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Developing Global Perspectives Through International Management Degrees

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Abstract

Internationalisation has risen high on the agenda of many higher education institutions, and the need to develop graduates with global perspectives is well recognised. Much attention has been given to institutional strategies for internationalisation, international students, and dealing with culturally diverse learning styles. To date, however, there have been limited efforts to consider what internationalisation means in practice at the programme level. This article reports on a case study that investigates the internationalisation of undergraduate hospitality management degree programmes in the United Kingdom. Through the development and application of an internationalisation framework, the study reveals the perceived importance of shared cross-cultural experiences to the internationalisation of programmes and the different approaches adopted within programmes. It also highlights current constraints in internationalising degree programmes and the subsequent challenges faced by educators in developing graduates' global perspectives.

Keywords

globalisation and international higher education; internationalisation of teaching, learning, and research, internationalisation of the curriculum

Introduction

Globalisation and internationalisation are two current buzzwords within higher education (HE). Globalisation is considered to be the "widening, deepening and speeding up of world wide interconnectedness" (Held, McGrew, Goldblatt, & Perraton, 1999, p. 2) that has been driven by technological advances and the development of knowledge economies. As knowledge has become a more critical resource, HE is considered an

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important medium for cross-border flows of knowledge as well as people. Higher education institutions (HEIs) are thus charged with the role of producing graduates to work within globalised economies and so support national economies (Brown, Lauder, & Ashton, 2008), and as such they are required to foster global consciousness (Gacel-Avila, 2005) or global perspectives (Lunn, 2008) among students.

Although the terms globalisation and internationalisation are frequently used interchangeably (Hicks, 2003), within HE, internationalisation is frequently viewed as an institutional response to the forces of globalisation (Altbech & Knight, 2007; Caruana & Hanstock, 2008; Killick, 2009; Taylor, 2004; Van der Wende, 2007). For example, the development of the European Higher Education Area has created a demand for degrees to be internationally recognised and to be portable between countries and institutions through the Bologna Protocol (Heitmann, 2005; Sanderson, 2008). At institutional levels, HEIs have moved beyond national borders frequently through international franchise agreements or the development of international branch campuses (Brookes & Becket, 2007). Others have sought to capture a greater share of the international student market recognising the continued growth in student demand for international degrees and the economic value of these markets (Altbach & Knight, 2007).

However, internationalisation is recognised as comprising the processes by which HEIs compete for students globally as well as the processes that prepare students for a globalised world (Hanson, 2008). An increasingly globalised business economy "encourages the development of a market for internationally orientated and qualified graduates" (Elkin, Devjee, & Farnsworth, 2005, p. 318), and Shiel (2006) advises that globalisation has created the need for graduates who are global citizens and able to work in a society where cross-cultural capability is essential to employment (Heitmann, 2005). The recognition of the global skills race (Brown et al., 2008), the growing importance of employability agendas particularly in the United Kingdom, and the employer demands for graduates with a broader world view all serve to reinforce internationalisation as a critical priority (Shiel, 2008). Internationalisation has been described as one of the most powerful forces for change in HE (Taylor, 2004) and has therefore risen high on the agenda at national, sector, and institutional levels (Knight, 2004).

Nonetheless, Knight (2004) argues that within HE internationalisation is interpreted in different ways in different countries and by different stakeholders. As a result, there are a wide variety of policies and practices employed within institutional internationalisation strategies, and critics argue that there is often a gap between internationalisation rhetoric and reality (Gacel-Avila, 2005; Ozerdem, 2006). However, the different interpretations can be explained, at least partially, by the specific level at which internationalisation is considered. Although a good deal of research has considered how to enhance the experience of international students (Shiel, 2008) or examined internationalisation from an institutional perspective (Sanderson, 2008), internationalisation of the curriculum is considered to be a relatively new phenomenon (Caruana & Hanstock, 2008) that presents a more challenging task (Ritchie, 2006). There have been fewer empirical studies that have investigated internationalisation at the degree programme level and how these are designed to foster global perspectives among graduates, despite arguments that

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this is the appropriate level to consider curriculum innovations in relation to internationalisation (Caruana & Hanstock, 2008).

