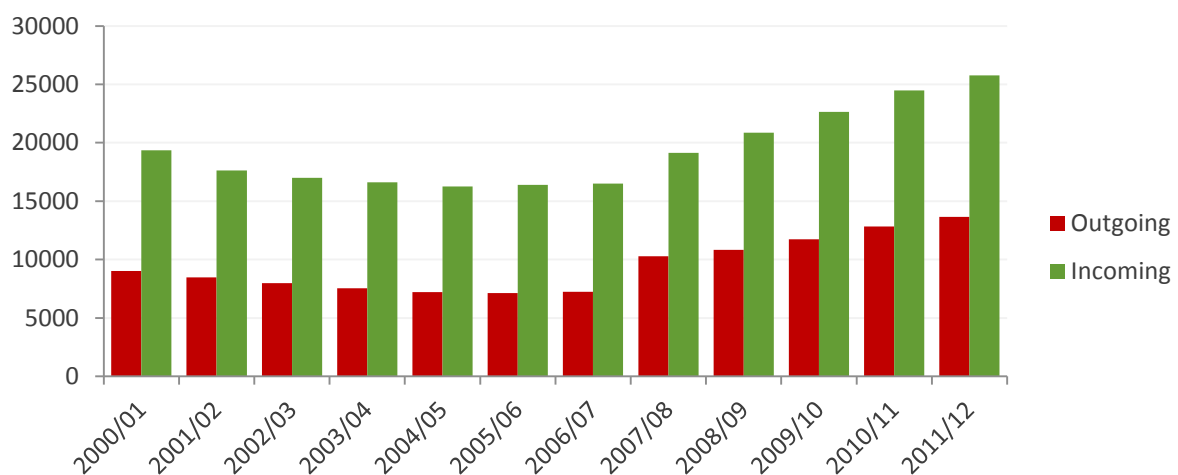

Figure 5: Erasmus student mobility in the UK – incoming and outgoing, 2000/01–2011/12. [Data source: European Commission, 2013a.]

Carbonell (2012a) examined outward student mobility in the UK, based on evidence from a survey of 109 UK HEIs. Data from this survey is illustrated in Figure 6, which shows changes in the number of Erasmus students between 2007/08 and 2010/11. It reveals that percentage growth of Erasmus in the UK (25%) is less than that in Turkey (45%), Spain (44%) and the Netherlands (42%), but higher than in France (22%), Italy (20%) and Germany (15%).

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[32] http://ec.europa.eu/education/opportunities/index_en.htm

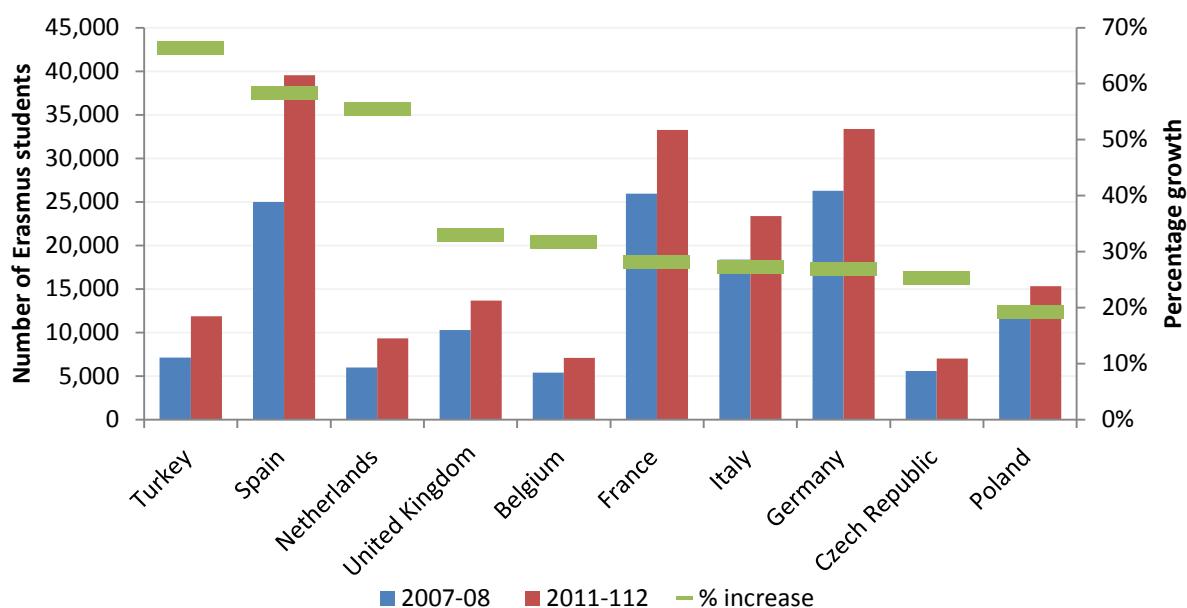[33] http://www.britishcouncil.cn/en/programmes/education/generation-uk

Figure 6: Erasmus students at the top ten European countries in 2007/08 and 2011/12, and percentage growth between these periods. Arranged in order of percentage growth (high to low, left to right). [Data source: Carbonell, 2012b, p. 9.]

Since 2007-08, the Erasmus programme has incorporated work placements in addition to study. Figure 7 shows more detail on Erasmus growth in the UK, and how this activity breaks down into work placements and study periods. It reveals that study periods are more popular than work placements, and that this activity showed growth every year (with an exception for study periods in 2008-09, which decreased slightly around the start of the global financial crisis).
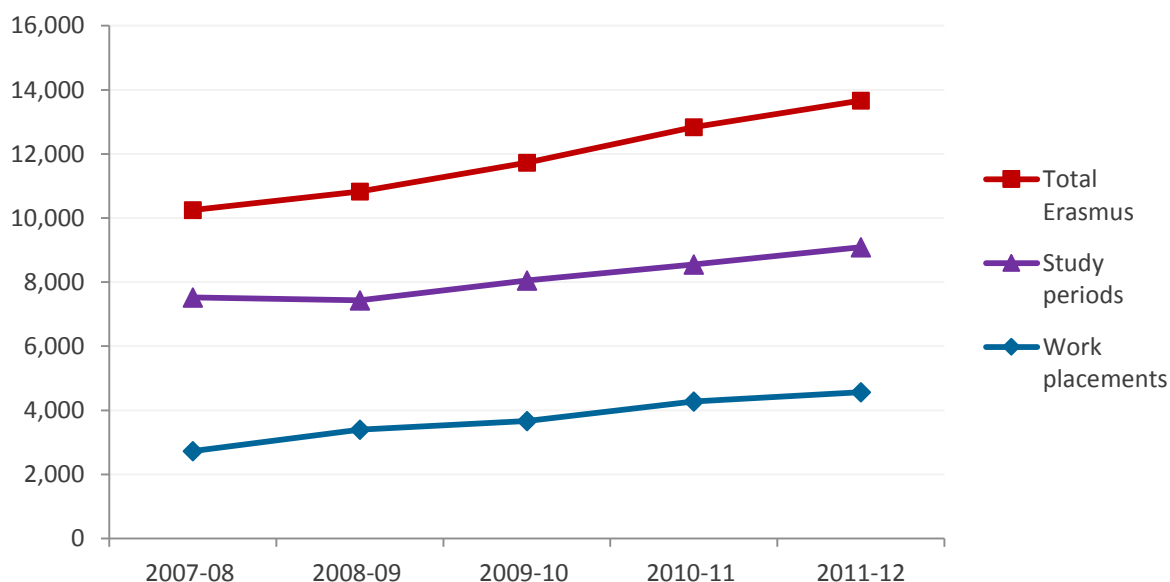

Figure 7: Growth of Erasmus in the UK [Data source: Carbonell, 2012b, p. 9.]

Figure 8 illustrates the top 10 destinations of UK Erasmus students according to Carbonell's (2012) survey. The most popular destination countries are France, Spain, Germany, Italy and the Netherlands. Erasmus mobility between the UK and Europe increased nearly 25% overall

between 2007-08 and 2010-11. Destination countries with the greatest growth during that period are Luxembourg (368%), Bulgaria (120%), Malta (114%) and Turkey (100%).

Figure 8: Top 10 destinations of UK Erasmus students. [Data source: Carbonell, 2012, p. 10.]

The number of outgoing Erasmus students within the top five most populous EU member state countries is illustrated in Figure 9. Spain sent the greatest number of students abroad, and is also the most popular destination for Erasmus students overall.

Figure 9: Outgoing Erasmus students by EU member state. [Source: House of Lords European Union Committee, 2012, p. 31.]

Carbonell's (2012a) study also includes data on the proportion that UK students represent in terms of incoming mobility at each country. It shows that the 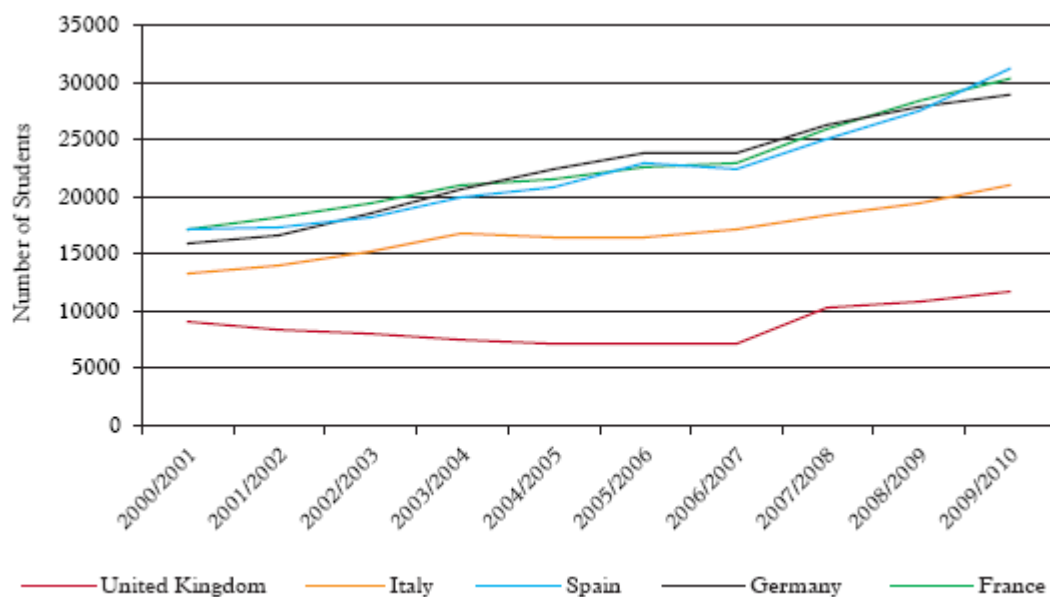country with the highest proportion of UK students is France (at just over 18%), followed by Germany, Malta, Spain and Cyprus (at just under 10% each). Note that this pattern differs somewhat from the data illustrated in Figure 8 (i.e. that the countries that are most popular destinations amongst UK Erasmus students are not necessarily those with the greatest proportion of UK students in their incoming Erasmus population). UNESCO offers interactive data graphics on the global flow of tertiary-level students by country of origin (currently based on 2012 data).[34] The chart for destinations of UK students is shown in Figure 10 (equivalent charts for the comparator countries are included in the separate sections on the United States and Germany).

Figure 10: Outward mobility of tertiary-level students from the UK. [Source: UNESCO Institute for Statistics, 2014.]

In 2011-12, the top 5 UK HEIs sending students to Erasmus studies and placements were:

1. The University of Nottingham (509)

2. University of Edinburgh (464)

3. University of Leeds (431)

4. University of Sheffield (402)

5. University of Durham (395) (European Commission, 2013b, p. 4)

Carbonell (2012b) (Table 2) provides an estimation of the total outward mobility of UK students, which aims to address some shortcomings of the data collection methods used by the European Commission. The EC statistics may count one student twice if they undertake two mobility periods in the same year, whereas Carbonell counts the "real mobility" with a head-count of students, resulting in a difference of around 11% in the figures (Carbonell, 2012b, p. 64):

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[34] UNESCO – Global flow of tertiary-level students: http://www.uis.unesco.org/Education/Pages/international-student-flow-viz.aspx

Erasmus students	12,164
Non-European mobility	5,933
Language Assistants (non-Erasmus)	421
Comenius Assistants	131
Total	**18,649**

Table 2: Estimation of student mobility in 2011-12 [Carbonell, 2012b, p. 65].

