

Chapter Six

Global Competencies Development among University Students for Success in Life

Shatha N. Alkhasawneh

Luminus Technical University College, Jordan
s.khasawneh@ltuc.com

Purpose The purpose of this chapter is to summarise recent research results on how global learning could be developed by Higher Education Institutes (HEIS) and the barriers that prevented HEIS from accomplishing it as well as the main myths in relation to global learning. The main objective of this chapter book is to review recent studies that elaborate on Global Competencies as a multi-dimensional concept that requires a blend of knowledge, abilities, attitudes, and values successfully applied by students to international or cross-cultural difficulties and in different contexts. Also, the studies that examine the Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) framework and how university educators could encourage the development of global competency among their students based on current research methods in higher education.

Study design/methodology/approach This chapter summarises the literature and findings of recent studies in relation to global competency development (definitions, best practises, myths, and barriers). This book chapter explores the following questions: (a) What are Global Competence, Global Citizenship & Global Citizenship Education; (b) How is global learning seen at different levels; (c) What are the four dimensions of the PISA framework; (d) How can Global Competence Education be effectively developed in higher education by sharing promising teaching practises that are related; (e) What are the shortcomings and challenges of Global Competence Education?

Findings HEIS need more to highlight global learning in their strategic plans in a local context, as previous research demonstrated that the understanding of global learning remains unclear as no direct definition/description was agreed on which is urgently needed to promote the internationalisation at home concept in HEIS.

Originality/value The current chapter addresses the importance of learners' empowerment with 21st century global competencies as crucial

skills for their success in the workplace and society, as well as enhancing their 'interculturality' and cultural awareness through the adoption and implementation of strategic plans and practises by HEIS and university faculty members.

Introduction

Students in the twenty first century live in a connected, diverse, and changing world (OECD, 2016). New economic, digital, cultural, demographic, and environmental influences are shaping young people's lives around the world, and they are engaging in more frequent daily cross-cultural interactions (Buckingham, 2007). Young people nowadays are expected to learn how to not just engage in a more connected world but also to respect and take advantage of cultural diversity. Education can shape the process of developing a global and intercultural outlook, which is a lifetime process (UNESCO, 2015).

Rapid technological advancements and expanding cross-border collaboration have made nations and universities of higher education more interdependent. Institutions have been urged repeatedly to give students the knowledge and abilities they need to become interethnic, intercultural, and globally competent citizens (Burstein, 2007). 'Our global era requires internationally competent citizens,' claim Dewey and Duff (2009).

Given the difficulties that modern society faces, it is crucial for higher education to prepare students for their role as global citizens (Gibson et al., 2008; Chong, 2015). According to Toumi et al. (2008), intercultural dialogue, intercultural relations, international relations, and cosmopolitan citizenship should all be covered in courses on global citizenship. Students need to possess the information as well as the abilities required to succeed in a global society and to enrol in any higher education institution because education is a fundamental human right (Stankovska, et al. 2019).

Additionally, when it comes to higher education, greater focus should be placed on empowering students with global competencies as well as paying more attention to how education can help educate these students for their role as active global citizens. Therefore, the central emphasis of the current chapter is to highlight the various strategies, pedagogical methods, and instruments with which educators can foster their students' global competencies for the purpose of integrating them into global citizenship.

Background and History of Global Competence and Global Citizenship

The term ‘global competence’ refers to the acquisition of in-depth knowledge and understanding of international issues, an appreciation of and capacity to learn from and collaborate with individuals from a variety of linguistic and cultural backgrounds, proficiency in a foreign language, and abilities to contribute effectively to a global community. Four fundamental components make up this definition (Van Roekel, D., 2010), namely:

1. *International Awareness.* This is what it means to be knowledgeable and understanding of global history, socioeconomic systems, and political systems, among other things. This awareness involves the knowledge that regional, societal, and even global events can have an impact. A person who is aware of the larger global environment also understands that people’s decisions have an impact on people outside of their own country or region.
2. *Appreciation of Cultural Diversity.* This includes the capability to recognise different viewpoints on urgent global issues as well as the knowledge, understanding, and appreciation of individuals from many cultures. It is possible to participate in constructive and courteous cross-cultural interactions when one is aware of, appreciates, and is willing to tolerate cross-cultural differences.
3. *Proficiency in Foreign Languages.* This includes understanding, reading, writing, and speaking in multiple languages, which improves cross-cultural communication abilities. Understanding different cultures and the speakers of those languages is made possible by having knowledge of other languages.
4. *Competitive Skills.* Gaining an in-depth understanding of global concerns is necessary to be competitive on a global scale. Students need advanced thinking abilities that foster creativity and invention in order to compete. Complete awareness of the global economic, social, and technological developments improves students’ capacity to compete in the global market.