This article therefore presents the findings of a study that sought to close this internationalisation gap. It begins by examining what is meant by global perspectives before reviewing the literature to identify the relevant dimensions of HE curriculum internationalisation. A framework for investigating internationalisation at the programme level is then developed and applied to a multiple case study of U.K. undergraduate hospitality degree programmes to investigate how these perspectives are developed. The research reveals the importance of cross-cultural competencies and the current methods used to develop these within undergraduate programmes. It also identifies a number of constraints in optimising the international dimensions of U.K. undergraduate degrees and the challenges faced by educators in developing global perspectives among graduates as a result.

Global Perspectives Examined

Quite some time ago, Schechter (1993) identified the goals of internationalisation within HE as pragmatic (acquiring skills and knowledge for employability in a global context): liberal (developing an appreciation of cultural differences and intercultural sensibility) and civic (developing multidimensional global citizenship). Although these fundamental goals remain the same, researchers have identified the requirements of graduates in light of globalisation, such as the need to have developed global perspectives (Lunn, 2008), global competencies (Hunter, White, & Godby, 2006), global consciousness (Gacel-Avila, 2005), to be global citizens (Shiel, 2006), and global-ready graduates (Hunter et al., 2006). Despite the diversity of terms used, the three fundamental components that underpin graduate requirements remain roughly as Schechter (1993) advised as these reflect their knowledge and understanding, values and attitudes, and skills developed.

Lunn (2008) argues that developing global perspectives is about developing students' knowledge of different places and cultures to make them aware of different ways of thinking about the world and contemporary issues. In an effort to define the global-ready graduate, Hunter et al. (2006) undertook a wide-reaching study of the definitions of global citizenship and global competency. On the basis of the study, the researchers defined global competence as "having an open mind while actively seeking to understand cultural norms and expectations of others" (p. 277).

In addition to knowledge and understanding, Lunn (2008) advises that global perspectives also require the cultivation of values and attitudes. Gacel-Avila (2005) explains that global consciousness necessitates a respect for humanity's differences and cultural wealth as well as a sense of political responsibility. Oxfam (2008) advises that global citizens take responsibility for their actions and act to make the world more equitable and sustainable, and this requires them to respect and value diversity.

Both knowledge and understanding, and values and attitudes are reported to be important to the development of graduate skills. Shiel (2006) argues that global citizens are

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those capable of working in a society where cross-cultural capability is essential to employment. Hunter et al. (2006) add that graduates have the skills to “leverage the knowledge and understanding gained to interact, communicate and work effectively outside one’s own environment” (p. 277). Stevens and Campbell (2006) purport that global citizens “seek out information about the world so they can make well-informed, ethical and responsible decisions” (p. 542). These decisions are characterised by mindfulness, partnerships, pragmatic hope, and social entrepreneurship (Bellamy & Weinberg, 2008). As such, graduates require the skills and competencies necessary to engage as informed citizens in their communities and in the wider world (Oxfam, 2008). However, Shiel (2006) argues that graduates need to go one step further and see the connectivity between their experiences and the experiences of people throughout the world. Graduates therefore require an understanding and appreciation of both local and global perspectives (Shiel, 2006) and use this to inform decision making.

It is clear from this review that global-ready graduates (Hunter et al., 2006) should have developed an awareness and understanding of cultural diversity, an appreciation of cultural diversity, both global and local perspectives, and recognise the need for sustainable development. Furthermore, these characteristics are interrelated as graduates should be able to use this knowledge and their values to inform ethical decision making. Otten (2003) advises that combined knowledge, attitudes, and skills can facilitate positive and effective interaction with members of different cultures. The following section explores how programmes of study can be internationalised to develop global perspectives.

Internationalisation in HE

Mestenhauser (1998) argues that an international education can promote the development of the knowledge and understanding, values and attitudes, and skills that comprise the global perspectives required of today’s graduate. Stone (2006) further suggests that internationalisation within HE comprises the processes designed to prepare students as well as university staff to operate effectively in today’s globalised contexts. However, many authors argue there is a gap between the rhetoric and the reality of internationalisation within HE (Gacel-Avila, 2005; Ozerdem, 2006). This problem is compounded by the lack of a universal agreement on what internationalisation within HE means (Elkin et al., 2005). Kehm and Teichler (2007) add that, as there are no clear demarcations, as a construct it remains characterised by “fuzziness” (p. 262).