Figure 11 shows the trends in outward mobility from UK HEIs to non-European countries (that is, those that are not accessible via the Erasmus programme). Of these destinations, the US is the most popular choice, followed by Australia and Canada. It is interesting to note that whereas the Erasmus programme appears to encourage travel to countries that speak another language, non-European mobility appears to be very much focused on travel to English-speaking nations. However, the next-most popular destinations buck this trend: China, Japan, Hong Kong and Singapore all represent cultures that are markedly different to that of the UK.

Figure 11: Non-European outward mobility in UK HEIs – top 10 destination countries. [Data source: Carbonell, 2012, p. 56.]

EVIDENCE OF IMPACT

Various studies have been conducted on the impacts of international education, but it is challenging to identify evidence for the specific case of study abroad for the UK. Perhaps because the UK is a net importer of international education mobility, studies tend to focus on the benefits to foreign students of studying in the UK, rather than the benefits of study abroad for UK students and workers. In general, the research evidence suggests that study abroad is a transformational experience (see, e.g. Gu, 2012, *The Impact of Study Abroad on the Student*

Self). The key benefits are seen as being consistent with the benefits of international experiences in general, which are discussed in the conclusion to this report, but include improved intercultural understanding, linguistic fluency (where relevant), and personal development.

As we note in the case study on Erasmus for this project, the Value of Erasmus Mobility (VALERA) study, undertaken in 2006, found that both former students and employers rated the impact of the programme upon individual skills and competencies positively. The research found that former Erasmus students assessed their own competencies very positively, and rated themselves as having far better knowledge of other countries, foreign language proficiency and intercultural understanding than those who had not undertaken an Erasmus placement (Bracht *et al.*, 2006). While these views are self-reflective in nature, it suggests that individuals who complete Erasmus are more confident when self assessing their own skills. Crucially, the research found that employers rate young graduates with international experience as far superior to those without, especially as far as 'international competencies' are concerned. In particular, the employer survey noted:

- Improved foreign language proficiency (88% versus 48%)
- Improved knowledge/understanding of international differences in culture and society, modes of behaviour, life styles, etc (76% versus 28%)
- Ability to work with people from different cultural backgrounds (76% versus 40%)
- Professional knowledge of other countries, e.g. economical, sociological, legal knowledge (59% versus 16%) (Bracht *et al.*, 2006)

HEFCE's 2009 study also suggests that Erasmus students were more likely to be engaged in further study, and that Erasmus students were substantially more likely to be employed abroad. Furthermore, the evidence suggests that employed Erasmus graduates were in receipt of significantly higher salaries than non-Erasmus students, with almost 29% earning over £20,000 (HEFCE, 2009). Although there is no systematic review of employment for Erasmus students, the suggestion is that participation in the programme improves the chances of employment and encourages better outcomes for individuals academically. However, causality is difficult to ascribe here, as more employable students may choose to undertake Erasmus placements.

As we also note in the conclusion, in the UK and other mass and increasingly differentiated higher education systems, students seek to better themselves through a number of strategies: by gaining entry to 'elite' institutions, by 'networking' effectively within those institutions, and by participating in activities which will distinguish themselves in the highly competitive labour markets they will shortly be entering. Among those potentially advantageous distinguishing activities are periods of study abroad. As Brooks & Waters (2011) argue, graduates need to 'distinguish themselves' from other graduates in the labour market and note that research has "pointed to the important place of studying abroad as a further strategy in this pursuit of distinction" (p. 11). Among several relevant studies referred to by Brooks & Waters in this respect are Singh & Doherty (2008) and Bodycott (2009). Effectively, a period abroad becomes a form of 'cultural capital',[35] the possession of which provides the basis for competitive advantage in many life situations, but especially in the labour market.

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[35] 'Cultural capital' is a key term in the sociological theory of Pierre Bourdieu (1986), alongside economic and social capital. It refers to the accumulated cultural knowledge that contributes to social status.

When viewed in this way, international experiences can have both positive and negative impacts. For the individuals concerned, Brooks & Waters conclude that research indicates "the inculcation of more tolerant, questioning and culturally reflexive attitudes on the part of students who move abroad for some or all of their higher education" (2011, p. 155). However, from a societal standpoint, international higher education experiences are "implicated in the exacerbation of educational and social inequalities" (p. 157). These can be between individuals or between nations/regions. And more generally on the inequalities theme, Brooks & Waters argue that

> the academic research that we have reviewed here overwhelmingly suggests that internationally mobile students are privileged individuals in possession of far higher levels of capital (economic, social and cultural) than their non-mobile peers and, furthermore, pursuing higher education overseas serves to reproduce that capital and, consequently, their privileged position in society. (2011, p. 168)

However, Brooks & Waters send out slightly mixed messages on the inequalities theme, arguing earlier that

> while an overseas education was not considered to offer any automatic advantage within the UK labour market, it was believed to be important in opening up work opportunities abroad. (p. 110)

What is clear is that international experiences open up opportunities for those who have received them, but presumably at the cost of those who have not received them. While a strong argument can be made for extending these opportunities to larger numbers of students, in doing so their value and resultant benefits would be diminished. However, this is an argument that could be made about participation in higher education in general and neglects the benefits to the individual in terms of skills development, social confidence and personal development evidenced by the research literature.

Brooks & Waters (2011) identify two key factors that motivate students in the UK to study abroad: 1) to access a 'world class' educational institution (especially when having failed to do so within the UK); and 2) to 'seek adventure' abroad. The latter might indeed relate to skills development, though words that represent less employment-focused motivations such as 'enjoyment', 'adventure' and 'self-actualisation' are the ones that figure most strongly in this study, suggesting that personal development is a significant motivation for many.

Gap Years

EVIDENCE FOR ACTIVITY

A gap year is usually understood as "a year-long break in full-time education between sitting A-levels and starting university, often devoted to travel or work" (Crawford & Cribb, 2013, p. 8). The timing and duration of this break may vary, however, "a gap year may be defined as any period between 3 and 24 months" (Jones, 2003, p. 24). Travelling and working abroad are common activities undertaken as part of a gap year, although a gap year does not necessarily involve travel abroad. In this sense, gap years provide not only a break from formal education and/or a chance to earn money, but also offer the chance to postpone decisions about HE or employment as well as an opportunity to gain experience that could both help inform those

decisions and facilitate the chosen direction. Holmlund *et al.* (2008, pp.1–3) refer to these as "investment activities" of gap years, which they articulate in terms of benefits:

> This includes behavior that improves work related skills, such as learning punctuality and good work habits. It could also involve the acquirement of social skills and language skills; indeed, anecdotal evidence on gap years often identifies "traveling abroad" as an important element of the gap period. Needless to say, the borderline between investment in skills and consumption of leisure is fuzzy when investment involves traveling abroad.

Evidence on gap year activity can be found in research by the Institute for Fiscal Studies (Crawford & Cribb, 2013), which is based on data from the Longitudinal Study of Young people in England (LSYPE) and British Cohort Study (BCS). Each dataset gives a different measure of gap year activity:

> In contrast to the definition of gap year takers in the BCS – which relies on identifying breaks in full-time education – individuals who are classified as gap year takers in the LSYPE do not all end up going to university. This is an important distinction between the two studies. (p. 5)

In addition to the differences in the methodological definitions of a gap year, there are significant demographic differences between the two groups:

> In contrast to the results for the younger LSYPE cohort, gap year takers from the older BCS cohort tend to come from poorer socio-economic backgrounds and have lower educational attainment, on average, than individuals who go straight into higher education. (p. 6)

This is an interesting finding, because it relates to the diversity and differentiation in international higher education: the same activity or experience may have different consequences for different types of student.

EVIDENCE OF SCALE

As with some of the other sections in this report, one of the problems with trying to identify the scale of international education activity during gap years by people in the UK is that the specificity of the activity under consideration restricts the amount and relevance of available evidence. Even within studies that focus exclusively on gap years taken by the UK population, it may be difficult to identify meaningful data on how much of this gap year activity is undertaken abroad. Of course, there are educational benefits to these activities – since they may contribute to developing confidence, experience, skills and employability – even though they are not part of a formal and/or structured education programme.

One review of gap year activity provides some relevant data by drawing on information from UK-based specialist providers of gap year placements. The report by Jones (2003, p. 71), although somewhat dated, estimates the number of gap year placements in the UK at around 50,000 per year. This review finds that "there is no evidence of under-provision in the sector as whole" (p. 72) because provision outstrips demand.

The study by Crawford & Cribb (2013, p. 28) shows which activities are undertaken by gap year takers, comparing the activities of those who had planned to take a gap year with those who had not previously planned to do so, but had then taken a gap year (for example, if they had not achieved their desired grades). The analysis shows that the majority spent at least part of their year working in Britain, and that those who travel abroad do so to travel, to work or to

volunteer. It shows that those who had planned to take a gap year are more likely to travel, work or volunteer abroad.
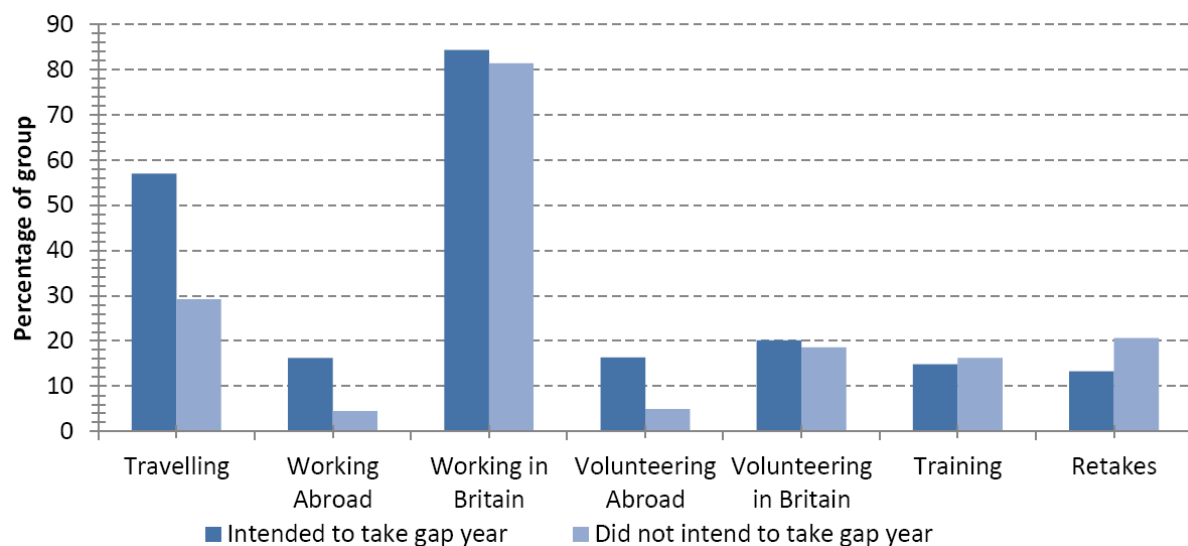

Figure 12: Activities undertaken by gap year takers during their gap year. [Source: Crawford & Cribb, 2013, p. 28.]

This analysis does not tell us what proportion of those who travel abroad undertake some form of international education. Indeed, reasons for taking a gap year "primarily involve taking a break from education" (Crafword & Cribb, 2013, p. 29). Compared with students who go straight to university, gap year takers are more likely to be from white or native English speaking backgrounds, better performing schools, and from families of higher socio-economic status. Only 3.7% of gap year takers are classified as Not in Education, Employment or Training (NEET).

