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**Special Issue: Internationalisation in
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Guest Editorial

Caprice Lantz-Deaton

THE TERM internationalisation is viewed with skepticism by some academics who believe it is more related to strategic management initiatives than psychology teaching and learning. Others see it as code for recruiting international students and boosting institutional profits. Still others may see it as yet another aspect of teaching that must be squeezed into an already jam packed curriculum. These opinions are true to greater or lesser extents within different institutions. Internationalisation initiatives are criticised for overemphasising income generation through international student recruitment and for focusing upon activities which build global recognition and reputation while sidelining social and academic pursuits; lecturers certainly are ever pressed to fit more into the curriculum.

However, internationalisation cannot be ignored. The world is contracting. Businesses now operate internationally as well as globally. More people are migrating for work or to escape from poor conditions within their home countries. The internet and mobile phones facilitate the exchange of knowledge, ideas, and technology. This norm of global social relations has created a context in which small local areas can be influenced by events in far flung regions of the world. Thus, while internationalisation operates imperfectly, it is increasingly difficult for academics or students to limit themselves to local, county, or even national perspectives. As Bourn (2010, p.18) notes:

Students today live in a global society – a society where they cannot ignore global interdependence and global inequalities. How are today’s students going to understand and to respond to the freedoms, problems and responsibilities they are inheriting? How are today’s students

going to find their individual roles in a global society? And where do they start?

This issue of *Psychology Teaching Review* acknowledges the concerns regarding internationalisation but attempts to highlight the importance of one particular aspect of it – that is developing psychology graduates who will be better able to contribute to a global society in positive and effective ways. The following papers contribute to this discussion, some in more direct and others in more indirect ways.

Abrams and Ziegler discuss the ways in which study abroad programmes support students in developing global perspectives. In their paper they provide theory, research and experience driven strategies to guide psychology academics in leading and organising study abroad programmes.

Akhurst describes psychology students’ experiences in international community-based learning (ICBL) projects which link with many psychology students’ motivations to make contributions to others and provides potential to enhance students’ learning and cultural sensitivities. This paper considers student experiences in four international settings which illustrate the challenges of setting up, facilitating and supporting students’ CBL. Drawing upon group discussions with students, observations and feedback from community partners, findings show students gained deeper insight into applications of psychological theory and changed perspectives, including greater awareness of social issues that impacted on their attitudes about others.

Brown, Mak and Neill argue that many home students do not have access to study abroad and advocate for internationalisation on home campuses in order to provide larger numbers of graduates with global

perspectives. The paper describes curriculum changes aimed at enhancing students' intercultural learning in a third year social psychology course at an Australian university. Findings suggest increases in intercultural learning for students who took part in modules with curricular changes compared to students in the standard third year psychology module. Authors suggest methods of infusing intercultural learning throughout the psychology curricula and the challenges in sustaining such changes.

Jessop and Adams discuss the expected outcomes of an internationalised undergraduate psychology curriculum such as critical thinking, appreciation for diversity, and global awareness. Preceding the internationalisation of an introductory psychology module, the author's examined relationships between measures of these anticipated benefits in an online survey of psychology undergraduates in the US university. Their results raise concerns about connections between the expected benefits of internationalisation and conventional understandings of educational success.

Mugabe, Brug and Catling address cross-cultural differences in academic motivation, academic self-esteem and social mobility of students. In their study, they assessed these variables using questionnaires to compare student cohorts from America, the UK, and Uganda. Their paper provides useful insights into cultural differences amongst students and what these might mean for teaching and learning within the discipline.

Smith and Castro provide an informative account of an international translation project aimed at making scientific literature on psychology teaching published in English available in French in order to enhance the teaching of psychology in the Francophone world. The paper discusses the criteria for selecting papers and development of a subsequent conference on the teaching of psychology as a result of this work.

Finally, less directly relevant to global perspectives but highly relevant to teaching psychology is a piece by Kelly,

Jones, Brinthaupt and Hart who describe the development of a regional psychology teaching organisation, Psychology Educators of Tennessee (PET). PET is designed to enhance collaboration among teachers from local colleges, universities, and schools. They discuss the history of PET, development of their annual conference, challenges in developing and maintaining PET, and suggestions for HEIs interested in creating similar kinds of organisations.

There is a shortage of literature regarding internationalisation within psychology and specifically educating our students to live in a global society. While this issue of *Psychology Teaching Review* extends the existing knowledge base, readers might also consider consulting the special issue of *Psychology Teaching and Learning* Volume 11, number 3, 2012 which also focuses upon globalisation and psychology teaching. The introduction to the special issue (Buskist, Zucherman & Busler, 2012) provides a particularly useful overview and call to action. Among other important points made by these authors is a call for more research to develop a stronger evidence base about what works and what doesn't in psychology teaching for global perspectives.

I would like to thank Nicky Hayes who invited me to serve as special guest editor for this issue of *Psychology Teaching Review* which has been an educational and rewarding experience.

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Call for Papers

Teaching Sensitive Issues

It is proposed to bring out a Special Issue of *Psychology Teaching Review* on the subject of 'Teaching Sensitive Issues'. We would like to invite papers on this topic from both members and non-members of the DARTP. Such papers might be reports of explicit research into the area, case studies highlighting pedagogical questions regarding teaching sensitive issues, or discussion papers proposing pedagogical or professional strategies. Papers may be submitted at any time to ptr@bps.org.uk but the latest date for submission to the Special Issue will be 20 February 2017. Submission guidelines are available at the end of this copy of *Psychology Teaching Review*, or on the BPS website pages for the Division for Academics, Researchers and Teachers of Psychology (DARTP).

Special Edition Guest Editor: Dr Kevin Wilson-Smith

Editor: *Psychology Teaching Review*

We are looking for a new Editor for *Psychology Teaching Review*, to take up the role in Autumn 2017 for the Spring 2018 issue. We would like to appoint early if possible, so that the new Editor has the opportunity to observe the current editorial team in practice and to work smoothly into the role.

The new Editor should be a practising academic or teacher, with the ability to work effectively to a time limit and to liaise effectively with the DARTP committee and the BPS office. She or he will be expected to work with the Editorial Assistant in the production of new issues, to take responsibility for the content of such issues, and to carry out such editorial duties as may be required. The new Editor should also be a full member of the Division of Academics, Researchers and Teachers of Psychology, and will be expected to contribute to the implementation of the overall strategy for the Division.

Initial expressions of interest should be directed to the *PTR* Editor, at ptr@bps.org.uk

Facilitating study abroad for psychology students

Kenneth Abrams & Naomi Ziegler

Study abroad in psychology promotes knowledge of other cultures, global-mindedness, the re-evaluation of one's cultural identity, interest in civic engagement, and insight into the universality or non-universality of psychological phenomena. Heightened recognition of these outcomes has led to increasingly larger numbers of psychology students studying abroad. Still, psychology staff who wish to direct a study abroad programme may find the process of organising and leading such a programme intimidating. They may also need practical strategies for responding effectively to mental health issues that arise while abroad, a charge for which professors of psychology are especially well suited. Additionally, psychology staff who advise students seeking study abroad opportunities need to be knowledgeable about the benefits of study abroad, options that exist for their students, and the basics of how to make study abroad administratively possible. In this paper we provide theory-, research-, and experience-driven strategies to guide psychology staff through the complex processes of advising students and directing study-abroad programmes.

Keywords: Study abroad, internationalisation, psychology education, intercultural learning, mental health.

BECAUSE OF increasing student mobility and the vast number of students studying psychology, psychology staff need to be able to provide informed advice to students seeking study abroad opportunities and be familiar with the benefits of studying abroad, options that exist for their students, and the basics of how to make it administratively possible. Whether taking students abroad or receiving students from abroad, psychology staff require strategies to recognise students in distress, provide front-line assistance, and refer them to professional help as needed. Psychology staff also need to understand how foreign students come to their campus and how their experience abroad integrates into their degree programme back home.

This paper addresses such issues by providing practical advice for psychology staff who: a) direct or wish to direct study abroad programmes; b) advise students who are seeking study abroad opportunities or who have traveled from abroad to study; or c) encounter mental health issues among students studying abroad. We also discuss more briefly the importance of study abroad in psychology as a prelude to the more practical sections.

We expect that the advice dispensed will be most applicable to psychology staff at institutes of higher education in the UK but also largely relevant to such staff at institutes in other EU (Erasmus) states and in the US. Although we both work at a US college, the first author (KA) studied abroad in England and has regularly led study abroad programmes to Central Europe since 2000, and the second author (NZ) guides US students in selecting institutions in the UK and elsewhere in the EU for study abroad as well as courses to take while abroad. Additionally, she assists international students – both direct enroll and exchange – on our home campus.

The importance and growth of study abroad in psychology

The heightened importance of study abroad in psychology can be traced to the increasingly interconnected world in which we live. This can be seen most clearly in issues pertaining to the environment, communication, migration, security, health, and the trade of goods and services, all on which the field of psychology has some bearing. Current students wishing to be productive members of diverse communities benefit greatly from

an enhanced internationalised perspective. Yet, a sizable majority of the textbooks and articles read by Western psychology students are to some degree insular; that is, they include primarily Western – especially British and American – perspectives, constructs, and research findings (Arnett, 2008).

Study abroad constitutes a critical means of bridging the gap between current practices and student needs. It leads to gains in intercultural competence, such as a greater awareness of cultural differences (Levine, 2009), increased knowledge about specific cultures (Braskamp & Engberg, 2011), fewer stereotypes, and increased tolerance of others (Levine, 2009). Study abroad also promotes global-mindedness, the re-evaluation of one's cultural identity, and increased interest in civic engagement and social justice. Students typically emerge from study abroad with greater confidence when faced with novel situations, an increased sense of independence, and – for psychology students – heightened insight into the types of populations with which they would like to eventually work (Koch et al., 2014).

Of note, study abroad is enriching not only for the students who directly partake but also for their classmates with whom they interact upon return. While abroad, students are regularly exposed to different values and perspectives on a range of psychological phenomena. They may encounter 'different social values, patterns of social relationships, developmental norms, ways of thinking about the self, attitudes toward out-groups, [and] intergroup conflicts' (Lutsky, 2016). Students may also be exposed to different views on the etiology of and optimal treatments for mental disorders (Abrams, 2016). For example, within the European Union (EU) attitudes toward the surgical castration of convicted sex offenders range from acceptable and available (in the Czech Republic and Slovakia) to completely unacceptable and reflecting a violation of basic human rights (official policy of the EU; Pfaefflin, 2010).

Given this backdrop it is perhaps not

surprising that the British Psychological Society (BPS) and American Psychological Association (APA) have recently begun highlighting the importance of internationalising post-secondary education. In 2011 the BPS sponsored a manuscript titled the 'The Future of Undergraduate Psychology in the United Kingdom.' Within it, a set of recommendations was made to support psychological literacy. Recommendations include that psychology departments provide opportunities for students to develop and manage pluralistic viewpoints as well as facilitate placements, community work, and international study for students (Trapp et al., 2011).

In 2013 the APA updated its set of learning goals for undergraduate majors (APA, 2013). Suggested learning outcomes nested within these goals specify that psychology majors should be able to:

- predict how sociocultural and international factors influence how scientists think about behavioural and mental processes;
- explain how psychological constructs can be used to understand and resolve interpersonal and intercultural conflicts;
- pursue personal opportunities to promote civic, social, and global outcomes that benefit the community;
- consider the potential effects of psychology-based interventions on issues of global concern;
- interact sensitively with people of diverse abilities, backgrounds, and cultural perspectives.

Growth and means of study abroad

In line with these recommendations, the popularity of study abroad has increased markedly over the past decade. In 2003–04 the number of students from US universities who studied abroad for academic credit was 191,321. By 2013–14, this number had increased by over a third, to 304,467 (Institute for International Education, 2005 & 2015). The number of British students who studied abroad through ERASMUS, a network that links European universities to increase

student mobility, increased from 10, 278 in 2007/08 to 15,566 in 2013/14 (Universities UK, 2016). Further, British students who study through Erasmus represent only half the total number of British students who study abroad. Another 40 per cent do so through third-party providers, with the balance using other methods. Most British students who study abroad stay within in Europe (57.5 per cent), and the top destinations overall for British students are, in order, France, Spain, the US, Germany, and Australia (Higher Education Statistics Agency, 2015). Of note, psychology is the third most popular STEM field in which British students study abroad, after clinical medicine and pre-clinical medicine.

For US students there are a number of study abroad programmes in Europe that cater specifically to psychology majors. For example, DIS: Study Abroad in Scandinavia, a large Danish study abroad organisation receives about 2500 students per year, including about 350 in their psychology programme (see <http://disabroad.org/copenhagen/programs/psychology/>). The programme offers a wide array of psychology courses, taught in English mostly by local staff, that make extensive use of resources in Copenhagen and Stockholm. Course offerings include European Clinical Psychology, Psychology of Adolescence: A Scandinavian Perspective, and Cross-Cultural Psychology. The programme features study tours to other European locations, internships, research, and clinical observations. These opportunities to combine classroom learning with practical experience are highly attractive to US undergraduates.

IES Abroad is a US-based organisation with study centres in 35 cities and 21 countries around the world, including Amsterdam and Vienna. Students in the Amsterdam Psychology and Sciences programme take classes at Vrije University alongside local and other international students. They receive support and assistance from the IES Abroad study centre, but their academic experience is otherwise very much like that of their local peers. In Vienna, many classes are

offered at the IES Abroad study centre itself. Other organisations that operate similar programmes in locations around the world include CIEE: the Council on International Educational Exchange and CET Academic Programmes.

Under the direct enrollment model, US students study at foreign universities as exchange or non-degree students. Top direct enrollment destinations are the UK, Australia, and New Zealand, but many other countries receive US students as well.

In the remainder of the paper we provide concrete advice for staff involved in all stages of the study-abroad process. More specifically, we present sections that cover activities to be undertaken pre-departure, while abroad, and post-return, with key recommendations highlighted at the end of each section.

Pre-departure activities

Advising students of study abroad options

Students today enjoy a great deal of choice when considering study abroad opportunities. They must weigh many different, and sometimes competing, factors when making decisions about if, when, and where to study. Psychology staff who serve as advisers for this process should ideally be knowledgeable of institutional policies, priorities, and constraints surrounding study abroad as well as of programme types, courses offered, educational philosophies, health and safety practices, and quality of programs from which students can select. Given that lack of staff support is a major barrier to students studying abroad (Anderson, 2005), staff should, at a minimum, know the types of programmes available to their students and how to help students access resources to make study abroad possible. In making recommendations, psychology staff should additionally consider the student's developmental readiness (Evans et al., 2010).

Further advice stems from the University of Minnesota, a leader in the intentional integration of study abroad into degree programmes. There, psychology students are advised to think broadly about what it means

to travel abroad as a psychology major. More specifically, they are counseled to learn about diverse theoretical orientations to human behaviour from local staff, to extend the home school curriculum by taking courses not offered on campus, to work in a research lab internationally, to participate in field study, internship, or experiential learning opportunities, and to fulfill liberal education requirements (University of Minnesota, 2016).

In recommending study abroad or a particular programme, staff may wish to consider the student's level of academic behaviour confidence (ABC); that is, the student's confidence in his or her ability to engage in behaviours, such as managing one's workload or responding to questions in class, that lead to academic success (Sander & Sanders, 2009). Among university students, ABC correlates with anticipated final-year grades (Sander & Sanders, 2006); further, confidence in class attendance (a component of ABC) and academic self-efficacy (a construct closely related to ABC) both predict actual academic performance (Sander, 2009; Chemers, Hu & Garcia, 2001).

Preparing students to study abroad

Psychology staff directors can use disciplinary knowledge to prepare students for study abroad. For example, at a pre-departure meeting students might also be asked to complete and reflect upon measures of identity and intercultural competence, such as the Multigroup Ethnic Identity Measure (Phinney, 1992) and the Intercultural Development Inventory (Hammer, Bennett & Wiseman, 2013). They might also be asked to reflect in writing or via a questionnaire on pre-existing attitudes that relate to the programme (e.g. regarding the universality of mental disorders for a cross-cultural psychopathology programme).

One construct that readily ties to preparation for study abroad is resilience, 'the process of, capacity for, or outcome of successful adaptation despite challenging or threatening circumstances' (Masten, Best & Garmezy, 1990, p.426). It includes trait

characteristics, such as temperament and personality variables, as well as specific skills, such as problem-solving ability (Campbell-Sills, Cohan & Stein, 2006). Emotional resilience further includes flexible thinking, the capacity to pause and reflect, tolerance of stress and negative emotions, an openness to experience, and the ability to regulate shifting moods (Abarbanel, 2015).

Developing and harnessing resilience is important as it predicts, when faced with challenging circumstances, both academic performance (cumulative GPA) and mental health (Hartley, 2011). It has been predicted that resilience would be especially important in predicting academic performance for students with more (vs. less) impaired mental health, though an initial test of this hypothesis was not supportive (Hartley, 2011). Resilience may also decrease the negative effects of homesickness, which otherwise may lead students to withdrawal both socially and academically, and experience depression, culture shock, difficulties with concentration, and a loss of identity (Blake, 2006; Bradley, 2000; Fisher, 1989).

At Carleton College, students are required to attend a health and safety presentation that introduces resilience, among other topics, as a key principle for staying healthy abroad. They are given a self-report questionnaire (constructed by Carleton staff) and further resources to consult if their resilience scores are low to medium, including a video presentation for travelers abroad titled the *Roots of Resilience* (<http://youtu.be/UsHER0tR89s>; Weis, 2015). While resilience is a commonly-used term, it is a relatively new research concept (Hartley, 2011) and additional research is needed to understand which resilience components are most related to study abroad.

Mental health

Because foreign cultures often have different norms, taboos, and treatment approaches surrounding mental health, staff directors should ensure they have an understanding of these issues prior to departure (University

System of Georgia, n.d.). Staff should also familiarise themselves with laws in the host country regarding involuntary hospitalisation.

Study abroad offices and organisations that sponsor programmes should have clear processes in place to screen for pre-existing mental health issues and, when necessary, for responding to recurrences while abroad. Best practices on these issues include: a) requiring each student to submit a health assessment form, completed jointly by the student and a physician, after acceptance into the programme but well before departure; and b) following up on areas of concern revealed on the form with the student, mental health provider, and (less frequently) parents. In some cases, students should postpone their plans or not travel at all. Staff leaders also need to consider how students will obtain psychiatric care while abroad and who will coordinate and pay for it. Relatedly, staff should be aware of whom they should contact at the home institution in the event of a mental health crisis, how decisions are made with respect to sending students home, and who is responsible for initiating contact with parents. A strong working relationship between the staff director, study abroad office, and university health centres is important when sorting through individual cases and making decisions.

Pre-departure materials provided to students should include location-specific resources for obtaining mental health treatment. Students who have pre-existing health (including mental health) conditions should be advised to bring medical records with them. In some cases students should, prior to departure, set up an initial appointment with a mental health professional and have medical records transferred. Often, health insurance providers are able to provide referrals for counselors and psychiatrists. Students should be advised about the desirability of acquiring and transporting psychiatric medications to the host country, taking into account the particular health condition(s) and local laws. By taking these precautions, students will have support in

the event that mental health issues intensify while abroad.

Finally, staff should be aware of and relay to students customs, laws, and penalties regarding alcohol and drug use, which may differ from those of the home country. Staff directors and study abroad offices may wish to have a policy requiring students to sign a drug/alcohol policy statement (University of Georgia, n.d.). The policy should specify consequences for using substances in a way that violates local laws, impairs academic performance, threatens the health of the user, or disrupts the larger group.

While abroad: Academics

At a conceptual level, psychology staff leaders should structure programmes to further students' intercultural skills, including the abilities to understand different cultural contexts and viewpoints, and to induce 'disorienting dilemmas,' which occur when recent experiences cannot be assimilated into one's present frame of reference (Mezirow, 1997). Working through dissonance through carefully conceived assignments, especially ones that require self-reflection and analysis, may lead students to challenge and even modify culturally-based assumptions (e.g. that the structure and function of mental disorders common in the West are consistent across cultures; Abrams, 2016).

Excursions can complement textbook and classroom learning and provide opportunities for students to apply knowledge to the real world, while providing a welcome change of pace. The best suited excursion sites will vary by programme and will often require arrangements to be made in advance of the term. The following are examples of excursions that have been effectively integrated into programs of various types:

- for a cross-cultural psychopathology course taught in the Czech Republic, visits to psychiatric institutes, outpatient mental health clinics, and forensic hospitals (Abrams, 2016);
- for a cultural psychology course taught in Japan, walks around local neighborhoods

in which students are asked to reflect on the function of cultural activities and local institutions and to learn about 'work and play, equality and inequality, [and] methods of expressing identity and belongingness' (Enns, 2016);

- for a developmental psychology course taught in India, visits to NGOs that variously provide education for street children in an urban slum area, vocational rehabilitation, palliative care, and HIV/AIDS prevention services for sexual minorities (Gross, 2016);
- for an environmental psychology course taught in Costa Rica, visits to NGOs that protect sea turtles and local biodiversity more generally (Ganzel & Siebert, 2016);
- for a psychology and society course taught in Vienna, visits to the Sigmund Freud museum, the Narrenturm (a psychiatric asylum built in 1784), and a museum of medical history (IES Abroad, n.d.).

More generally, staff might investigate for possible outings local museums, historic sites, cultural activities (such as a tea ceremony; Enns, 2016), religious festivals and temples (for example, to study Hindu meditation; McMillan & Muir, 2016), ethnic districts, local markets, and psychology conferences. Possible assignments tied to excursions include the completion of field journals, presentations that link the experience to course concepts, and reflection papers in which students discuss assumptions of theirs that were recently challenged.

While abroad: Mental health

Both globally and in Western Europe in particular, the most pervasive mental disorders – not counting developmental disorders – are, in order, depressive disorders (which account for 40.5 per cent of the disability adjusted life years [DALYs] caused by mental disorders globally), anxiety disorders (14.6 per cent), drug use disorders (10.9 per cent), alcohol use disorders (9.6 per cent), schizophrenia (7.4 per cent), bipolar disorder (7.0 per cent), and eating disorders (1.2 per cent;

Whiteford et al., 2013). Rates, though, do vary by region, and staff should consider this when working with international students. For example, depressive disorders are especially common in Eastern Europe, Northern Africa, and the Middle East and relatively uncommon in Australia and Pacific Asian countries. Alcohol use disorders are especially common in Eastern Europe and relatively uncommon in North Africa, Sub-Saharan Africa, and the Middle East. Eating disorders are especially common in Western Europe, North America, and Australia, and relatively uncommon in Sub-Saharan Africa, Latin America, and Asia. In contrast, rates of schizophrenia and bipolar disorder vary much less by region (Whiteford et al., 2013).

Mental health issues among university students

Even in the absence of study abroad, university students face many stressors that are not as frequently present for other young adults. They often find themselves in a new environment, away from family and friends, with a heightened workload and time management demands, and the expectation for self-directed learning (Royal College of Psychiatrists, 2011). These situational demands run counter to the popular sentiment that college students are privileged individuals who live a coddled life. In fact, serious mental illness, including bipolar disorder, schizophrenia, and eating disorders, often manifests initially in individuals 18–25 (Royal College of Psychiatrists, 2011), though may be difficult to diagnose in the early stages.

Examining particular classes of disorders, Eisenberg and colleagues used results from an internet-based survey to conclude that the prevalence of 'any depressive or anxiety disorder' was 15.6 per cent among US undergraduates and 13.0 per cent among US graduate students (Eisenberg, Gollust, Golberstein & Heffner, 1997). In a related study, Andrews and Wilding (2004) administered the Hospital Anxiety and Depression Scale to UK undergraduates both a month before matriculating and in the middle of their second year. They found that, among

students who were initially symptom free, 9 per cent developed depression and 20 per cent struggled with anxiety 'at a clinically significant level' at the latter assessment period. MacCabe and colleagues found that excelling in (vs. doing average at) school at age 16 conferred a four-fold increased risk of developing bipolar disorder, suggesting that bright university students may be especially at risk (MacCabe et al., 2010).

Data from other studies also suggest that college students are far from immune to mental illness. A study of university students in Spain found that the prevalence of eating disorders was 6.4 per cent (Lameiras-Fernández et al., 2002). McCauley and colleagues reported that, among their sample of 1980 students at US universities, 11.3 per cent reported a lifetime history of rape and, hence, enhanced risk for PTSD and depression (McCauley, et al., 2009). With respect to alcohol abuse, MacCall and colleagues found that at the University of Aberdeen 50 per cent of men and 34 per cent of women exceeded 'sensible' limits (defined as at least 21 drinks per week for men and 14 for women) and 11.5 per cent of men and 5.2 per cent of women drank at hazardous levels (defined as at least 51 drinks per week for men and 36 for women). Only 9.4 per cent of students indicated that they abstained from drinking altogether (MacCall et al., 2001).