Global competency has been used as a notion in everyday discourse for many years (Lambert, 1994). However, it is still regarded as a new concept in the scientific community. Relevant scientific contributions have just been made and published. Reimers (2009) or Boix Mansilla

and Jackson (2011) have both put forth influential strategies. Global competency is a topic of discussion, particularly in relation to education for sustainable and global development in many countries, like Germany, for example (Appelt and Siege, 2008; Lang-Wojtasik and Scheunpflug, 2005; Rost, 2005). In contrast, English-language research has placed more emphasis on a person's capacity for communication, which is typically divided into intercultural communication, linguistic and cultural skills, or behaviour that is considered 'acceptable and understandable' within a given society.

Organisations like the Association of International Educators, the Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD), and the United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO) have recently stated the critical need for the upcoming generation to strengthen their global competence, the capacity to examine societal issues, and the ability to work with those of different backgrounds to make a change. Educators play a critical role in ensuring that students are ready to succeed in multicultural communities and deal with contemporary concerns (Fox, 2019).

The Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development developed the 2018 PISA global competency framework in response to the increased demand for students who can solve global concerns (Asia Society/OECD, 2018). The significance of the PISA global competency framework is that it aids educational institutions in measuring, investigating, and tracking the academic progress of young learners in maths, science, and reading, as well as their emotional and social development. Specifically, how well they can use their knowledge and abilities in new circumstances in order to strengthen global competences (Fox, 2019).

The four dimensions that make up the PISA framework's core, when appropriately used, can give educators trying to promote global competency in their students some direction. According to the Asia Society/OECD (2018), global competence is the ability and willingness to carry out the following tasks:

- Consider topics like poverty, environmental risk, and conflict that are important on a local, national, and international level.
- Recognise and respect other people's viewpoints and worldviews.
- Interact openly, appropriately, and successfully with people of many cultures.

- Take action to promote sustainable development and societal well-being.

Although these four abilities seem to be separate from one another, they work very well together as the foundation for developing global competence (Boix Mansilla & Jackson, 2011).

The term ‘Global Citizenship’ is frequently used and thus contentious. It has been developed and interpreted for usage across a wide range of contexts, including corporate sustainability initiatives, government policies on development, and a number of global civil society activities. Unsurprisingly, scholarly discussion has focused on how it should be conceptualised, why it matters, and whether it is universal, leading to a variety of interpretations of what global citizenship is. These various interpretations can be helpfully framed by typologies, like the one developed by Oxley and Morris (2013). These typologies help investigate some of the concept’s fundamental characteristics and its various manifestations. According to many (Le Bourdon 2020; Pashby 2018), global citizenship is a human process that cultivates a sense of allegiance, solidarity, and connection to the people who live on our planet. Thus, the concept of ‘global citizenship’ includes thoughts of belonging to many different global communities as well as to all of mankind. According to UNESCO (2015, p. 14), this ‘feeling of belonging’ is created through political, economic, social, and cultural connections among the local, national, and global levels.

Global Citizenship Education (GCE)

Global Citizenship Education aims to foster self-reflection, critical thinking, and, most importantly, feelings of humanity. There are still gaps about the micro-level experiences and behaviours that support global identities, despite the fact that the subjectivity of belonging has been extensively acknowledged.

Higher education institutes are increasingly becoming more internationalised. Internationalisation is seen as a crucial factor in promoting staff and student mobility, establishing remote education, encouraging international education, and enhancing scholarly collaboration. The development of a system of international standards and the maintenance of educational quality are both considered tools for preparing students adequately for the demands of global labour markets, economies, and society (Marjorie, 2000; Qiang, 2003). Knowledge ac-

quisition, curriculum improvement, competitive advantage, and workforce development are some of its direct advantages. As a result of this expanding trend, new difficulties have emerged. The main issues include a lack of supportive educational policy, ineffective teaching and learning methods, restrictions on the supply of education via digital channels, and an imbalance between academic quality and recognition.