EVIDENCE OF IMPACT

Available studies on the impact of a gap year tend to treat the gap year as a break away from education – usually as a bridge between A-levels and university – therefore these studies tend not to address the international travel dimension of some gap years. Also, the evidence does not separate out those people who take their gap year abroad, therefore the following findings also include takers of gap years who remain in the UK. The Year Out Group (YOG) is an association of UK-registered organisations that provide gap year programmes in the UK or overseas.[36] The YOG also covers volunteering as well as gap year activity, so although it provides some anecdotal evidence of the impact of its member organisations, it does not distinguish between these activities, and so it is difficult to identify the impact of gap years alone. The YOG reports that employers value the skills gained from a well-structured gap year; "these include fundraising, working in teams, risk management, thinking under pressure and the international perspective gained by working in another culture."[37] The YOG website also cites Deloittes, Slaughter & May and the Royal Navy as employers that are "keen to hire graduates who have a wide range of experiences, including a productive gap year".

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[36] http://www.yearoutgroup.org/

[37] http://www.yearoutgroup.org/benefits-of-gapping/what-employers-say/

There is evidence to suggest that gap year takers are more likely to achieve a first or second class degree, but at only 1.6 percentage points higher this is not statistically significant until background characteristics are also accounted for (including prior educational attainment), which increases this difference to 4.9 percentage points (Crawford & Cribb, 2013, pp.42–43).

Another interesting effect of taking a gap year is that it appears to have a detrimental effect on earnings, when comparing otherwise similar HE graduates. The impact on wages and earnings is that gap year takers tend to earn less, but again the results are not statistically significant, especially later in life (Crawford & Cribb, 2013, p. 45).[38] For example, at age 30, gap year takers earn 6.5% less than otherwise identical HE graduates who have not taken a gap year; by age 34, this has fallen to 3.9% and is not statistically significant and by age 38, the gap has fallen to just 1.7% (p. 45). Another study found that for every year away from education, annual earnings are reduced by between 2 and 3%, depending on age (Holmlund *et al.*, 2008). This depression of earnings occurs because a gap year generally involves a year's delay in entering the labour market, but the fact that the difference diminishes suggests that the disadvantage of delayed entry is relatively minor (Crawford & Cribb, 2013, p. 6). Of course, this study is considering gap year takers in general, rather than those whose gap year involves international experiences only, so the impact of an international gap year experience is not directly considered.

Volunteering

Our search has not returned a reliable source of information on the types of international volunteering abroad and the scale of this activity. It is clear that various programmes are available to UK residents – including those organised by specialist organisations like GVI,[39] VSO,[40] British Council,[41], Projects Abroad,[42] and BUNAC[43] (as well as other opportunities in specific fields such as wildlife conservation abroad via the RSPB) – but there is a lack of coordinated survey or comparative analysis of volunteering from the UK to other countries. Where academic studies exist, they do not tend to focus on volunteering abroad; instead they have a specific focus which places them beyond the scope of the present review (for example, looking at the relationship between volunteering and altruism, Haski-Leventhal, 2009). Volunteering may interact with other factors outlined in this report: for example, gap year takers are slightly more likely to undertake volunteering abroad than to work abroad during their gap year (see Figure 12).

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[38] Crawford & Cribb's (2013) analysis of the impact of gap years on wages and earnings is based on a study of young people from two longitudinal studies – the Longitudinal Study of Young People in England (LSYPE) and the British Cohort Survey (BCS). This analysis compares gap-year takers (those who have self-identified as such through questions in the longitudinal studies) with young people in the same cohort who proceed straight to HE from A-level or equivalent. The definition of gap year is *a break of up to three years away from full-time education*. Amongst the gap-year takers, only those young people who had been accepted onto an HE course were included. Using young people from these two longitudinal studies also allowed for various background characteristics to be selected or controlled for. The two samples vary because the BCS includes older cohorts from times when the participation rates were lower, which may mean there are some differences.

[39] http://www.gvi.co.uk/volunteer-abroad/

[40] http://www.vso.org.uk/

[41] http://www.britishcouncil.org/study-work-create/opportunity/work-volunteer

[42] http://www.projects-abroad.co.uk/

[43] http://www.bunac.org/uk/volunteer

There are few sources of information on the scale of international volunteering activity of people from the UK. A press release from Study Abroad, based in Surrey, UK, reports that it has sent over 60,000 volunteers abroad since it was established in 1992.[44] The latest annual report (for 2013-14) from the VSO includes anecdotal evidence on the impact of its activities on the people and communities with whom its volunteers work, showing how it contributes to sustainable development in areas of poverty around the world. The report does not include much information on the scale of this activity, but it does suggest that in 2013-14 there were 1,487 international volunteers who contributed over 300,000 days volunteering. The report does not state how many of these are people from the UK. The VSO has initiated research on the impact of its volunteers on the communities it serves,[45] but not on the impact to the volunteers.

Volunteering is understood to offer a range of benefits to both volunteers and to the people with whom they work. Volunteering is a rewarding activity when it is based on altruistic motivations. As such, it offers psychological, economic, and social benefits to those involved. Of course, other types of international experience besides volunteering may involve altruistic elements, and even ostensibly altruistic acts may be based on ego-centric motivation (undertaken for the purpose of self-satisfaction) (Haski-Leventhal, 2009). But because volunteering is generally associated with giving of one's time and effort to others, it provides one of the best opportunities to develop some intercultural competences, such as community-building and contributing to social cohesion (see the section on Understanding Intercultural Experience). The benefits of volunteering also include better physical and mental health, addressing social problems and building civic cohesion (Wilson, 2000). When combined with travel abroad and experience of other cultures, volunteering can offer the opportunity to develop personal values, social and cultural capital, and cultural understanding. However, evidence for the benefits of volunteering are rarely specific to volunteering abroad, and do not compare this with volunteering at home. Furthermore, the evidence for benefits is often based on association rather than causation.

Working

EVIDENCE OF ACTIVITY

Opportunities for working abroad have been greatly facilitated with the introduction of the principle of free movement of workers within the European Common Market from 1968 onwards. In fact, a survey showed this to be the most positive result of European unification (European Commission, 2007, p. 70). It is suggested that greater job mobility is associated with higher rates of GDP growth, since the frequency of long-distance moves has a statistical correlation with GDP per capita (European Foundation, 2007b, p. 9). A majority of people think that this movement is good for European integration and good for the economy, but it also shows that relatively few people (13%) have experience of living and working abroad: "So although Europeans in general agree mobility is a good thing, and value their right to live and work in another country within the EU, the majority have no plans to exercise this right in the near future" (European Commission, 2010, p. 121) (results are not broken down by individual

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[44] http://www.projects-abroad.co.uk/_downloads/press-pack/press-pack.pdf

[45] E.g. the *Valuing Volunteering* research project in partnership with the Institute of Development Studies, started in 2012: http://www.vsointernational.org/what-we-do/valuing-volunteering/

member state). However, experience of working abroad and knowing someone who has, increase the predisposition for doing so. Motivations for working abroad vary between the new member states ('NMS12') and the oldest EU member states ('EU15' countries): economic considerations are the more likely driver in NMS12, whereas lifestyle and cultural factors are more significant in EU15 countries.

Work experience abroad may be undertaken as part of the Erasmus programme, and via other schemes such as the International Association for the Exchange of Students for Technical Experience (IASTE) and Leonardo placements. Some data on the Erasmus programme is presented in the section on higher education (e.g. Figure 7).

EVIDENCE OF SCALE

Analysis of Eurobarometer survey data (Vandenbrande, 2006) provides some detail on the movement of workers within the EU. It shows the proportion of people who are mobile within (4%) and outside the EU (3%). It also breaks down mobility data by age, gender, and other background characteristics. For example, the number of long-distance moves increases with educational level: 7% of highly educated people report having moved within the EU compared with 4% of the lower educated group (Vandenbrande, 2006, p. 15). Whilst young and educated workers are the most likely to move, lower skilled workers are also exposed to more involuntary job changes than their higher-skilled counterparts (European Foundation, 2007a, p. 5). Yet long-distance mobility is not common overall; only 4% of Europeans have moved to another member state, and only 3% outside the EU (p. 4).

Another report based on Eurobarometer survey data (European Commission, *Geographical and labour market mobility*, June 2010) provides comparisons across European countries. The survey asked about the extent to which Europeans have lived abroad in the past and found that the majority (84%) had not lived or worked in another country. The figure for the UK is lower than the EU27 average at 77%. On average, 10% of Europeans have lived and worked in another country, while the survey found that 16% of UK respondents had done so. Reasons for short and long distance mobility are categorised by Vandenbrande (2006, p. 19) as relating to family, employment, housing or 'other' reasons. Amongst the employment reasons are retirement, easier commute, redundancy and new job or transfer. None of these motivations explicitly relates to education, nor is education amongst the factors that would encourage people to move to another country, according to this source. Also, the distinction between short and long distance does not align with the focus of the present report, because the 'long distance' category includes mobility both across regional borders as well as across national borders within EU. As such, even though this report is amongst the best available sources of data on European mobility, the analysis does not give a comprehensive picture of the scale of international education opportunities for employed people.

EVIDENCE OF IMPACT

One study investigated whether increased levels of happiness affected the desire to move abroad (Ivlevs, 2014). The study investigated causal affects of long-term subjective well-being on emigration intentions on samples of a thousand or more people from 28 countries (p. 8). The results suggest that "higher levels of life satisfaction contribute to a higher probability of reporting emigration intentions and willingness to migrate" (p. 22). Since other studies suggest that increased happiness is associated with greater productivity, there is a risk of a possible

"happiness drain" whereby happy people migrate from their native countries, leaving these countries with fewer happy people and a less productive workforce. The possibility that mobility might contribute to higher well-being is not considered in the source, however, and the specific impact on the UK is also not differentiated from the other countries involved.

Feedback from multi-national employers suggests that they do value the employability benefits of study and work experience in another country (CFE, 2011). Working abroad was seen as a good way to develop both general employability skills, but also specific "global" skills, such as intercultural understanding and a global mindset. There are examples of "international" graduate programmes, in which graduates are placed in several countries as part of their development at a company. This is particularly relevant for companies that operate across borders (examples include Nestle[46] and Enterprise Rent-a-Car[47], both of which encourage both European and wider mobility as part of a graduate training programme, and which recruit graduates from the UK). More detail on the benefits of international experience to employers and employees can be found in the other literature review on UK competitiveness and skills (although it should be noted that the review found that research on the link between international experiences and skills/competitiveness is underdeveloped).[48]

This section has observed the range of potential international experiences that are open to people in the UK, but also how little data on the scale of international experiences is collected outside of higher education. However, the benefits of international experiences are remarkably common across different types of activity, and these benefits are further discussed in the concluding section to this report. The following section considers how the UK's scale of international experience can be compared with other countries, primarily using data on higher education.

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[46] http://www.nestle.com/jobs/graduates-entry-level/international-programmes

[47] https://www.enterprisealive.co.uk/graduate-jobs/

[48] CFE Research and LSE Enterprise (2014) *Research and Analysis of the Benefits of International Education Opportunities: A literature review on UK competitiveness and skills (needs).* London: British Council.

04. Comparison of UK with Other Countries

Germany and the United States are chosen for comparison with the UK because of their socio-economic similarities and status as key comparator countries. However, lack of evidence is a significant issue, as highlighted earlier in this report, and it is challenging to find comparable data between the three countries. Therefore in this section, we consider the scale of outward higher education student mobility as a key indicator for which there is comparable data. Attempts at comparisons at other levels (schools or self-directed travel such as gap years) are not possible, as noted above, because relevant sources are not available. The lack of information on non-HE mobility is a gap in the evidence, which could be rectified by data collection and further research.

The US and the UK are the most popular destinations for international study, whilst the two countries of origin with the highest number of outbound students are China and India. From the UK, the most popular destinations for degree mobility (a full course) are the US, Canada, Australia, Ireland and France. Levels of international mobility in the UK and the US have changed little over the past few years, but Germany is seeing a significant growth.

Global Context

In terms of global inward student mobility within higher education, the UK is the second largest destination for study abroad after the US. According to the UNESCO Institute for Statistics (2014), these are the top 10 destination countries for student mobility in 2012 (as a proportion of all mobile students):

- United States (18% of total mobile students)
- United Kingdom (11%)[49]
- France (7%)
- Australia (6%)
- Germany (5%)
- Russian Federation (4%)
- Japan (4%)
- Canada (3%)
- China (2%)
- Italy (2%)

But in terms of outward mobility, the UK lags far behind comparable European countries such as Germany and France, as well as the US. The top 10 countries of origin of mobile students are listed below, again for 2012. The UK comes 67th in this list (between Zimbabwe and Turkmenistan), with 28,000 outwardly mobile students and 1.1% of the total tertiary education population (but this includes international students at UK institutions) (UNESCO Institute for Statistics, 2014):

- China – 694,400 students studying abroad (c. 2.1% of total tertiary education population)

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[49] A more recent report estimates the UK share has grown to 12.6% of the market (OECD, *Education at a Glance*, 2014).