Some evidence suggests the number of students with mental health problems has been steadily rising. For example, the Institute for Employment Studies (2015) found that, among British students in higher education, the per cent that declared a mental health issue increased by 132 per cent between 2009 and 2013.

Mental health issues among psychology majors

Though little research has directly addressed the issue, there is a common perception in academia that a fair number of students pursue the study of psychology to better understand the mental health issues of themselves and their family members (APA, 2012). As such, students with existing psycho-

logical disorders or predispositions may self-select into the discipline. Consistent with this, one study found high rates of affective symptoms among psychology graduate students at US universities (APA, 2012). In particular, 87 per cent reported anxiety and 68 per cent reported symptoms of depression – with 19 per cent indicating a history of suicidal thoughts (APA, 2012). The investigators, though, did not examine the prevalence of DSM disorders *per se* or compare the participants to graduate students in other disciplines.

Examinations of mental health professionals are also consistent with the self-selection hypothesis. A study comparing female psychotherapists with other professional women found that the former group had higher childhood rates of family dysfunction, parental alcoholism, sexual and physical abuse, parental psychiatric hospitalisation, and parental death (Elliott & Guy, 1993). A separate study found that one-third of male therapists and two-thirds of female therapists reported being sexually or physically abused as children (Pope & Feldman-Summer, 1992). Additionally, Epstein reported that 'physicians with affective disorders tend to select psychiatry as a specialty.'

In short, there is circumstantial evidence that psychology majors are at heightened risk for psychiatric problems relative to their peers in other disciplines.

Mental health issues among students studying abroad

At least in the US, there is very little difference in the percentage of university students who study abroad among those with and without mental health disabilities (in 2004: 16.8 per cent vs. 17.1 per cent; Mobility International USA, n.d.). Because study abroad requires rapid adjustment to a new culture in the absence of one's social support network, pre-existing mental health issues can become exacerbated (Hoffa & Pearson, 1997). So, as the prevalence of psychological disorders in university students and the number of students studying abroad have simultane-

ously increased, the need for focused policies addressing mental health issues among students studying abroad has also grown.

Common signs of psychological distress

Many psychology staff are likely to be familiar with common signs of psychological distress. As such, we provide an intentionally brief and abbreviated list of psychological syndromes common among university students in rough order of prevalence (Whiteford et al., 2013) as well as associated signs most likely to be salient to staff directors.

- Depression – depressed or irritable mood, expressions of hopelessness or worthlessness, coursework with suicidal themes, lethargy, anhedonia.
- Anxiety – muscle tension, excessive sweating, complaints of nausea, compulsive behaviours.
- Substance use – bloodshot eyes, unusual smells on breath or clothing, impaired coordination, deterioration of hygiene.
- Disordered eating – dramatic weight loss, wearing of bulky clothes, avoidance of eating in front of others, trips to the bathroom after meals.
- Psychosis – delusions, disorganised speech, disorganised behaviour, marked changes in dress and hygiene.
- Mania – rapid and voluminous speech, a rapid shifting of ideas, excessive activity, impulsive behaviour.

Additional signs that a student may be experiencing acute mental health issues include the following (Settle, 2005):

- academic impairment, reflected by diminished quality of work, frequent absences from class, missed deadlines or exams, or inappropriate behaviour in class;
- social impairment, reflected by difficulty making friends and frequent social isolation;
- physical symptoms, such as headaches and gastrointestinal problems.

Staff may also wish to be especially vigilant upon learning a student has experienced a

major stressor, such as one of the following (Settle, 2005):

- the death of a family member or close friend;
- the end of a romantic relationship;
- sexual harassment or assault;
- the diagnosis of a serious medical condition.

Responding to signs of psychological distress

Psychology staff, because of their disciplinary knowledge and skill set, are especially well suited to identify and respond effectively to stress and more severe mental health issues among students. Upon noticing signs or being approached by a student, the staff member should demonstrate interest and concern for the student's welfare while maintaining professional boundaries. Conversations with the student should take place in private, even if the issue initially arises in a classroom setting. The staff might note in a non-judgemental tenor any concerning behaviours he or she noticed and then listen reflectively and ask follow-up questions in an effort to understand the student's perspective. Ideally, the conversation should lead to the development of a concrete plan, based in part on what has been effective for the student in the past. The Socratic method may be employed to enable the student to identify likely outcomes if the plan is or is not followed. Before parting, a specific location and time for continuing the conversation should be agreed upon (Settle, 2005).

To be clear, the role of the staff member should be to provide support but not formal treatment, regardless of clinical background. In cases where treatment is warranted, the student should be referred to a mental health provider. The staff member should indicate why seeing a professional might be helpful and to normalise the act of seeking help (e.g. to suggest it as a sign of courage rather than weakness; JED Foundation, 2016). For a variety of reasons, students may resist pursuing help, and staff should listen empathically to any concerns expressed in that regard (Settle, 2005).

A common concern among staff who

direct study abroad programmes is not knowing to whom to refer students in need. It is desirable for staff members, at the front end of the term abroad, to obtain information about counselling and crisis services offered by the host school, the names and locations of nearby hospitals and mental health clinics, the local emergency phone number, and the process of involuntarily hospitalising a student (JED Foundation, 2016). Additionally, many study-abroad insurance providers are able to refer students to local mental health professionals (University System of Georgia, 2016). Staff should bear in mind that procedures for seeing mental health professionals vary by country, with some requiring a referral from a physician to see a mental health professional and other requiring a referral from a mental health professional to see a psychiatrist (Settle, 2005).

At times a student's symptoms may be severe enough to warrant immediate intervention. This might occur, for example, in the case of a depressed student with suicidal ideation or a student with anorexia nervosa who has recently experienced significant weight loss. Other signs that a student may need to be removed, temporarily or permanently, from the programme are a marked decline in academic performance as a result of the mental health issue and behaviour that impairs the learning environment of other students on the programme (Settle, 2005).

Providing emergency assistance to students in need while abroad which can include arranging telephone or video consultations with mental health practitioners back home, connecting the student to local mental health clinics, and arranging for voluntary and, if necessary, involuntary hospitalisation. When pursuing hospitalisation, the staff member is advised to escort the student to the hospital if possible, to ensure he or she is not alone and to help the student navigate the admissions process. Depending on the severity of the issue, this assistance may go on for several days or weeks and may result in the student returning home.

Developing a comprehensive plan of

action and deciding whether to send a student home should be done in consultation. Where appropriate, staff should consider coordinating among the local mental health practitioners, the student's mental health practitioners back home, staff from the home university's counseling center and study abroad office, and the student's parents. It may be necessary to obtain written releases from the student to allow the staff member to consult with the various practitioners and the parents. Typically, detailed information about the student who is struggling should not be provided to other students.

Post-return: Facilitating integration

Too often students experience study abroad in isolation, without the opportunity to connect gains in knowledge, global-mindedness, and intercultural skills to events back on the home campus. In this section we discuss means for facilitating this connection for staff programme leaders and for all staff who advise students returning from abroad.

Where available, students can be directed toward courses that specifically target students who have recently studied abroad. For example, at Carleton College (Northfield, Minnesota) a course titled 'I am a Stranger Here Myself' uses the experiences of students in the class to explore theories of cultural identity, intercultural competence, and intercultural transition (Johnson, 2005). Another set of courses at Carleton, titled 'Coffee and News,' is aimed especially at students returning from overseas study in foreign languages (French, German and Spanish). The courses help students stay abreast of current events and maintain their language skills through the reading of international news in its original language and regular meetings to exchange ideas. In 'Creative Travel Writing,' also offered at Carleton, students learn about travel writing as a genre and draw on their study abroad experience (a course pre-requisite) to produce and critique essays.

A re-entry course at St. Mary's College

(Notre Dame, Indiana) provides opportunities for students to study identity development theory (Erikson, 1968) and Kolb's experiential learning model (1984) in the context of their study abroad experience. Toward that end, students complete a number of related inventories prior to and following their time abroad and consider in the context of various theories how their perspectives have evolved (Bikos et al., 2016).

Some course assignments may be especially valuable for recent returnees. For example, Bikos and colleagues (2016) described a writing assignment in which students are asked to reflect on changes they have observed in themselves as a result of studying abroad and to relate particular experiences that contributed to these changes. Krusko (2009) asks students to engage in an 'individual foray,' which entails visiting a cultural context in which they are a minority (e.g. a centre for veterans or an event for senior citizens) and which is likely to produce discomfort. Students are asked to consider similarities and differences between the event and their study abroad immersion. Subsequent discussions focus on the lifelong process of developing cultural competence.

Psychology staff can also guide students toward internationally and cross-culturally-focused psychology courses. Relatedly, psychology departments may wish to circulate the names and areas of study of recent returnees so that staff teaching such courses may invite these students to classes to give presentations on topics tied to the course content (Lutsky, 2016).

Returnees might also be encouraged to conduct independent research connected with their experience abroad. For instance, students might investigate a problem that plagues the region, outcomes achieved from previous attempts to address the problem, and general theories of change (Downey, 2005). Upon return from a cross-cultural psychopathology programme in Prague led by the first author (KA), students have occasionally built on their experience when developing and writing their senior under-

graduate thesis. As an example, one student's thesis was titled 'Lowering the recidivism rates of sex offenders: A legal and cross-cultural analysis of sex crimes in the United States and the Czech Republic.'

Another means for psychology staff to connect students' abroad experiences with the home campus is to organise public symposia and poster sessions that enable students to present the results of research conducted abroad or a problem faced by the host country. Beliot College holds a campus-wide event called the International Symposium that fits this description (and even cancels all classes that overlap with it; Bikos et al., 2016). Such events may inspire younger students to pursue study abroad and serve to highlight for them the academic nature of the programmes (Lutsky, 2016).

There are still other means by which psychology staff can assist returnees. Students can be guided to the campus career centre, which often has information on international fellowships and foreign employment opportunities. Staff can also recommend relevant co-curricular opportunities, such as international film series, language tables, and student and community organisations related to the host country. Staff should also be aware of online resources for returnees. For example, lifeafterstudyabroad.com supports students with stories about immersion and return, resources to help plan future international ventures, and tips for connecting the study abroad experience with subsequent educational and career opportunities (Bikos et al., 2016). Students might even be encouraged to write an article for the campus newspaper.

Students who struggled with mental health issues while abroad (and even those who did not) may experience transition stress upon return. The best reentry support often comes from a student's social network; however, in some cases, professional counselors can help students unpack their experience in a deeper way. Psychology professors should pay attention to signs of distress and refer students to professional services when necessary. Addi-

tionally, psychology staff are often well qualified to provide feedback to study abroad offices seeking to improve their materials and processes connected to mental health.

Conclusions

Study abroad, once primarily limited to foreign languages, area studies, and art history, is becoming increasingly popular in the field of psychology. Still, psychology staff may be hesitant to direct a study abroad programme or encourage their students to study at a foreign university, given the logistical complexities and long-standing assumptions about the universality of psychological phenomena (Arnett, 2008). In this paper, we argued that the benefits of study abroad in psychology are often under-appreciated and presented strategies for directing study abroad programmes from pre-departure through post-return. We also presented best practices, tailored for psychology staff, for responding to students who experience an occurrence or exacerbation of mental health issues while abroad. Please see the appendix

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- for a summary of our key recommendations.
- Both the APA (2013) and BPS (Trapp et al., 2011) endorse sociocultural and international awareness as a primary goal for undergraduate education. The more we present our students a global psychological perspective that drives critical thinking and self-reflection, the better we prepare them for the future.

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Appendix: Summary of key recommendations

Pre-departure activities:

Advising students

1. Be knowledgeable of institutional policies, priorities, and constraints surrounding study abroad.
2. Know the types of programmes available to students and how to help students access resources to make study abroad possible.

Pre-departure activities:

Leading programmes

3. Ask students to complete and reflect upon measures of identity and intercultural competence, such as the Multi-group Ethnic Identity Measure (Phinney, 1992) and the Intercultural Development Inventory (Hammer, Bennett & Wiseman, 2013).
4. Obtain information about counselling and crisis services offered by the host school, the names and locations of nearby hospitals and mental health clinics, and the process of involuntarily hospitalising a student.
5. Include in pre-departure materials location-specific resources for obtaining mental health treatment.
6. Relay to students customs, laws, and penalties regarding alcohol and drug use, and consider requiring students to sign a drug and alcohol policy statement.

While abroad: Teaching

7. Structure courses to induce 'disorienting dilemmas,' which occur when recent experiences cannot be assimilated into one's present frame of reference.
8. Incorporate excursions to complement textbook and classroom learning and provide opportunities for students to apply knowledge to the real world.
9. Ask students to keep journals, give presentations, and/or write papers following excursions that force them to reflect upon pre-existing assumptions that were challenged.

While abroad: Handling mental health issues

10. Be familiar with common signs of psychological distress.
11. Demonstrate interest and concern for students' welfare while maintaining professional boundaries.
12. Aim to develop with struggling students a concrete plan, including a specific time for continuing the conversation.
13. When indicated, communicate why seeing a professional might be helpful and normalise the act of seeking help.
14. Provide emergency assistance to students in need by arranging telephone or video consultations with mental health practitioners back home, connecting students to local mental health clinics, or arranging for voluntary and, if necessary, involuntary hospitalisation.
15. Decide whether to send a student home in consultation with the student's local mental health practitioners and mental health practitioners back home, staff from the home university's counselling centre and study abroad office, and the student's parents, as appropriate.

Post-return: Facilitating integration

16. Steer students toward courses that specifically target those who have recently studied abroad as well as internationally and cross-culturally focused psychology courses.
17. Circulate within your department the names and areas of study of recent returnees so that staff teaching related courses may invite these students to give presentations on topics tied to the course content.
18. Encourage students to conduct independent research connected with their experience abroad.
19. Organise public symposia and poster sessions that enable students to present the results of research conducted abroad or a problem faced by the host country.
20. Recommend to students relevant co-curricular opportunities, such as international film series, language tables, and student and community organisations related to the host country.

International community-based service learning: Two comparative case studies of benefits and tensions

Jacqueline Akhurst

The drives to internationalise the UK curriculum and psychology students' desires to work in communities are brought together in this paper. International community-based learning (ICBL) links with many psychology students' motivations to make contributions to others; with the potential to enhance students' learning and cultural sensitivities. The recently-developed literature on international service learning highlights multiple benefits for students (and sometimes community hosts), as well as the potential tensions that need to be negotiated. With the intentions of creating global citizens interested in social justice, community-based engagement can sometimes reinforce preconceived notions. In addition, benefits to the host communities may only be short-term or questionable, with less research on community partners' perspectives than on those of the students.

This paper describes work with UK psychology students who undertook CBL in four different international settings (2008–2015); illustrating the complexities of setting up, facilitating and supporting students' CBL. It will then focus on two African settings (South Africa and Tanzania), with data drawn from group discussions with students, post-experience reflections, observations by the accompanying tutor and feedback from community partners. The findings show the richness of students' learning through CBL in both settings, including deeper insight into applications of psychological theory, the skills they enhanced and the emotional impacts of the work. Students reported changed perspectives, including greater awareness of social issues that impacted on their attitudes. The findings are explored and compared, using tools from Activity Theory, to illustrate points of confluence and tensions in such initiatives, when students, community partners and academic staff members interact. The discussion will reflect on what might guide the integration and optimising of ICBL to benefit both students and community partners.

Keywords: *Internationalising curriculum; international community-based learning; service-learning; HE case studies; UK students abroad.*

Introduction

IN THE UK, following wide consultation, discussions about the future of undergraduate psychology and its relevance to the 21st century (Trapp et al., 2011) emphasised the need to apply psychology to 'real life' situations, the value of placements and the need to enhance psychological literacy. In addition, psychology students are encouraged to understand the relevance of their studies to societal and global issues in this increasingly interconnected world (e.g. Trapp & Akhurst, 2011); Crowder (2014) describes developing students' global citizenship both to meet demands for international connectivity and

to enhance students' learning; and there is recent literature on the promotion of psychological literacy and citizenship (see Cranney & Dunn, 2011). In the past decade, there has been an increase in the literature on International Community-Based Learning (ICBL, termed 'international service learning' in the US), developments that are a potential means to respond to these calls for curriculum adjustments.

One of the potential career directions for Psychology students is the 'third sector' (e.g. non-governmental organisations, charities and social enterprises). The motivations

of many Psychology students are based on desires to help others (Bromnick & Horowitz, 2013; Goedeke & Gibson, 2011), and many students are already involved in voluntary community-based work, prompted by their desires to contribute to social justice. Whilst not as evident as in some of the US literature, there have been discussions about the promotion of social and civic responsibility of students (e.g. Annette, 2005). Community-based learning may thus be appealing to students and promote such engagement.

Drawing from US-based programmes, Bringle, Hatcher and Jones (2011) explore the unique pedagogy of international service learning, describing the value of intercultural learning along with the applications of disciplinary knowledge in the context of a community setting. Crabtree (2013) notes the 'coming of age' of this subfield of international education, where the benefits to students' learning have been identified and successful collaborations are informed by participatory development practices. He recommends attending deeply to partnerships, the preparation of participants, the need to plan for a time of cross-cultural adaptation, the value of structured reflection to enhance learning, and to consider outcomes for all parties.

Bringing together the findings from a number of studies, Sharp (2012) highlights the resultant 'positive impact on academic, civic, personal, social ethical and vocational development' (p.179) as effects of service learning. Nickols et al., (2013) draw on US students' work with communities in Tanzania, discussing the benefits to students of various forms of skill development including self- and group management, increased global awareness, personal development (for example self-confidence and competence) and the 'ability to analyse and appreciate local customs and cultural contexts' (p.99). They go further to emphasise the need to pay careful attention to building reciprocity with community participants through interactive and iterative processes. The term ICBL (rather than 'service learning') is preferred

in the context of this article, because it foregrounds the community-based partnerships that form the basis of the work, rather than keeping the focus only on what students provide or gain.

Perry and Katula (2001) note how experiential learning, particularly when it is based in the community, may be a powerful means to develop students' awareness of their responsibilities as citizens. A 'real world' placement context raises students' awareness of issues (social, political, economic, and historical) that they may otherwise choose to avoid or manage to ignore. Crowder (2014) takes this further by applying the concepts of 'transformational learning' (Mezirow, 2003) to ICBL. The lived reality of the community members with whom they interact leads to students needing to make sense of their experiences through considering the forces at play in that context. CBL often results in students having their ideas challenged, motivating them to find explanations to resolve the disequilibrium they experience (Mitchell & Humphries, 2007). For students to learn from their experiences they require opportunities to reflect on them and their assumptions, using conceptual frames of reference. Reflection is therefore a vital part of this process and has been recognised as a fundamentally important aspect of ICBL (see Pagano & Roselle, 2009). Part of the reflecting process incorporates the linking of psychological theory to experiences, testing its relevance and usefulness.

The above considerations inform the initiative to be described, where the ICBL was integrated into the second year psychology programme in a small UK university. The work evolved from the author's earlier involvement (1999–2002) in a South African programme to promote university community engagement. The Community Higher Education Service Partnership (CHESP) was a 'three-way partnership' (Mouton & Wildschut, 2005) designed to contribute to the 'reconstruction' of South African society through 'socially accountable models for higher education, research, community

service and development' (Joint Education Trust, 1999, p.2). Through CHESP, universities were encouraged to design activities and projects to enable students to work with community partners, through various activities, in order to generate new ideas and research evidence, to engage in knowledge exchange and to influence policy and practice, relevant to societal issues.

Developing the international community-based work placements

During the timespan of the work to be described here, all psychology students at York St John University (YSJU) participated in a three- to four-week work placement at the end of their second year, which was integrated into their 'Psychology of Work' module. In this module, students covered such topics as leadership, teamwork, conflict resolution, motivation, stress and coping, the recruitment process and employee development; all in relation to applications in the workplace. They were then each required to complete a placement; and their assessment task was to illustrate how they experienced one or more of the theoretical models as applied in that 'real life' setting. Students were required to reflect on these experiences in a variety of ways, for example by keeping a learning journal as a formative tool, and in the case of those doing the ICBL, meeting for group reflections periodically. This encouraged them to consider their skill development and increased understanding of the theories they had covered (for example theories related to motivation, social learning, social psychology, developmental practice). An earlier description of this work and the resultant student learning can be found in Akhurst and Mitchell (2012).

Prompted by a visit from a colleague from the US in 2007, the first ICBL placement of YSJU students occurred in 2008, when students accompanied the author on a three-week placement to Southern Mississippi, to work first for 10 days in a centre for children with learning difficulties (whilst they adjusted to the cultural differences of

life in the US) and then for 10 days on a volunteering programme to assist with reconstruction, following the devastating effects of Hurricane Katrina on the Gulf Coast. The success of this first ICBL initiative led to students lobbying for placements in Africa as well, and in 2009 the placement in KwaZulu Natal, South Africa (to be described further below) was established. During 2010, it was not possible to travel to South Africa because of changes in school terms, flights and accommodation limitations related to the football World Cup there, thus a further partnership in Tanzania was established. During 2011 and 2012, separate student groups travelled to South Africa and Tanzania. Then in 2014–2015, due to changes in staffing, students travelled to a different setting in South Africa to work with a volunteering organisation (VA32), situated in Cintsu in the Eastern Province. For each trip, a number of preparatory meetings were held with students prior to departure, to prepare them practically and to brief them on expectations and cultural awareness. Except for some funding that subsidised part of the students' travel in 2008 and 2009, students self-funded their travel and subsistence. The two case studies below draw from data collected during the 2009–2012 ICBL experiences of the students.

The context of case study 1: Partnership with the Sizabantwana teachers' cooperative in KwaZuluNatal, South Africa

This partnership evolved from earlier contact between the author and the teachers associated with the Sizabantwana ('help our children') cooperative in KwaZulu-Natal, South Africa (established in partnership with the University of KwaZulu-Natal, UKZN). This community psychology-based collective endeavour of teachers was formed and evolved to enable them to cope with and address some of the multiple psycho-social and educational challenges of working with children who are impacted by disadvantage, as the direct result of the discriminatory education system of the apartheid era (see

Mitchell & Jonker, 2013 for more details).

Over the course of 2009, 2011 and 2012, a total of 28 students participated in this CBSL placement. We planned for the UK students to work in conjunction with teachers from the collective who represented schools that were interested in hosting the students for a period of time. The briefing to the teachers was that the students were to be an extra 'pair of hands' in the school, to support the respective teachers and assist with a variety of tasks, including supporting learners' gardening (the schools often had feeding schemes to provide one school meal for the learners), decorating of classrooms and corridor walls, reading with small groups, singing and doing drama with learners, tutoring IT skills, helping with sporting activities and outings and spending time chatting to and listening to children's stories. Such activities offered the possibility of learners interacting with the UK students in English, since the teachers identified the importance of developing English literacy (the majority of learners spoke isiZulu as their first language). Before leaving, the UK students were briefed to prepare various games, songs and interactive stories for the schools, as well as to think about simple art and drama/movement activities that might be used.

Each day, the students would be met by a partner educator, taken to the school and needed to be able to respond to the requests for their assistance for the day. On arrival in the schools, they often attended morning assembly, and at times the learners would have planned some sort of welcoming activity or dance. The schools were very hospitable, and though they had been briefed not to treat the students any differently to a regular worker in the school, isiZulu hospitality meant that the students had various heart-warming stories of being provided with food, or participating in cultural activities like bead-work and other crafts.

The context of case study 2: Partnership with St John's University of Tanzania, Dodoma

Having launched the Africa placements in 2009, the football World Cup being hosted in South Africa at the same time of year in 2010 was an obstacle to continuing. A unique opportunity arose early in 2010, when YSJU was approached by a partner university in Africa, St John's University of Tanzania (SJUT). This university had been recently formed by the Anglican Church, and lacked many of the basic resources needed to run effectively. A delegation thus came to YSJU to explore matters related to quality assurance and governance. Already, following an earlier memorandum of understanding, YSJU was shipping out functional computers (no longer fast enough for increasing UK broadband speeds) as the basis for developing computer laboratories at SJUT. It was thus fortuitous that the delegation from SJUT were exploring how they might offer something reciprocally, and we enquired about the possibility of hosting our psychology students who were keen to do their CBSL in Africa. The SJUT delegation responded with enthusiasm, offering the students free accommodation on their campus. This led to 16 students visiting Dodoma, the capital city of Tanzania, to undertake their placements over the three years from 2010 to 2012.

Our partners at SJUT arranged for the students to work as teaching assistants in a nearby international school for their mornings, and then requested that they spend the afternoons with various student groups on SJUT campus, to lead discussions in English, which the Tanzanian students heard little of outside of lectures, so were in need of practice in conversational skills. In addition, at the time of our visits, groups of SJUT students were doing standardised English achievement tests, so the YSJU students were able to assist with the marking of these (amounting to hundreds of anonymised scripts being hand-marked by template), giving the students a sense of the ways in which standardised tests are marked and applying the related norms. Opportunities

for inter-cultural exchange were encouraged, so the UK students gained a sense of the circumstances under which the SJUT students lived and studied.