There is consensus, however, that internationalisation is a process (Gacel-Avila, 2005) and therefore Knight’s (2004) definition as “the process of integrating an international, intercultural, or global dimension in the purpose, functions or delivery of post secondary education,” has found favour with numerous academics (p. 11). As a process, Knight (2003) advises that internationalisation consists of two streams, internationalisation at home and internationalisation abroad. The first stream is concerned with helping students develop international understanding and intercultural skills without ever having to leave the campus. The second stream comprises the same activities

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but requires the movement of people or programmes within international environments. Black (2004) therefore suggests that a broad range of activities for faculty and students, the curriculum itself, and international alliances can add to the internationalisation of HE. These aspects are discussed in more detail below.

The importance of faculty in internationalisation initiatives through recruitment of international staff members, exchange and international work, and research and consultancy (Black, 2004) is increasingly recognised; yet Stohl (2007) argues that faculty engagement presents the chief challenge in internationalisation. He advises that we need to move beyond conceptualisation of how the different aspects of teaching, research, and service functions are becoming internationalised to examine how these activities encourage greater learning and discovery. Accordingly, Sanderson (2008) presents an argument for the internationalisation of academics to ensure that teaching practices adopted are appropriate. Killick (2009) highlights the importance of understanding the barriers erected by our own cultural norms and values for this purpose. Other researchers have also noted the importance of developing staff capability for internationalisation (Jones, 2008) and more global perspectives among academics (Lunn, 2008). However, Teekens (2003) advises that developing this competence is not easy.

The student experience is also critical within an international programme of study and comprises enhancing the experiences of the international student and the international experiences of home students (Jones, 2008). In this way, they incorporate both at-home and abroad activities as defined by Knight (2003). Research that examines the experience of international students in relation to learning and teaching as well as service or administrative functions highlights the importance of understanding different learning styles and the need to adopt more inclusive pedagogic approaches (see, e.g., Bamford, 2008; Petford & Shiel, 2008). Jones (2008) also incorporates effective recruitment activities as a core internationalisation theme. International students should be viewed as a positive resource (Lee & Rice, 2007) to enrich student learning (Bamford, 2008) as they are considered a valuable source of knowledge, cultural richness, and diversity (Lowe, 2008). A culturally diverse student population can serve to facilitate the development of an appreciation of cultural differences and intercultural sensibility (Seymour, 2002) and therefore increase the international experiences of home students. However, Otten (2003) argues that classroom interaction and academic work can remain monocultural if academics fail to make effective use of the diversity. In the United Kingdom, Carroll and Li (2008) report that evidence suggests that group work to support and develop cross-cultural competence remains aspirational. This may be due to the language, cultural, and perceptual barriers that must be overcome before there are positive cross-cultural group experiences (Lim, 2009).

Student exchanges and study-abroad programmes within the formal curriculum provide further international experiences to all students, and Weirs-Jenssen (2008) advises that student exchange may be the best-known and most traditional form of internationalisation. There is, however, some difference in opinion regarding the length of time students should be abroad. Jones (2008) reports that short experiences of as little as a

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few weeks can be effective, although Hunter et al. (2006) were critical of anything less than one semester in the development of global competence. Jones and Lee (2008) also highlight the need for students to reflect on their experiences to learn from them.

Other elements of the formal curriculum that include learning, teaching, and research have reportedly grown in importance over the past decade (Kehm & Teichler, 2007). Black (2004) suggests this also includes internationalising current courses through international case studies and teaching materials, adding international courses or projects and adding language courses. Taylor (2004) argues that the study of languages is central to an internationalised education. However, researchers advise that an internationalised curriculum must allow for flexible styles of student learning that do not advantage any one particular student group (Haigh, 2002), and staff must be sensitive to different cultural styles of learning (Otten, 2003). As such, Gacel-Avila (2007) reflects that

> [internationalization of the curriculum] demands a flexible curricular structure with a humanistic orientation that favors self and lifelong learning, the study of other cultures and languages, and the development of critical thinking in learners; having academics with international experience and the time to work on innovation in the courses to achieve group work with their students and to commit themselves to the organization of programs fostering exchange and international cooperation. (p. 408)

Internationalisation of the curriculum therefore cannot be viewed in isolation from faculty and student experiences. Indeed, Webb's (2005) four phases of internationalising the curriculum reflect this characteristic. As a process, these phases include international students studying alongside home students, systematic curriculum development for internationalisation, transnational operations and internationalisation of curriculum, and normalising internationalisation of curriculum. The last phase relates to turning ad hoc and uneven efforts of a few into normal expectations and requirements. Webb (2005) also advises this requires students who have an interest in international and intercultural experiences to ensure social and professional success. However, it is also important to ensure that the different cultural perspectives of these students are accommodated (Stone, 2006). The importance of the informal curriculum or extracurricular activities has also been identified as these are reported to support the international experience of students. As such, educators should consider the way activities and services are structured in and out of the classroom (Leask, 2008).