- India – 189,500 (0.66%)
- Republic of Korea – 123,700 (3.7%)
- Germany – 117,600 (4.0%)
- Saudi Arabia – 62,500 (5.2%)
- France – 62,400 (2.7%)
- United States – 58,100 (0.28%)
- Malaysia – 55,600 (5.4%)
- Viet Nam – 53,800 (2.4%)
- Iran – 51,600 (1.2%)

Therefore, the UK has a significantly lower number of outwardly mobile students than both the USA and Germany (Figure 14). However, as a proportion of the student population, the UK has a higher rate of outward student mobility than the USA, but a lower rate than Germany (Figure 15).

The latest annual report on education by the OECD (*Education at a Glance*, 2014) provides a little more contextual information on the current state of international education, with a focus on higher education. The headline findings are that in 2012 more than 4.5 million students were enrolled in tertiary education outside their country of citizenship, providing an estimate of the ratio of inbound to outbound students:

> In 2012, the number of foreign students enrolled in tertiary education in OECD countries was, on average, three times the number of students from OECD countries studying abroad. In the 21 European countries that are members of the OECD, there were, on average, three foreign students for every European citizen enrolled abroad. (OECD, 2014, p. 342)

The UK's ratio of inbound to outbound students is illustrated by the relationship with China: in 2013 there were over 100,000 mainland Chinese students in the UK, but only around 4,200 UK students studying in China.[50] The OECD report also shows a clear trend of rising participation in study abroad between 2000 and 2012 (Figure 13).

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[50] http://www.britishcouncil.org/organisation/press/uk-china-higher-education-links-strengthened
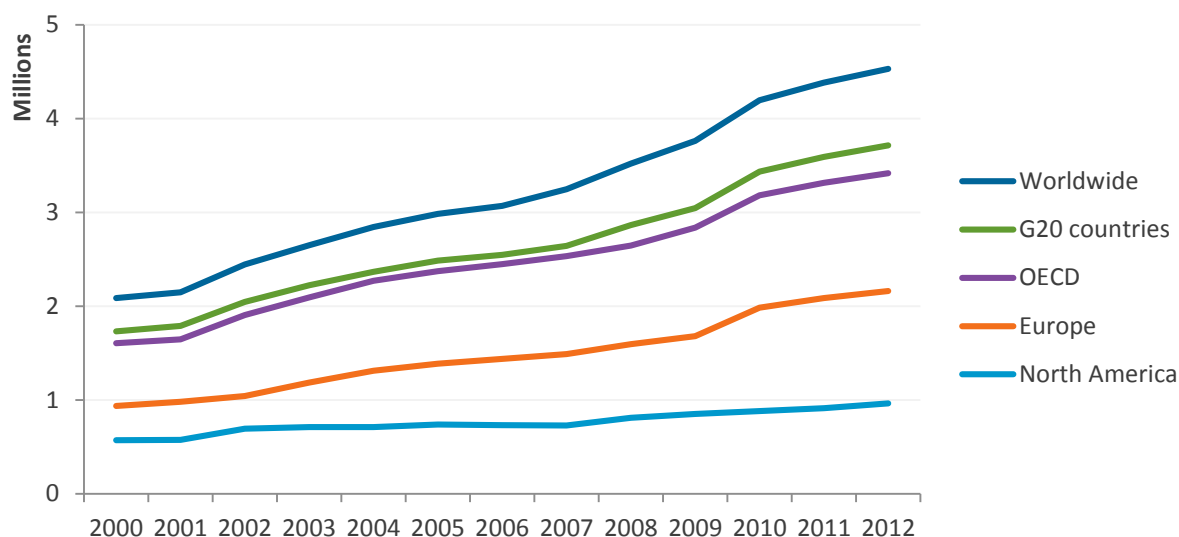
Figure 13: Trends in the number of students enrolled outside their country of citizenship, by destination region, 2000 to 2012. [Data source: OECD, 2014.]

Another feature of the global context for the UK's activity in international education is the demand for language skills in an increasingly globalised labour market. This issue has been expressed by different parties at many times during the past decade, if not longer. One such example is a report by the UK's National Centre for Languages (CiLT, 2006) which investigates the effects of shortages in foreign language skills on enterprise via a survey of 2000 exporting enterprises in 29 European states, also known as the ELAN study. The report argues that language skills are important to stimulate economic growth[51] and finds that investing in foreign language can be a significant determinant in exports by small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs) (p. 56). The report highlights that 73% of respondents from large companies had a scheme for recruiting language-skilled employees, which indicates the level of demand for these skills. Also, amongst these large businesses:

> Demand for skills in languages other than English was greater than the demand for English itself. Spanish and other global languages were a significantly higher priority in terms of future need than in the returns from SMEs. (CiLT, 2006, p. 7)

The UK is in a unique position in terms of the economics of language skills and needs, due to the fact that English, the native language, is so widely spoken outside the country. This means that there is less pressure for learning foreign languages in English-speaking countries compared with the incentive to learn English in foreign countries. The ELAN study finds that many respondents view English as a key language for international business, and it was often referred to as a lingua franca, but the survey results "suggest that the picture is far more complex than the much-quoted view that English is the world language" (CiLT, 2006, p. 6).

Comparison with the US and Germany

As is the case for the UK, neither the US or Germany collect national data on international education opportunities at all levels of study from pre-primary to postgraduate. Therefore, we

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[51] Notably, the report refers specifically to the Lisbon strategy as one such goal – a project which has failed to achieve its aims.

present below only information that can be usefully compared with data from the UK and Germany. This is the UNESCO data on mobility amongst tertiary-level students.

As noted in the previous section, the UK has a lower absolute number of outwardly mobile students, compared with the US and Germany, but a higher proportion of students in comparison to the US. Figure 14 shows the total numbers of outbound tertiary-level students from Germany, the UK and the US over several years, while Figure 15 presents these data as percentages of the total tertiary education population in each country. The charts show that whilst the UK and the US have relatively static numbers over the past decade, Germany has seen a significant increase in the number of mobile students, in both absolute terms and as a proportion of its student population. However, data on the flows of international students shows that the UK, Germany and the US all share the characteristic of being net importers of international education.
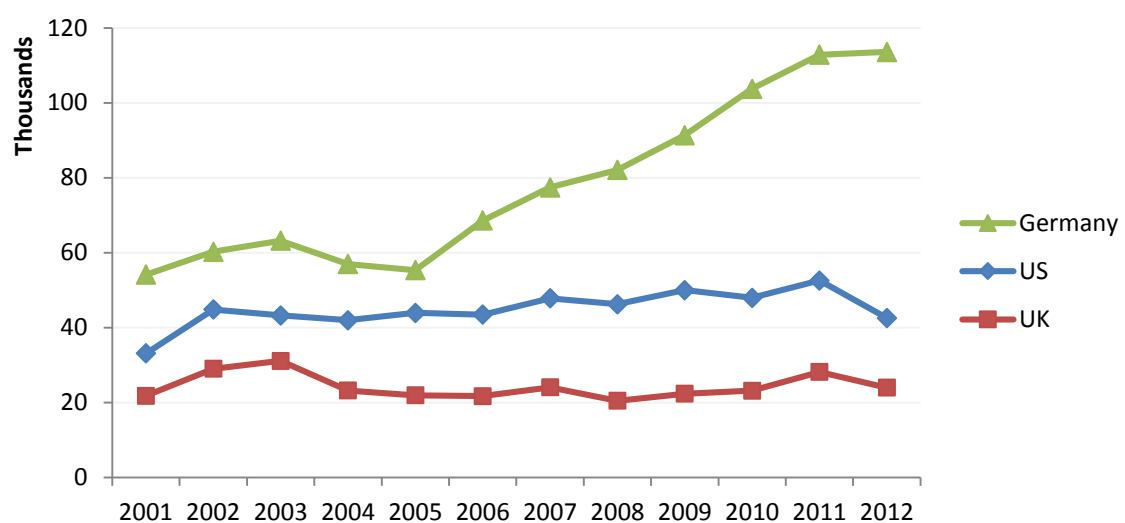

Figure 14: Outbound internationally mobile students from the UK, Germany and US. [Data source: UNESCO Institute for Statistics, 2014.]
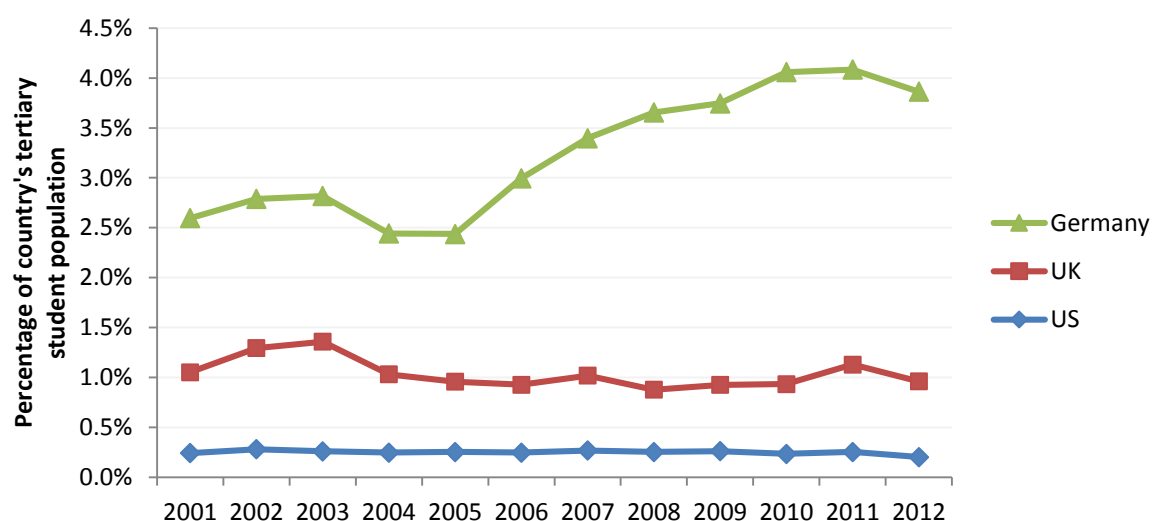

Figure 15: Outbound internationally mobile students as a proportion of each country's tertiary student population in each year, in the UK, US and Germany (%). [Data sources: UNESCO Institute for Statistics, 2014; Eurostat, 2012.]

As noted in Figure 4, earlier in this review, the top destinations for UK outward student mobility are the US, France, Ireland, Germany and Australia. Data on the destination countries for Germany's outbound students (Figure 16, below) shows that between 1999 and 2012 the most popular destination is the UK. Austria is the next most popular destination, a country with little cultural difference to Germany when compared with the other countries, given its geographical proximity and shared national language. Numbers going to study in the UK have remained fairly static, and over the period 1999–2012 it is the most popular destination overall. However, Austria has dramatically increased in popularity over the past decade, increasing around 5 times what it was ten years ago from around 5,000 to 25,000. The Netherlands has also increased over the same period, and is currently an equally popular destination. Again, linguistic and cultural similarities may play a role here, and also with Switzerland which ranks 5th in this list. It is also possible that differences in tuition fee arrangements between countries could act as an incentive to travel abroad for higher education. Germany's increase in outward mobility from 2005 coincides with the introduction of tuition fees. Tuition fees have recently been abolished again in Germany, so it will be interesting to see whether outward mobility continues to decline or increase in the future.

Figure 16: Destinations of outbound students from Germany (top ten countries), 1999–2012. [Data source: UNESCO Institute for Statistics, 2014.]