Following is an explanation of how university educators and higher education institutes could support the development of global competences among their students based on current research practises in higher education institutes around the globe.

Promising Teaching Practises

The design of curricula, enrollment of international students, study abroad programmes, international internships, cultural considerations, and hiring of foreign professors are just a few examples of how teaching is becoming more globally oriented. In these genres, performers take on the roles of learners, professors, researchers, specialists, and workers. Cooperating universities collaborate when designing curricula to provide programmes with standards that adhere to both national and international certification frameworks and are relevant on the global stage. Course syllabi, learning objectives, credit requirements, and pedagogical structures are all cooperatively defined. Language and cultural competencies should also be integrated into the learning process; these can be done in a number of ways. Universities can readily recruit international students if their courses are compatible and include elements that reflect their cultures and languages (Al-Agtash & Khadra, 2019).

According to reports, a new trend in educational structures has evolved that is mostly focused on collaboration agreements with international universities. This is the partnership dimension. According to Rena (2010), the United Arab Emirates, Qatar, Saudi Arabia, and Egypt are notable examples of nations that have brazenly promoted internationalisation by enlisting prestigious foreign universities to open local campuses. This was done in an effort to increase access for the domestic student population and act as higher education ‘hubs’ for their regions (Al-Agtash & Khadra, 2019).

To build global learning, educators must first do an analysis of their campuses to determine the dynamic campus factors. For example, why

does the campus wish to develop global learning? What must be done to fulfil the objectives of global learning? What resources are accessible? Where is the present KSA of global learning for the students? What goals do these students have in mind? In light of additional factors including the environment, the curriculum (including hidden curriculum), the delivery, and the institution, educators may want to rethink adjusting educational techniques (Killick, 2015). Each system may 'create a functional match between what the environment provides and what the actor can and wants to do' based on these evaluations (Thelen & Smith, 1994, p. 44).

Educators should also explore themes for reading, discussion, writing, and research in class by embracing diverse points of view through assignment design. In keeping with the faculty-driven curriculum redesigns described above, instructors should review the textbooks they use in their classes as well as the kinds of exercises and projects they assign to their students. According to Bourn (2011), 'The world is changing and previous world views are no longer appropriate,' so assignments and activities in the classroom should incorporate a variety of viewpoints and veer away from what he called 'fixed content and skills that conform to a predetermined idea of society' (p. 565). By expanding course themes to include more different experiences, International students have the chance to share their existing knowledge and, ideally, influence other students' thinking who may not have been exposed to these concepts before.

Instructors must encourage extracurricular activities that get both domestic and foreign students talking about issues with a global impact. Outside of the traditional curriculum, there are opportunities for global participation that let students connect depending on their own interests and goals. According to Leask (2009), schools must take deliberate steps to encourage these relationships, which calls for a 'campus atmosphere that stimulates and rewards interaction among international and domestic students' (p. 205). Participation in university-wide symposiums and events, service-learning programmes, research teams, intercultural student organisations, student government and leadership, globally themed living and learning communities in dormitories, and tutoring and mentoring programmes (in which international students tutor or mentor, rather than being tutored or mentored, or at least engage reciprocally in the relationship) are a few suggestions for co-curricular activities (Siczek, 2014).

In order to equip students to make a difference in the global community, mobile technology could be utilised to apply active learning methodologies like situational, inquiry-based, and case-based learning. According to Jarvis et al. (2016), undergraduate geography students can learn about economic, cultural, and social life by using mobile devices to deliver multimedia based on geographic location. Students were effectively able to synthesise, apply, and integrate knowledge in actual circumstances due to mobile-assisted case-based learning (Taradi & Taradi, 2016). Problem-based instructional strategies may aid student decision-making and action planning on global challenges.

Researchers that looked at how a mobile-assisted inquiry-based approach fostered active learning provide an example of this (Leelamma & Indira, 2017). It was found that students had a better understanding of important environmental issues and had promised to change things by using their knowledge to increase awareness in their communities.