Developing and fostering international partnerships and alliances is the final dimension identified by Black (2004). These activities incorporate the franchising of degrees to host country institutions or the development of branch campuses within host countries (Brookes & Becket, 2007). However, Randall (2008) cautions that these activities can aid in the development of global perspectives of both staff and students as long as "there is a reciprocal sharing of ideas and practice" (p. 25). If there is this provision, international partnerships and alliances can also help to create a network of international

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alumni to enhance internationalisation of staff and students as well as help to increase international recruitment (Stone, 2006). International networking and conference participation by faculty members and students also serves to enhance the internationalisation of programmes if they aid in the development of more global perspectives among participants.

This review has highlighted that internationalisation within HE is wide reaching and, given the interrelated nature of the different dimensions, potentially complex to implement or assess. However, the literature does identify that internationalisation at the programme level comprises internationalisation at home and internationalisation abroad and a range of teaching, learning and assessment, and research and networking activities for both students and staff. Furthermore, it suggests that the internationalisation perspectives and attitudes of staff underpin the internationalisation experiences of students and the development of their global perspectives. The extent to which these dimensions are implemented can be assessed by drawing on the European Quality Improvement System (EQUIS) criteria, one of the most comprehensive set of guidelines for the internationalisation of business and management degree programmes. EQUIS guidelines also provide clear metrics to assess internationalisation at programme level. Figure 1 draws together the key dimensions of internationalisation identified in the literature review in conjunction with EQUIS metrics (www.efmd.org) to create a framework for evaluating the internationalisation of management degree programmes. The way this framework is used within this study is explained in the following section.

Research Design

This research set out to identify how global perspectives were developed through internationalisation initiatives within degree programmes. International hospitality management degree programmes were chosen for the context of the study given the demand for hospitality graduates capable of working effectively within this globalised industry. The hospitality industry has long been characterised as global, and firms across a wide range of industry sectors continue to internationalise at a rapid pace. Hospitality firms are reported to generate US$950 billion annually to the global economy and employ more than 60 million people (IH&RA, 2008). However, previous studies have produced mixed findings on the degree to which current programmes develop graduates' global perspectives. Lunn's (2006) study of U.K. hospitality and tourism management degree provision suggests that graduates only develop moderate global perspectives. Gannon (2008) also identifies limitations in the development of cross-cultural skills within U.K. hospitality and tourism provision. However, Maher's (2004) study suggests that graduates themselves consider these skills to have been relatively well developed within their hospitality degree programmes.

This study therefore seeks to build on these previous efforts by applying the internationalisation framework developed to international undergraduate hospitality management degree programmes to determine how global perspectives are developed. To achieve the aim of the study, the researchers sought to

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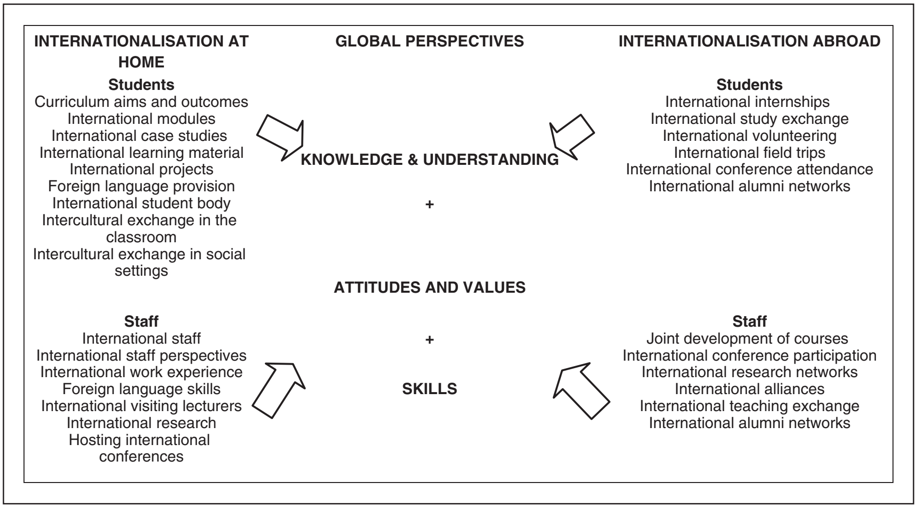

Figure 1. A framework of internationalisation at programme level

- identify the international hospitality management degrees on offer within the United Kingdom,
- identify the key dimensions of internationalisation currently within these programmes and how they are used to develop graduates as global citizens, and
- make recommendations for the potential enhancement of the internationalisation of hospitality management programmes to further develop graduates' global perspectives.