The rationale for this research

Given the well-documented benefits of international service-learning in the US literature, it is interesting to consider whether there are similar findings when UK psychology students undertake ICBL. In addition, there is still a limited evidence base that includes the perspectives of community partners; and in particular this article aims to juxtapose the perspectives of the students with those of the community partners, to highlight the confluences and tensions.

Methodology

This research received ethical approval from the YSJU committee and students agreed to participate in an evaluation of their experiences. In addition, ethical clearance was obtained from the UKZN ethics committee to enable us to collect data from our community partners in that setting.

Thematic analysis (Braun & Clarke, 2006) was chosen to guide data collection and analysis. The findings are drawn from focus group interviews of students during the course of their ICBL as well as emailed responses from students after their return to the UK. The focus of the enquiry was on students' motivations for deciding to do their placements in Africa, their experiences of the adjustments and their encounters whilst away, including their perceptions of the ways in which their experiences impacted on their learning. These data were transcribed and analysed by using thematic analysis and constant comparative methods. The emergent themes were checked with a second reader and then synthesised to provide findings about the benefits and challenges for students, as well as the nature of their learning in both sites.

Following the example of McMillan (2009), observations about the process have then been integrated into an Activity

Theory (AT) framework (Engeström, 1987), to enable consideration of some of the key aspects and dynamics. AT developed from the work of Leont'ev, influenced by his work with Vygotsky (Russell, 2004), who was concerned that dominant modes of psychological investigation focussed on the individual level (e.g. behaviourist notions of stimulus and response). Vygotsky emphasised the origin of activities in culturally constructed interpersonal interactions; and was more interested in the way that people respond to stimuli through the tools they use in activities (Cole, 1996). AT therefore pays attention to 'everyday life events', the ways people interact over time, using 'tools' (Russell, 2004), and enables the exploration of contextual factors. Engeström (1987) proposed the following diagrammatic representation, to enable the analysis of transactions, activities and practice, rather than speculations about intra-individual processes (Engeström, 2005). In the diagram, the object-oriented productive aspect (in the upper sector) is distinguished from the person-oriented communicative aspect. The resultant activity system is shown in Figure 1.

The upper part of the diagram contains the triangle illustrating the 'tool(s)' mediating between subject and object, leading to some kind of 'production'. This is expanded on the right, including the 'outcome' of the activity. Further interconnected triangles in the lower 'communicative' part of the diagram make links between other components in any activity: the 'community' (those sharing a common purpose), the 'rules' (the norms or conventions determining actions), and the 'division of labour' (different activities undertaken by members of the community). This enables an analysis of the interactions between aspects of activities, from different participants' perspectives. Russell (2004) notes that this works like different lenses, allowing 'us to train our gaze in different directions and with different levels of "magnification"...' (p.312). Following the descriptive findings below, AT will be used to illustrate the interactive nature of ICBL (from students', and partners' perspectives).

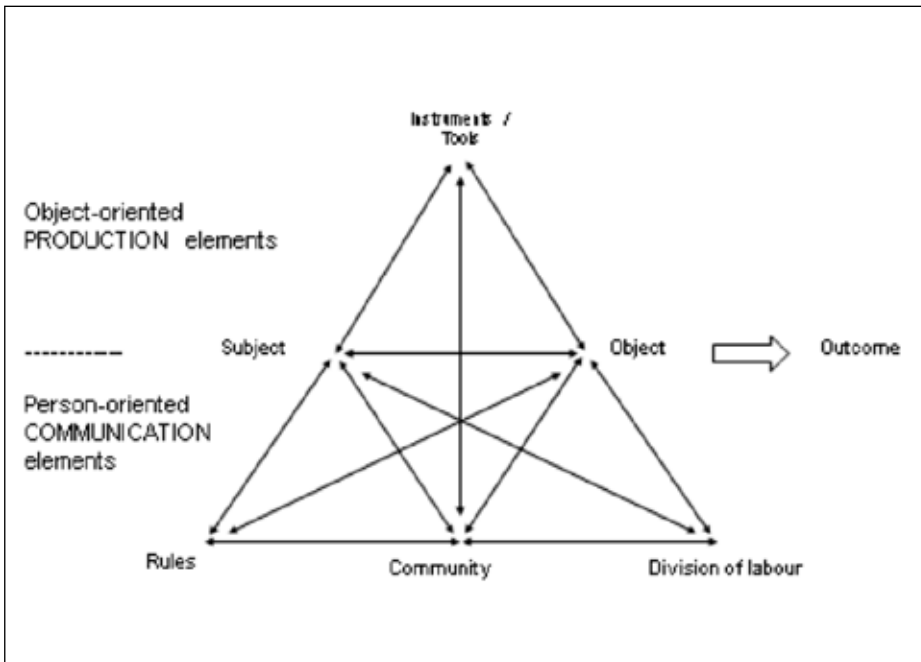


Figure 1: Engeström's (1987) Activity Theory model

Findings

The findings to be presented first below are selected from the data collected, and focus on students' experiences and learning. Students' verbatim words are in italics, with the relevant placement location noted as (SA) or (TZ) after.

The students reflected on adjusting to the context in Africa:

- ... *the accommodation was an unexpected challenge. I was prepared for basic standards but it's another thing to have to live like that ... but due to the support of the group, we adapted* (TZ).
- *I didn't realise how basic the majority of Tanzanians lived i.e. their houses, the markets. I was expecting the country to be more developed than it is* (TZ).
- *It's one thing to see it on TV but it's another to actually encounter it in person ...* (SA).
- *return I learnt such a lot from them in every way possible ...* (SA).
- *I was completely surprised by the children's reaction to us ... always wanting to spend time with us.*
- *... the reality of the HIV and AIDS crisis.*
- *... I learnt a lot about the disease, which before going I did not know about* (SA).
- *... when put in the 'deep end' (in front of a class who understand very little English), I found myself in a state of panic. However I did the best I could and was proud of my efforts ...* (SA).
- *you realise you get more confidence with experience ... like a practical thing rather than just being in a lecture ... it was that kind of thinking on your feet* (TZ).

In relation to applying themselves to the work, some of their comments were:

- *I made sure that I applied myself 100 per cent to everything that was required of me. In*

One of the dominant themes to emerge related to intercultural aspects:

- *With respect to being in another country, where people speak a different language and have a completely different way of life, this was not an issue* (TZ).

- *To be honest I did not know what to expect, but came back completely amazed by the country and its people (SA).*
- *... even adapting to the cultures ... not the most difficult but like that was the biggest change (SA).*
- *... the language barrier provided a huge challenge, which was often frustrating ... sometimes led to misunderstanding. I feel I managed this ... by keeping my English simple and using visual aids if necessary (SA).*
- *... what we weren't aware of is that each area of South Africa has a different tribal group and language ... a couple of weeks ago I just thought, everyone all over South Africa like spoke Zulu (SA).*
- *Nearly everybody I met was so well-mannered and polite. I felt very safe with them and found them to be lovely caring people (TZ).*
- *I was delighted by the friendly nature of everybody I met ... everybody was always happy to help and incredibly kind (SA).*
- *... people are very different in the way they deal with situations ... which can take a lot of patience.*
- *At times it is difficult to work as part of a team ... there are conflicting ideas ... (TZ).*
- *... it is sometimes difficult to get along all the time. However, I think that we did a good job of compromising and supporting each other (SA).*

Each of the students also gave examples of learning about themselves:

- *My confidence also grew as a result ... the only way I was going to get the best ... was to live the experience wholly and fully, which meant changing some parts of me and just embracing it (SA).*
- *I learnt I can overcome my fears to some extent ... this proved I can overcome other obstacles in my life if I just persevere and keep telling myself I can do it (TZ).*
- *... every situation's the way you act in them ... you think 'oh! I can actually deal with that' (SA).*
- *It is difficult for me to understand just how appreciative everybody was for our efforts ... I feel the skills and sense of self that I gained ... is something that I cannot express the importance of (TZ).*
- *... I was observing, the teacher gave a lesson on sexual abuse and although she did it in a tactful and respectful way, the conversations she had with the children again highlighted how it can be a problem (SA).*
- *... no matter how much you prepare it's still a shock when you get here and you see it um, in real life (SA).*
- *... how do you function in such a tiny house? Like some of the stuff is still quite shocking (TZ).*
- *The divide between the rich and the poor is much greater than I imagined, and likewise the divide between the whites and the blacks is still evident... I felt distressed seeing the poverty that some people still have to live in ... it is very difficult to make the difference that you want to (SA).*
- *I found myself distressed about leaving both the school and the new friends I had made ... (TZ).*

Because they lived together in closer proximity (e.g. sharing rooms) and for a more extended time than in the UK, they needed to find ways to manage the group dynamics:

Many reported the emotional impacts of some of their experiences:

- *... just knowing what to say without like letting them down (mmm), feeling as if no one can help them and ... it's to be able to listen to offer, some sort of hope but-and not to feel as if you are you can't really offer anything (SA).*

Two of the students reflected on their renewed respect for the capacities of the teachers they encountered:

- *you think wow, how are you coping with that knowledge, you just get on with your everyday life so they obviously have, a lot of strength and a lot of coping skills, determination; but they don't see it, but they don't recognise it (SA).*

Finally, when asked for enduring thoughts, some examples were:

- *You definitely appreciate what you have ... like massively (TZ).*
- *... just be open and willing to adapt to the lifestyle and the community and you will not be disappointed (TZ).*
- *... embrace the experience, forget about any preconceived ideas you may have, make it your own personal, unique experience and you will receive so much in return (SA).*

Drawing from both the students' reflections and the community partners' feedback for case study 1, the following diagram (Figure 2) juxtaposes some of the key aspects of students' experiences with those of the community partner shown in italics, in order to both condense the findings from the students' reflections and to compare the different perspectives.

One of the particular challenges for students working with some of the less-experienced teachers in the Sizabantwana collective was that the teachers expected that the students would have greater knowledge of psychological problems and potential solutions for these. Although teachers had been briefed that these students were still undergraduates, some might have ascribed them with more expertise than was the reality, leading the students to feel unable to offer assistance. Thus, the diagram indicates where there were tensions at times, between students' preparation and expectations of what they would do – i.e. the 'tools' – they expected to assist, but were at times asked to lead activities, and even teach classes when a teacher was absent. This led to challenges both in the 'rules of engagement' (in the lower left of the diagram) and in the 'division of labour' (lower right). However, in final debriefing discussions with

the Sizabantwana teachers, they realised that they perhaps were asking too much of the students in some of the schools. An additional unexpected learning for us from those debriefings was that the teachers gained status in their schools and communities as an outcome of having successfully recruited white students from the UK to visit and to spend time with learners: this illustrates the power differentials and issues of privileging of 'white' knowledge in these still disadvantaged communities.

For case study 2 (Figure 3), the differences in the position of the SJUT host partners becomes evident, perhaps since they invited us to visit and had more agency in planning the overall nature of the UK students' activities. There was no evidence of the tensions found in the South African case study, maybe also reflecting the very different context and more open-ended exploratory position of our partners.

In the Tanzanian context then, there was a better 'meshing' of expectations and delivery of 'service' by the students. For the students, therefore the biggest challenges related to adjusting to and coping with living at a much more 'basic' level than they were familiar with and working in much less well-resourced settings. This led to students expressing both respect for their hosts' coping abilities as well as becoming far more aware of the constraints of a developing world context.

Discussion

ICBL supports students' desires to become involved in applications of their psychology, and their aspirations to make some sort of 'difference' through their engagement. There is no doubt that their intercultural learnings are foregrounded in the students' accounts. Mitchell and Humphries (2007) note the potential for both students and community members to benefit in many diverse ways from their partnerships. The students were able to further develop their communication and relational skills through their ICBL placements.

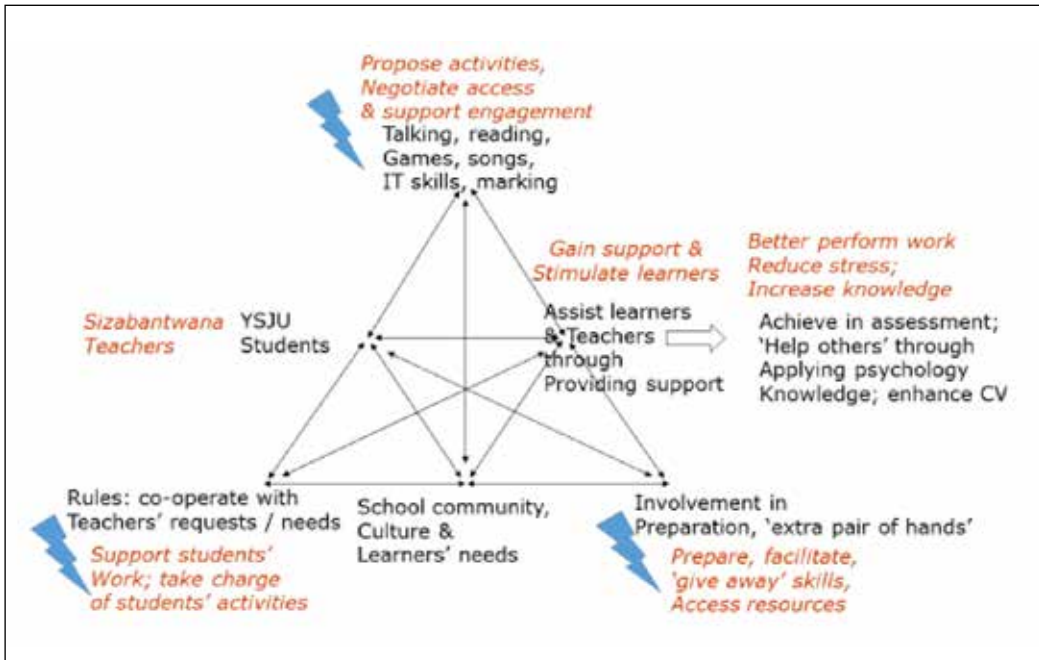


Figure 2: Key aspects of activities of students and Sizabantwana teachers; case study 1

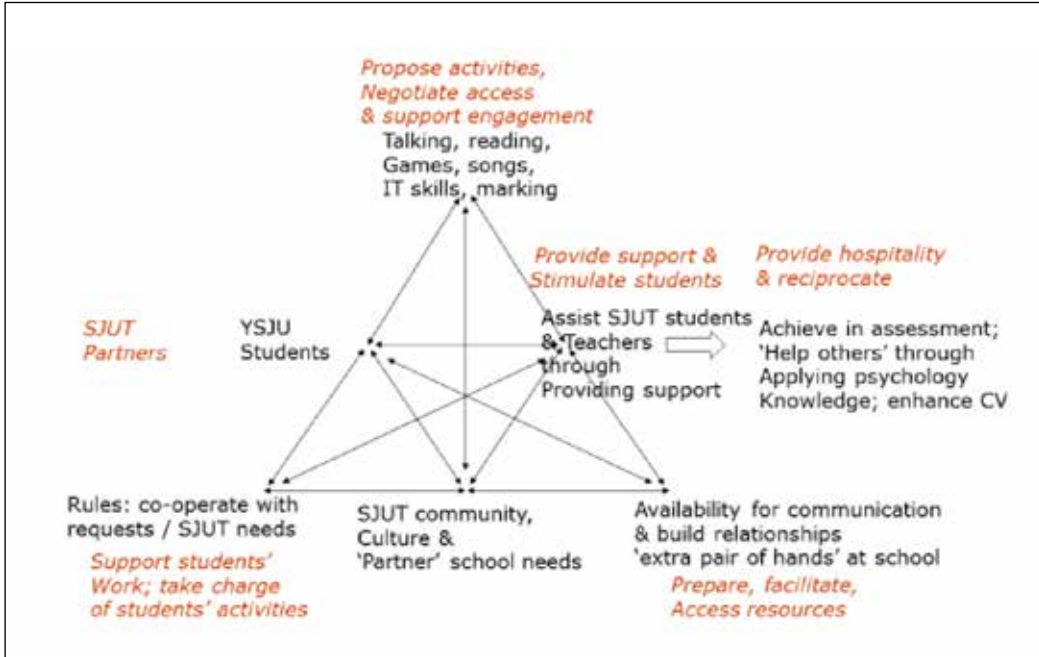


Figure 3: Key aspects of activities of students and SJUT partners; case study 2

Although the theoretical applications of psychology are not immediately evident in the accounts above, students returned to the UK feeling very motivated to try and make a difference and to find further psychological solutions to what they had encountered. This was clearly appropriate, since they would be entering their third year of study being able to draw from their placements. Some felt that they had needed more 'psychological literacy' (Trapp & Akhurst, 2011) in the setting and that their skills in translating their learning into practical applications needed further development.

The findings demonstrate that ICBL may have impacts on students well beyond those hoped for from a workplace experience. Since this research did not incorporate the material generated in the students' written assignments, the students' responses reported here were more focused on the overall impacts of the phenomena. It would appear that extending the UK evidence-base and understanding of the impact of these activities through longer term studies is now required, to gain a richer sense of the effects on students' career planning, career-related thinking and employability.

The potential emotional impact of their exposure to people's difficult life circumstances must also be noted. This emphasises the need for opportunities for reflection and support: hence the need for carefully structured debriefings with tutors at various stages, to build in the pedagogic benefits and thus to optimise learning. In addition such conversations to raise self- and other-awareness might better 'leverage' the opportunities to highlight issues around social power and privilege, as well as to challenge stereotypes and to promote considerations of social justice (Mitchell, 2008).

Many authors have noted the difficulty of incorporating the 'voices' of the community partners in much more depth (e.g. Crabtree, 2013; Nickols et al., 2013). Mitchell and Rautenbach (2005) caution against programmes that benefit mainly university students, where the community partners are

not accorded the same power as university tutors. This was illustrated in the comparative differences between the two case studies: although we worked carefully in collaboration with both sets of partners, it was clear that some of the teachers in case study 1 did not fully understand the role of the students and accorded them too much expertise. In case study 2, the partners appeared to be more realistic about what the students could do; thus there were fewer tensions around expectations. Designing and implementing CBL programmes requires great sensitivity to and respect for the work of partners, to guard against either cultural voyeurism or the exploitation of the goodwill and hospitality of people.

Nickols et al. (2013) also describe the potential impacts of ICBL on accompanying staff members. Although this has not been discussed in the material above, there are important considerations to bear in mind, including the experience of fatigue and similar anxieties as the students when travelling abroad. Stresses can be ameliorated through the collegial relationships with community partners, so it is important to consider these support systems, especially if there are any emergencies or unexpected situations. Finally, living and working in much closer proximity to students may provide unexpected challenges, very different to campus-based teaching.

To conclude, institutional commitment to this kind of learning is an important consideration. McMillan (2009) notes how this is 'boundary work' at the intersection of higher education and broader societal groups. There can be great benefits to the institution, in illustrating its capacity to enable students to prepare to be global citizens through such programmes and providing unique selling points in today's competitive environment. However, this comes at some conceptual, financial and staff time-related costs that need to be factored in. Students' experiences are optimised when they are well supported, as noted in the discussions of reflective practice as central to deeper learning. Gelmon et al.

(2004) highlight the importance of institutional support and the need for this to be carefully considered to enable programmes to be well designed and carried through, in order that community partners' expectations are met and that they benefit as much as the students do from ICBL.

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Internationalisation at home: Intercultural learning for social psychology students

Patricia M. Brown, Anita S. Mak & James T. Neill

An internationalised curriculum could better prepare graduates for globalising and increasingly culturally diverse workplaces. There is a need to provide students with intercultural learning opportunities at home because many students do not have access to study abroad opportunities. This paper describes curriculum changes designed to enhance students' intercultural learning in a third year social psychology course at an Australian university. Two novel classroom activities based on the alliance building and cultural mapping methods of the Excellence in Cultural Experiential Learning and Leadership (EXCELL) programme were used. Students reported increased intercultural learning in this course, especially regarding awareness and knowledge, compared to another third year psychology course they participated in that did not include such activities. Suggestions for embedding intercultural learning throughout the psychology curricula are discussed along with the challenges in sustaining such curriculum changes.

Keywords: Curriculum design; domestic students; globalisation; intercultural learning; internationalisation; psychology teaching; social psychology.

Internationalisation at home: Intercultural learning for social psychology students

THERE IS growing recognition of the need to prepare domestic psychology graduates for employment in local, national, and global workplaces that are increasingly culturally diverse (Cranney & Dunn, 2011; Trapp et al., 2011). In response to increased globalisation, it has been argued that graduate attributes of psychology students should include emphases on global citizenship and employability (Cranney, Botwood & Morris, 2012). As a result, many universities are seeking to internationalise student experiences through student exchange opportunities and development of internationalised curricula (Hudzik, 2011; Leask, 2008; Mak & Kennedy, 2012). However, given not all students have opportunities for overseas exchange, there is a need for 'internationalisation at home' strategies that facilitate domestic (or home) students' development of intercultural understanding and skills without the need for international travel experiences (Leask, 2008; Mak & Barker, 2013).

Psychology boards and accreditation

councils have argued for the importance of designing and implementing psychology curricula that embrace cultural diversity in work settings (American Psychological Association: APA, 2013; Australian Psychology Accreditation Council: APAC, 2010) and students have indicated an awareness of the need for a curriculum that has a global focus (Green, 2005; Littleford, 2013). However, while a general consensus exists among industry, accreditation bodies, universities, and students regarding the need to internationalise higher education via an internationalised curriculum, there is a paucity of theory-driven and evidence-based literature on 'how to' embed intercultural competence in the mainstream curriculum (Freeman et al., 2009). This is particularly challenging in traditionally American- and Euro-centric psychology courses, which, in Australia, tend to attract predominantly domestic students (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2011). On the other hand, the subject matter of psychology fields such as social psychology, includes group processes, self-concept formation, social identity, social perception, prosocial behaviour,

and intergroup relations; these content areas naturally lend themselves to discussion and reflections around intercultural learning and development of intercultural competence. Applied social psychology has also been the intellectual home of theory and research on acculturation, stereotypes and intergroup prejudice, which are highly relevant to understanding the enablers and inhibitors of intercultural competence development. Thus there are rich opportunities to develop and embed intercultural awareness and competence within the social psychology curriculum. This paper discusses the challenges to providing an internationalised experience to domestic psychology students and describes curriculum changes in a social psychology course aimed at increasing students' intercultural learning.

The past decade has seen rapid growth in tertiary international student enrolments worldwide (Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development: OECD, 2015) with Australia, the UK and the US representing the top three destinations for tertiary international students. However, much smaller numbers of students from these countries study abroad (United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation: UNESCO, 2014). One traditional way of internationalising students' university experience has been to encourage participation in study abroad programs. However, such programmes are not viable for all students and are often taken up by those from more socially advantaged backgrounds (Brooks & Waters, 2011). Internationalisation at home means that 'home students are able to receive (and should be entitled to expect) an international higher education experience despite their own lack of mobility' (Harrison, 2015, p.414). Internationalisation at home has three main components: 'diversity as a resource', 'a culturally sensitive pedagogy' and 'an internationalised curriculum' (Harrison, 2015; see also Crowther et al., 2003). Diversity as a resource involves meaningful interaction between domestic and international students. A culturally sensitive

pedagogy means that university programmes should reflect and make use of the resources of a diverse student body (Harrison, 2015). However, research has shown low levels of interaction between domestic and international students in English-speaking host countries including Australia (Mak, Brown & Wadey, 2014; Volet & Ang, 2012), the US (Williams & Johnson, 2011), and England (Harrison & Peacock, 2010) with potential barriers to intercultural contact and friendships including language and intergroup anxiety. Likewise, low numbers of international students in psychology courses present a challenge to effectively teach these domestic psychology students about cultural diversity and globalisation 'at home' and to prepare them to operate in a multicultural society.

The other main component of internationalisation at home is the integration of knowledge and perspectives from a wide range of cultures into the formal curriculum; this component also emphasises development of personal competencies in students that enables them to apply this knowledge across cultural boundaries and to develop positive intercultural relationships (Harrison, 2015). In reviewing the internationalisation of the psychology curriculum in the US, Leong, Leach and Malikiosi-Loizos (2012) identified the enhancement of cross-cultural competence, arguably the most important outcome of an internationalised curriculum, as a major challenge that is difficult to define and even more difficult to teach and assess. In Australia, Zimitat (2005) found that less than half of the students they surveyed believed that their studies were preparing them to work effectively overseas. Students from health and science faculties had less positive perceptions in this respect than those in arts and education, or business and law.

Given the challenges to internationalisation outlined above, how can students' intercultural learning be enhanced in the domestic classroom context? A qualitative study by King, Perez and Shim (2013) in the

US interviewed college students regarding institutional practices and students' experiences with respect to the student outcome of intercultural effectiveness. Three main themes were identified. First, intercultural learning occurs when students have direct encounters with others' experiences. Second, feeling safe to explore cultural differences is a key dimension of intercultural learning. Third, students use diverse approaches to cultural learning including listening to, and observing, others, engaging in personal reflections, exploring personal identity, and empathising with others.