By utilising language learning technology, instructors can assist students in becoming better equipped for action (Boix Mansilla & Jackson, 2011). Mobile devices offer a wide variety of language learning applications and have a substantial impact on college students' vocabulary and grammar understanding (Alkhezzi, 2016; Dange, 2018). One Chinese institution found that WeChat, a well-known social media platform, was very helpful in teaching students English as a second language (Shi et al., 2017). By working together to practise English using the mobile application WhatsApp, university students in Istanbul greatly increased their communication abilities and vocabulary (Avci & Adiguzel, 2016). With the help of mentorship and role modelling from teachers, popular learning tools like Duolingo make learning more engaging (Garca Botero & Questier, 2016).

On the other hand, when studying abroad, students typically enrol in a joint or double degree programme at a university overseas or spend a semester or a whole year there as part of their degree. This is currently the most common and expanding form of globalisation. Financing, linguistic hurdles, and credit transfer are just a few of the many worries and problems that exist. An overseas internship or practicum improves intercultural and practical experiences while increasing mobility. A practicum is frequently needed in a foreign country as part of various technical degree programmes, which adds another layer of intercultural complexity. In some circumstances, the practicum helps

graduates get jobs abroad, which might affect knowledge transfer but can have a negative effect on the 'brain drain' phenomenon (Al-Agtash & Khadra, 2019).

Myths About Global Learning

Some commonly accepted myths about internationalising the curriculum and promoting global learning exist (Zhou, 2022):

1. *Travelling abroad is required for global learning.* There is a pervasive misconception that participating in global learning requires studying abroad or, at the very least, leaving the university and the neighbourhood (Fischer, 2015). Students will experience numerous forms of globalisation in their daily lives on campus and in local communities. In fact, global learning is the result of curriculum modifications influenced by globalisation (Sobania & Braskamp, 2009). Although studying abroad is a successful method of fostering global learning (Hovland, 2006), it is not the sole method (Liao et al., 2019). Since the local context is a component of the global context, it is important to integrate global learning into local communities' everyday activities (Zhou, 2022).
2. *Only specific disciplines should engage in global learning.* Many students have the misconception that global learning is only appropriate for fields with a direct and obvious connection to globalisation, such as business, anthropology, or cultural and regional studies (Standish, 2012). All students, regardless of discipline, must acquire global learning as an essential student learning outcome in order to fulfil the demands of a globalised society. Thus, everyone can benefit from global learning (Zhou, 2022).
3. *The external environment is all that global learning is about.* Understanding different cultures, gaining perspective-taking abilities, or engaging in intercultural communication are all examples of how the term 'global learning' has been used to describe learning about the outside world (Hovland, 2014). Students should also have a more accurate self-awareness of this process as they gain more exposure to different cultural practices and ideas (Association of American Colleges and Universities, 2009). They acquire knowledge about their identity and the value they may bring to the world. Each student is also a part of global learning, in addition to the external environment (Zhou, 2022).

In conclusion, global learning is an important component of higher education institutions' responses to globalisation. Students should acquire it as a result of the internationalisation of higher education during their time in college and university (Hovland, 2014; Olson et al., 2006; Ruscio et al., 2015). The key learning objective for all disciplines is global learning, which calls for students to acquire the knowledge, skills, and attitudes (KSA) necessary for navigating local and international communities on a daily basis while also developing their own selves (Zhou, 2022).

Shortcomings and Challenges of Global Competence

First, there is a significant overlap between the definition of global competence and those of other commonly used concepts, some of which have definitions that are more ambiguous than others. These concepts include global citizenship, cosmopolitanism, multiculturalism, intercultural competence, education for democratic citizenship, and internationalisation. In fact, as Pashby (2009) has noted, global, intercultural, and multicultural education discourses are frequently conflated, which causes misunderstandings regarding the precise definitions of each term in various situations. These frameworks serve as a sort of 'hub' for many orientations and understandings rather than as a singular construct (Mannion et al. 2011; Frey & Whitehead 2009). For instance, discourses on global citizenship and global competence encompass a variety of agendas, such as education for sustainability, economic competitiveness, equality and human rights, social justice, and intercultural understanding (Marshall 2011), making it difficult to offer a clear definition for measurement needs (Engel et al., 2019).

Higher education Campuses and classrooms are diversifying more and more, opening new opportunities for cross-cultural dialogue. However, many institutional processes have not evolved to reflect the 21st century's global reality. As a result, they are losing chances to innovate curricula and pedagogies, to take advantage of the numerous contributions that students from diverse cultural and linguistic backgrounds make to their institutions, and to foster the development of global and intercultural competency in both domestic students and faculty (Siczek, 2014).