The data on outbound student mobility for the US reveals that the greatest proportion of students go to the UK, and the second most popular destination is Canada – both are countries that probably have the least cultural difference compared with the US than the other destination countries (Figure 17).
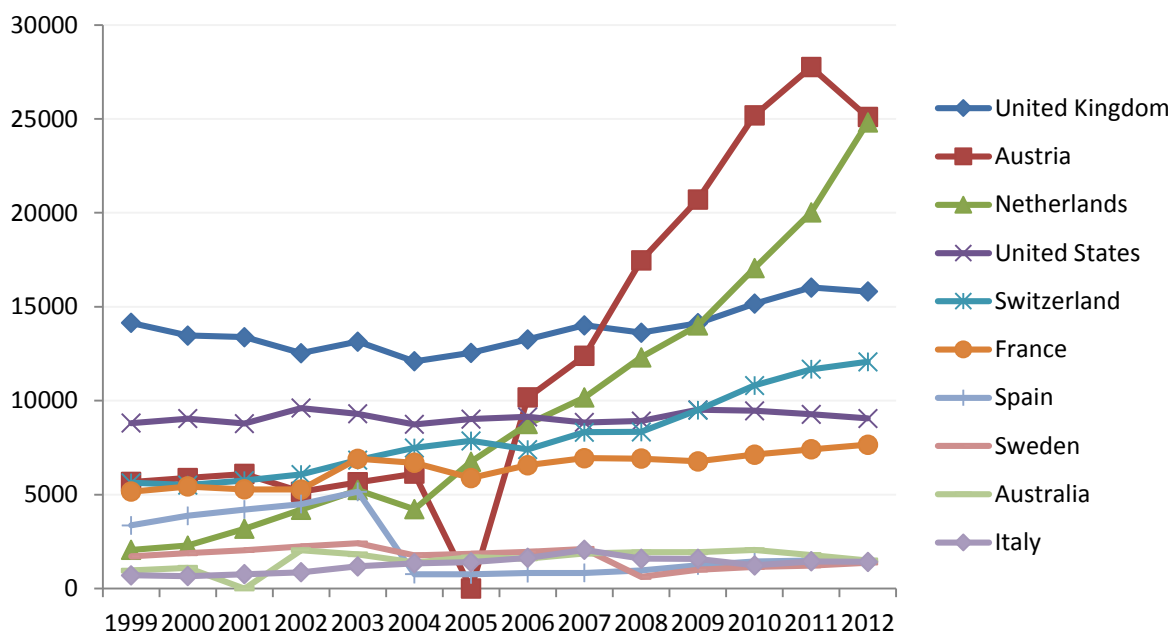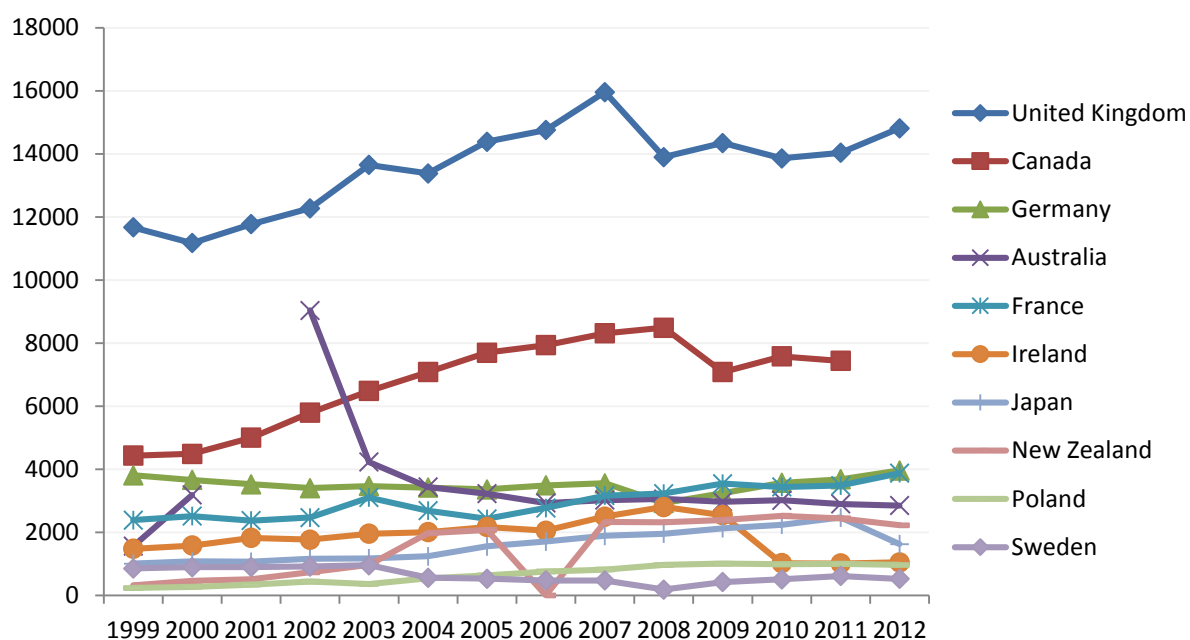
Figure 17: Destinations of outbound students from the US (top ten countries), 1999–2012. [Data source: UNESCO Institute for Statistics, 2014.]

The preceding charts suggest that all three countries share the characteristic that a large proportion of their outbound students travel to countries that are culturally similar to their home nations, often one with a common language (see Figure 4 for the UK, Figure 16 for Germany, and Figure 17 for the US). This evidence suggests that international education may be following established patterns of migration, whereby migrants tend to go to places where there are already people of the same nationality and/or ethnicity (King, Findlay & Ahrens, 2010, p. 10). The available evidence is unable to answer the question whether this might restrict the economic and employment benefits of international experience for these participants, but the literature on intercultural development suggests that there are greater opportunities for the development of intercultural skills with greater cultural differences.

The Study Abroad website is an online resource that offers information on opportunities for overseas education. Using its search function, it is possible to get a rough idea of the number of different opportunities available in different countries. The results for the comparison countries are as follows (the website lists data for individual UK countries):

- o England: 196
- o Scotland: 35
- o Northern Ireland: 7
- o Wales: 16
- **UK (total): 254**
- **Germany: 243**
- **US: 477**

A comparative analysis of national policies relating to academic mobility in higher education finds similarities in the types of mobility that are supported at the European and national level

(unfortunately, this analysis excludes the US). The following summary identifies areas of convergence between the EU and member state policies:

> The EU focus on intra-European credit mobility, through programmes that mainly fund *outgoing credit mobility* (and inevitably support also incoming students, as the outgoing students "come" to another European country) is very clear, as is the general preference of national governments to support outgoing credit mobility, for the benefits this is believed to have for the individual and the country at large. The second priority of most national governments and the EU are *incoming degree-seeking students*. [...] While national governments have long paid special attention to this type of mobile students (some even exclusively, like the UK), the EU only recently came to see the "attraction" of foreign students as a necessity for the good functioning of the Union as such. (Ferencz & Wächter, 2012, p. 230)

COMPARISON OF ERASMUS MOBILITY (EU) AND FULBRIGHT (US)

Germany's outbound Erasmus mobility is considerably higher than the UK's, but it represents only a minority of students. In 2011/12 Germany sent 33,353 Erasmus students abroad, compared with 13,662 sent from the UK. Of Germany's outwardly mobile Erasmus students, 27,593 were studying abroad (compared with 9,094 for the UK), and 5,770 were doing a work placement abroad (compared with 4,568 for the UK) (European Commission, 2013b). As a proportion of the student population, Germany's Erasmus mobility is higher at around 1.1%, against the UK's 0.55%. Clearly, for both countries Erasmus outward mobility is only relevant for a small minority of the student population.

The US does not participate in Erasmus, but the **Fulbright Scholar Program** is administered by the Council for International Exchange of Scholars (CIES) on behalf of the United States Department of State Bureau of Educational and Cultural Affairs.[52] The Fulbright Program awards approximately 8,000 grants annually, which includes US and non-US citizens, students, scholars and professionals. As of 2013, more than 325,000 people, 123,000 from the US and 203,000 from other countries have participated in the programme.[53] Therefore, in comparison to the US total student population, the Fulbright Program is considerably smaller in scale than Erasmus in both Germany and the UK.

COMPARISON OF SCALE AND ATTITUDES TO WORKING AND STUDYING ABROAD FROM EUROBAROMETER SURVEY

The Eurobarometer survey cited earlier in this report can provide a source of comparison between UK and German respondents on various aspects of working abroad. (European Commission, 2010) When asked whether they envisaged working in a country outside of their own in the future, UK respondents were more likely than German respondents to answer "yes" (26% against 11%) (p.10), and the UK was above the EU average in this respect, and Germany below (p.18). For all the countries surveyed, the US was the most popular target destination, followed by the UK. When asked whether they had ever lived or worked in another country, 21% of UK respondents had either lived or worked in another country in the past, compared with

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[52] http://www.cies.org/

[53] US Department of State, 'Fulbright Program Fact Sheet'.

only 12% of German respondents (p.52). Again, the UK is above the EU27 average in this respect, and Germany is below the average. As noted earlier in the review, 12% of UK respondents reported that they attended school in another country, and 4% university, and 6% participated in training abroad. The equivalent figures for Germany are 7% for school, 2% for university, and 2% for training (p.56). When asked whether any family or friends had ever gone to live or work in another country, the UK again has a higher proportion answering "yes" than Germany (48%, against 29%) (p.59). Across all these indicators, the UK population seems more internationally oriented than the German population. This is somewhat contradictory to the higher levels of student outward mobility recorded in Germany compared with the UK, but it usefully shows that both Germany and the UK have strengths and weaknesses in attitudes to international mobility. When asked what reasons might discourage them from working abroad, the most common response for both the UK (35%) and Germany (33%) was "your home is here", followed by similar issues (not wanting to impose changes on family, or leave friends). Difficulty of learning a language is cited by 23% of UK respondents and 19% of German respondents (European Commission, 2010, p.114).

COMPARISON OF LINGUISTIC CAPACITIES

Comparing second language abilities across countries is challenging because much data relies on self reporting, rather than objective assessment of language ability. One source that does use testing to measure language ability is the European Survey of Language Competencies, organised by the European Commission. From the 14 countries participating in the study, England's secondary school children came last in reading, listening and writing in the "first target language" which differs across countries, and is French for England (Germany did not participate in the study) (European Commission, 2012). The report suggests that "The status of English as a world language would...explain the weaker performance of England in the first target language, relative to other countries" (p.214). For the second target language (German for England), England ranked 12th out of 14, ahead of both Sweden (Spanish) and Poland (German). The variety of foreign languages learned by English students is substantially higher than average within the English cohort of students (p.219), perhaps again suggesting that there is less of an "obvious" language for English students to learn, given English is a world language. A comparison of countries' policies for academic mobility finds that the UK's relative lack of language proficiency could be limiting the potential for economic growth (Ferencz & Wächter, 2012). It also notes that the UK's attractiveness as a destination for international students could be limited by recent changes in policy, including the impact of higher tuition fees, decreased public funding, and the tightening of visa regulations. The report also comments on the factors that affect UK mobility:

> Sufficient foreign language proficiency and the availability of helpful information are crucial in supporting outbound mobility. Compared to other European countries, however, the foreign language proficiency of UK students is low. (Ferencz & Wächter, 2012, p. 219)

Despite the suggestion that it is worse in the UK, foreign language proficiency is common problem in international activity across countries. For example, a Eurobarometer survey of geographical and labour market mobility suggests that language issues are regarded as the most likely difficulty to be encountered when working abroad (European Commission, 2007, p, 119). Just over half of Europeans (52%) expect this to be a problem, and this is only slightly higher for people from the UK (59%) than those from Germany (54%). Language is the top practical

difficulty identified by survey respondents; the next biggest difficulties are finding a job (24%), finding accommodation (16%) and adapting to a different culture (16%). Except for finding accommodation, these perceived difficulties could actually be addressed (to some extent, at least) by the experience itself, because the evidence reviewed in Chapter 2 suggests that the development of intercultural skills contributes to language acquisition, cultural adaptation, and ultimately to better employment prospects.