In a critical review of contemporary practice and research in internationalisation within business education, UK-based Caruana and Ploner (2012) highlighted the importance of developing academic staff's skills in managing increasing diversity in the student population and in engaging students in experiential learning for internationalising their outlooks. In Australian business education, Freeman et al. (2009) argued that cognitive understanding alone is insufficient to bring about intercultural learning in either teachers or their students, and that there is a lack of literature on the 'how to' of embedding intercultural competence development. Both groups of scholars, along with New Zealand-based Ward (2006), a leading social psychology researcher best known for her work on acculturation, recommend the use of existing evidence-based intercultural training resources, such as the EXCELL (Excellence in Cultural Experiential Learning and Leadership) programme, to upskill academic staff to be effective intercultural educators.

EXCELL, co-developed by four applied psychologists in Australia and Canada, is an intercultural social skills training programme that builds on adult learning paradigms and employs an experiential learning approach to help individuals develop key generic social competencies for accessing a new culture and negotiating intercultural encounters (Mak et al., 1998; Mak et al., 1999). Originally developed as

a counselling group/training programme to facilitate the cross-cultural adjustment of international students and other cultural sojourners (Mak, 2011), the EXCELL model has been successfully integrated into tertiary education curricula to enhance students' cross-cultural competencies (Ho, Holmes & Cooper, 2004; Mak et al., 1999; Mak & Buckingham, 2007). The generic EXCELL social competencies (e.g. seeking help, making social contact) are likely to be vital for effective communication and working with cultural others in education in diverse disciplines and employment in different sectors (Barker & Mak, 2013).

The complete EXCELL programme requires four to six weekly sessions of two to three hours and involves teaching six key sociocultural competencies in five stages: Alliance Building; Cultural Mapping, Cultural Coaching, Contracting, and Transfer to Real Life (for details see Westwood et al., 2000). This amount of investment of class time is often impractical, and not justifiable where the purpose is to embed intercultural competence development in mainstream curricula. In a recent innovation in internationalising business curricula, Mak and Kennedy (2012) successfully trialled using only the alliance building and cultural mapping components of the EXCELL programme, to support individual academics to make curricular changes aimed at developing students' cultural awareness and intercultural skills. The goal of the alliance building stage is to build trust within a group while validating group members' original cultural background. If done successfully, it should foster participation and inclusion in the group. Cultural mapping is a schematic framework for making explicit a sequence of micro-verbal and non-verbal behaviours involved in intercultural interactions (Mak et al., 1998; Westwood et al., 2000). For example, group members could develop a 'map' outlining the steps involved in refusing a request in another culture, identifying the values and behaviours underlying this encounter. Cultural mapping involves breaking a dyadic interaction into four

stages (Approach, Bridging, Commenting and Departing/Developing or ABCD), identifying verbal and non-verbal behaviours at each stage and underlying values. Examples of EXCELL cultural maps and further details regarding the ABCD stages are available from <https://sites.google.com/site/internationalisationathome/professional-development>

Recently, teachers within our psychology department have adapted alliance building and cultural mapping methods in order to teach cultural competencies to domestic psychology students with some initial evidence of its effectiveness (Knott, Mak & Neill, 2013; Mak, 2012). For example, Mak (2012) introduced cultural mapping exercises into the curriculum of an honours level health psychology course, in the contexts of stress reduction and patient-practitioner communication. Students mapped two challenging social scenarios involving making social contact and refusing a request, initially from the perspective of a cultural newcomer having to initiate conversation in a social gathering and to refuse a work supervisor's request to work overtime (see Mak, 2012, for more detailed description of this activity). An evaluation of the course indicated that students agreed that they had gained greater awareness of cultural diversity and the role of culture in their chosen field of study. Knott et al. (2013) utilised both alliance building and cultural mapping activities in an introductory psychology course. At an end-of-semester survey, students reported enhanced cultural competence, particularly in relation to enjoying interaction with people from different cultures, being more conscious of and more prepared to adjust cultural knowledge used when interacting with cultural others, and gaining awareness of the role of culture in their chosen field of study.

While both these studies provide promising initial evidence of the effectiveness of EXCELL-based learning activities, they were limited in scope. Mak's (2012) study involved a small sample ($N=19$) of motivated students in an selective Honours course and

only implemented cultural mapping. Knott et al.'s study (2013) did not have a comparison group against which to assess the effectiveness of the curriculum changes.

This paper describes curriculum changes which built upon these previous studies and were designed to increase intercultural learning in a third year, capstone undergraduate social psychology course. Key topics in social psychology, such as self-concept formation, group identity, and helping behaviour, are strongly underpinned by cultural factors. Therefore, the study of social psychology provides a useful platform for intercultural learning within the context of its core curriculum. However, social psychology has traditionally been dominated by theories and research from the US and, to a lesser extent, Europe (Lee, Moghaddam & Harré, 2012). An inspection of many leading social psychology textbooks indicates that cultural social psychology or cross-cultural perspectives are increasingly included; however, this material is often included in a separate chapter (commonly the last one) rather than being embedded throughout the curriculum. In this paper, we describe two tutorial activities, based on alliance building and cultural mapping, that were designed to increase intercultural awareness, skills and learning in students in a final year social psychology course, and we report an initial evaluation of the effectiveness of these interventions.

Method

Participants

Participants were 51 students (80 per cent female) who were enrolled in a final year social psychology undergraduate course at an Australian university. The majority of students undertaking this course were in the final semester of their degree and about to either enter the workforce or pursue further professional training in psychology. Forty-eight were domestic students and three were international students. Of the domestic students, 77 per cent were Australian-born and 83 per cent indicated their ethnicity as

Anglo-Australian or European. Participants' ages ranged from 20 to 59 years ($M=27.5$, $SD=10.0$). The study received institutional ethics approval.

Tutorial activities for intercultural learning

This study incorporated the first two stages of the EXCELL programme for teaching sociocultural competencies (Mak et al., 1998; Westwood et al., 2000), namely, alliance building and cultural mapping, into the curriculum of the social psychology course. The curriculum changes also reflected the themes identified in the research by King et al. (2013); specifically, the activities involved direct encounters with others' experiences, a safe environment in which to explore intercultural differences, and approaches to cultural learning which involved listening to others, exploring personal identity, personal reflections and empathy.

Alliance Building: Alliance Building involves strategies designed to encourage sharing within a group while validating the cultural backgrounds of the group members (Mak et al., 1998). We aimed to increase students' awareness of culture, to validate students' own cultural background and encourage communication within the group by building a safe environment where students could listen and observe, directly encounter others' experiences and explore personal identity. In the introductory tutorial, students shared the 'story' of their name. In pairs, students interviewed each other regarding their names, what they meant and their history, with an emphasis on any cultural influences or meanings. Students then introduced their partner to the rest of the group and told the story of their name. Following this, students created 'mind maps' which represented their own self-schemas (Markus & Kitayama, 2010) and discussed the cultural influences on the development of their self-concept and identity. A week after participating in this activity, students submitted a short learning journal entry reflecting upon what they had learnt through this tutorial.

Cultural Mapping: A tutorial four weeks after the alliance building exercise introduced the process of cultural mapping with the aim of developing knowledge and experiential skills for effective behaviours in cross-cultural contexts, specifically with reference to help-seeking behaviour. Students engaged in mapping the process of requesting help. Tutors modelled the EXCELL cultural mapping ABCD stages using a scenario of initiating conversation at a social gathering. Then, in groups of four, students were given two scenarios; one in which they imagined being an international student in Australia asking for help in locating a reference in the library, and one where they imagined themselves being in another country or culture and requesting help to find accommodation. Students identified both verbal and non-verbal behaviours at each stage of the interaction (ABCD) along with accompanying underlying cultural values. Participants had the opportunity to listen and observe, directly encounter others' experiences and to empathise with others (by engaging in perspective taking). To enhance the experiential components of the learning, students then role-played the stages of the scenario for another group. Again, a week after participating in this activity, students submitted a short learning journal entry reflecting upon what they had learnt in this tutorial. Instructions used for both tutorial activities and templates for the cultural mapping exercise are available from: www.sites.google.com/site/internationalisationathome/home/curriculum-innovations

Measures

During their final tutorial for this course, 51 students completed a 13-item measure of intercultural learning adapted from MacNab and Worthley (2012) and Mak (2012). The items measured students' perceptions of the development of their knowledge, skills and attitudes in intercultural relations through the social psychology course (see Table 1 for items). Of these 51 students, 37 were also

Table 1: Mean levels of agreement and percentage of participants agreeing with intercultural learning items for social psychology (N=48) and motivation and emotion (N=37)

	Soc. Psych.		M & E	
	%	M (SD)	%	M (SD)
I have developed a better understanding of cross-cultural interpersonal skills.	85.0	1.81 (0.73)	27.8	3.31 (1.19)
I have developed a greater awareness of cultural diversity.	83.3	1.83 (0.81)	25.0	3.28 (1.16)
I have gained awareness of the role of culture in my chosen field of study.	81.3	1.85 (0.88)	33.3	3.17 (1.25)
I am now more conscious of the cultural knowledge I use when interacting with people with different cultural backgrounds.	79.2	1.92 (0.92)	19.4	3.39 (1.08)
I enjoy interaction with people from different cultures.	79.2	1.94 (0.98)	41.7	2.97 (1.44)
I am now more conscious of the cultural knowledge I apply to cross-cultural interactions.	75.0	1.94 (0.95)	19.4	3.39 (1.15)
I am better prepared to adjust my cultural knowledge as I interact with people from an unfamiliar culture.	75.0	2.00 (0.88)	17.1	3.43 (1.09)
I have become more ready to make social contact with culturally different others.	60.4	2.35 (0.89)	27.8	3.31 (1.24)
I have become more comfortable participating in multicultural groups.	60.4	2.35 (0.89)	30.6	3.25 (1.25)
I am now better equipped to enjoy living in cultures that are unfamiliar to me.	52.1	2.46 (0.97)	16.7	3.50 (1.00)
I am now more confident that I could socialise with locals in a culture that is unfamiliar.	50.0	2.44 (0.90)	8.6	3.54 (0.98)
I am now more certain that I could deal better with adjusting to a culture that is new to me.	47.9	2.50 (0.88)	16.7	3.50 (1.13)
I have become more confident with communicating with people from culturally different backgrounds.	45.8	2.52 (0.97)	19.4	3.50 (1.16)

Note. Percentages are those who indicated Agree or Strongly Agree with items. Lower mean scores indicate greater agreement with items. Soc. Psych. = Social Psychology, M & E = Motivation and Emotion.

enrolled in another third year psychology course (motivation and emotion). These 37 students completed the same items with respect to their learning in the motivation and emotion course, allowing within-group comparisons to be made. Responses to the items were made on five-point scale (1=strongly agree, 2=agree, 3=neutral, 4=disagree, 5=strongly disagree). Scores were averaged across items to form a reliable index of intercultural learning (Cronbach's $\alpha=.93$), with lower scores indicating higher perceived levels of learning.

In addition, there was an open-ended ques-

tion that asked students to indicate ways in which they could apply the learning of intercultural competencies to their profession.

Results

Of the 51 students who completed the survey with respect to the social psychology course, data were analysed for 48 who were domestic students. Of these 48, there were 37 students who also completed the items with respect to another third year course (motivation and emotion). Table 1 presents levels of agreement with each survey item with respect to both courses. Mean levels of intercultural

learning in the social psychology course ($M=2.15$, $SD=.66$) were significantly different to the neutral mid-point (3) of the scale (one-sample $t(47)=-9.01$, $p<.001$, 95 per cent CI of difference $[-1.04, -.66]$), indicating that the students believed intercultural learning had occurred. In addition, students rated their intercultural learning as significantly greater in social psychology ($M=2.20$, $SD=0.70$) than motivation and emotion ($M=3.35$, $SD=1.07$), paired samples $t(35)=-6.46$, $p<.001$), a large effect (Cohen's $d=-1.27$).

Nineteen valid responses were received from domestic students in response to the question regarding ways in which they could apply the learning of intercultural competencies to their profession. The majority (63 per cent) of responses indicated an increase in awareness and understanding of cultural differences had occurred. For example, one student commented that: 'It has made me aware of multiculturalism and to be accepting and equal to all cultures.' Another student wrote: 'What I have learnt is already impacting my profession. I feel I have always been considerate and understanding, however now I have a greater understanding or consideration of why people may behave differently and have greater respect for these differences. I also understand that I am as equally bound by my cultural upbringing.' Some participants also described an increased awareness of similarities. For example, a student commented: 'I've learnt that there are a lot of similarities and differences between cultures and learnt to embrace them.'

Almost half of the responses (47 per cent) also referred to an increase in skills that could be applied in the workplace, such as patience, empathy, knowledge and acceptance. For example, one response stated: 'In whatever place of employment there are going to be multicultural employees, clients etc., that need empathy – this unit has dealt with this, ultimately I feel equipped to deal with this.' Another student said they had learnt about: 'Being more mindful of cross-cultural difficulties such as language barriers. Being more patient with people from different cultures.'

Most (89 per cent) of the open-ended responses indicated positive perceptions of the cultural learning activities, with only 11 per cent indicating a neutral evaluation. These two responses were by students who had either already engaged in student exchange ('The learning about intercultural competence would have been helpful knowledge prior to my year abroad, but since I've already experienced a lot of the things we discussed in tutorials it was more a theoretical understanding to my experience.') or had experience with others from varied cultural backgrounds ('This unit has not really changed me as there isn't [sic] a lot of international students in my class. I work with people from different backgrounds and I treat them the way I always have.'). This suggests that these types of activities may be most beneficial to those students who do not have other opportunities for intercultural contact.

Discussion

This paper describes activities introduced into the curriculum of a third year undergraduate social psychology course with the aim of enhancing intercultural awareness and competencies. The alliance building and cultural mapping activities were based on components of the EXCELL programme and previous applications in introductory and fourth year honours level psychology courses within the same psychology department (Knott et al., 2013; Mak, 2012). Students' intercultural learning in the current study was enhanced via participation in this course and was significantly greater than in a comparable course that did not target intercultural learning. The activities were especially successful in raising cultural awareness and knowledge, but less so in developing cross-cultural skills. Similarly responses to the open-ended question indicated increases in awareness of cultural differences and, to a lesser extent, an increase in intercultural competencies and skills.

The alliance building activity was closely tied to an exploration of self-concept and cultural identity which are key topics in the undergraduate social psychology curriculum.

This activity allowed students to think about 'who they are' and consider the influence of cultural factors on the development of their self-concept and social identity. Some students indicated that they had not previously given much thought to their cultural background while others told rich stories regarding the origins and cultural significance of their names. The exercise allowed students to become aware of the cultural diversity in their class (which, at face value, may have appeared quite culturally homogenous). The activity also allowed students to have encounters with others' experiences, to develop a safe environment to explore cultural differences, to build trust and to explore personal identity (as per King et al., 2013).

The cultural mapping exercise targeted helping behaviour, another key component of the social psychology curriculum, in cross-cultural contexts. This exercise allowed students to experience perspective taking and empathy, other variables identified as important for intercultural learning (King et al., 2013). This exercise is more skills-based and encourages experiential learning. The completion of learning journals following each of the activities allowed for personal reflection, which has been identified as important in the development of cultural competencies (Garvey, 2007) and intercultural learning (King et al., 2013)

The activities described in this paper represent an innovative and practical approach to promoting internationalisation at home and embedding intercultural competencies in the social psychology curriculum. The activities are relatively straightforward to implement, require few resources and connect well with existing curriculum in social psychology. They could also be readily applied to other core topics in the social psychology curriculum, such as intergroup contact and prejudice, while simultaneously providing a pathway to increased intercultural awareness.

The activities could also be adapted to suit other psychology courses (e.g. Knott et al., 2013; Mak, 2012). For example, alliance building activities could be used in person-

ality psychology, with students introducing each other to the class in terms of one or two core personality traits and reflecting on how their interpretation of personality has been culturally influenced. These activities contribute to understanding and awareness of diversity, values, and ethical and social responsibility (identified as learning outcomes or graduate attributes by both the APA and APAC) and promote more generic interpersonal communication skills. The APA (2013) has identified communication as a learning goal for psychology graduates, including the ability to recognise the role of culture and values in communication, and the ability to interpret both language and nonverbal cues when interpreting meaning. Communication skills are a core graduate attribute for Australian psychology students including the ability to 'adopt flexible techniques to communicate sensitively and effectively with diverse ethnic and cultural partners, including in the context of teamwork' (Cranney et al., 2009, p.259).

Cultural mapping exercises lend themselves to courses that are skills based. There is an increasing need for future psychologists to be culturally competent and for development of the competencies to be embedded in professional training. Cultural mapping exercises can be used with trainee psychologists to map encounters with clients from culturally and linguistically diverse (CALD) backgrounds (Mak & Brown, 2013). For example, students could map an initial session between a psychologist and a CALD client from the perspective of both the psychologist and the client, promoting an awareness of, and empathy for, cultural differences.

This study piloted curriculum changes and conclusions are limited by the relatively small sample size and lack of baseline measures of cultural knowledge and awareness. The evaluation tool referred to the entire course and did not specifically measure participants' responses to the alliance building and cultural mapping activities (although students reflected on each of these in their learning journals). Future research could evaluate these two activities

separately and employ pre-intervention baseline measures of key variables. In addition, intercultural competence could be assessed in an ongoing fashion from the first year of a psychology programme through to graduate studies (Deardorff, 2006). Measures more sensitive to different aspects of intercultural learning (e.g. cultural awareness, knowledge, communication skills and empathy) could be used in addition to the more generic intercultural learning measure employed in this study. It has been suggested that because intercultural competence is a complex construct, it should ideally be assessed via multiple methods (Deardorff, 2006). These would ideally include assessment items, such as e-portfolios, critical reflection, interviews and focus groups, in addition to quantitative measures (Deardorff, 2011). A qualitative analysis of the students' learning journal entries in this course would lend further insight into the nature of students' intercultural learning. It is possible that responses to survey items in this study were subject to social desirability bias or demand characteristics, reflecting implied expectations of the situation rather than actual learning. However, the delay between participation in the activities and collection of survey data should have ameliorated such demand characteristics.

Conclusions

Whilst research in intercultural learning development as a vital aspect of internationalising of psychology students at home is still in its infancy, there is growing evidence of the effectiveness of using the EXCELL approach (Knott et al., 2013; Mak, 2012) and this paper adds to that evidence. The current study builds upon the previous research by providing a stronger test of the effectiveness of the curriculum changes via comparisons with another course and by

applying the methods to another area of the psychology curriculum. Our own observations from implementing these activities in the classroom indicate that students readily engaged with both alliance building and cultural mapping. There is a need for further research to evaluate the efficacy of activities such as these for enhancing intercultural learning and providing viable alternatives to study abroad programmes as a method for internationalising the experiences of domestic students. In particular, the efficacy of curriculum changes needs to be assessed across the entire breadth of a programme rather than only in individual subject offerings. Challenges for curriculum changes, like those described in this paper, are engaging faculty in the process and subsequently sustaining changes once they have been implemented. There is a need to provide ongoing training and support to staff implementing changes. Likewise, there is a need to embed intercultural learning throughout entire psychology programmes, from first year through to graduate studies. This requires a consistent approach, development of evidence-based tools (such as those described here) and support at the faculty, university and professional level.

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Internationalising the psychology curriculum: Preliminary notes on conception and assessment of anticipated benefits

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Advocates for internationalisation of the undergraduate psychology curriculum anticipate a variety of beneficial outcomes strongly associated with forms of intellectual growth – including critical thinking, appreciation for diversity, and global awareness – that are the defining purpose of a university education. As a prelude to an intervention to internationalise an introductory psychology course, we examined relationships between measures of these anticipated benefits in an online survey of 107 undergraduate students enrolled in an introductory psychology course at a public research university in the US. Results indicated moderately strong relationships among measures of anticipated benefits of internationalisation but little relationship with conventional measures of academic performance. These results raise doubts about any necessary connection between anticipated benefits of internationalisation and conventional understandings of educational success. Accordingly, results motivate greater reflection among both proponents of internationalisation and psychologists in general about the learning outcomes that inform conventional approaches to undergraduate education in psychology.

Keywords: *Internationalisation; psychology education; global awareness; diversity; critical thinking; critical consciousness.*

A PREVAILING neoliberal individualist model portrays education as a private good designed for consumption of entrepreneurial students who seek to develop skills to better compete in the global marketplace (see Tomlinson & Lipsitz, 2013). As a reaction to this model, educators across the US have returned with renewed urgency to questions about the objectives of undergraduate education. Organisations as diverse as the Association of American Universities (AAU) and the American Psychological Association (APA) have emphasised that the purpose of undergraduate education is not simply to provide students with the latest information in a particular discipline or to credential students for participation in the global marketplace. Instead, they have re-emphasised that the broader public purpose or societal objective of undergraduate education is to produce critically thinking, socially

responsible, civically engaged, multicultural citizens who will constitute and lead the societies of tomorrow.

Within this broader trend, critics have noted that the undergraduate psychology curriculum in US universities is particularly ripe for internationalisation given the US-centric character of the field (e.g. Arnett, 2008), frustration with decontextualised exportation of Western psychology (see Henrich, Heine & Norenzayan, 2010), and a lack of diversity in methodology and content in US journals (Bikos et al., 2013). In this intellectual climate, we have designed and hope to implement an intervention to internationalise an introductory undergraduate psychology course at our host institution. As a prelude to this intervention exercise, we here consider learning objectives and measures that we might use to evaluate progress toward them.

Internationalisation: What is it?

To assess the extent to which internationalisation of the curriculum serves broad institutional learning goals, one must first define *internationalisation*. Beyond general agreement about its desirability, conceptions of internationalisation vary.

One tension in imagination of internationalisation concerns perspectives on the mainstream or hegemonic versions of psychology that emanate from (typically Euro-American) centres of global power. For some, internationalisation is about elevating hegemonic understandings to a position of global dominance, resulting in a unitary global psychology. For others, internationalisation is less about oneness or universality of particular understandings, but more about achieving 'harmonisation' and 'balance' within a globally relevant science by engaging psychological understandings throughout the world (Bullock, 2014; Galinova, 2015; Turner & Robson, 2008). For many advocates, internationalisation is compatible with perspectives of cross-cultural psychology that aim to broaden the database and applicability of hegemonic psychology by considering a broader variety of different societies around the world (van de Vijver, 2013). While it remains doubtful whether internationalisation is the same as cross-cultural psychology or whether it can be entirely separated from globalisation (Gross et al., 2016; Turner & Robson, 2008), the general consensus on the definition of internationalisation is that it fosters a broader variety of perspectives in psychology. Accordingly, we define internationalisation as open, inclusive, reciprocal, and critical engagement with the diversity of the global community, toward the transformation of knowledge and praxis in psychology.

Within the APA, an issue of ongoing debate is whether the objective of internationalisation efforts should be '...internationalisation of the psychology curriculum or the creation of a transnational curriculum in psychology or both' (Belar, 2008). This debate centres on the degree to which

academic units should pursue and incorporate internationalisation into psychology education. In 2005, the APA outlined five general areas of psychology education that would benefit from internationalisation: (1) psychological knowledge; (2) methodological issues; (3) discipline of psychology (theories and concepts); (4) interpersonal understanding; and (5) global issues (Lutsky et al., 2005). Consistent with this conception of the benefits of internationalisation in terms of knowledge acquisition, the APA in 2007 included sociocultural and international awareness as a separate goal of the undergraduate psychology major.

A potential shift in conception was arguably evident in 2013, when the APA not only incorporated internationalisation into its *Guidelines for the Undergraduate Psychology Major* under goal 3: 'Ethical and Social Responsibility in a Diverse World' but also adopted an 'infusion' approach. Infusion approaches position internationalisation not as a separate segment of the curriculum, but instead as an inherently pertinent concept infused throughout the entire curriculum. The goal of this approach is to help students 'adopt values that build community at local, national, and global levels'; to develop 'sensitivity to issues of power, privilege, and discrimination'; to ponder 'strategies to facilitate social change and diminish discriminatory practices'; and to 'acknowledge that measurement of socially responsible behaviour outside of the classroom is a challenge' (APA, 2013).

Anticipated benefits of Internationalisation

These different conceptions of and approaches to internationalisation suggest myriad understandings of anticipated benefits that internationalisation might produce. Some writers suggest that internationalisation of psychology will strengthen psychological knowledge and deepen understandings of diversity (Bullock, 2014). Other writers suggest that internationalisation will fulfill moral, intellectual, and professional impera-

tives to make psychology a better science and a more adaptive practice (van de Vijver, 2013).

In a rare, qualitative study about the benefits of internationalisation (Bikos et al., 2013), instructors of undergraduate psychology in the US cited facilitation of global perspectives, recognition of the impact of cultural contexts, increased cross-cultural awareness, better understanding of others through critical thinking skills, value for global citizenship, and openness to difference as anticipated benefits. Quantitative research indicates that internationalisation of the undergraduate curriculum is positively linked to students' development of intercultural skills over time (Soria, 2015; Pedersen, 2016). Some scholars propose that in the context of internationalisation, fostering intercultural development is of greater benefit than cross-cultural learning or even multicultural education, since the term intercultural emphasises 'overcoming cultural isolation and promoting a mutually enriching understanding, dialogue and ideas exchange between different cultures, [to convey] more fully the value of diversity in education' (Galinova, 2015). Informed by these articulations and our own theorising, we identified the following as anticipated benefits or learning objectives to guide and assess attempts to internationalise psychology education.