As a result, promoting the professional development of faculty members in higher education institutes becomes an important action to be considered by higher education institutes. The fact that teachers lack

the pedagogical expertise or skills to make complex adjustments that reflect complete implementation of 'internationalisation' is one of the reasons why global learning has not been more thoroughly included into the curriculum (Van Gyn et al., 2009, p. 27).

Faculty also lack the knowledge and time necessary to address the demands of multilingual, multinational students enrolled in their classrooms. These shortcomings demand a careful approach to professional development, including buy-in for the overall idea of internationalisation and the tools and mindsets that enable them to reinvent their teaching to support global learning. Van Gyn et al. (2009) proposed a strategy to restructure curricula to increase global awareness using pedagogical techniques, and Caruana (2010), Dewey and Duff (2009), and Mak (2010) all wrote about faculty and staff training and efforts in respective institutions. Through workshops, participants are prompted to critically examine their presumptions, course material, and teaching methods. They are then challenged to work with facilitators and peers to rethink their curricula and gauge how much they promote globally oriented learning.

Also, the lack of students' readiness at their universities to deal with and interact with different cultures, ideas, and perspectives in a connected global society is a noteworthy problem. Students' ability to develop these skills starts with teachers who can use contemporary technologies. By using easily available mobile devices in the classroom, instructors may foster a culture where students' global competency is enhanced. More precisely, by effectively utilising the different digital means (i.e., the internet, synchronous and asynchronous interactions, digital publications, and news programmes), educators can assist students in exploring global issues and gaining a global perspective (Fox, 2019).

Shiel and Mann (2006) believed that in order for students to achieve global citizenship, they must first adopt a global perspective and see how their lives are connected to those of individuals all over the world. Then, students will learn about internationalisation, sustainable development, and global challenges through the university curriculum and extracurricular activities. Shiel and Mann (2006) claimed that, as a result, students would be able to acquire the values, attitudes, and abilities of global citizens. Numerous institutions have created curricula, projects, and programmes to aid students in developing their global citizenship abilities. International travel, language ability, ser-

vice learning, and curriculum material were identified as themes by Aktas et al. (2017) in their analysis of 24 universities in five countries that offer programmes in global citizenship. They discovered that the majority of programmes worked to prepare students for college, global market and that the variety of programmes available lacked a formulaic curriculum (Massaro, 2022).

However, the particular difficulties that the Arab region faces in this regard are significant. These include the incompatibility of curriculum, the diversity of programme structures and requirements (year basis versus credit hours), communication and language barriers, and a lack of policy direction and understanding. Macro-level preparation is required in order for decision-makers to agree on the main pillars of a shared space. Making such a space is still challenging because Arab higher education systems have quite different organisational structures. International credentials, intercollegiate semester exchange programs, and regional research collaborations supported by financial and policy development mechanisms are very likely to serve as the inspiration for a temporary common area (Al-Agtash & Khadra, 2019).

It is significant to highlight that the quick spread of the COVID-19 virus has demonstrated how interconnected the world is. Universities have switched from on-campus to online instruction as a result of the pandemic, sent students home whenever possible, and cancelled study abroad options. These recent changes have affected higher education administrators, teachers, and students in various ways. Although higher education institutions may still strive to create global citizens, the pandemic may have a significant impact on their ability to do so (Massaro, 2022).

Findings

In this more globalised world, higher education is undergoing fast change, and whether or not individuals or institutions are conscious of these changes, higher education is responding to globalisation by internationalising. Global learning is the inevitable and crucial learning outcome for every college student as a result of internationalisation. To survive and prosper in our globally interconnected world, students must develop global learning. Global learning is more broadly defined as learning what and how to learn in a global context. Every educator and student must increase knowledge of how globalisation is affecting higher education, have a solid grasp of and a common vocabulary for

global learning, and build dynamic and varied ways that are tailored to their particular systems.

By promoting global learning, educators can improve their students', faculty's, and organisations' ability to respond effectively to the globalised world, empowering each student with practical experience and important skills, and fostering global self-awareness and responsibilities to build a diverse and inclusive community both locally and globally.