Given the exploratory nature of the research, a case study strategy was adopted (Yin, 2003) with individual programmes of study binding the territory of the case (Miles & Huberman, 1994). A multiple case study strategy was used to increase the generalisability of the research (Wisker, 2001), a frequently noted limitation of case study research (Stake, 1995). To facilitate comparability and assess current provision comprehensively, the study comprised only U.K. undergraduate single honours hospitality management degrees.

In the first instance, the study used secondary data to address the first two objectives, an approach similar to that of Lunn (2006). The University and College Admission Service Web site, which provides the most comprehensive listing of U.K. degree programmes, was searched using five different search terms to identify U.K. provision. Of the 28 international hospitality degrees identified, 22 were single honours programmes that comprised a suitable sample for the study. Of these, 17 were either 3- or 4-year programmes of study, and 5 were 1-year top-up programmes. Joint programmes

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that combined hospitality with another field were excluded to facilitate comparison across case studies.

Individual Web sites of the institution offering the degree were then used to collect data at programme, department or school, and university level. Given the limited detail of some institutional Web sites, a request was then made electronically for programme specifications for each of the degrees. Programme specifications, which are generally a requirement for validation in the United Kingdom, were considered the best means of providing detailed data on provision. Personal contacts were used to maximise the response rate. This process yielded 17 cases or 77% of the U.K. single honours provision and is well above that recommended for multiple case studies (Eisenhardt, 1989). The international dimensions of each of the programmes were identified and categorised using the documentation collected according to the framework developed from the literature. Although this process revealed a good deal of variety in the international dimensions of programmes reviewed, it also served to highlight the difficulty of assessing these from secondary data using internal documentation and that which is in the public domain, a further limitation of secondary research (Marshall & Rossman, 1999).

To build on the findings from the secondary data, interviews were then requested and undertaken with programme managers. A total of 13 interviews were conducted, resulting in the final sample representing 60% of the U.K. undergraduate single honours provision. This stage of the research enabled triangulation of the data to increase the reliability and validity of the findings (Marshall & Rossman, 1999). Programme managers were contacted to request a telephone interview and sent a participant-information sheet that addressed anonymity and university ethical requirements. An appointment was then made to conduct a structured telephone interview, a copy of which was sent to informants when confirming interview schedules. Informants were asked about how the international dimensions of their programme identified in the framework were delivered and their opinions on the relative importance of these different dimensions. In addition, informants were also asked their opinions on how best to develop hospitality graduates as global citizens and whether they felt their programmes were effective in this goal. Informants were then sent a copy of the completed survey for cross-checking and accuracy purposes (Bryman, 2004). The data collected from both secondary and primary sources were then mapped against the internationalisation framework developed through the literature review. In this way, the extent to which the different dimensions were included in the international programmes could be assessed.

The International Dimensions of U.K. Hospitality Management Programmes

The findings from the study are presented below according to the framework of internationalisation presented in Figure 1 and according to internationalisation-at-home and internationalisation-abroad dimensions for both students and staff.

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Internationalisation at Home

The framework identifies that programme aims and outcomes are an important element of internationalisation at home. When asked to articulate in their own words the aim of their programme, all informants provided similar answers that focused on developing graduates who are capable and/or prepared for working in the international or global hospitality industry or within international hospitality organisations. In some programmes, graduates were assessed against these aims through the mapping of learning outcomes at module level and through assessment that was constructively aligned with these outcomes. In other programmes, a less rigorous approach was reported, but it still related to the taught content of individual modules. Some informants commented that this was an issue that could perhaps be addressed more comprehensively in the future.

Informants were asked what, in their opinion, are the key elements needed within programmes to develop graduates as global citizens. They responded by clarifying the goals of any international hospitality management programme are to ensure that students develop cross-cultural competencies. Informants categorised cross-cultural skills on a business level and on an individual level. At a business level, graduates are required to undertake decisions in an ethical and socially responsible manner and be aware of how decisions as managers can impact on local and global environments. Individually, graduates need to manage themselves and behave responsibly when acting as individuals and when dealing with individuals from different cultural backgrounds.