Global awareness and identification

Perhaps the most obvious outcome that one might anticipate from efforts to internationalise the curriculum is global awareness or identification. At a basic level, global awareness refers to knowledge about global realities, regardless of the interpretations or conclusions that one draws about that knowledge (Galinova, 2015). However, proponents of internationalisation typically intend (or assume) that knowledge of global realities will stimulate particular kinds of awareness. For example, one might expect that internationalisation of the psychology curriculum would expose students to information

concerning ways of thinking and living about which they were previously unaware. To the extent that this exposure includes information about situations of deprivation and poverty, one might further expect that internationalisation of the curriculum would lead students to develop more nuanced or critical perceptions of global inequality. Whether exposure to information about global realities produces these effects is an open empirical question.

Another outcome that proponents anticipate from global awareness is global identification. Scholars suggest that one of the most important psychological consequences of engagement with forces of globalisation is the experience of a hybrid bicultural identity that represents the fusion of both local identity and global identity factors (Arnett, 2002). The resulting identity dynamics can be complex and fraught with tension. On one hand, global identification can balance or neutralise nationalistic sentiments that might otherwise work in an antagonistic fashion against global peace and security. On the other hand, people can respond to the identity confusion of global engagement with identity-defensive reactance, reproducing more rigid and conservative varieties of local identity (Arnett, 2002; Doku & Asante, 2011). This research suggests that information about global realities may not necessarily lead to greater global identification.

Appreciation for diversity

Another benefit that advocates of internationalisation frequently cite is appreciation for diversity (Bikos et al., 2013; Bullock, 2014; van de Vijver, 2013). Again, by exposing students to variation in ways of thinking and living across societies, efforts to internationalise the psychological curriculum are likely to increase students' appreciation for the *extent* of diversity: that is, recognition of the degree to which patterns of thinking and being deviate from the ethnocentric norm or standard of their own society. However, one again suspects that proponents of internationalisation typically anticipate a deeper

sense of appreciation for diversity in terms of *value or enjoyment*. Whereas many people would advocate the former sense of appreciation for the extent of diversity as a legitimate learning goal, some people might question whether promotion of the latter sense of enjoyment of diversity is the appropriate business of psychology instruction.

Critical thinking

Of all the anticipated benefits, perhaps the one that has the most legitimacy for instructors as a goal of internationalisation efforts is critical thinking. Indeed, most arguments for internationalizing the curriculum include some version of the idea that the study of diverse ways of being provides an epistemic standpoint from which to think more critically about the apparently ‘natural’ manifestations of one’s own experience (Adams et al., 2015; Bohman, 2006). Indeed, some research suggests that diversity experiences in the classroom are positively, but conditionally, related to critical thinking (Gurin, Nagda & Lopez, 2003; Loes, Pascarella & Umbach, 2012). Although evidence suggests that experience with cultural diversity has a positive impact on the educational experiences of all college students, the impact appears to be particularly strong among groups of students in positions of social and economic power (Gurin, Nagda & Lopez, 2003; Loes, Pascarella & Umbach, 2012). Diversity is important for encouraging balanced perspectives on issues (Milem, 2003), especially when it provides an opportunity for the expression of marginalised or disempowered voices that would otherwise be silenced in mainstream undergraduate psychology classrooms.

Is there any evidence that internationalisation of the psychology curriculum promotes critical thinking? Although we are not aware of any evidence that speaks to this question, the answer might depend on one’s conception and operationalisation of *critical thinking*. If our home university is any indication, then conceptions of critical thinking in most undergraduate psychology

courses may primarily concern quantitative literacy and evaluation of evidence from empirical research. When instructors define or operationalise critical thinking, they tend to emphasise such ideas as ‘correlation does not equal causation’ or ‘the plural of anecdote is not data’. It is not immediately clear whether – or by what mechanism – appreciation for diversity or internationalisation of the psychology curriculum would result in greater quantitative literacy of this sort.

Critical consciousness

In contrast to constructions of critical thinking that might focus primarily (or exclusively) on quantitative literacy, one construction of critical thinking that has a more direct link to appreciation of diversity is *critical consciousness* (or conscientização; Freire, 1970). Critical consciousness refers to both (1) a reflexive awareness of the extent to which existing social practices and institutions arise and persist because they reproduce and maintain the enjoyment of a privileged few at the expense of the global majority; and (2) an orientation toward action to challenge social inequalities (see Diemer et al., 2014; Watts, Diemer & Voight, 2011). Research in the perspective of critical multicultural citizenship education (CMCE) has linked critical consciousness to appreciation for diversity in the global context (Ramirez, Salinas & Epstein, 2016).

Current study

Especially given that the anticipated benefits of internationalisation include many of the outcomes – critical thinking, appreciation of diversity, and the social responsibility associated with critical consciousness – that the APA and AAU have proposed as learning goals for undergraduate curriculum, one might expect that the internationalisation of the undergraduate psychology curriculum will be implicitly linked to the enhanced student performance. However, our review of the literature revealed little to no research that explicitly measured anticipated benefits

of internationalisation and assessed their relationship with each other and with undergraduate psychology students' performance. As a preliminary exploration of these relationships, we conducted a survey study.

The context of the survey study was an introductory psychology course at our home institution. It is important to emphasise that the instructors of the course made no attempt to internationalise their presentation of material. In the absence of any special effort, the course included very little international content. Similarly, we did not conduct any intervention to internationalise the course. Accordingly, the purpose of this exercise was not to assess the effectiveness of an effort at internationalising the curriculum. Instead, the purpose was to explore (the relationship between) measures of anticipated outcomes of internationalisation as a prelude to, but in the absence of, any intervention to internationalise the curriculum.

Method

Sample

Participants were 107 students enrolled in an introductory psychology course during a single semester. Eleven participants withdrew from the study (and permission to analyze their responses) after debriefing, resulting in a final sample of 96 students (57 women, 39 men). The sample comprised mainly European Americans (81.2 per cent) with other participants identifying as African American (7.3 per cent), Hispanic Americans (7.3 per cent), Asian-American (2.1 per cent), and Mixed (2.1 per cent). The sample comprised mainly first-year students ($N=63$), but also included students in their third year ($N=17$) and beyond ($N=14$).

Procedures

We recruited students for a 30-minute online survey through a research participant recruitment system called Sona. Sona systems offer a cloud-based solution for research participant management that facilitates the recruitment process by allowing researchers to anonymously recruit participants from large

pools of undergraduate students within the university. Participants received research credit in return for their participation. The survey was available to participants online for three weeks during the first half of the semester (Time 1) and again for three weeks during the latter half of the semester (Time 2). None of the participants who enrolled at Time 1 ($N=63$) enrolled again at Time 2 ($N=43$).

Measures

We included measures of the hypothesised benefits of internationalisation in psychology education and more traditional course outcomes.

Global awareness and identification. Participants used a seven-point scale (0=not at all to 6=very much) to respond to five items that measured identification with the world community (e.g. 'Being part of the world community is an important part of my identity'; Cronbach's $\alpha=.86$). Participants used a seven-point scale (0=not at all to 6=very much) to respond to four items that we created to measure perceptions of global inequality (e.g. 'Current global realities reflect a natural and inevitable process of progress and development' Cronbach's $\alpha=.64$).

Diversity appreciation. We selected seven items from the Openness to Diversity and Challenge Scale from the Center of Inquiry in the Liberal Arts at Wabash College (2006) to assess awareness and appreciation of diversity (e.g. 'Learning about people from different cultures is a very important part of my college education'; Cronbach's $\alpha=.87$). Participants used a five-point scale (1=strongly disagree to 5=strongly agree) to respond to each of the seven items.

Critical thinking. We adapted brief assessments to measure critical thinking about interpretation of evidence from a measure that our collaborators in the Cultural Psychology Research Group had developed for an earlier project (Mukherjee, Kurtiş &

Adams, 2016). The inspiration and model for these assessments was work by the Stanford History Education Group (see <http://beyondthebubble.stanford.edu/>). Participants read two statements in a debate about the relationship between low SES and divorce. After each debate statement, we presented participants with a range of nine responses in support or critique of the statement that varied in the degree of critical thinking (see Appendix 1). Participants used a scale from one to five to rate their agreement with each response. Three of these responses provided the soundest evidence of critical thinking, including the idea that correlation does not equal causation, the importance of construct validity, and limitations of using anecdotes as evidence. We computed a composite average of mean ratings for the three critical responses and reverse-coded other responses to create an indicator of critical thinking (Cronbach's $\alpha=0.64$).

Critical consciousness. We considered two aspects of critical consciousness – critical reflection and critical action – using an empirically tested measure of critical consciousness (Diemer et al., 2014). Regarding critical reflection, participants used a five-point scale (1=strongly disagree to 5=strongly agree) to respond to 13 items regarding critical consciousness about gender, class, and racial inequality (e.g. 'Certain racial groups have fewer chances to get a good high school education;' Cronbach's $\alpha=0.90$). Regarding critical action, participants used a five-point scale (0=never did this to 4=at least once a week) to indicate their civic engagement and participation in social justice activities. (e.g. 'Wrote a letter to a school or community newspaper or publication about a social or political issue' Cronbach's $\alpha=0.90$).

Academic Performance. We did not have access to course grades or instructor assessments of course performance, so we relied on participants to self-report. Participants who completed measures at the end of semester

indicated their engagement in the course by reporting the percentage of classes that they attended and the percentage of course assignments that they completed. They also indicated their expected course grades, which we transformed into a numerical scale from 1=F to 10=A.

Demographic Information. Participants indicated their gender, ethnicity, and year in college. They also indicated their socioeconomic status (SES) using the McArthur Scale of subjective social status. This measure asks participants to rank themselves on a hypothetical social ladder with 10 rungs with 1 as the lowest position and 10 as the highest (Demakakos et al., 2008).

Results

Differences between Sample Groups

As a first step in analysis of data, we conducted independent sample t-tests to determine whether there were mean differences between groups who completed the survey at different waves of administration: early or late in the semester (see Table 1). Because the course design did not include international material, the purpose of this comparison was not to assess the effectiveness of the course as an internationalisation exercise. Instead, we examined differences between groups as a matter of methodological rigor.

Results showed that students who completed measures during the second half of the semester scored significantly higher on critical consciousness – both critical reflection ($M=3.63$, $SD=0.65$) and critical action ($M=1.98$, $SD=0.88$) – than did students who completed measures during the first half of the semester ($M_s=3.30$ and 0.84 , $SD_s=1.54$ and 0.67), $t(94)=-2.067$, $p<.05$, $d=0.43$, and $t(67)=-2.641$, $p<.05$, $d=0.58$ respectively. Although this is consistent with the possibility that participation in the introductory psychology course afforded critical consciousness, it is not possible to make a definitive determination of that effect because these

Table 1: Comparison of means and standard deviations by sample group

Scale/Item	Time of data collection			
	Group 1 (N=57)		Group 2 (N=39)	
	M	SD	M	SD
Global Identity	2.62	0.95	2.99	1.16
Perceptions of Global Inequality	2.97	0.92	3.21	0.94
Diversity Appreciation	3.64	0.66	3.92	0.83
Critical Consciousness Reflection	3.30	0.84	3.63*	0.65
Critical Consciousness Action	1.54	0.67	1.98*	0.88
Critical Thinking	3.18	0.35	3.12	0.27
Subjective SES	5.12	1.56	6.05*	1.88

* $p < .05$

Table 2: Correlations among measures of anticipated benefits of internationalisation and subjective SES

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Global Identity	-						
Perceptions of Global Inequality	.22*	-					
Diversity Appreciation	.20*	.45**	-				
Critical Consciousness Reflection	-.02	.38**	.41**	-			
Critical Consciousness Action	.35**	.16	.14	.29**	-		
Critical Thinking	-.12	-.23*	.01	-.09	-.23*	-	
Subjective SES	-.01	.15	.06	.21*	.10	.09	-
M (SD)	2.77 (1.05)	3.07 (0.93)	3.76 (0.74)	3.43 (0.78)	1.72 (0.78)	3.43 (0.32)	5.50 (1.75)
α s	.86	.64	.87	.90	.90	.64	n/a

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

Table 3: Correlations between measures of anticipated benefits of internationalisation with academic performance indicators for group 2 (N=39)

	Expected Grade	Class Attendance	Completed Assignments
Global Identity	-.03	-.14	-.17
Perceptions of Global Inequality	.06	.06	-.27
Diversity Appreciation	.32*	-.09	-.20
Critical Consciousness	.19	.22	.19
Critical Activism	-.21	-.08	.09
Critical Thinking	.04	.14	.10
Subjective SES	-.04	.12	.19
M (s)	7.00 (2.40)	90.00 (9.87)	89.82 (11.48)

* $p < .05$

represent two different groups of students rather than a single group of respondents over time. The two groups of participants also differed significantly in subjective SES. Students who completed measures during the second half of the semester reported significantly higher subjective SES ($M=6.05$, $SD=1.88$) than did students who completed measures during the first half of the semester ($M=5.12$, $SD=1.56$), $t(94)=-2.636$, $p<.05$, $d=0.55$.

Relationships between anticipated benefits of internationalisation

As a second step in analyses, we examined the relationship between measures of anticipated benefits of internationalisation. Overall, these measures were moderately and positively correlated with each other (see Table 2). Within this general summary, there were some noteworthy patterns. Consistent with expectations, both measures of global awareness – global identity ($r=.20$, $p<.05$) and perceptions of global inequality ($r=.45$, $p<.01$) – were positively related to diversity appreciation, and with each other ($r=.22$, $p<.05$). With respect to critical consciousness, global identity was also positively related to critical action ($r=.35$, $p<.01$), but perception of global inequality was positively related to critical reflection ($r=.38$, $p<.01$). The critical reflection (but not critical action) component of critical consciousness was positively related to diversity appreciation ($r=.41$, $p<.01$).

The critical reflection component of critical consciousness was also related to subjective SES ($r=.21$, $p<.01$). This is noteworthy for two reasons. First, it complicates interpretation of mean differences in the critical reflection component of critical consciousness, as it suggests that these differences may be a function of enduring differences in SES rather than something that occurred during the semester (including participation in the introductory psychology course). Regression analyses revealed high collinearity between SES and time of data collection, such that after controlling for one independent vari-

able, the other was no longer a significant predictor of critical reflection, and vice versa.

Second, one might expect that the firsthand experience of marginalisation associated with low SES would make people more aware of various forms of inequality and oppression. Instead, the observation that awareness of multiple forms of inequality and oppression is greater among high SES students suggests something about the quality of education available to people from low and high SES backgrounds. People from high SES settings may have greater access to forms of education, including practices of international travel and study abroad associated with ‘internationalisation’ of the curriculum, that promote critical reflection and denaturalisation (Adams et al, 2015) of apparently natural or taken-for-granted everyday realities.

The only negative relationships between indicators of anticipated benefits of internationalisation involved critical thinking, which was negatively related to both perception of global inequality ($r=-.23$, $p<.05$) and the critical action component of critical consciousness ($r=-.23$, $p<.05$). This is remarkable, as it suggests that the kinds of critical thinking that advocates anticipate as a benefit of internationalisation (i.e. akin to critical consciousness); are not necessarily compatible with the standard constructions of critical thinking (as evaluation of evidentiary claims) and quantitative literacy that inform design and assessment of undergraduate psychology instruction.

Relationships with Academic Performance

On average students’ self-reported expected grade ($M=7.00$, $SD=2.40$) was equivalent to a grade ‘B’. Participants also indicated that on average they attended 90 per cent of classes and completed 89.82 per cent of course assignments. There was little evidence that anticipated benefits of internationalisation were related to standard indicators of course performance (see Table 3). Diversity appreciation was the only measure of internationalisation related to course outcomes. Students

who scored higher on diversity appreciation were more likely to report that they expected a higher final grade (to perform better) in their introductory psychology course ($r=.32$, $p<.05$).

Discussion

We conducted this investigation as a pilot study for an intervention to design, teach, and evaluate an internationalised version of an introductory psychology course. We identified anticipated beneficial outcomes of internationalisation, designed measures of these outcomes, and then administered these measures to different groups of students at the beginning and end of the semester. Results provide evidence for relationships between some of the anticipated benefits of internationalisation: particularly, global awareness, appreciation for diversity, and the socially engaged form of critical thinking that we referred to as critical consciousness. However, results provided little evidence of relationships between these anticipated outcomes of internationalisation and more conventional measures of academic performance. Indeed, there was even evidence of negative relationships between measures of internationalisation and our measure of the more standard or hegemonic construction of critical thinking as quantitative literacy.

Of course, our modest empirical exploration is not without limitations. For example, patterns of results for critical thinking may reflect not a null or negative relationship with anticipated benefits of internationalisation, but instead a need for improved conceptualisation and measurement. A different measure of critical thinking might yet reveal positive relationships with other anticipated outcomes of internationalisation.

Additionally, the majority of participants were freshman in their first semester of enrollment of classes, which makes it difficult to validate the self-reported anticipated grades. Indeed all three measures of academic performance (expected grades, class attendance, and completed assignments) were self-reported. This may partly

account for the weak relationships between these standard indicators of course performance and anticipated benefits of internationalisation. Future research designs can be strengthened by using more objective measures of course performance such as actual assigned grades.

A more important limitation is that, in this preliminary study, we did not implement any intervention to internationalise psychology instruction. Accordingly, one cannot interpret results as an indication of patterns that one would observe in the context of internationalisation. Although global awareness, appreciation for diversity, and critical consciousness do not necessarily coincide with strong course performance and critical thinking (as quantitative literacy) in the absence of an internationalisation intervention, the effect of internationalisation may be to provide the benefits of diversity education so that people apply their critical thinking skills to issues associated with critical consciousness about global inequality. In other words, one might observe synergistic increases in quantitative literacy, evidentiary practices, and critical consciousness as a result of an intervention to internationalise the curriculum, even though the relationship between these forms of critical thinking was somewhat antagonistic in the current study.

Despite these important limitations on interpretation of evidence, results of this exploratory investigation highlight important considerations for those of us who advocate internationalisation of the undergraduate psychology curriculum. One of the reasons why the current investigation was merely a pilot study is that instructors and administrators were not enthusiastic about our proposals for interventions to internationalise the introductory psychology course. Instructors of psychology understandably see their primary job as just that: to instruct students about psychology and maybe to promote forms of critical thinking associated with quantitative literacy. To the extent that internationalisation serves these

purposes, instructors are likely to be enthusiastic about the practice. However, if instructors and colleagues perceive that the sole purpose of internationalisation is to promote so-called 'political' outcomes such as global awareness, appreciation for diversity, and critical consciousness – rather than supposedly innocent or non-political, intellectual outcomes – then they are likely to object that the project lies outside the proper goals of a psychology course. This is especially the case in the current climate in the US, where critics charge that (social) psychology suffers from a left-leaning political bias (Duarte et al., 2015).

In response to such concerns, we note that attempts to insulate psychology instruction from learning objectives or outcomes related to internationalisation are not politically innocent, but instead are oriented toward preservation of a hegemonic status quo. Academic staff can play a crucial role in 'challenging dominant paradigms' to pave the way for internationalisation of the undergraduate curriculum (Leask, 2013). Indeed, implicit in many calls for internationalising the psychology curriculum is the idea that the omission of diverse, critical, global perspectives is anti-intellectual, unprofessional, and immoral (van de Vijver, 2013). Moreover, organisations such as the APA and the AAU increasingly propose the incorporation and measurement of broad learning objectives that encompass both intellectual and social growth as defining objectives of a university education. Internationalisation efforts position psychology as a primary site from which to achieve these learning objectives.

Even so, results of the present study raise doubts about any necessary connection between anticipated benefits of internationalisation and conventional understandings of academic success. The point of these doubts is not to question the value of the internationalisation project. Instead, we take these doubts as a signal about issues regarding conventional understandings and measures of academic success in hegemonic forms of undergraduate psychology instruction.

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Appendix 1

Brief Assessment of Critical Thinking

Blaine finds a study that reports a correlation of 0.15 between low SES and divorce. Blaine interprets the study as evidence that people in working-class lack family values.

A. Use a scale from 0 (Strongly Disagree) to 5 (Strongly Agree) to rate the extent to which you agree with the following statements about Blaine's interpretation.

1	The interpretation is reasonable; that is, the study suggests that people in working-class lack family values.
2	The interpretation is faulty because the correlation coefficient (0.15) is very low.
3	The interpretation is faulty because this is a correlational study, so one cannot conclude that low SES causes divorce.
4	The interpretation is faulty because of issues with construct validity: that is, one cannot use divorce rates as an indicator of low family values.
5	The interpretation is faulty because Blaine, as an outsider, is unqualified to speak about experience of the working class.
6	The interpretation is faulty because Blaine does not support it with specific examples of divorce and low family values in working class families.

B. ____ Fill the blank to indicate the item (1–6) that is the best reaction to Blaine's interpretation (i.e. – the item that you think is the strongest argument for or against it).

Casey criticises Blaine's interpretation by saying, I think the study is wrong – there is no link between low SES and divorce. I went to a high school with wealthy and upper middle-class families, and half of my friends came from homes where the parents divorced.

C. Use a scale from 0 (Strongly Disagree) to 5 (Strongly Agree) to rate the extent to which you agree with the following statements about Casey's critique.

1	The critique is reasonable; that is, the example from personal experience clearly demonstrates that there is no link between SES and divorce.
2	The critique is faulty because Casey relies on personal experiences, and one cannot generalise claims based on such anecdotal evidence.
3	The critique is faulty because Casey is not neutral; that is, Casey allows his/her identity position to inform interpretation of the evidence.

D. ____ Fill the blank to indicate the item (1–3) that is the best reaction to Casey's critique (i.e., the item that you think is the strongest argument for or against it).

Cross-cultural difference in academic motivation, academic self-esteem, and upward social mobility within a student cohort

C. Mugabe, P. Brug & J.C. Catling

The relationship between academic motivation, support structures, self-esteem, and social mobility was assessed between three culturally distinct Higher Education student cohorts. Two-hundred-and-sixty-seven students took part in the study: 64 American undergraduates; 100 British undergraduates; and 103 Ugandan undergraduates. Using a number of appropriate, validated questionnaires, intergenerational upward social mobility was found to be academically motivating, both intrinsically and extrinsically. Intergenerational upward mobility was significantly positively correlated with academic self-esteem. Cultural differences were found primarily in intrinsic, extrinsic and intergenerational upward mobility scores, with Ugandan students endorsing these variables significantly more than the American students, and American students endorsing them significantly more than the British students. These findings are discussed in relation to the potential impact on student social mobility both here and abroad.

Keywords: Cross-cultural differences; self-esteem; upward social mobility.

Introduction

HORACE MANN (1848, as cited in Education and Social Inequity, n.d.) is quoted as having said that 'education beyond all other devices of human origin is the great equaliser of the conditions of man, the balance-wheel of the social machinery.' The quote reflects the belief often shared in Western society that education will allow individuals to succeed and change their so-called status as a result of the social mobility that having an education can afford individuals. As such this opportunity is seen as a key motivator for people to stay in school and to go onto higher educational opportunities. While the reward of (upward) social mobility can be seen as more of an extrinsic motivator, it is an important factor in helping to retain students and a source of encouragement from family and friends. In addition, the drive to enter higher education is rooted not solely in the rewards of social (upward) mobility but in the opportunities this mobility may provide in helping one's

family or community (Holland & Yousofi, 2014; Taylor & Krahn, 2013). As such the belief in upward social mobility can be viewed cross-culturally, even if the rationale behind it differs from culture to culture. Whether the pursuit of higher education is a means to an end (social mobility) or a means to itself (fulfilling the desire to learn), the motivation behind the pursuit is fundamental for most individuals in order to succeed and complete their higher educational studies.

With regard to higher education, the motivation is often referred to specifically as academic motivation. Based on Hollebeak and Amorose (2005), academic motivation can be defined as the strength and direction of effort towards educational outcomes and is of crucial importance to (academic) performance (Areepattamannil & Freeman 2011; Ratelle et al., 2007). It is possible to analyse motivation by using the self-determination theory (SDT) as per Hollebeak and Amorose's (2005) and Areepattamannil

(2012). Using the SDT, the spectrum of self-determined motivation ranges from intrinsic, where the drive behind involvement is the result of personal satisfaction or internal gratification (Smith, Cumming & Smoll, 2008; Deci & Ryan, 2002) to extrinsic, where the drive behind the involvement is for instrumental reasons, material gains and/or external rewards (Deci & Ryan, 2000). According to Vallerand and Ratelle (2002), intrinsic motivation was considered to be one-dimensional in nature but has since been thought to comprise three facets: motivation to know, to accomplish things, and to experience stimulation (Vallerand et al., 1992). Findings in Western, individualistic cultures (e.g. the US) show intrinsically motivated students do better and have a greater ability to persevere in academia (Ratelle et al., 2007).