The National Centre for Languages undertook a study of the effects on the European economy of foreign language shortages (CiLT, 2006) which found greater demand for languages other than English. English is the most commonly used foreign language overall, yet other languages are used in business, and this varies by country. The report suggests that German could be regarded as the second lingua franca (after English) for European business (CiLT, 2006, p. 11). Ireland has the greatest fluency and bilingual capacity, partly because it employs more foreign nationals. Issues such as losing contracts due to foreign language needs arise occasionally, where English is demanded is for negotiations, and German and English for correspondence. The report also identifies areas in which businesses have experienced difficulties with foreign countries due to lack of cultural competence. It highlights that 18% of businesses reported having such problems overall. The most frequent situations in which this difficulty is encountered (after the 'other' category) are negotiations with China (4% of firms surveyed) and France (also 4%). Only 4% of companies said that they had lost out on contracts due to lack of cultural competence (CiLT, 2006, p. 23).

SUPPORT FOR INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION

In the UK, the British Council plays a role in supporting international education opportunities, including programmes such as Erasmus and Language Assistants. In the UK, students wishing to study abroad may fund this via student loans, for which students are eligible when enrolled at a UK HEI. In addition to these student loans, Erasmus participants receive a grant from the European Commission for living costs, which varies dependent on the destination country. In contrast, it is more difficult to obtain funding for whole degrees abroad, since funding via the Student Loans Company is restricted to those who study in the UK. Whilst most EU countries offer loan schemes or other financial aid, these tend to be restricted to students from outside the EU member states. EU rules state that member states must charge the same tuition fees for students from within the EU, but there is no similar rule for financial aid. For UK students studying outside the EU, such as in the US or Australia, very little financial aid is available and tuition fees are also higher than for home students. Some organisations offer scholarships to UK international students, such as the Commonwealth Scholarship Commission[54] and Rotary International.[55] In addition, there is a wide range of other forms of scholarship for study abroad, covering a range of specific situations in terms of home and destination country as well as area and level of study.[56]

Both Germany and the US have comparable support systems in place. A detailed comparative study of the support available in Germany and the US is not attempted in this review, but in this

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[54] http://cscuk.dfid.gov.uk/apply/scholarships-uk-citizens/

[55] https://www.rotary.org/en/document/899

[56] See, e.g.: http://www.studyabroad.com/scholarships.aspx

section we list key organisations in Germany and the US that provide support for international experiences.

Germany

The **Goethe-Institut** promotes the study of German language and cultural exchange.[57] It is financially supported by the German Foreign Office – similar to the way in which the UK Foreign and Commonwealth Office supports the British Council's activity. The Institut delivers international education programmes for teachers, students and professionals.

DAAD (Deutscher Akademischer Austausch Dienst), the German Academic Exchange Service,[58] is the largest funder of international exchange whose membership comprises German universities and student bodies. Since it was founded in 1925 it has funded more than 1.9 million scholars, and in 2013 it funded 11,260 German and international scholars worldwide. DAAD evaluates all of its scholarship programmes by at least one common criterion: how well the international guests are integrated into life in the host country (DAAD, 2013, p. 22).

Whereas the UK only provides financial support for resident students, Germany covers living costs and administrative fees and/or tuition for foreign and home students under certain conditions:

> In Germany, all national and foreign students are eligible for fee remissions or participation in loan schemes depending on the regulations applicable in the Land in which the institution is located (support for the payment of fees). Foreign students are also eligible for the BAföG under certain conditions. EU and EEA nationals are eligible if they are permanent residents in Germany or enjoy the right of free movement as a worker or a worker's child or spouse. Since a reform in 2008 (22nd BAföG-amendment act), other foreign students are eligible if they are already living in Germany legally and intend to stay long term, irrespective of whether their parents fulfil the requirements regarding the minimum previous period of employment. (Eurydice, 2012, p. 107)

German student loans and grants are administered via the Bundesausbildungsförderungsgesetz (Federal Training Assistance Act, or BAföG for short). In addition to the BAföG, different loan schemes are also offered by the KfWBank (public bank) at low interest rates and the Deutschlandstipendium, a merit-based scholarship, was also introduced in 2010 (Eurydice, 2012, p. 108).

United States

The **Alliance for International Educational and Cultural Exchange** is the national body responsible for international exchanges in US higher education. It supports a variety of international exchange programmes, including traditional study abroad exchange, au pair work, professional training, internships and summer work or travel.[59]

Other national organisations with involvement in HE study abroad are:[60]

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[57] https://www.goethe.de/en/index.html

[58] https://www.daad.de/en/

[59] http://www.alliance-exchange.org/explore-exchanges

[60] http://www.euroeducation.net/prof/usa.htm

- **American Council on Education.**[61] The largest HE organisation in the US, which supports international education (as one strand alongside leadership, attainment, etc) by sharing information and best practices. Includes the Center for Internationalization and Global Engagement, which administers programmes and services for HEIs.

- **Bureau of Educational and Cultural Affairs,**[62] which is a US Department of State that focuses on exchange programmes for both US and foreign citizens. Its supported activity includes hosting volunteer opportunities in addition to study abroad.

- **Council on Standards for International Education and Travel** (CSIET).[63] A not-for-profit organization committed to quality international educational travel and exchange for youth at the high school level.

- **Institute of International Education** (IEE)[64] and **NAFSA: Association of International Educators**[65] both of which promote international education programmes and provide research and support for this.

- **The College Board, Office of International Education,** which promotes College Board's qualifications with partners abroad.

The Fulbright Commission provides grants for international educational exchanges to students and staff. CIES is part of the Institute for International Education (IIE) which was established in 1919. In addition, there is a **US-UK Fulbright Commission** which "aims to foster cultural understanding through educational exchange in two ways": through the Commission's awards programme and through the EducationUSA advisory service.[66] Fulbright grants are available to HE students and to academics.

HE SYSTEMS AND POLICY CONTEXTS

As a final word to the comparisons between the UK, Germany and the US, it is useful to consider the similarities and differences between the various approaches to education policy, particularly the financing of higher education which tends to be closely linked to opportunities for international study. The justification for considering this specific area of policy is that HE students make up the largest group in international education, and because HE finance impacts on participation in general with a knock-on effect on engagement with international education opportunities.

Reforms to the British HE funding system by the coalition government have seen a dramatic increase in the cost of attending university.[67] Against this background, participation in HE has

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[61] http://www.acenet.edu/Pages/default.aspx

[62] http://exchanges.state.gov/us

[63] http://www.csiet.org/

[64] http://www.iie.org/

[65] http://www.nafsa.org/

[66] http://www.fulbright.org.uk/

[67] Changes to tuition fees and higher education: https://www.gov.uk/government/news/changes-to-tuition-fees-and-higher-education

continued to rise,[68] yet issues remain in terms of widening access to HE and equitable distribution of the economic costs and benefits of participation:[69]

> England has (after the US) the most highly stratified major university system in the world, the most extravagant and rapidly growing provision of elite private schooling, among the most unequal distribution of opportunity, wealth and income, and some of the lowest levels of social mobility in the developed world, according to the Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development. And these problems are now being compounded by the highest university fees by far of any public university system anywhere. (Hotson, 2014)

In the UK, fees for international students are generally higher than for home students, ranging up to £35,000.[70] However, HE courses in the UK tend to have a shorter duration than equivalent courses in the US, with an undergraduate degree usually lasting three years (as opposed to four), and a postgraduate degree one year (instead of two).[71] This *may* balance the costs for some prospective students. However, there are concerns that the UK may not be achieving its potential as a top destination for foreign students. In addition to the increase in tuition fees, reasons for concern include changes to immigration law and the visa system, lack of job prospects, and poor monetary exchange rates.[72] This combination of factors limits the potential for growth, as articulated by Nicola Dandridge, head of Universities UK:

> Despite growing demand globally, international recruitment figures in the UK over the last few years have not done justice, either to the global success of the UK's universities, or the sector's ability to tap into this substantial growth market. At the same time, competitor countries have seen rises in international student numbers.[73]

Unlike home students, foreign students in the UK are unable to access student loans to pay for these high fees. UK student loans are restricted for use in paying the cost of UK courses, but it has been argued that this should be freed up to enable British students to study abroad:

> While the opportunities for full degree study overseas are becoming more prominent, the number of students able to undertake full degree study in another country will be limited unless the government allows student loans to be used internationally. Studying abroad as part of a UK degree is a great alternative that gives students the advantages of an educational experience overseas without some of the complications of diploma mobility.[74]

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[68] Participation rates in higher education: https://www.gov.uk/government/collections/statistics-on-higher-education-initial-participation-rates

[69] Widening participation in higher education: https://www.gov.uk/government/policies/widening-participation-in-higher-education--4

[70] Foundation and Undergraduate Tuition Fees 2014–15: http://www.thecompleteuniversityguide.co.uk/university-tuition-fees/reddin-survey-of-university-tuition-fees/foundation-undergraduate-tuition-fees-2014%E2%80%9315-overseas/

[71] *UK Tuition Fees: How Much Does it Cost to Study in the UK?* http://www.topuniversities.com/student-info/student-finance/uk-tuition-fees-how-much-does-it-cost-study-uk

[72] Tickle, L. (2014). Is the UK still the destination of choice for international students? *The Guardian*, Tuesday, 20 May 2014. http://www.theguardian.com/education/2014/may/20/international-students-uk-issues

[73] HESA figures encouraging, but work to be done, says International Unit: http://www.international.ac.uk/media-centre/press-releases/hesa-figures-encouraging,-but-work-to-be-done,-says-international-unit.aspx

[74] Raimo, V. (2014). The government should allow UK student loans to be used internationally. *The Guardian*, Friday 25 April 2014. http://www.theguardian.com/higher-education-network/blog/2014/apr/25/uk-student-loans-study-abroad

Although Germany began to introduce tuition fees for HE in 2005, it has recently abolished all fees. Policy in the US is the opposite to that in Germany, with a system of fees that is more established than the UK, but which is also not without issues:

> The alternative, American model has had some success in various stages, but now, the results seem catastrophic – the US has over $1 trillion in student debt, and the number keeps growing, something which accentuates the country's economical crisis.[75]

However, as the US is the most popular destination overall for student mobility, there is little evidence (as yet) of these costs impacting on the scale of its international activity. In conclusion, the UK could do more to take advantage of the potential in the market for international education, both for outward and inward mobility. There are lessons to be learned from the similarities and differences with the systems in Germany and the US.

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[75] http://www.zmescience.com/other/germany-education-fees-01102014/

05. Impact of International Experience

In this section we consider the overarching benefits, as well as some of the potential issues or challenges, of international experience for individuals, employers and the wider economy

Individuals

Recent research backs up what is generally understood to be the benefits of international education: it increases employability by developing transferrable skills. These skills include communication and languages, plus softer skills of awareness and sensitivity. However, a report from the MAUNIMO project also points out that when making the case for mobility in terms of employability:

> One must not lose sight of the multiple social and economic benefits that mobility can yield. The discourse on mobility, while favouring notions such as employability, must not be subsumed under the perceived labour force demands. The values, skills and international perspectives that mobility generates for institutions, individuals, societies and business must be well evidenced, and underpin the reasons for investment in mobility. (Colucci, Davies, Korhonen & Gaebel, 2012, p. 57)

Furthermore, there is evidence that intercultural experience also enhances creativity: "studying abroad supports complex cognitive processes that underlie creative thinking in culture specific and domain general settings" (Lee, Therriault & Linderholm, 2012).

Models of intercultural development are theories of how intercultural experience develops knowledge, skills, attitudes and behaviours, and are based on empirical evidence. These theoretical models are useful for three reasons: they provide a structured list of the outcomes of international education, they offer an explanatory understanding of the mechanism by which these skills develop, and they also provide a means to measure the personal development of participants in international education. In this regard, Bennett's *Developmental Model of Intercultural Sensitivity* (DMIS) is probably the most well-established. The DMIS is coherent and it offers a fairly practical way of assessing intercultural development.

However, international education opportunities are not just about inter-cultural development. It can also be argued that international educational experiences boost the value of credentials (Brooks and Waters, 2009). In increasingly 'mass' tertiary education systems, international experience is a way of improving or maintaining social status. According to Brooks and Waters, international education is too often the preserve of privileged elites. And in particular, there is a view amongst this demographic that 'if you can't get into your national elite university, it's better to go abroad'. So international education becomes the 'second choices of the privileged'. At least as far as this study shows, this is the situation in the UK; the views and motivations of people in other countries may well be quite different.