The incorporation of collaborative technologies, digital software, and reflection tools into course activities, as well as research-based practices in the classroom, might help students grasp different points of view. Through social networking and online learning opportunities, one's ability to communicate with others successfully could be improved. Last but not least, teachers can encourage students to make a difference in the world by using active learning, authentic learning, and language learning strategies. Strengthening global competency should be a top priority if one of higher education's goals is to equip students for success in the real world (Fox, 2019).

Campus globalisation through programmes, courses, and learning communities has grown but is still poorly understood. Higher education academics are conducting research on global citizenship, but K-12 needs more empirical research. The inability to generalise findings across institutions is a result of a lack of study. The diversity of the studies under evaluation shows that there is no single strategy for fostering global citizenship. Therefore, greater study of various nations and languages is required. As was previously mentioned, the COVID-19 pandemic has had a significant impact on higher education. Future research might look at how the pandemic has affected students' development of global citizenship or other initiatives run by higher education institutions besides studying abroad. It is yet unknown how to study the growth of global citizenship in the context of other programmes, such as learning communities and university programmes (Massaro, 2022).

Conclusion/Future Work

The world we live in is undergoing tremendous change due to globalisation and technology. Students who are prepared for the current globalised environment must have interethnic, intercultural, and international understanding and be able to function as responsible, informed,

and global citizens (Bartell, 2003). Therefore, as a key component of their strategic goals for the twenty-first century, higher education institutions have stressed internationalisation more and more. Additionally, in order for all students to succeed in a society that is interdependent on the entire world, educational and instructional leaders must re-evaluate teaching methods and curricula.

The cornerstone of international education is now global learning. However, it is still unknown what global learning exactly is and how to cultivate it. This chapter elaborates on the different concepts and definitions concerning global learning in higher education institutes. The important reaction to globalisation by higher education institutions is global learning by developing the knowledge, skills, and attitudes (KSA) of their learners about the outside world and about themselves in their daily lives across local and global societies which is a crucial learning consequence of full internationalisation of formal and informal curricula to let students have internationalisation at home experience and mind-set at their home universities.

References

- Aktas, F., Pitts, K., Richards, J. C., & Silova, I. (2017). Institutionalising global citizenship: A critical analysis of higher education programs and curricula. *Journal of Studies in International Education*, 21(1), 65–80.
- Al-Agtash, S., & Khadra, L. (2019). Internationalisation Context of Arabia Higher Education. *International Journal of Higher Education*, 8(2), 68–81.
- Alkhezzi, F. (2016). The impact of mobile learning on ESP learners' performance. *Journal of Educators Online*, 13(2), 1547–1500.
- Appelt, D., & Siege, H. (Eds). (2008). *Framework for learning about global development as part of education for sustainable development: Result of the joint project of the Conference of Ministers of Education (КМК) and the Federal Ministry for Economic Cooperation and Development (BMZ)*. Federal Ministry for Economic Cooperation and Development.
- Asia Society/OECD. (2018). *Teaching for global competence in a rapidly changing world*. OECD Publishing.
- Association of American Colleges and Universities. (2009). *Global learning VALUE rubric*. <https://www.aacu.org/value/rubrics/global-learning>
- Avci, H., & Adiguzel, T. (2016). A case study on mobile-blended collabora-