With regard to external motivation, it is also not unidimensional. Extrinsic motivation can be defined along four facets: external regulation, introjected regulation, identified regulation, and integrated regulation (Deci & Ryan 2002). Research, primarily of adolescent populations (ages 13–18), has shown that students in non-Western cultures (e.g. India) have higher levels of extrinsic motivation (Areepattamannil, 2012; Areepattamannil, Freeman & Klinger, 2011). Furthermore, Areepattamannil and Freeman (2008) note that extrinsic motivation-external regulation is associated with better academic performance in older adolescents (16 to 19-years-old) whose families came from India. Here, as implied earlier, the need to provide for family and to take advantage of possible family sacrifices serves as a motivation to engage in education as a means to an end. Findings also demonstrate possible cross-cultural differences in the types of motivations that are effective.

Overall academic motivation explains why some students persevere with academic tasks despite the challenges they face and devote their energies to education rather than other activities (Long et al., 2011). The reasons for academic motivation have

recently been the subject of thorough investigation. Researchers have concluded that academic motivation is meaningfully correlated with fostering self-worth among students (Areepattamannil & Freeman, 2008), improving school attendance (Wood, Kurtz-Costes & Copping, 2011), promoting desirable behaviours and predicting academic success (Kusurkur et al., 2012) as well as persistence in education (Mellard et al., 2013).

Despite some challenges in studying academic motivation, a pool of recent research supports diverse theoretical perspectives and identifies a range of variables as capable of eliciting and guiding learners' educational efforts and ambitions. These variables are wide ranging and include rewards (Ku, Dittmar & Banerjee, 2012), parents' educational expectations (Tynkkyan, Tolvanen & Salmela-Aro, 2012), autonomy (Wigfield, Cambria & Eccles, 2012), teacher-student positive relationships (Eccles & Roeser, 2009), personalities and teaching strategies (Donche et al., 2013; Dominguez, et al., 2013), which are all well-established academic motivators.

Social mobility can also be seen as an academic motivator. Extrinsicly, social mobility can provide individuals with material rewards, as people with higher degrees tend to have higher incomes (e.g. Andersson, Nabavi & Wilhelmsson, 2014; Shaw, 2013) and better overall quality of life (Holland & Yousofi, 2014). Intergenerational upward social mobility exists in various cultures (Deary et al., 2005; Johnson et al., 2010), and is of great concern because it results in movers gaining access to a range of benefits including better health conditions, educational opportunities and material possessions. A range of longitudinal studies suggest that education, cognitive ability, childhood social backgrounds and diligence are worldwide predictors of intergenerational upward mobility (Sorjonen et al., 2012; Stumm et al., 2010).

Although education is found to facilitate intergenerational upward social mobility

(Byrom & Lightfoot, 2013), there is indication that social class hampers equality of educational opportunity in some societies (Cotes, 2011; Kraus et al., 2012). Whilst upward mobility introduces movers to better cultural capital and social capital, the process of adopting a new social class is challenging because it involves class-based rejection sensitivity and discrimination, given the negative stereotypes that are often attached to movers' original social classes (Rhenschmidt & Mendoza-Denton, 2014). However, academically motivated students from underprivileged families within meritocratic societies or societies where parents are able to pay for university education have the opportunity to achieve upward mobility. This is supported by universities themselves, which in contemporary education systems desire to enrol students from more deprived backgrounds (Hart et al., 2004; Housel & Harvey, 2009).

Recent studies have found that education facilitates intergenerational upward mobility in Uganda (Bailey, Cloete & Pillay, 2012), Britain (Byrom & Lightfoot, 2013) and the US (Shane & Heckhausen, 2013). As such government policies in the US, Britain and Uganda promote widening participation in universities (Hart et al., 2004; Housel & Harvey, 2009; Obwona & Ssewanyana, 2007). Byrom and Lightfoot conducted a qualitative study of university students from working-class backgrounds to examine their experience of academic failure and how failure impacted on their ability to gain intergenerational upward mobility. They found that students desire to attain jobs with better status than those of their parents, and having this desire is widely perceived as equating to social mobility. It follows from these findings that students recognise education as a route to achieving improved lifestyle and eventually intergenerational upward mobility.

Shane and Heckhausen (2013) used a cross-cultural design to investigate the popular meritocratic ideology of Americans. Americans, especially American men

often believe they have a moral obligation to use the resources available to pursue a higher Socioeconomic Status (SES) than that of their parents. After a comparison of mean scores of meritocratic-oriented and luck-oriented casual conceptions about SES, Shane and Heckhausen concluded that American undergraduates significantly endorse a better view of personal SES than their parents. A correlation and multiple regression analysis indicated that students' higher expected SES was strongly predicted by students' endorsement of meritocratic-oriented beliefs. Sanchez et al. (2011) examined qualitative data from American male postgraduates and drew similar conclusions with regards to meritocratic-oriented beliefs. Although the American dream might pose psychological difficulties (to males), Shane and Heckhausen's (2013) findings indicate that students strongly believe in intergenerational upward mobility and this elicits goal engagement behaviour fostering pathways that predict future SES achievement. It can be seen from this that the American dream can be a source of academic motivation. However, the research design they used does not provide insight into Americans' endorsement of meritocratic-oriented beliefs. Although Byrom and Lightfoot (2013) and Shane and Heckhausen (2013) found that British and American undergraduates believe in intergenerational upward mobility, they did not test whether such a belief is academically motivating.

The current study used a cross-cultural survey design. The focus of the survey was to assess the relationship between academic motivation and belief in intergenerational upward social mobility among first year university students in America, Britain and Uganda. The study also sought to determine if there were cross-cultural differences in the nature of motivations, as noted in some previous research. Thereby, the current study extends earlier research by comparing three different higher educational cultures as it seeks to determine

whether aspirations predict academic motivation among university students.

Two research questions were assessed:

1. Is there a relationship between believing in intergenerational upward social mobility intrinsically and extrinsically and first year undergraduates' motivation to better their educational outcomes?
2. Are there any cultural differences in students' intrinsic scores, extrinsic scores and in their endorsement of intergenerational upward mobility?

Although no research has solely tested whether the endorsement of intergenerational upward mobility predicts academic motivation, a number of researchers in Britain (Byrom & Lightfoot, 2013) and the US (Shane & Heckhausen, 2013; Rhein-schmidt & Mendoza-Denton, 2014) have found indications that believing in inter-generational upward mobility elicits and guides students' education efforts and ambitions. Others found education to be a major predictor of intergenerational upward mobility (Sorjonen et al., 2012; Stumm et al., 2010). Therefore, it was postulated that a belief in intergenerational upward mobility will academically motivate students both intrinsically and extrinsically.

Significant differences between American, British and Ugandan students in their endorsement of intergenerational upward mobility were predicted. Evidence suggests that Americans strongly endorse meritocratic beliefs (Shane & Heckhausen, 2013) and Ugandan students are highly likely to appreciate intergenerational upward mobility because they are in a financially competitive environment of privately run universities (Obwona & Ssewanyana, 2007). Above all, the absence of a state pension in Uganda leaves students with the responsibility of caring for their parents in old age (Kasedde et al., 2014). The reciprocal nature of parent-child care in Uganda elicits the

desire in students to be in a better socioeco-nomic status than their parents so that they can be financially secure to provide care to their parents.

Significant differences among American, British and Ugandan students' mean scores in both intrinsic and extrinsic academic moti-vation were predicted based on Vecchione et al.'s (2014) findings. Countries with more male participants were expected to be highly extrinsic while countries with more female participants to be highly intrinsic.

Method

Design

A survey design was used to measure key variables including endorsement of inter-generation upward social mobility, academic self-esteem, amotivation, intrinsic and extrinsic academic motivation.

Participants

The general sample was 278 students recruited from several universities in the three nations. American students primarily came from the University of North Carolina, Wilmington, however, invitations to partici-pate were also sent out to two universities in California. In Britain, students from St. Mary's University, Kingston University and the University of Greenwich took part and in Uganda students were recruited from Makerere University and Kampala Univer-sity. Data from 11 participants was excluded because it did not satisfy the inclusionary criteria. Nine were not citizens of the partici-pating countries and two were second year students. The final sample was 267 first year students of which 142 were men, age ranged between 17 and 34 years ($M=20.04$, $SD=3.18$) and 125 were women, age ranged between 17 and 31 years ($M=19.29$, $SD=2.47$). Table 1 shows age of participants by nationality and gender. For ethnic breakdown see Appendix A.

Table 1: Participants' descriptive statistics by nationality and gender

Gender	American			British			Ugandan		
	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Males	30	18.33	2.25	34	19.70	3.15	78	20.86	3.24
Females	34	18.21	0.54	66	19.40	2.53	25	20.60	3.21
Overall	64	18.27	1.58	100	19.46	2.74	103	20.80	3.22

Note. *N*=Number, *M*=Mean and *SD*=Standard Deviation

Measures

A seven-scale questionnaire (appendix B) with seven demographic questions relevant to each participating country was used. The scales ranked from one to seven, 1=strongly disagree and 7=strongly agree. The original Academic Motivation Scale by Vallerand et al., (1992) was used to measure intrinsic, extrinsic and amotivation, and the word ‘college’ was changed to ‘university’ in some statements.

Intrinsic academic motivation Scale

The intrinsic scale consisted of sixteen items drawing on self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 2000). This scale assessed whether students engage in activities because the activities engender learning. One example of a statement to which participants responded by indicating their level of agreement as to why they go to university is ‘Because I experience pleasure and satisfaction while learning new things.’ Cronbach’s alpha value was .906.

Extrinsic academic motivation scale

This scale consisted of eight items drawing on self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 2000). This scale assessed whether students’ ability to learn is influenced by rewards or consequences for being engaged. An example of a statement to which participants responded by indicating their level of agreement as to why they go to university is ‘In order to obtain a more prestigious job later on.’ Cronbach’s alpha value was .875.

Amotivation scale

This was a four-item scale aimed to measure the lack of academic motivation. One example of a statement to which participants responded by indicating their level of agreement as to whether they are less interested in going to university is ‘I don’t know; I can’t understand what I am doing in university.’ The lower the score the more a participant is academically motivated. Cronbach’s alpha value was .939.

Intergenerational upward social mobility scale

The intergenerational upward social mobility scale was developed during the current study by Mugabe, Brug and Catling. The scale had seventeen items of which three were reverse-scored. It encompassed statements featuring education, social class, skills and social capital. Participants chose their level of agreement with each statement. An example of a social class-based statement is ‘Moving to an upper social class is possible for anyone who is willing to study hard enough.’ Participants also faced skills’ related statements such as ‘I read hard enough to have a better command of language than my parents.’ And social capital related statements including ‘I study hard at university to gain access to people of a better social network than my parents.’ Factor analysis showed the scale statistically sound. Kaiser Meyer-Olkin (KMO) and Bartlett’s test of sphericity was computed to evaluate the observed factor solution and in accordance with the test requirements the KMO value produced was 0.948, which was well above the 0.60 threshold. In addition, the Cronbach’s alpha value for the scale was .939.

Academic self-esteem scale

This was a seven-item scale derived from Harter's (1989) self-concept scale. Three of the items were reverse-scored. The scale assesses students' perception of their own learning ability. Participants ranked perception of their learning via statements including 'I feel I am very good at doing my coursework.' Cronbach's alpha value was .848.

Procedure

In the US and Britain, participants were invited via email with a link to the online survey. In Britain, the survey link was passed on to all first year students at participating institutions. Representatives in Uganda invited a range of students at Makerere University and Kampala University to participate by completing a paper version of the survey. In Uganda, students were given the paper version of the invitation letter and the informed consent forms. All students gave fully informed consent, and at the end participants were given debriefing forms.

Results

First, the collated data was checked to see whether it satisfied parametric assumptions. The data violated both homogeneity and normal distribution assumptions. The data was positively and negatively skewed on different scales due to outliers, low and extreme scores. Therefore, parametric analysis was not conducted on the data set (see Table 2 for variables' descriptive statistics).

A non-parametric test of correlation, Spearman's r_s , was used to assess research question one which stated that intergenerational upward mobility, and aspirations are academically motivating. Intergenerational upward mobility was significantly positively correlated with intrinsic motivation ($r_s=.526$, $N=267$, $p<.001$). Figure 1 shows participants' average scores reasonably distributed in a linear relationship. Hence, believing in intergenerational upward mobility is intrinsically academically motivating.

Intergenerational upward mobility was significantly positively correlated with extrinsic motivation ($r_s=.361$, $N=267$, $p<.001$). Figure 2 shows participants' mean scores scattered but in a linear relationship. Thus, believing in intergenerational upward mobility is extrinsically academically motivating.

A non-parametric Kruskal-Wallis test was conducted to assess whether there are statistically significant cultural variations in variable scores including intrinsic, extrinsic and mobility mean scores. As predicted, significant cultural differences emerged on intrinsic $X^2(2, N=267)=64.530$, $p<.001$, extrinsic $X^2(2, N=267)=41.842$, $p<.001$ and intergenerational mobility $X^2(2, N=267)=184.404$, $p<.001$ scores. The Mann-Whitney test was conducted to assess where the differences lie at a critical p value $= .05 \div 3 = .0167$. Table 3 presents Mann-Whitney group comparisons with variables' mean ranks or frequencies of high scores per scale.

Table 3 shows that median differences between countries on intrinsic motivation are all statistically significant, $p<.001$. Ugandan students significantly embrace intrinsic academic motivation higher than American students who scored significantly higher than the British students Median differences on extrinsic academic scale between American and British students and Ugandan and British students are statistically significant, $p<.001$, while the difference between Ugandan and American students is non-significant, $p>.05$. Ugandan and American students score significantly higher on extrinsic motivation than the British students.

Median differences on intergenerational upward mobility score between American and British students, Ugandan and American students, and Ugandan and British students are significantly different, $p<.001$. As predicted, Ugandan students endorse mobility beliefs significantly higher than American students who score significantly higher than the British students.

Table 2: Study variables' means and standard deviations for the overall and by country

	Overall		America		Britian		Uganda	
	N=267		N=64		N=100		N=103	
Scales	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
Intrinsic AM	6.09	0.58	6.10	0.34	5.76	0.70	6.41	0.33
Extrinsic AM	6.54	0.63	6.70	0.34	6.22	0.87	6.74	0.31
Intergenerational UM	5.59	0.94	5.27	0.26	4.86	0.90	6.49	0.24
Self-esteem	5.84	0.90	6.14	0.33	5.45	1.14	6.04	0.75
Amotivation	1.15	0.57	1.02	0.08	1.36	0.87	1.03	0.15

Note: AM=Academic Motivation, UM=Upward Mobility.

Table 3: Mann-Whitney countries comparison of study variables' median to assess the direction of the differences

Scales	Comparing			Comparing			Comparing		
	USA	UK	p	Uga	USA	p	Uga	UK	p
Intrinsic AM	6.1	5.8	***	6.4	6.1	***	6.4	5.8	***
Extrinsic AM	6.7	6.2	***	6.7	6.7	ns	6.7	6.2	***
Intergenerational UM	5.3	4.9	*	6.5	5.3	***	6.5	4.9	***
Self-esteem	6.1	5.5	***	6.2	6.1	ns	6.2	5.5	***
Amotivation	1.0	1.4	**	1.0	1.0	ns	1.0	1.4	***

Note: * $p=.012$, ** $p=.002$, *** $p\leq.001$, ns=not significant, USA=United States of America, UK=United Kingdom & Uga=Uganda.

The British students scored significantly higher than American and Ugandan students on the amotivation scale $p<.001$. This suggests that the British students are significantly less academically motivated than American and Ugandan students whose mean rank difference is statistically non-significant.

Table 3 shows that Ugandan students scored significantly higher than American and the British students on two and five scales respectively. There were non-significant differences between Ugandan and American students on three scales and between American and the British students on two scales.

Discussion

The primary aim of the current study was to assess whether believing in intergenerational upward social mobility is academically motivating. As predicted, this belief

is both intrinsically and extrinsically motivating, hence, upward mobility beliefs positively correlates with self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 2008). The findings support recent studies in Britain (Byrom & Lightfoot, 2013) and America (Shane & Heckhausen, 2013), which to some extent indicated that believing in intergenerational upward mobility elicits and guides university students' educational efforts and ambitions because students expect to attain significantly better socioeconomic status (SES) than the SES of their parents.

Also cultural differences in intrinsic, extrinsic and intergenerational upward mobility scores were investigated. As predicted, the statistical analysis demonstrated that Ugandans endorsed those variables significantly more than Americans and Americans endorsed them significantly more than the British.

Figure 1: Participants' average scores across cultures on intrinsic academic motivation scale plotted against their average scores on intergenerational upward social mobility scale

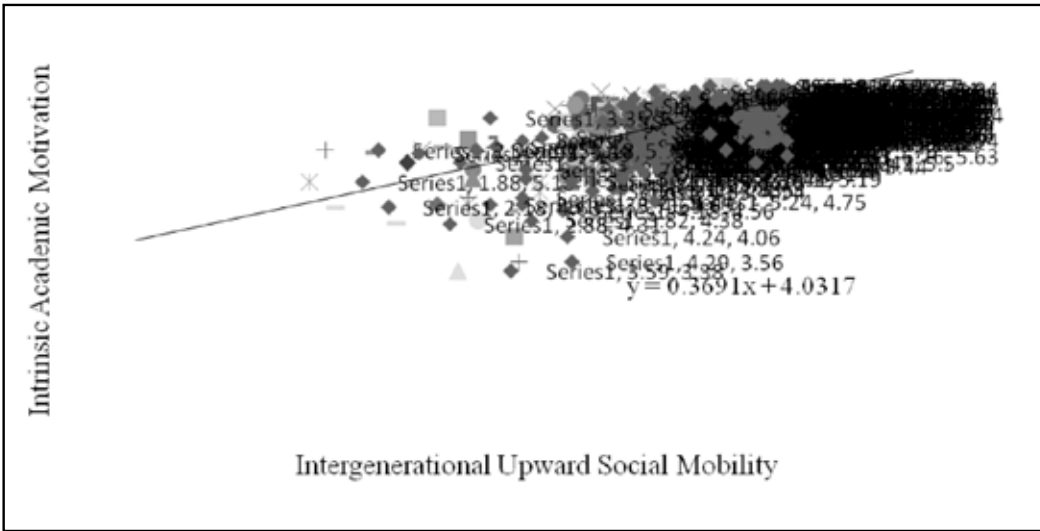
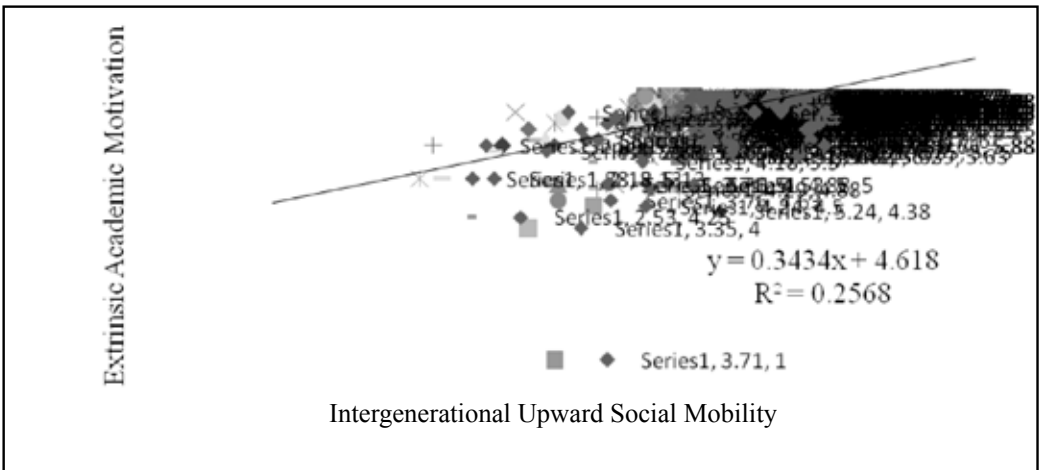


Figure 2: Participants' average scores across cultures on extrinsic academic motivation scale plotted against their average scores on intergenerational upward social mobility scale



Relationship between upward social mobility and other variables

Intergenerational upward mobility was significantly positively correlated with academic self-esteem. This suggests that mobility beliefs promote academic confidence and positively correlate with expectancy value theory (Wigfield, 1994) and social motivation theory (Furrer & Skinner, 2003). Therefore, this newfound academic motivation vari-

able should persuade university lecturers to encourage students to optimistically engage in their learning by associating their inner aspirations with their belief in upward mobility. This in return will gradually reduce the widespread class-based discriminations in universities (Rubin, 2012), hence leading to an improved perception of underprivileged students by the privileged. Furthermore, within and between social classes upward mobility will be facilitated

as well as governments' desire to promote widening participation programmes. However, Platt (2011) argues that success in university may not be the passport to prosperity and higher social class because the complex experiences of disadvantaged students are usually overlooked. Systematic discrimination in the US (Sanchez et al., 2011), Britain (Byrom & Lightfoot, 2013) and Uganda (Asiimwe, Agaba & Nampewo, 2012) are vehicles for perpetuating poverty and impeding upward mobility among disadvantaged students. This suggests that underprivileged groups may struggle to position themselves academically and socially, especially in cultures where resources are unequally distributed.

Cultural differences

Ugandan and American students significantly endorse intrinsic and extrinsic motivation more than the British students. However, Ugandan students do not significantly positively associate intrinsic and extrinsic academic motivation like the American and the British students, whose data shows significant positive correlations between those key variables. These findings support Trumbull and Rothstein-Fisch (2011) whose study highlights significant cultural differences in achievement motivation. Despite the differences, the positive correlation between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation across cultures may suggest that intrinsic and extrinsic facets of academic motivation are not opposite but along a continuum, and that success in university education requires self-commitment and external compliance.

Statistically significant cultural differences in participants' endorsement of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation scores were predicted based on Vecchione et al.'s (2014) findings. It was predicted that countries with more female participants will endorse intrinsic beliefs significantly more than countries with more males, which were predicted to endorse extrinsic beliefs significantly more. However, the hypothesis was rejected. Uganda with more males ($N=78$) than females ($N=25$) significantly

endorsed intrinsic motivation more highly than Britain with more females ($N=66$) than males ($N=34$). And America with fewer males ($N=30$) significantly endorsed extrinsic motivation higher than Britain with more males ($N=34$) than America (see Table 1). These results suggest that Vecchione et al.'s findings on gender difference in intrinsic and extrinsic motivation are inconclusive.

In respect to the relationship between cultural differences in mobility beliefs, as was predicted, Ugandan students endorsed mobility beliefs significantly higher than the American and the British students. American students endorsed mobility beliefs significantly higher than the British students. The explanation for the American students high score is that American students habitually endorse meritocratic beliefs (Shane & Heckhausen, 2013) and Kraus and Tan (2015) found that American students especially the underprivileged enormously overestimate their social mobility beliefs.

As predicted, Uganda's financially competitive environment of privately run universities and Ugandan students' desire to provide care for their elderly parents may well move them to endorse upward mobility beliefs significantly higher than other cultures. Other factors that contributed to Ugandans' exceptional performance on the mobility scale are related to age and gender. The Ugandan sample was older and with more mature students ($M=20.80$, $SD=3.22$) than in the US ($M=18.27$, $SD=1.58$) and Britain ($M=19.46$, $SD=2.74$). Older students are likely to appreciate upward social mobility because of its extrinsic nature which is more relevant to them than to younger students (Lepper, Corpus & Iyengar, 2005). This is reinforced by Kraus and Tan (2015) who found that the self-relevance of social class mobility increases overestimation of class mobility beliefs for individuals and groups.

There is no doubt that gender contributed to the Ugandans' high performance on upward mobility scale. There were more males ($N=78$) than females ($N=25$) in the Uganda sample. In many cultures including America (Sanchez et al., 2011) and Uganda (Otiso,

2006), men's sense of masculinity is tied to their ability to attain intergenerational upward social mobility, and many associate successes with 'being a man'. Otiso (2006) indicates that Ugandans heap praise on sons who attain better SES than that of their parents. These attitudes influenced Ugandan males' performance, leading to heightened scores on the mobility scale; however they may also promote negative perception of daughters in families.

In conclusion, the main findings from the current study are that intergenerational upward social mobility is academically motivating, and that this belief is both

intrinsically and extrinsically motivating. . . Intergenerational upward mobility is significantly positively correlated with academic self-esteem. Cultural differences are found in intrinsic, extrinsic and intergenerational upward mobility scores, with Ugandan students endorsing those variables significantly more than the American students and American students endorsed them significantly more than the British students. These findings have obvious direct implications for the support of social mobility within the H.E. sector both here in Britain and overseas.