For younger children, teachers in primary schools have highlighted various additional positive benefits associated with language learning (not necessarily linked to international experiences *per se*):

In addition to the intrinsic value of languages, [Head teachers, languages co-ordinators and most teachers] saw them as enriching and broadening their curriculum provision. Teachers generally believed languages were making a substantial contribution to children's development in the areas of personal and social learning, cultural understanding, communication skills, literacy skills, knowledge about language and attitudes to learning. A number of head teachers saw languages learning as contributing to a school ethos which valued diversity and increased tolerance and understanding of other people. (Cable *et al.*, 2010, p. 4)

A European public opinion survey suggests that there is opportunity for growth of international education in Europe. It shows that a large majority (84%) of Europeans support the idea of developing and enhancing existing exchange programmes between European schools and universities (European Commission, 2007, p. 196). This proposal received significantly more support on average than the idea of European schools (70%), a common European history book (68%) or a common European curriculum (68%). There is somewhat less enthusiasm for this idea in the UK (73%), however, than in Germany (87%).

The European Commission has funded a large-scale research project on academic mobility – *ENPMOB: Comparative study of European and national-level policies and practices on academic mobility*. The project was commissioned by EACEA and is partnered with NUFFIC (Netherlands) and DAAD (Germany). Amongst the main findings are that European countries are ostensibly enthusiastic about mobility in relation to the Bologna process, but they are "significantly more cautious" when it comes to adopting ambitious mobility targets (Academic Cooperation Association, 2012). Furthermore, "very few European countries actually have a fully-fledged national policy for mobility in place". The only countries that have detailed national mobility policies are Finland and Estonia (Ferencz & Wächter, 2012).

DURATION OF EXPERIENCE

There is evidence that the benefits of international education are proportional to the duration of the experience. For example, a Master's study by Zarnik (2010) suggests that short-term study programmes have minimal impact on the development of intercultural sensitivity. Zarnik's method involved the use of an Intercultural Sensitivity Index (ISI) which was developed from Milton Bennett's (1993) Development Model of Intercultural Sensitivity (DMIS). But the evidence also illustrates that "short-term programs continue to be valid experiences within the study abroad field." (Zarnik, 2010, p. iii). Short-term experiences brought about positive changes, but may not be long enough to produce substantial changes in intercultural competence. However, they are shown to have a positive impact on various stages of intercultural development (Zarnik, 2010, pp. 26–27), including on the 'adaptation' and 'acceptance' stages of the DMIS model, which are amongst the later developmental stages (Bennett, 1993). For example, in relation to 'adaptation', Zarnik's survey asked whether respondents would agree that "culture is a process" and that "one engages in culture". The results were that:

Pre-study abroad 31.3% of participants describe themselves in this manner. The post-departure results report that 54.6% of participants believe question 19 describes them extremely well. (Zarnik, 2010, p. 23)

More generally, Medina-López-Portillo (2004) investigated the effect of programme duration by comparing the benefits from two courses of different durations. In this study the benefits of international study experience were measured using the Intercultural Development Inventory (IDI) developed by Hammer & Bennett in 1997 (see: Hammer, 2012 for a description of this instrument):

> The IDI data shows that while less than one third of the students (31%) in the seven-week Taxco program advanced to the next DMIS stage, fully two thirds of the students (67%) in the sixteen-week Mexico City program did. This difference is substantial and suggests that the longer the program, the more interculturally sensitive students are likely to become. (p. 185)

Medina-López-Portillo (2004) also recognises that it may take more than one such experience to fully develop intercultural competence to the stage of ethnorelativism, but also that even short-term experiences can play an important part in initiating the motivation to develop cultural understanding:

> Students also need help understanding that one experience abroad is not likely to make them experts about the host culture, and that their journey toward ethno-relativism may just be beginning when they return home. (p. 196)

ISSUES AND CHALLENGES

Not all impact of intercultural experience and study abroad is beneficial or benign. Features, predominantly of the international education system, can militate the positive effects of time spent abroad. System-wide issues include a lack of monitoring procedures; problems with unregulated HE provision; quality of provision, some of which is attributable to lack of monitoring and regulation; and lack of consumer protection, which is needed because of the variable quality of provision. In addition, there is a risk of "bogus" or fraudulent institutions and "unfair" competition – due to lack of regulation.

From the student's point of view, "good quality TNE is not necessarily recognised; lack of information makes it difficult to distinguish good from bad transnational education." (CIMEA, 2004, p. 6). These factors can contribute to a negative experience for individuals, which may put them off pursuing international experiences in the future, or lead them to draw negative conclusions about a host country. Even where an international experience is well-organised, issues such as culture shock, home-sickness and feelings of being an "outsider", can contribute to negative experiences for individuals participating, which again could put them off future experiences.

Knight (2011) identifies five myths of internationalization and de Wit (2011b) identifies nine misconceptions about internationalization (both listed in Appendix 3). Knight's and de Wit's lists concur on two points: They agree that neither the number of foreign students on campus nor the number of institutional agreements necessarily lead to a more internationalized institution; instead what matters is the quality of the provision and its impact on institutions and individuals. In addition, whilst the UK has benefited from a net inflow of foreign students, especially in higher education, recent reforms to immigration law are perceived to threaten this vital aspect of HE finance.

In terms of the negative effects of the UK's low rates of outward mobility, there are "concerns that a low rate might hamper UK graduates' competitiveness in global and European labour markets" (King, Findlay & Ahrens, 2010, p. 1). The link between international mobility and economic benefits are highlighted in the views of employers:

> Employers rate young graduates with international experience by far more superior to those without international experience, as far as "international competences" are concerned. (Bracht *et al.*, 2006, p. 96)

The competences listed by employers include foreign language proficiency, using information about other countries, working with colleagues and clients, and being sent abroad for work assignments. In addition, internationally-experienced graduates are perceived to have greater adaptability, more initiative, greater assertiveness, and better written communication skills (Bracht *et al.*, 2006, p. 97).

Employers

Employers believe that intercultural skills are integral to the workplace: 70% of UK respondents to a survey regarded intercultural skills as "very important" and 23% regarded them as "fairly important" (British Council, Ipsos & Booz Allen Hamilton, 2012, p. 9). This research also shows that businesses value staff who have the ability to work with people and organisations from different cultures. Employers highlighted the following skills as important:

* The ability to understand different cultural contexts and viewpoints

* Demonstrating respect for others

* Knowledge of a foreign language. (British Council, Ipsos & Booz Allen Hamilton, 2012, p. 3)

Language learning and competence is a particular benefit of international experiences. There is potentially more work to do to create employer demand for language skills in the UK. Employer surveys in the UK generally suggest that languages are a "nice to have" employability skill, rather than a core employability skill, but that they can certainly add value (CFE, 2011, p. 9). In a survey of UK employers, foreign language skills were rated as the least important of a list of employability skills for recent graduates. Even so, 7% rated them as very important and 33% as quite important (Institute of Directors, 2007). Another survey for the CBI found that 76% of employers are not satisfied with the foreign language skills of young people and over half (61%) perceive shortfalls in their international cultural awareness (CBI, 2011, p. 22). A Eurobarometer survey across 27EU member states, plus Norway, Iceland, Croatia and Turkey found that graduate employers appeared to be least likely to highlight the importance of foreign language skills, compared with other employability skills, with 33% rating these skills as "very important" and 34% as "rather important" (Eurobarometer, 2010). Further evidence on employer demand for international experiences is included in the other literature review produced for this project.[76]

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[76] CFE Research and LSE Enterprise (2014) *Research and Analysis of the Benefits of International Education Opportunities: A literature review on UK competitiveness and skills (needs)*. London: British Council.

The UK Economy

The ways in which international education opportunities can contribute to the UK economy are outlined in the UK Government's strategy for international education – *Global Growth and Prosperity* (BIS, 2013). The international education strategy was informed by evidence given to the House of Lords European Union Committee (2012) by a range of organisations including the British Council, the NUS, individual colleges and universities, and organisations representing groups of HEIs. In its evidence, the NUS articulated the value of international education experience as involving "personal, social experiences" but also highlighted that "the skills that they develop are skills for life and are absolutely the skills that we need to make our economies perform better as well. They are not just personal skills" (p. 29). Similarly, million+ explained how the development of these personal skills also contributes to the economy by increasing employability. Other stakeholders argued that the evidence for such benefits "is anecdotal and is based on an assumption that mobility/international experience is inherently 'a good thing'" (p. 29).

Evidence was considered from a variety of stakeholders, including universities and university groups, associations of colleges and lecturers, the NUS, funding organisations, and a range of other national organisations including the British Academy and the British Council.[77] The House of Lords European Union Committee summarises the benefits of the Erasmus programme to the UK as follows:

> The Erasmus programme provides benefits to the universities and the students who participate, as well as to the EU as a whole. Not only do students going abroad benefit from their experience, but British universities benefit from the presence of Erasmus students from other countries. We believe that the benefits for students include improved interpersonal skills, language skills, character development, building confidence, increased cultural awareness and enhanced employability. (House of Lords European Union Committee, 2012, p. 32)

The strategy also analyses the economic opportunities arising from the growth in international education, particularly from the export of higher education which was valued at £17.5bn in 2011, and sets out ways of capitalising on it. The government estimates that "75% of our educational export income comes from international students studying in the UK" (BIS, 2013, p. 5). In addition to making the most of growth in this area, the strategy aims to "offer more education overseas, exploiting innovations in educational technology and forming multi-faceted relationships with emerging powers all over the world."

In summary, while it is often argued that greater outward international mobility is beneficial for national economies, it is difficult to find evidence of a direct, causal link between the two. The strongest evidence is for individual benefits (which demonstrate that intercultural skills are linked to better chances of gaining employment), and the wider economic arguments tend to be constructed by summing the value of these individual benefits at a national scale. With these caveats in mind, it is nevertheless clear that there are advantages for educational institutions to engage with international mobility in order to better develop their students and their

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[77] This evidence is collected here: http://www.parliament.uk/documents/lords-committees/eu-sub-com-g/education/heevidence.pdf

relationship with other institutions, and also for state education systems to plan for and monitor this activity in order to take advantage of these benefits at a national level.

06. Summary of evidence

There is a lack of *comparable* evidence for the benefits of international experiences for people from the UK and other countries. This lack of evidence has three main causes:

1)   a lack of data collection co-ordinated at a national level on UK international mobility;

2)   relatively little research on the individual, social and economic effects of international experience for particular groups of people and/or particular types of experience, or the effect on wages and employability; and

3)   lack of publicly-available information on international experiences.

Findings from the research are unanimous in their evaluation that data collection on international education is lacking in quantity and quality. In the UK, the Government also recognise this issue: "While there is much anecdotal evidence suggesting that mobility experiences increase students' employability, it seems that there is little hard evidence available" (House of Lords European Union Committee, 2012, pp 29–30). The NUS recommended "a standardisation of data collection, with one overall agency responsible at a supranational level" (p. 30). The Lords committee heard evidence from a range of experts and stakeholders, including HEIs and NUS, and it recognised their concerns about a lack of data on international mobility:

> Substantive research into the links between mobility experiences and increased employability is urgently required in order to substantiate the anecdotal evidence. In this vein we endorse the Commission's intention to improve the availability of data on learning mobility and employment outcomes but also urge them to pay more attention to how such data is collected. More information also needs to be made available about the proposed European Tertiary Education Register before its potential to add value can be considered by all concerned. (House of Lords European Union Committee, 2012, p. 30)

Also, a report from the MINAUMO research project finds that:

> Current institutional mobility-data collection is conditioned by funding programmes, and in particular by the ERASMUS Programme. However, there is little information on free movers, both students and staff. Data collection is also often decentralised and fragmented. (Colucci *et al.*, 2012, p. 8)

Similarly, a recent report by the British Council and the German academic exchange service (DAAD) concluded that:

> There are enormous gaps by country in terms of documented proof of the tangible outcomes of these significant investments. Indeed, much remains to be done to fully appreciate what these scholarship programmes actually achieve – for the individuals whose mobility is supported, the countries that fund them and the institutions in both sending and receiving countries where the intellectual experiences are most directly lived out. (British Council & DAAD, 2014b, p. vi)

Joan O'Mahony, author of the recent HEA report on TNE in HE, recommends that:

> More transnational research should be undertaken *transnationally*: research relationships should be fostered between host and providers with both on an equal footing in terms of their involvement in the research. (O'Mahony, 2014, p. 37)

Furthermore, O'Mahony (2014, p. 12) suggests that "there is little sign of any cross-national collaboration between authors" of research into transnational education. For example, "Most collaboration is between England and Netherlands, all of which is the result of collaborations between two authors" (p. 12). The lack of joined-up working between researchers and providers of international education presents a major obstacle to greater take-up and effectiveness of this activity. It also hampers efforts to gauge the nature and scale of activity, such as the present literature review. As a subject of academic research, international students are "almost a blind-spot on the research map of the social sciences" (King, Findlay & Ahrens, 2010, p. 46). Clearly, this issue needs to be addressed as soon as possible, at both national and international levels.