- tive learning in an English as a foreign language (EFL) context. *International Review of Research in Open and Distributed Learning*, 18(7), 45–58.
- Bartell, M. (2003). Internationalisation of universities: A university culture-based framework. *Higher Education*, 45(1), 43–70.
- Boix Mansilla, V., & Jackson, A. (2011). *Educating for global competency*. Asia Society.
- Bourn, D. (2011). From internationalisation to global perspectives. *Higher Education Research & Development*, 30(5), 559–571.
- Buckingham, D. (2007). Digital media literacy: Rethinking media education in the age of the Internet. *Research in Comparative and International Education*, 2, 43–45.
- Burstein, W. I. (2007). The global campus: Challenges and opportunities for higher education in higher education. *Journal of Studies in International Education*, 11(3), 382–391.
- Caruana, V. (2010). The relevance of the internationalised curriculum to graduate capability. In E. Jones (Ed.), *Internationalisation and the student voice: Higher education perspectives* (pp. 30–43). Routledge.
- Chong, E. K. M. (2015). Global citizenship education and Hong's secondary school curriculum guidelines. *Asian Education and Student Development*, 4(2), 221–247.
- Dange, J. K. (2018). Mobile-assisted-learning approach in enhancing the student teacher's vocabulary and usage of mobile phones. In J. Keengwe (Ed.), *Handbook of research on mobile technology, constructivism, and meaningful learning* (pp. 316–330). IGI Global.
- Dewey, P., & Duff, S. (2009). Reason before passion: Faculty views on internationalisation in higher education. *Higher Education*, 58(4), 491–504.
- Engel, L. C., C. Maxwell, and M. Yemini. 2019. *The machinery of school internationalisation in action: Beyond the established boundaries*. Routledge.
- Fischer, K. (2015, August 12). Why a global education doesn't have to mean going abroad? *The Chronicle of Higher Education*. <https://www.chronicle.com/article/why-a-global-education-doesnt-have-to-mean-goingabroad>
- Fox, E. M. (2019). Mobile technology: A tool to increase global competency among higher education students. *International Review of Research in Open and Distributed Learning*, 20(2), 242–259.
- Frey, C. J., & D. M. Whitehead. 2009. International education policies and the boundaries of global citizenship in the US. *Journal of Curriculum Studies*, 41(2), 269–290.

- García Botero, G., & Questier, F. (2016). What students think and what they actually do in a mobile assisted language learning context: New insights for self-directed language learning in higher education. In S. Papadima-Sophocleous, L. Bradley, & S. Thouëсны (Eds.), *CALL communities and culture: Short papers from EUROCALL 2016* (pp. 150–154). Research-publishing.net. <https://doi.org/10.14705/rpnet.2016.eurocall2016.553>
- Gibson, K. I., Remington, G. M. & Landward-Brown, M. (2008): Developing global awareness and responsible world citizenship with global learning. *Psychological Review*, 30(1), 11–23.
- Hovland, K. (2006). *Shared futures: Global learning and liberal education*. Association of American Colleges and Universities.
- Hovland, K. (2014). *Global learning: Defining, designing, demonstrating*. Association of International Educators and the Association of American Colleges and Universities.
- Jarvis, C., Tate, N., Dickie, J., & Brown, G. (2016). Mobile learning in a human geography field course. *Journal of Geography*, 115(2), 61–71.
- Killick, D. (2015). *Developing the global student: Higher education in an era of globalisation*. Routledge.
- Lambert, R. D. (Ed.). (1994). *Educational exchange and global competence*. Council on International Educational Exchange.
- Lang-Wojtasik, G., & Scheunpflug, A. (2005). Kompetenzen Globalen Lernens. *Zeitschrift für internationale Bildungsforschung und Entwicklungspädagogik*, 28(2), 2–7.
- Leask, B. (2009). Using formal and informal curricula to improve interactions between home and international students. *Journal of Studies in International Education*, 13(2), 205–221.
- Le Bourdon, M. (2020). The role of informal spaces in global citizenship education. In D. Bourn (Ed.), *International perspectives on global learning* (pp. 402–415). Bloomsbury.
- Le Bourdon, M. (2021). Feeling global belonging: Sensorial experiences in global education. *International Journal of Development Education and Global Learning*, 13(1), 32–45.
- Leelamma, S., & Indira, U. D. (2017). My pocket technology: Introducing a mobile assisted inquiry learning environment (MAILE) to promote inquiries among secondary students. *Journal of Education and Learning*, 6(3), 107–117.
- Liao, W., Kilcoyne, M. S., Parker, C., Perez-Mira, B., Jones, C., & Woods, L. (2019). Engaging students globally without leaving the comforts of home. *Journal of Global Education and Research*, 3(1), 22–36.
- Mak, A. (2010). Enhancing academics' capability to engage multicultural