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Appendix A

Table 1A: Participant demographic makeup by ethnicity in the America sample

Ethnicity	Number	Mean	Standard Percentage	Deviation
White (Non-Hispanic)	39	18.36	1.98	60.94%
African American	10	18.10	0.57	15.62%
Asian American	11	18.09	0.54	17.19%
Hispanic	04	18.25	0.50	06.25%
Total	64			100.00%

Table 1B: Participant demographic makeup by ethnicity in the UK sample

Ethnicity	Number	Mean	Standard Deviation	Percentage
White British	65	19.58	2.89	65.00%
Black Caribbean	09	19.78	2.22	09.00%
Black African	04	18.75	0.96	04.00%
Mixed Race	12	19.83	3.59	12.00%
Indian	08	18.25	0.46	08.00%
Chinese	02	18.00	1.41	02.00%
Total	100			100.00%

Table 1C: Participant demographic makeup by ethnicity in the Uganda sample

Tribes	Number	Mean	Standard Deviation	Percentage
Banyankole	32	20.56	3.15	31.07%
Baganda	52	21.28	3.69	50.49%
Basoga	15	19.73	1.10	14.56%
Batoro	04	20.25	1.25	03.88%
Total	103			100.00

Appendix B

This section aims to find your reasons for going to university: Please read the following statements and indicate your degree of agreement or disagreement by circling the number that corresponds with your opinion. Please be as honest as you can. Please respond to each statement by using the following code: 1=strongly disagree, 2=moderately disagree, 3=slightly disagree, 4=neutral, 5=slightly agree, 6=moderately agree and 7=strongly agree.

WHY DO YOU GO TO UNIVERSITY?

1. Because I experience pleasure and satisfaction while learning new things.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. For the intense feelings I experience when I am communicating my own ideas to others.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. For the pleasure I experience while surpassing myself in my studies.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. To prove to myself that I am capable of completing my university degree.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. For the pleasure I experience when I discover new things never seen before.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. For the pleasure that I experience when I read interesting authors.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. For the pleasure that I experience while I am surpassing myself in one of my personal accomplishments.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. Because of the fact that when I succeed in university I feel important.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. For the pleasure that I experience in broadening my knowledge about subjects which appeal to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. For the pleasure that I experience when I feel completely absorbed by what certain authors have written.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. For the satisfaction I feel when I am in the process of accomplishing difficult academic activities.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. To show myself that I am an intelligent person.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. Because my studies allow me to continue to learn about many things that interest me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. For the 'high' feeling that I experience while reading about various interesting subjects.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. Because university allows me to experience a personal satisfaction in my quest for excellence in my studies.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. Because I want to show myself that I can succeed in my studies.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

This section also aims to find your other reasons for going to university: Please read the following statements and indicate your degree of agreement or disagreement by circling the number that corresponds with your opinion. Please be as honest as you can. Please respond to each statement by using the following code: 1=strongly disagree, 2=moderately disagree, 3=slightly disagree, 4=neutral, 5=slightly agree, 6=moderately agree and 7=strongly agree.

WHY DO YOU GO TO UNIVERSITY?

1. Because with only with a high school or A level certificate, I would not find a high-paying job later on.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Because I think that university education will help me better prepare for the career I have chosen.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. In order to obtain a more prestigious job later on.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. Because eventually it will enable me to enter the job market in a field that I like.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Because I want to have 'the good life' later on.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. In order to have a better salary later on.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. Because this will help me make a better choice regarding my career orientation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. Because I believe that a few additional years of education will improve my competence as a worker.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

This section aims to find out whether your interest in going to university is reducing: Please read the following statements and indicate your degree of agreement or disagreement by circling the number that corresponds with your opinion. Please be as honest as you can. Please respond to each statement by using the following code: 1=strongly disagree, 2=moderately disagree, 3=slightly disagree, 4=neutral, 5=slightly agree, 6=moderately agree and 7=strongly agree.

WHY DO YOU GO TO UNIVERSITY?

1. Honestly, I don't know; I really feel that I am wasting my time in university.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. I can't see why I go to university and frankly, I couldn't care less.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. I once had good reasons for going to university; however, now I wonder whether I should continue.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. I don't know; I can't understand what I am doing in university.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

This section aims to show how you feel about each statement: Please read the following statements and indicate your degree of agreement or disagreement by circling the number that corresponds with your opinion. Please be as honest as you can. Please respond to each statement by using the following code: 1=strongly disagree, 2=moderately disagree, 3=slightly disagree, 4=neutral, 5=slightly agree, 6=moderately agree and 7=strongly agree.

HOW DO YOU FEEL ABOUT EACH OF THE FOLLOWING?

1. Moving to an upper social class is possible for anyone who is willing to study hard enough.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. I know many people who are not educated but in better social classes than their parents.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. I study hard at university to get a job of a better status than the jobs of my parents.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. I study hard at university to become a more recognised person in my society than my parents.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. I study hard enough at university to get a better social class than my parents.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. I study hard at university to gain access to people of a better social network than my parents	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. I study hard to get better a degree than that of my mother and my father.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. Getting education does not open up opportunity for me to raise my social status.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. I study hard at school to be financially secured than my parents.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. I study hard at university to become a more confident speaker than my parents.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. Studying hard is a route to a social status better than my parents'.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. I read hard enough to have a better command of language than my parents.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. I do not think studying hard will help me to get a job of better status than that of my parents.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. I study hard at school to become better skilled than my parents.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. Studying hard will never help me to be better skilled than my parents.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. Students who take studying seriously can easily move up from one social status to another.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17. Education will help me to become richer than my parents.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

This section aims to examine your feelings towards your course: Please read the following statements and indicate your degree of agreement or disagreement by circling the number that reflects your opinion. Please be as honest as you can. Please respond to each statement by using the following code: 1=strongly disagree, 2=moderately disagree, 3=slightly disagree, 4=neutral, 5=slightly agree, 6=moderately agree and 7=strongly agree.

HOW DO YOU FEEL ABOUT YOUR PERFORMANCE?

1. When at university, I generally have difficulty with coursework such as tests and essays.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. My lecture attendance at the university is high.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. I am generally always able to remember the things taught to me at university.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. When at the university I often struggle to answer questions during class.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. In general, I can complete my coursework quickly.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. When at university, I am concerned that I am not as intelligent as the other students.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. I feel I am very good at doing my coursework.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

THANK YOU

Sharing ideas for teaching psychology through an international translation project

Joanna Smith & Dana Castro

THE IDEA for an international translation project came to life during the 2014 winter of the polar vortex, when the second author attended, for her first time in St. Petersburg Beach, Florida, the annual conference of the National Institute on the Teaching of Psychology (NITOP). About 400 psychology teachers from the US and several other countries were present to make presentations or give posters on their teaching-related work or to attend sessions given by their colleagues through workshops and lectures. Throughout, discussion was vivid and innovative; talks were warm and interactive, handouts and other resources were diverse and abundant, with all materials very well adjusted to various aspects of the teaching process.

Immersed in such a dynamic environment which contrasted sharply with psychology-teaching-related activities going on in France, the second author received a kind of a cognitive shock. She realised then not only that the teaching of psychology might be a very stimulating object of quantitative and qualitative research, but also how vibrant an interest it creates among faculty members and students. She discovered that support for excellence in the teaching of psychology is stronger in the US than perhaps anywhere else in the world. It takes many forms, including university courses and workshops on teaching, initiatives by scholarly organisations, articles in specialised teaching journals, 'teaching tips' columns in scholarly journals, national and regional teaching conferences,

and an enormous array of online resources. Her encounters with American colleagues at the NITOP conference, and especially with Professor Douglas Bernstein of the University of South Florida, convinced her of the need to try to import to her country some of the US's intense interest in the teaching of psychology.

The first step in that direction was to review the resources available on the topic in France. The results were disappointing: psychology departments at institutions of higher education in France offer few courses or workshops on how to teach, there are no journals devoted to the teaching of psychology, no psychology organisations focused specifically on the improvement of teaching, and no teaching conferences at which interested psychology faculty can exchange ideas and discuss possible solutions to these deficits. And though psychology teachers in English-speaking countries around the world can enhance the quality of their teaching by reading US journal articles and accessing written advice and resources on US websites, that information is essentially useless to psychology teachers in the Francophone world who do not read English.

The second step, then, was to try to inform the French psychology faculty community of what was going on abroad in the hope that this information would stimulate local initiatives. Accordingly, the second author, who is Director of the *Ecole de Psychologues Praticiens*¹ in Paris,

¹ EPP is the only private psychology school in France delivering a national diploma and training professional psychologists.

France (EPP) began a collaboration with Professor Bernstein. Together they successfully applied to the US Association for Psychological Science for a grant from its Myers Fund for the Teaching and Public Understanding of Psychological Science. The goal of the grant project was to identify and translate into French a set of journal articles and other written resources that would be useful to graduate students and young instructors who are, or soon will be, teaching psychology at EPP as well as in the broader French higher educational system. With support from the APS and also the US Society for the Teaching of Psychology (STP), the translation Project is now well implemented at EPP, which has become a pioneer in the teaching of psychology field by disseminating this kind of information. Founded in 1951, the Ecole de Psychologues Praticiens in Paris offers updated, evidence-based courses in Clinical, Forensic, Educational and Industrial/Organisational psychology for students interested in terminal degrees in the practice of psychology or in pursuing further study for teaching and research careers. As part of the school's efforts to make its courses reflect the latest in psychological science and practice, it has long been its aim to include information about national as well as international trends in the core fields of study that its students pursue. Further, the school's administrators are always looking for new and better ways to teach psychological science and practice.

In this paper, we describe the implementation and current status of the translation project as well as some of the ways in which it has led to further efforts to improve the teaching of psychological science in France.

1. The initial APS-EPP project: Translation to French of research papers on the teaching of psychology

The aim of this project was to make scientific literature on the teaching of psychology available to French-speaking psychologists, students and teachers and to improve

teaching methods in Psychological Science in the Francophone world.

Papers to be translated were selected for their quality, with an emphasis on those which conveyed information that was practical and easy or relatively easy to implement. Three kinds of papers have been chosen:

- 1.1 Papers describing the theoretical background which models the different aspects of the teaching of psychology.
- 1.2 Empirical papers describing research applications which promote active learning and critical thinking in the teaching of psychology.
- 1.3 Practical papers describing teaching tips on monitoring of student attention, class preparation and how to improve student motivation.

More precisely, selected papers related to :

- **basic principles of effective psychology teaching**, like encouraging contact between students and teachers, cooperation between students, active learning, giving prompt feedback, 'time on task' emphasis, communicating high expectations, respecting the diverse talents and ways of learning of students, being organised and prepared, communicating enthusiasm and being fair and ethical (Goss Lucas & Bernstein, 2004) or like connecting to Psychological Science, committing to Evidence-Based Practice, adapting treatment to the person, and becoming all that a clinical psychologist can be (Norcross & Karpiak, 2012);
- **the impact of testing on learning** (Carpenter, 2012; Khanna, Badura Brack & Finken, 2013 ; Grünh & Cheng, 2014, Nguyen & Mc Daniel, 2015), for example conditions that help testing enhance learning or the transfer of learning;
- **the promotion of exchange in the classroom** (Larkin & Pines 2005), and the use of questions and answers to promote learning;
- **active learning** (Miserandino, 1998; Yoder & Hochevar, 2005; Richmond & Kindelberger Hagan, 2011), based on students creating knowledge for themselves

through in-class problem-based activities, synthesising multiple psychology theories, and small and large group discussions. The translated papers develop different kinds of ways to implement active learning. Examples are: note-taking, the use of questions, interactive lectures, case studies, problem-solving lectures, writing assignments, demonstrations and exercises, whole class debates, group activities, role-playing, simulation games or the use of computers and the World Wide Web.

- **teacher behaviours which enhance learning and student motivation** (Buskist & Keeley, 2014; Richmond et al., 2014), including the teacher's training, expertise, teaching skills, good syllabi, assessments and student evaluations;
- **the teaching of critical thinking** (Adam & Manson, 2014; Lilienfeld, 2010), through the use of a pseudoscience activity and the confrontation of psychological misconceptions;
- **the use of rubrics to teach scientific writing** (Greenberg, 2015), through having students assess each other's scientific writings with a rubric and re-writing their own papers after such an assessment (without any intermediate feedback);
- **the use of student management teams** (Troisi, 2014), and their effect on student performance and engagement;
- **the use of teaching technology** (Poling & LoSchiavo, 2014).

These translated papers are made available through the APS and EPP websites and publicised through newsletters. The project's utility is regularly measured by the number of visitors to the site. By mid-2015, there had already been 1298 unique page views.

2. Applying translated ideas in teaching the teaching of psychology

The translation of these papers naturally led to a renewal of teaching methods in EPP particularly, but also to the creation of a new course for our final-year psychology students, aiming to teach them the teaching of psychology.

2.1 Why teach the teaching of psychology to final-year psychology students?

Our teaching team has realised in the past few years how many young psychologists are asked to give training sessions on psychology or teach to various kinds of audiences: nurses, doctors, midwives, social workers, foster families, police officers, judges, teachers, educators, company managers... or students in those fields.

However, these young psychologists have to improvise their teaching techniques and strategies as they have never received a training of any kind on the teaching of psychology. We thus decided to fill such a gap by giving them a four-hour workshop on the teaching of psychology, during their last year of studies, based on the papers translated and rendered available through the APS-EPP translation project.

2.2 How to teach the teaching of psychology: The use of active learning

This four-hour workshop is designed to allow the students to experience the techniques they are encouraged to use when they find themselves in a teaching role in the future.

Our first aim at the beginning of the workshop is to have students experience an unpleasant teaching experience! This allows the teacher to refer back to it during the rest of the workshop as an example of the opposite of gold-standard teaching. The workshop starts with the teacher voluntarily pretending to teach poorly by reading a one-minute text without looking at the class, and in a tiresome tone, telling them they won't have a break during these four hours and that they should not ask questions or interrupt! Quickly, students are reassured that this is only a bad joke to make them experience poor teaching and what they should avoid doing.

The second aim of this workshop is to get the students involved in it. Using active learning, the teacher asks the group to consider whether they think they will be teaching psychology some time in their career and to whom. The group brainstorms on this for a few minutes and then exchanges ideas.

The third aim of this workshop is to have students realise what kind of skills and techniques are associated with the teaching they most enjoyed during their studies, working in groups of four to six and then giving feedback to the whole group. This feedback is completed with a review of the literature on the subject (Beers et al., 2014; Castro & Le Brazidec, 2015), stressing the importance of educational skills, benevolence, content mastery (expertise), language skills, charisma and organisation.

Short videos of two teachers (one in physics, the other in psychology) are shown to illustrate active learning, and the students are asked to describe what they like or don't like in those two lessons. The fourth aim of the lesson is to address teaching anxiety (Bernstein, 1983; Goss Lucas & Bernstein, 2015).

Last but not least, the fifth aim of the lesson is to give the students specific teaching tips and strategies by having each of them read one of the APS-EPP translated papers. Each student summarises it to his or her small group counterparts by role-playing how he could use it for a presentation of his current dissertation work.

The last 15 to 20 minutes are used to have students summarise what they want to keep in mind for their own teaching and give feedback about the workshop.

4. Following up the translation project in France through the organisation of an APS-EPP conference on the teaching of psychology

The success of the ongoing translation project and of the workshop led us to the idea of organising a French national conference on the teaching of psychology. The first aim of this conference is to provide an opportunity for psychology faculty and graduate students from all over France

(and from elsewhere in the Francophone world) to exchange information about what is being done in their country to promote excellent teaching. Perhaps of even greater significance, the conference is designed to stimulate a national conversation about what psychology departments and scholarly associations in France can do to elevate the importance of graduate student training in the teaching of psychology.

The conference will take place on 16–17 September, 2016, at L'École de Psychologues Praticiens (EPP) in Paris and will be entitled 'Preparing the Next Generation of French Psychologists: Goals, Methods and Resources for the Teaching of Psychology.' (recherche.psycho-prat.fr/colloque 2016/)

The second aim of the Conference is to publish the proceedings in the French impact factor journal *Pratiques Psychologiques*, which has already published in 2015 a special issue on the teaching of psychology all over the world. This publication will act as the first French resource entirely dedicated to this topic and we hope it will represent an important step in disseminating French scientific research and studies on the teaching of psychology. Further, we hope that the Conference will establish the foundations for regular meetings of French faculty members, students and international colleagues that will support excellence in the teaching of psychology in France and boost innovation through fruitful exchanges of information and ideas.

Joanna Smith, Antenne de Psychiatrie et de Psychologie Légaux.

Dana Castro, Ecole de Psychologues Praticiens.

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Psychology Educators of Tennessee (PET): A regional learning community for psychology teachers

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This paper describes the development of a regional psychology teaching organisation, Psychology Educators of Tennessee (PET). PET is designed to enhance collaboration among teachers from local colleges, universities, and high schools. We discuss the history of PET, the themes and pragmatics associated with our annual conference, plans for expanding the organisation, and challenges we have experienced with developing and maintaining PET. We also provide evaluation data from recent participants and suggestions for institutions of higher education interested in creating a similar kind of organisation.

Keywords: *Regional teaching organisation; faculty support; institutional collaboration; high school teachers; teaching conference.*

THERE IS A WIDE RANGE of national and international opportunities for networking, learning, and research for psychology teachers. For example, the annual meetings of the American Psychological Association (APA), the British Psychological Society (BPS), the Association for Psychological Science (APS), and the European Congress of Psychology frequently include track presentations, workshops, and studies devoted to the teaching of psychology. Some organisations also provide extensive resources devoted to high school teaching, such as the APA's Teachers of Psychology in Secondary Schools group (<http://www.apa.org/ed/precollege/topss/index.aspx>) and APS's Online Resources for the Classroom site (<http://www.psychologicalscience.org/index.php/members/teaching>). In the UK, support for high school teachers is also provided through the BPS, with the Division of Academics, Researchers and Teachers in Psychology, and through the Association for the Teaching of Psychology (<http://theatp.org/>).

In addition to the activities and resources of the major psychology organisations, the discipline offers several conferences devoted exclusively to the teaching of psychology

(e.g. Dastur et al., 2014; Davis & Smith, 1992; Wylie & Fuller, 1985). These options include a variety of international, national, and regional conferences such as the Vancouver International Conference on the Teaching of Psychology; the International Conference on Psychology Education; the National Institute on the Teaching of Psychology; the European Psychology Learning and Teaching Conference; and the Society for Teaching of Psychology's (STP) Annual Conference on Teaching.

Whereas these psychology teaching conferences provide excellent and high-quality learning experiences and resources for teachers, budgetary constraints and conflicts with disciplinary or research-oriented meetings sometimes make attendance at large teaching meetings a challenge. The meetings are also yearly events and often large in scope, which makes the development of collaborations or events outside of the conference timeline a challenge for participants. Furthermore, the online resources offered by the major psychology organisations are not particularly amenable to the development of local teaching and research collaborations.

An alternative approach to supporting psychology teachers is to foster events, meetings, and resources that are more local and specific to the interests of local institutions. Examples of and recommendations for smaller local or regional psychology teaching conferences have appeared in the literature for many years (e.g. Appleby & Harmon, 2015; Lucas, 1981; McPherson & Wylie, 1983). However, there are several challenges to the creation and maintenance of these local opportunities. First, the lack of an organisational structure and committed leaders may make local events more difficult to plan than regional or national events. Second, local meetings will find it difficult to offer the range of topics and presenters that larger meetings can offer, potentially limiting the appeal for psychology teachers. Third, there are unlikely to be reliable mechanisms of financial support to enable the meetings to thrive. Fourth, for most teachers, giving a presentation at a local event may be less appealing (e.g. may carry less promotion and tenure weight) than presenting at a regional or national conference.

Despite these challenges, creating a local psychology teaching organisation has its own set of unique advantages. First, attendees may be more likely to know others at the annual meetings. Second, the opportunities for longer-term collaborations may be greater than from larger meetings. Third, schedule and financial constraints are typically significantly smaller than those associated with national or international meetings. Fourth, local organisations can take advantage of the diversity of university, community college, and high school psychology teachers and capitalise on that diversity outside of annual meetings that tend to be narrower in scope, focusing either at the high school or higher education level. In particular, a regional meeting increases the chances of attendance among high school and community college teachers who frequently have limited or no travel budgets.

In this paper, we describe the development and maturation of a local psychology

teaching organisation. Since its inception, the goals of this organisation have included providing an annual venue for coverage of teaching topics; generating collaboration opportunities among local institutions of higher education; including high school teachers and developing partnerships with them; and providing resources and connection opportunities to members on a year-round basis.

History of PET

The Nashville/Middle Tennessee area is home to over 27 colleges and universities, including three historically Black colleges/universities (HBCUs) and six community colleges. These institutions reflect a range of size and scope in their psychology departments: Volunteer State Community College is an institution with over 20 full-time and adjunct teachers; Belmont University is a small, private religiously-affiliated school with five faculty members; Tennessee State University (TSU), is an HBCU that is Nashville's only public university, with Masters and Doctoral programmes and 18 faculty members; Middle Tennessee State University (MTSU) is a regional comprehensive university with the largest undergraduate student body in the state and a faculty of over 50 teachers; Vanderbilt University is research-intensive university with over 65 faculty members. In addition, many public and private high schools in the area offer Advanced Placement (AP) and regular psychology courses.

Clearly, there are a large number of psychology teachers within the mid-state region. Despite the close physical proximity of these diverse institutions of learning, collaborations and partnerships were infrequent. PET was initiated to create a network among psychology teachers in the middle Tennessee region to share resources, exchange ideas, and increase research and teaching collaborations.

In 2010, a group from TSU, Belmont University, and a Nashville-area high school received a grant from the APS Fund for

Teaching and Public Understanding of Psychological Science, which served to kick-start PET. At the first meeting, we accomplished three major objectives. First, we organised the annual Teaching of Psychology Conference. Second, we compiled and distributed a directory of regional psychology programmes. Third, we created the PET website (<http://psychedtn.wix.com/psychedoftn>).

The PET Steering Committee consists of the authors of this paper, along with additional community college and high school members. Since 2010, PET has benefitted from the support of the participating institutions, as well as from the generosity of textbook publishers and instructional technology vendors. The 2012 PET meeting received an STP Small Grant to support its conference theme of 'Building Bridges' between high schools and colleges.

For the first three years of PET, the conference was free to all attendees. Beginning in 2013, we charged a nominal registration fee (\$10) in order to generate funds to support keynote speakers and other conference expenses. Our typical conference budget ranges between \$2000 and \$3000 (USD). We use these funds to provide a modest stipend (and travel expenses, if necessary) to the keynote speaker, refreshments and lunch to conference attendees, and PET-related supplies and promotional materials.

Over the past five years, we have brought in outside keynote speakers as well as recruited both keynote and breakout speakers from our own ranks. The first PET meeting featured two speakers who discussed racial identity development and diversity issues in psychology teaching and high engagement teaching techniques. Speakers for subsequent meetings discussed the use of instructional technologies in the classroom, teaching online, and teaching controversial topics in the classroom.

Conference themes and pragmatics

During the first five years of PET, conference themes have included using technology in the classroom, building bridges between high

schools, community colleges, and colleges/universities, career advising for psychology majors, and creating engaging learning activities and environments. In addition to the invited keynote speaker(s), there are concurrent breakout sessions, poster presentations, and vendor exhibits. Breakout and concurrent sessions tend to focus on teaching tips and methods, often of interest or targeted to high school or community college teachers. In the poster sessions, institutions provide information about their programmes and individuals present on teaching-related topics. We encourage these sessions to also provide information that is relevant to high school and community college teachers.

The annual meeting provides a venue for the development of collaborations and partnerships in both teaching and research. To encourage this development, we finish each meeting with an open forum. In this final session, we discuss possible topics and speakers for future meetings and ideas for expanding the organisation and making it more effective.

Each year, the annual meeting location rotates among Belmont University, TSU, and MTSU. All of these institutions are within 40 miles of each other. The yearly conference chair is the Steering Committee member from the hosting institution and is responsible for the conference planning and pragmatics on his or her campus. Each year, the host institution typically helps to cover the costs of the meeting. PET has enjoyed good attendance with each conference, averaging between 30 to 40 attendees. Although attendance varies from year to year, the typical breakdown shows around 40 per cent university, 40 per cent community college, and 10 per cent high school teachers.

We have found the Steering Committee structure and the rotating of annual meeting locations to be good for the organisation. Whereas the major time, effort, and stressors associated with planning the meeting fall onto the host institution's committee member, the other committee members provide extensive support as well. The rota-

Table 1: Evaluation data from two recent PET annual meetings

Measure	Mean	SD
1. The publicity (announcements, updates, information) for this meeting was adequate.	4.00	0.86
2. This was a good location for the meeting.	4.78	0.53
3. The breakfast and break refreshments were good.	4.18	1.03
4. The lunch meal was good.	4.50	0.64
5. I enjoyed the opportunities to network with teaching colleagues.	4.58	0.55
6. The breakout sessions were beneficial for me.	4.18	0.81
7. As a whole, the meeting did a good job of covering the conference theme.	4.45	0.60
8. The keynote address was useful.	4.54	0.64
9. I would consider attending this event again in the future.	4.82	0.45

Note: $N=40$. All items are significantly different from the scale midpoint (3), $p<.001$.

tion of the host university also creates less of a yearly financial burden on the participating institutions. The Steering Committee meets two to three times a year to plan the meetings and to ensure that all required components are in place.