Opportunities for further research

Expansion of TNE into VET

A new report (Clifton *et al.*, 2014, *Winning the Global Race*), from centre-left think tank IPPR, presents a picture of a changing jobs market and argues that focus on expanding HE has paid too little attention to vocational education and training. It claims that UK economic growth will rely more and more on vocational skills than on the traditional degree route. The pertinent point is that there may be future opportunities for intercultural education to contribute to the employability of those who choose not to participate in HE. The evidence reviewed here suggests that the majority of international education operates within HE systems. As a result, there may be potential for providers of international education opportunities to expand into the growing market for vocational education and training. The fact that UK businesses are saying that they need more candidates with good communication and foreign language skills (British Council, Ipsos & Booz Allen Hamilton, 2013, p. 6) suggests that there are opportunities to integrate intercultural experience with existing on-the-job or vocational training and development programmes. We have identified some of the international organisations that support international VET, but there is opportunity for greater expansion in the UK.

Identifying the most appropriate countries for international experience

It would be useful to know what to look for when deciding where to go for an international educational opportunity, i.e. *which are the best places for an international experience?* The literature suggests that this largely depends on the country of origin and the cultural background of the person. It also depends on the purpose of the activity (e.g. education or experience) and the level of previous international experience and/or level of intercultural competence, because different countries offer quite different experiences and levels of cultural and linguistic variance for different groups of people. For British people, the US perhaps offers a less valuable opportunity for intercultural development than non-English-speaking countries. Based on the evidence presented above, we may form the following hypothesis:

> *The opportunity for the development of intercultural competence via international educational experience is proportional to the degree of cultural difference between the individual and the chosen destination.*

This hypothesis could be tested empirically by analysing data on cultural difference and intercultural development. Further areas to explore could include whether there is value to introductory international experiences, such as visits to countries that are less of a culture shock, or whether it is more effective to go 'in at the deep end' to markedly different cultures and places. For both the main hypothesis and related research questions, a scale of measurement would be a valuable means of measuring cultural differences and effects, such as Bennett's (1993) Developmental Model of Intercultural Sensitivity cited earlier in this review. It would be sensible to balance this type of analysis with labour market information, such as the level of demand for particular languages and specific careers or roles.

One implication of this hypothesis is that the potential for benefits is moderated by whether the individual travels alone or in a group, and on the cultural homogeneity and behaviour of the group. There is a risk to the individual that the other people may act as a 'cultural barrier' to exposure of the place of study. Travelling abroad with others from the same cultural background means that an individual's experience may be akin to a 'bubble' that prevents a fuller integration with the new culture. For example, the motivation to engage with a new language is likely to be lessened if another person with greater fluency acts as the 'speaker' for the group.

Developments in UK Outbound Mobility

A new report by Universities UK (2014) summarises the state of UK higher education in terms of international competition:

> The quality of UK education is regarded highly by prospective students across the world, as shown by the strong position held by the UK, attracting more students from overseas than any other country except for the United States. However, in the current environment, the UK's higher education institutions cannot necessarily assume that levels of demand will remain at current levels, or that the UK as a whole will retain its global position in this market. (Universities UK, 2014, p. 40)

Nicola Dandridge, Chief Executive of UUK, articulated this point at the Conservative Party conference 2014. Also at the conference, David Willetts, the minister for Universities and Science until the cabinet reshuffle in July 2014, spoke about the UK's place in international education, arguing that we should send more students abroad in order to get more back.[78] Willetts claimed that ministers from foreign governments value this 'reciprocity' in student mobility. The argument for greater reciprocity was also made in a report by the British Council (2014b) from the UK-China Higher Education Roundtable, which was attended by Mr Willetts and his counterpart Dr Hao Ping of the Ministry of Education China:

> The UK is now China's second largest research collaborator. Therefore, learning from each other represents a key feature of success in UK-China collaborations, which needs to be based on reciprocity and mutual benefits. (British Council, 2014b, p. 2)

During this meeting in China, Mr Willetts announced new targets for UK-China student mobility.[79] The aim is to increase the number of British students in China to 80,000 by 2020,

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[78] https://twitter.com/JMorganTHE/status/516559472945549312

[79] https://www.gov.uk/government/publications/china-science-and-education-david-willetts-visit-april-2014/china-science-and-education-david-willetts-visit-april-2014

and to increase the number of Chinese students in Britain to 400,000. In 2013, there were only 4,200 UK students in China, and 100,000 Chinese students in the UK,[80] meaning that the new targets aim for a fourfold increase in inbound students and to increase outbound mobility by a factor of around 20.

In summary, China and India represent two of the greatest opportunities for growth in international education opportunities within the UK. However, the sources cited above suggest that more needs to be done so that the UK does not lose out in the race to engage with these emerging economies. Of particular concern is the relationship with India, because the number of Indian students studying at UK HEIs has halved over the past two years (Universities UK, 2014, p. 13). Similarly, over the same period, the number of students from Saudi Arabia fell by 35%. It is thought that the 10% decline in entrants to science, technology, engineering and mathematics (STEM) courses is largely due to falling demand from international students with whom such courses are popular (Universities UK, 2014, p. 15). Based on this evidence, it seems clear that these issues need to be addressed if the UK's economy and education sector are to remain globally competitive.

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[80] http://www.britishcouncil.org/organisation/press/uk-china-higher-education-links-strengthened

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Appendix 1: Common Learning Outcomes of Intercultural Education

The following extract lists the types of knowledge, skills and attitudes that can be developed through intercultural experience. This list is taken from Deardorff (2013).

Knowledge/Content Oriented

- Understand the interconnectedness and interdependence of global systems
- Understand the historical, cultural, economic, and political forces that shape society and explain own situation in this context
- Develop a nuanced/complex understanding of culture as a concept and the deep/complex/dynamic nature of culture.
- Understand various cultures and how culture is created
- Understand the relationship of power and language, and how language interacts with culture
- Understand the connections between power, knowledge, privilege, gender and class (locally and globally)
- Understand conflict and power relationships
- Understand how language frames thinking and perspective
- Recognize how stereotypes develop and where they come from

Attitudinal/Mode of Being

- Develop a sense of perspective and social responsibility
- Overcome provincial/parochial thinking
- Reduce own prejudice
- Appreciate difference; value and acknowledge other cultures as legitimate
- Improve cultural self-awareness and understanding of one's self in the global context
- Demonstrate greater appreciation of or an interest in learning about different cultures
- Develop empathy and perspective consciousness
- Demonstrate open-mindedness and an understanding of complexity

Skills

- Think, work, and move across boundaries – in diverse environments
- Develop and use skills in conflict resolution
- Develop and use intercultural communication skills
- Demonstrate language proficiency
- Take informed responsibility for actions in a globally connected world
- Link theory and practice through own experience both as citizens and professionals
- Internalize and apply cultural understandings and knowledge
- Seek out multiple perspectives

Appendix 2: Examples of Intercultural Awareness Raising (IAR) Activities

These examples are taken from Hall & Toll (1999) Raising Intercultural Awareness in preparation for periods of residence abroad. They are grouped under headings that describe the main categories of intercultural competence.

Cognitive Knowledge

- Planned / unplanned content of a cultural nature in language classes
- Classes with the Foreign Language Assistant
- Language societies and clubs
- Courses / units of study / assignments on:
- literature / the arts
- history, geography, politics, society
- Study of cultural phenomena through text & media (e.g. APC©APU materials from LARA)
- Specific classes / tutorials / language exercises focusing on country-specific info. (e.g. opening a bank account)
- Role Plays / Simulations focusing on transactional language
- Handbooks & country specific guides containing helpful information (accommodation, travel, etc.)
- Talks by returnee students / international students in residence (e.g. Central Lancashire's "International Day", John Moores' "Centrefair")
- "Parenting Schemes" - organised twinning of returnee and outgoing students
- Orientation days / weeks
- Talks by host institution representatives
- Virtual Visits via the World Wide Web
- "RAPPORT" / NRAD web pages
- Quizzes (e.g. Lancaster preparation week)

IAR of affective, behavioural and strategic nature

Personal Development handbooks / portfolios emphasising transferable skills and professional development:

- Getting the Most from your Year Abroad (Southampton)
- Making the Most of the Year Abroad: Creating a Personal and Career Development Dossier (Portsmouth)
- Using Your Year Abroad (Reading)

Integrated courses:

- "Ealing Ethnographic Programme" (Thames Valley, Oxford Brooks)
- "Cross-Cultural Training Workshop" (Sussex)
- "Intercultural Communication" (Leicester)

Activities packs:

- "Making the Most of the Year Abroad" partnership between Peter Hawkins Associates, University of Leeds & University of Liverpool
- Learning in cross-cultural groupings:
- Tandem learning (Hull University)
- Pilot bilingual language course integrating systematic cross-cultural conflict management (Sussex)
- Comparison of intercultural experiences project (St. Martin's)

Activities & tasks:

- Individual elements of the Oxford Brooks Ethnography Module (e.g. Food values) Roberts, C. & S. Jordan
- Daily routine survey, Sociogram, Stereotypes by Coleman, J.(Portsmouth) (http://www.hum.port.ac.uk/slas/fdtl)
- Critical incident analysis e.g. "Good-time girls" (Lancaster)

Experiential IAR activities from other contexts

- Intercultural, Social & Self-awareness preparation: examples from Intercultural Press
- [Intercultural Press, Inc., P.O. Box 700, Yarmouth, Maine, 04096 USA]
- Intercultural Sourcebook: Cross-Cultural Training Methods Vol. 1
- Fowler, S.M. & M.G. Mumford (eds.) (1995)
- Activity types include:
- Role Plays
- Contrast-culture activities
- Simulation Games
- Critical Incidents
- Case Studies

Appendix 3: Myths and Misconceptions of International Education

Knight (2011) lists *Five Myths about Internationalization*. In addition, de Wit (2011) describes nine misconceptions and challenges for internationalisation of higher education. Both of these are summarised below.

Knight (2011) Five Myths about Internationalization

1. **Foreign students as internationalization agents**: "more foreign students on campus will produce more internationalized institutional culture and curriculum".

2. **International reputation as a proxy for quality**: "the more international a university is (...) the better its reputation".

3. **International institutional agreements**: "the greater number of international agreements or network memberships a university has the more prestigious and attractive it is".

4. **International accreditation**: "the more international accreditation stars an institution has, the more internationalized it is and ergo the better it is".

5. **Global branding**: "an international marketing scheme is the equivalent of an internationalization plan".

de Wit (2011) Nine misconceptions and challenges for internationalisation in higher education

1. Internationalisation is education in the English language.[81]

2. Internationalisation is studying or staying abroad.

3. Internationalisation equals an international subject.

4. Internationalisation implies having many international students.

5. Having a few international students in the classroom makes internationalisation into a success.

6. There is no need to test intercultural and international competencies specifically.

7. The more partnerships, the more international.

8. Higher education is international by nature.

9. Internationalisation is a goal in itself.

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[81] de Wit's argument is based on HE in the Netherlands, and is relevant to internationalisation in non-English-speaking EU countries. It is less relevant for internationalisation in the UK, where English is the native language and not the 'default' foreign language, which is de Wit's point here.