- classes and internationalise at home. *International Journal of Teaching and Learning in Higher Education*, 22(3), 365–373.
- Mannion, G., Biesta, G., Priestley, M., & Ross, H. 2011. The global dimension in education and education for global citizenship: Genealogy and critique. *Globalisation, Societies and Education*, 9(3–4), 443–456.
- Marjorie, L. (2000). Higher education and the global marketplace: A practical guide to sustaining quality. *On the Horizon*, 8(5), 7–10.
- Marshall, H. 2011. Instrumentalism, ideals and imaginaries: Theorising the contested space of global citizenship education in schools. *Globalisation, Societies and Education*, 9(3–4), 411–426.
- Massaro, V. R. (2022). Global citizenship development in higher education institutions: A systematic review of the literature. *Journal of Global Education and Research*, 6(1), 98–114.
- OECD. (2016). *PISA 2018 draft reading framework*.
- Olson, C. L., Green, M. F., & Hill, B. A. (2006). *A handbook for advancing comprehensive internationalisation: What institutions can do and what students should learn*. American Council on Education.
- Oxley L., & Morris O. (2013). Global citizenship: A typology for distinguishing its multiple concepts. *British Journal of Educational Studies*, 61(3), 301–325.
- Pashby, K. (2009). *Related and conflated: A theoretical and discursive framing of multiculturalism and global citizenship education in the Canadian context* [PhD Dissertation]. University of Toronto.
- Pashby, K. 2018. Identity, belonging and diversity in education for global citizenship: Multiplying, intersecting, transforming, and engaging lived realities. In I. Davies, L.-C. Ho, D. Kiwan, C. L. Peck, A. Peterson, E. Sant, & Y. Waghid, *The Palgrave Handbook of Global Citizenship and Education* (pp. 277–293). Palgrave Macmillan.
- Qiang, Z. (2003). Internationalisation of higher education: Towards a conceptual framework. *Policy Futures in Education*, 1(2), 248–270.
- Rena, R. (2010). Emerging trends of higher education in developing countries. *Analele tiinifice ale Universitii*, 47(2), 301–316.
- Ruscio, M. G., Korey, C., & Brick, A. (2015). Neuroscience and global learning. *Journal of Undergraduate Neuroscience Education*, 13(3), 184–191.
- Sobania, N., & Braskamp, L. (2009). Study abroad or study away: It's not merely semantics. *Peer Review*, 11(4). <https://www.aacu.org/publications-research/periodicals/study-abroad-or-study-away-its-not-merelysemantics>
- Standish, A. (2012). *The false promise of global learning: Why education needs boundaries*. Continuum International.
- Taradi, S. K., & Taradi, M. (2016). Making physiology learning memorable:

- A mobile phone-assisted case-based instructional strategy. *Advances in Physiology Education*, 40(3), 383–387.
- Thelen, E., & Smith, L. B. (1994). *A dynamic systems approach to the development of cognition and action*. MIT Press.
- Toumi, M. T., Jabot, L. & Lundgren, U. (2008). *Education for social citizenship: Preparing students to be agents of social change*. The Thematic Network Project.
- Shi, Z., Luo, G., & He, L. (2017). Mobile-assisted language learning using WeChat instant messaging. *International Journal of Emerging Technologies in Learning*, 12(2), 16–26.
- Shiel, C., & Mann, S. (2006). *Becoming a global citizen*. Bournemouth University Global Local Education.
- Siczek, M. M. (2014). Developing global competency in US higher education: Contributions of international students. *CATESOL Journal*, 27(2), 5–21.
- UNESCO (United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation). (2015). *Global citizenship education: Topics and learning objectives*.
- Van Gyn, G., Schuerholz-Lehr, S., Caws, C., & Preece, A. (2009). Education for world-mindedness: Beyond superficial notions of internationalisation. *New Directions for Teaching and Learning*, 118, 25–38.
- Reimers, F. (2009). Educating for global competency. In Cohen, J. E., & Malin, M. B. (Eds), *International perspectives on the goals of universal basic and secondary education* (pp. 183–202). Routledge.
- Rost, J. (2005) Messung von Kompetenzen Globalen Lernens. *Zeitschrift für internationale Bildungsforschung und Entwicklungspädagogik*, 28 (2), 14–18.
- Stankovska, G., Dimitrovski, D., Memedi, I., & Ibraimi, Z. (2019). Ethical sensitivity and global competence among university students. In *BCES Conference Books* (Vol. 17, pp. 132–138). Bulgarian Comparative Education Society.
- Van Roekel, D. (2010). *Global competence is a 21st century imperative*. NEA Policy and Practice Department.
- Zhou, J. (2022). Global learning: Definition, assessment, and approaches. *Journal of Global Education and Research*, 6(2), 115–132.