Evaluation results

Attendees complete a conference evaluation form each year. Although it varies somewhat from year to year, this form typically includes items about quality or adequacy of the publicity, meeting location, food, and so on. Other items address the opportunities to network, the breakout sessions, and the conference theme. We also use the evaluation form to assess attendee interest in new ideas for PET. Respondents rate the items using a five-point Likert scale (one=strongly disagree, five=strongly agree). Table 1 presents the typical evaluation survey items and attendee responses from two previous years. As the table indicates, participants in the PET meetings have reported very favorable attitudes and experiences.

As part of the conference evaluation form, respondents also answer a series of open-ended questions pertaining to what they most liked and disliked about the meeting, suggestions for upcoming conference themes and keynote speakers, and what

they would like to learn more about at next year's meeting. We use these responses to gauge better what works and what does not and to further encourage PET 'buy-in' and feedback from participants.

There are other ways that we can evaluate the impact of PET in the future. These include examining access and usage data from the organisation's website. We can also measure the impact of the network on teaching throughout the year, by surveying annual meeting participants about their use of PET resources.

Plans for expansion

Our current long-range goals include several ways to continue expanding the resources and services offered by PET beyond the annual meeting. First, we intend to improve the PET website by providing psychology teaching materials and resources (e.g. recommended books and videos, online materials, a member discussion board). Second, we plan to create a researcher database to facilitate communication and collaboration among the member colleges and high schools. This database will include faculty research interests, expertise with specific equipment and software, and data collection opportunities for research samples with greater ethnic and age diversity.

In discussions at our annual meeting, we have learned that there are many events hosted by individual universities and high schools that are not announced to other institutions. A third way that we intend to expand PET is through the development of an opt-in member list-serve or social media page through which we will post announcements of speakers, activities, and other psychology-related events that occur on the member campuses. Finally, we plan to create more opportunities for collaborative research grants among our member institutions. In addition to the broad range of faculty interests and expertise across the PET membership, each of our institutions has its own unique strengths and funding options. We are excited by these plans and anticipate that they will help us to further meet our major goals of creating more collaborations among our the universities, community colleges, and high schools.

Beginning in 2015, we implemented a change to the structure of the annual meeting programme. In particular, we removed concurrent sessions so that all participants are together for the duration of the meeting. We made this change so that no one has to choose between multiple sessions that might be equally appealing and to increase the cohesion of the attendees during the meeting and afterwards. This change originated from feedback on the post-meeting evaluation forms.

Writers have focused attention for some time on creating psychology research opportunities for high school students (e.g. Mattimore, 2004; Wojcik, 2012). PET has discussed the creation of an 'adopt-a-school' programme in which each university partners with a nearby high school for teaching and research purposes. As an illustration of this kind of collaboration, MTSU is developing a research partnership with a local magnet high school. The high school requires students to complete a senior thesis, which includes an external research mentor. Students receive institutional review board (IRB) ethics training and collaborate

with MTSU faculty members on a variety of research projects. They also present their research at local and regional conferences that are held in the spring. MTSU faculty members visit the high school, speak to psychology classes, and serve as mentors for student projects. This partnership is a win-win situation for both institutions. The university researchers have the chance to recruit high school students to their institution and to their psychology research topics, while the high school provides high-level research opportunities to its students and information and experiences that should help students in their transition to college (Cohen et al., 2008).

Challenges with developing and maintaining PET

We hope that we have made it clear that PET is on a positive trajectory and has a great deal of potential for further development. Despite this status, we have encountered several challenges and barriers with moving PET forward. First, funding for the organisation and annual meeting is very limited. Our funding often forces us to recruit local rather than regional or national keynote speakers. It also limits the quality of support we can provide to attendees, such as refreshments, meals, handouts, and PET-related paraphernalia. Alternatively, a benefit of limited funding is that we are forced to keep things simple. In particular, we do not try to do too much or grow too large – we keep the annual meeting short (typically three to four hours), increasing the chances that teachers new to PET might attend and that past participants will return.

Another challenge is our lack of administrative support. Because of the nature of the organisation, we are unable to support full-time staff or even provide compensation to part-time staffers. All of the work falls to the Steering Committee and its members' ability to plan and accomplish tasks themselves or with help from their home institutions. This situation requires a cohesive and dedicated Steering Committee that is willing to

provide support when necessary. We recommend a minimum of four members for such a committee. We have found that rotating the campus location among the Steering Committee members has worked very well for planning and implementation of the annual meeting. This rotation balances the workload and decreases the chances of burnout among committee members.

A third challenge for PET involves finding themes for the yearly conference that will appeal to all levels of psychology educators. Our conference evaluation form is essential for addressing this challenge, since we encourage attendees to suggest meeting themes and other topics that they would like to see covered in the future. To date, we have chosen themes that are attractive to PET members, reflect their stated interests, and encourage their return to the yearly meetings.

Other challenges involve mainly pragmatic issues. For example, when planning the annual meeting, we must take into account the schedules of the colleges and universities and the high schools. Breaks often do not fall at the same time for different institutions. We have always held the annual meeting on a Saturday, which sometimes limits high school teacher attendance because the weekends are frequently their only time off. Scheduling the meeting for a weekday might increase high school attendance but at the same time reduce college teacher participation. If one's country or region does not provide the resources and support for high schools that professional organisations in UK and US do, this can limit efforts to build bridges and create partnerships with high school teachers. Our managing and maintaining the PET website has also been challenging, because different individuals (college staff or Steering Committee members) have taken responsibility for the site at different times. Recruiting or assigning a single individual to manage this aspect of the organisation is a good idea.

Conclusion

In its brief existence, PET has proven to be very effective at meeting its major goal of developing and maintaining teaching collaborations among a wide range of local institutions. The core group of regular attendees has developed into a network of local peers and additional institutions have participated as word about the organisation has spread. It is crucial to identify a Steering Committee of teachers and faculty members who are willing and able to devote the necessary time and energy to such a venture. We schedule our annual meetings in the fall, which is a time when there is somewhat less competition with other teaching and research conferences. We encourage other institutions, particularly those that can draw on a large pool of local colleges, universities, and secondary schools, to consider 'taking the plunge' to meet the psychology teaching needs of their nearby colleagues and peers.

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Recent papers of interest to teachers of psychology

Papers selected and reviewed by Matt Jarvis

Papers on the teaching of psychology

1. Peterson, D.J. (2016). The Flipped Classroom Improves Student Achievement and Course Satisfaction in a Statistics Course: A Quasi-Experimental Study. *Teaching of Psychology* 43: 10–15.

One for any psychology teacher considering trying the ‘flipped learning’ approach, in which students work independently on the basics of a topic prior to class time so that contact time can be focused on addressing difficulties and preparing for assessment. This paper reports the findings from a small-scale quasi-experiment comparing exam performance and student evaluations from a traditional lecture-based statistics course with those of a ‘flipped’ course. 19 students from an American University took part in the lecture condition whilst 24 took part in the flipped condition. Exam results were approximately one grade higher following the flipped condition and student evaluations were more positive. Although the small scale and quasi-experimental design may limit the generalisability of findings, this study suggests that the flipped learning approach is well worth a try.

2. Bartels, J.M., Milovich, M.M. & Moussier, S. (2016). Coverage of the Stanford Prison Experiment in Introductory Psychology Courses: A Survey of Introductory Psychology Instructors. *Teaching of Psychology* 43: 136–141.

Zimbardo’s classic Stanford Prison Experiment (SPE) is a staple of most introductory psychology courses in the UK and the US. This paper reports an online survey of 117 American psychology lecturers about their coverage of the study, comparing results to those of previous content analyses of textbook coverage. Respondents reported that their critiques of the SPE focused primarily on ethical issues and there was relatively little emphasis on methodological or theoretical issues. Few respondents reported using critical papers such as those by Carnahan and McFarland in the US or Haslam and Reicher in the UK. These findings are reported to be consistent with those of studies of textbook coverage. It seems then that there are significant missed opportunities in the teaching of introductory psychology to make the most of the critical thinking opportunities afforded by the SPE.

3. Rosander, M. & Chiriac, E.H. (2016). The Purpose of Tutorial Groups: Social Influence and The Group As Means and Objective. *Psychology Learning & Teaching* 15: 155–167.

Problem-based learning (PBL) is an empirically supported teaching technique widely used in the teaching of psychology from pre-degree to post-graduate levels. PBL involves the application of psychological theory and research to a scenario, typically in a tutorial group setting. This paper reports a qualitative study of student perceptions of the role of tutorial groups in PBL. One-hundred-and-forty-seven students from 24 PBL tuto-

rial groups provided statements, which were subjected to thematic analysis. Analysis revealed that students perceived a dual role for tutorial groups; as a source of learning but also as a source of social support and social influence. This finding highlights the importance of the social-emotional function of peers in co-operative learning, something that can easily be lost in the dominant social-constructivist narrative of co-operative learning strategies.

Elsewhere in education

1. Holmes, V.L. & Hwang, Y. (2016). Exploring the effects of project-based learning in secondary mathematics education. *Journal of Educational Research*, 109: 449–463.

Project work has been found to be inherently interesting and motivating to students. Moreover, depending on the context and level, project work can lend itself to the psychology curriculum. This paper explores the potential benefits of project work for socio-economically and ethnically diverse American secondary maths students. The outcomes, intrinsic motivation and critical thinking abilities of project-based learners were compared to those of traditionally taught High School children. Project-based learning was found to convey benefits in all three domains. Moreover, project-based learning narrowed achievement gaps across socio-economic and ethnic groups. Clearly more research is needed to see if benefits for American school age maths students generalise to older psychology students in different cultural contexts, however this study highlights a promising direction for pedagogical practice.

2. Shoshani, A. & Eldor, L. (2016) The informal learning of teachers: Learning climate, job satisfaction and teachers' and students' motivation and well being. *International Journal of Education Research*, 79: 52–63.

It is commonly believed amongst teachers in a wide range of contexts that high levels of teacher job satisfaction carry benefits for learners, and that opportunities for continuing professional development are an important factor in job satisfaction. Senior managers sometimes appear somewhat less convinced of this! This paper reports a study designed to test the validity of these beliefs in Israeli teachers. 273 primary and secondary teachers and 1040 of their students were surveyed and results subjected to multi-level modelling. As predicted, positive relationships emerged between institutional culture of professional development and teacher engagement, commitment and well being, and between these teacher satisfaction measures and student engagement. I'm guessing no surprises for teachers of psychology!

Papers on commonly taught topics in psychology

1. Caspar, E.A, Christensen, J.F., Cleere-mans, A. & Haggard, P. (2016). Coercion changes the sense of agency in the human brain. *Current Biology*, 26, 585–592.

Stanley Milgram explained the human tendency for destructive obedience in terms of a shift to an 'agentic state.' Like other state theories in psychology Milgram's agency theory is widely seen as problematic because reliable physiological correlates of agentic behaviour have proved elusive. However this paper reports two experiments that suggests there is indeed a distinctive agentic brain state. In experiment 1 participants were either ordered or merely offered an opportunity to give a victim a shock or steal money from them. In both conditions they were tasked with estimating the time between pressing a button and hearing a sound. In the orders condition only participants over-estimated the time elapsed between button and sound. This distortion in time perception suggests an altered state of consciousness. In experiment 2 the procedure was repeated whilst measuring

participants' brain waves. A distinct pattern of electrical activity was found when participants acted under orders. These findings supports Milgram's idea that we exist in an altered state when we obey orders.

2. Loaiza, V.M. & Camos, V. (2016). Does Controlling for Temporal Parameters Change the Levels-of-Processing Effect in Working Memory? *Advanced Cognitive Psychology*, 12, 2-9.

In introductory psychology levels of processing (LOP) and multistore models of memory are widely taught as rival approaches. However, the fact that LOP effects have been reported on long-term memory rather than working memory actually provides support for the working memory (WM)-long term memory (LTM) distinction. This paper reports an experiment designed to test whether LOP effects also take place in WM. Twenty-nine students viewed memoranda in red and blue font and were tasked with matching them to key words either by font colour (shallow processing) or semantic relatedness (deep processing). Immediate recall (WM) and delayed recall (LTM) were tested. Semantically processed information was recalled better after delayed but not immediate recall. This suggests that the LOP effect holds true for LTM but not WM. These findings are theoretically significant in supporting the LTP-WM distinction, but also pose a challenge for how alternative

approaches to memory are taught in introductory psychology.

3. Rahman, M.M., Charlotte K. Callaghan, C.K., Christian, M.M., Chattarji, M.K.S. & Shane M. OMara. S.M. Early hippocampal volume loss as a marker of eventual memory deficits caused by repeated stress. *Scientific Reports*, 6 (in press)

It is well established that chronic stress is associated with cognitive deficits such as memory loss. This paper is ground breaking however in reporting a study demonstrating that relatively short periods of stress can lead to structural change in the brain and that this change precedes cognitive deficits. Rats were deliberately stressed for two hours a day over a 10-day period. MRI brain scans were carried out after three days and the rats' ability to form new memories was tested after five days. The physiological and cognitive consequences of the stress were severe. After three days hippocampal volume was reduced and after five days long-term memory formation was significantly impaired. The researchers concluded that stress causes an immediate decline in hippocampal volume and that this in turn leads to memory problems. Issues of animal-human generalisation notwithstanding, this study has implications for the importance of stress management in the workplace.

Matt Jarvis

Positive Computing: Technology for Wellbeing and Human Potential

Rafael A. Calvo & Dorian Peters

2014; The MIT Press; Cambridge, Massachusetts; London, England

Reviewed by Nikki Newhouse

THIS LATEST publication by academic dream team Calvo and Peters is a game changer. Ubiquitous, pervasive computing means that many of us struggle with a love/hate relationship with technology, tied to our inboxes or slaves to the Fitbit but a growing movement in the field of human-computer interaction, spearheaded by Calvo and Peters, is trying to reconfigure our understanding of the digital experience. In a field heavily populated with work focused on maximising our use of and reliance on technology, this book presents a novel alternative: 'positive computing', or the idea that sensitive design and development of technology can support psychological wellbeing and human potential.

Calvo is Associate Professor of Software Engineering and Director of the Positive Computing Lab at the University of Sydney while Peters is user experience designer and online strategist for the Faculty of Education and Social Work at the University of Sydney and Creative Leader of the Positive Computing Lab there. They are an established and prolific academic partnership and their writing combines into an easy to follow prosaic style which places this book somewhere between text book and 'interesting non-fiction'. Reflective of the highly collaborative nature of human-computer interaction research in general, *Positive Computing* includes numerous invited contributions or 'sidebars' from a range of subject experts, such as Felicia Huppert on 'Measuring

Subjective Wellbeing' and Don Norman on 'Fun and Pleasure in Computing Systems.'

The book is in two distinct parts. Part 1 reviews foundational literature from fields such as psychology, economics, education and computing in an attempt to synthesise multi-disciplinary theory, knowledge and methodologies into a more consolidated foundation upon which to base their claims about the nature and potential of positive computing as a discipline in its own right. They then move on to propose a theoretical framework for the development of technology aimed at supporting wellbeing and consider appropriate methodologies for development and evaluation. In particular, they are keen to make a claim not only for the specific design of technology to support wellbeing but also of the potential for wellbeing research to improve the digital experience in general.

Part 2 takes a more detailed look at specific established wellbeing constructs such as motivation, compassion and self-awareness and examines how these factors have been conceptualised in the wider wellbeing literature before moving on to a consideration of how we *design* for such factors and how they can best be operationalised digitally.

Make no mistake, this is a comprehensive, important book. However, while the book is a welcome game changer in terms of its content and pragmatism, the sheer amount of content covered makes it overwhelming at times. The structure and flow of individual chapters is also occasionally unclear.

At around 270 pages, the writing is reflective of the authors' huge knowledge and experience in the field. Academic research sits alongside personal anecdote, philosophy of wellbeing sits alongside plentiful examples of real-life theoretical application. There's a lot to take in. With its proposed framework, design implications and novel approach to determining a new theoretical foundation for the development of digital interventions

for wellbeing, this book really does represent the most forward of thinking in its discipline – you just might have to digest it in small chunks it get the most out of it.

The reviewer

Nikki Newhouse

PhD Student, UCL

Researcher, Oxford University

Applied Cyberpsychology: Practical Applications of Cyberpsychological Theory and Research

Alison Attrill & Chris Fullwood (Eds.)

Palgrave Macmillan (2016); Hardback: 266 pages; ISBN: 978-1-137-51702-9

Reviewed by James Hartley

CURIOSLY ENOUGH I came across the term 'Cyberpsychology' twice this week and in both cases it was spelled as shown. Why is it not 'Cyber Psychology' (like 'Educational...', 'Developmental...', etc.)? This text, edited by Alison Attrill and Chris Fullwood (from the Cyberpsychology Research Group at the University of Wolverhampton) contains 14 well-referenced chapters on different aspects of applied cyber psychology written by 18 authors, 14 of whom are associated with the University in one way or another – and indeed 4 of them are Wolverhampton Ph.D students. Such a text reminds me of the Keele textbooks written in the 1970s on applied psychology, child development and cognitive psychology. In my view writing textbooks together within a Department is good for author and student morale. Initial chapters can be discussed, revised and tried and tested with current students.

So what is applied cyber psychology and

what areas of it does this book cover? The preface explains that cyber psychology is that area of psychology that considers all aspects and features of online behaviour, particularly those on the world wide web. The 14 topics covered include inclusion and disability, internet addiction, memory aids, support and counselling, online dating, computer-aided games, military and defence applications, and online psychometric assessment. There is little specifically said about practical skills and educational matters – a bit surprising if this book wants to reach a student audience.

And – in the area of educational matters – I include things like apps, email, text and screen design, as well as teaching and learning in a broader sense. Forgive me riding this hobbyhorse but I note that when it comes to communicating in print all of the authors of the chapters in this text are committed to writing lengthy paragraphs, often almost a page long. Furthermore,

these pages of unbroken text are not alleviated by tables and figures – there being only two figures (on one page) and one table in the book... Such an inaccessible text will not help sales, and it does not reflect any notion of cyber technology.

Fortunately, the content helps to enliven the dullness of the presentation. For me Edward Asbury's chapter on digital natives provides an interesting perspective on the effects of new technology on children in this digital age. The idea that children born after 2000 have had computers all of their lives and are thus different from the children born before them has enjoyed a wide circulation but is generally dismissed today in favour of pointing to the benefits and losses of living in the computer age for all ages.

In a related chapter Tom Mercer discusses technology-assisted memory. Here evidence is provided to show that we are often willing to 'offload' our memories to technology – relying on computers and apps to remind us of what we need to know when we need to know it. Such procedures can also help people with memory impairments. For me it raises the question of whether or not we need examination papers anymore?

Chapters on online counselling, e-mail therapy and online support groups extend this discussion further. The authors of these chapters suggest that whilst such procedures can be useful in certain circumstances – and good examples are provided – they are

better if they are aligned with traditional techniques, or indeed amplify them.

The chapter I enjoyed most was the one by Nicola Fox Hamilton one online dating and romantic relationships. Clearly, as the author shows, the internet has fundamentally changed dating procedures for many. The advantages and disadvantages of these procedures for different groups (from students to pensioners) are clearly outlined and thoughtfully evaluated. As Nicola points out, online dating currently enables millions of people around the world to connect in ways that it would have been impossible to conceive of just two decades ago.

So this is a fascinating text in many ways. But I return to my original concern. Is cyber psychology a new area of psychology requiring a separate syllabus and examination papers or is it really just an update of psychology in general? Practically everything we do these days is facilitated by the use of new technology and it would be extraordinary not to see this reflected in the latest editions of all our textbooks.

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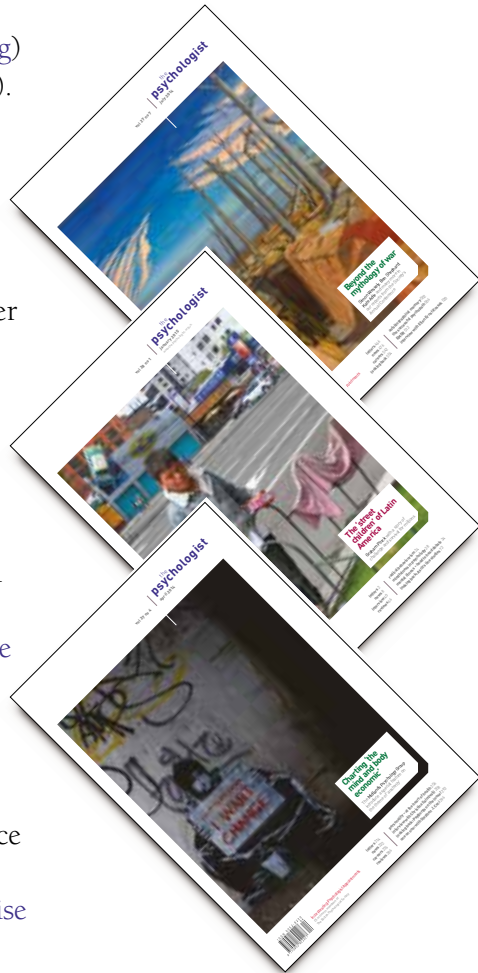
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Notes to Contributors

Psychology Teaching Review (PTR) was established to encourage research on teaching and learning in psychology; to serve as a vehicle for the sharing of good practice and, to improve the teaching of psychology at all levels. The Editor welcomes articles on any aspect of teaching and learning in psychology, particularly those with a strong theoretical underpinning and a good methodology. PTR accepts five types of contribution, as explained below. Submissions which do not obviously fall into one of the categories should be discussed with the editor.

1. Refereed papers

Papers should be as short as is consistent with clear presentation of subject matter, and will normally be 5000–7000 words in length. An abstract of no more than 150 words should be provided along with a list of keywords describing the content of the paper. The title should indicate accurately but briefly the subject of the paper. A running head title should be given. A policy of blind reviewing will be applied, so authors are requested not to put any personal information on the manuscript.

In the first instance, the Editor will read each submitted manuscript to see if it is appropriate to be considered for publication in *Psychology Teaching Review*.

If it is not, the author will be contacted and feedback given. If it is considered appropriate, the manuscript will be refereed by two independent reviewers. The Editor will decide whether or not to publish the article in the light of the reports received. All papers will be evaluated by the Editor and refereed in terms of academic merit, readability and interest.

2. Short notes

Papers (up to 1000 words) on empirical findings of research in progress will also be considered for publication. These papers also require an abstract.

3. Debating points

Submissions are sought from authors who wish to write thought-provoking, controversial pieces (1000–4000 words) designed to inform and stimulate current pedagogical debate. An abstract of no more than 150 words is required. From time to time *Psychology Teaching Review* will produce a special issue which focuses on the perspectives of various groups. For this reason we recommend contacting the editor as soon as possible if you wish to contribute a paper of this nature.

4. Student submissions

Research by undergraduate students, usually based on project dissertations are especially welcome, as long as the research is relevant to the teaching and learning of psychology. Please follow the guidance provided for refereed papers when submitting contributions of this nature.

5. Practice exchange

Contributors are welcome to share their suggestions for good teaching activities, whether pre-tertiary, undergraduate or postgraduate. Such contributions should outline the nature of the activity, experience of its use and a brief consideration of research, suggesting an explanation for its success.

Abstracts

Current and significant abstracts related to the teaching and learning of psychology will be culled from relevant sources and summarised. Abstracts for submissions should be sent to ptr@bps.org.uk

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Book reviews are also welcomed. These will be considered by the Book Reviews Editor, who will communicate a publication decision directly to the contributor. Book reviewers should offer fair and valid criticisms and avoid being defamatory. All authors of reviewed books have the right of reply. Reviews (up to 1000 words) should be sent as a word document to the Book Reviews Editor via ptr@bps.org.uk

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For Journal Articles: Banyard, P. & Duffy, K. (2014). Student representations of psychology in the UK. *Psychology Teaching Review* 20(2) 110–120.

For books: Richardson, J.T.E. (2000). *Researching student learning. Approaches to studying in campus-based and distance education*. Buckingham: SRHE & Open University Press.

For chapters: Norton, L., Kahn, P, Van Arendsen, J. & Waiters, D. (2001). Reflective thinking about the study of psychology, mathematics and music at degree level: Does it change over the first year? In C. Rust (Ed.), *Improving student learning strategically* (pp.120–131). Oxford: The Oxford Centre for Staff and Learning Development.

For Internet Articles: Lovell, A. (7 February, 2003). *More students, less funding, worse learning?* Retrieved 25 March 2005, from The Higher Education Academy website: www.heacademy.ac.uk/resources.asp?process=full_record§ion=generic&id=474

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Please note that all contributions must be provided in English.

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