At a business level, this awareness was reportedly developed through the modules or individual units of study within programmes. In most programmes, there were compulsory internationally named modules at each level of study; however, across the programmes there was a tendency for greater provision at advanced levels of study and, particularly, in the final year. Often this was a result of students having to undertake an international hospitality dissertation at this stage. In contrast, other programmes had adopted a fully embedded approach whereby internationalisation of the modules did not feature overtly. In some cases, this was reported to be throughout the whole programme in a holistic manner. In others, internationalisation was embedded in the core management modules, particularly in strategy, marketing, and human resource management; however, these modules were sometimes delivered from a generic, rather than a hospitality, perspective. Finance modules were deemed more difficult to internationalise, although one programme explicitly included an international finance module. Informants suggested internationalisation was also embedded through the nature of the discipline being studied, the use of international case studies, the particular context of the module itself, by drawing on the international background of students, or by academic staff providing international industry examples. However, informants were not always able to be explicit about where and how often this took place within and across programmes.

Few informants noted the role of languages in helping to develop graduates capable of working internationally. The majority of programmes, however, did provide students

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with the option to study a language and gain credit towards their degree. However, there were often practical considerations related to location and timetabling conflicts that inhibited students taking these modules. These implications were often exacerbated by institutional policies driven by funding requirements. Only one programme required students to study a foreign language to qualify for their degree.

The recruitment of international students was reported to facilitate the development of individual cross-cultural skills. Informants could readily identify an approximate percentage of international students within their programme, and the proportion of international students ranged across the sample from 10% to 95%. In most cases, hospitality programmes attracted the highest proportion of international students within departments or schools and often universities. Support for international students was reported to be quite extensive with induction programmes up to 2 weeks long, language and teaching support provided, and nonacademic and administrative support services—such as visa, financial or housing assistance—provided centrally by universities.

Figure 1 identifies that opportunities for cross-cultural interaction can be either formal or informal. The study revealed that formal elements include cross-cultural work groups within individual modules, and these were considered by all informants to be a very important international dimension of their programmes of study. Some informants suggested this required staff and students to have a mind-set open to exploring and embracing different cultural perspectives so that this became inculcated throughout programmes. However, the approach adopted to forming cross-cultural groups varied with some informants reporting an ad hoc approach and relatively few suggesting that this was undertaken on a formal basis to ensure cultural diversity within groups or with a clear strategy for developing cross-cultural awareness and skills. In one programme, however, cross-cultural awareness and skill development was mapped across the programme and formed part of the validation documentation. Throughout the programmes, cultural experiences were shared by asking students to draw on their own backgrounds and experiences or by drawing on the international work or academic experiences of staff members, but again the extent to which this took place was difficult to ascertain across the sample programmes.

It was generally perceived to be important to get students interacting cross-culturally at the start of their programmes, and induction and more informal activities were often used for this purpose. Almost all informants reported the use of informal social events as part of the induction programme; however, these were optional for the most part. There was also evidence of social programmes for this purpose throughout many of the programmes in the study, but attendance at these was also optional.

When questioned about the recruitment of staff, some informants were keen to highlight the high percentage of international staff members and their international work experience. However, it was difficult to determine the degree to which they spoke foreign languages. The use of visiting academics appears to be related to the existence of research centres that predominantly encompassed tourism or retail management and was reported by most informants to be less in hospitality than in other business subjects. The majority of international research activity was undertaken through these

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research centres, which drew on hospitality academics' expertise as required. Much of the international research and consultancy that took place by hospitality academics tended to be driven by individuals. The majority of respondents reported staff attendance at international conferences; yet only one programme reported a defined policy for attendance and support. International conferences were hosted to a lesser extent. Informants did point out the importance of international networking, both formally and informally, on an individual basis.

Internationalisation Abroad

The internationalisation framework includes a number of internationalisation-abroad dimensions for students, one of which is international internships. However, within the programmes reviewed international work placements were only compulsory in three programmes, and in one of these cases it was an alternative to international study exchange. Other informants reported that students were actively encouraged to take up the opportunity of an international placement, but there were often difficulties related to the financial constraints of students or their demographic backgrounds. The majority of programme managers considered an international placement to be one outside of the student's home country with one exception, where an international company within the United Kingdom was deemed to be an international placement opportunity.

International study exchanges appear to be a less attractive option for students than international placements. In addition, half of the informants suggested that exchanges were of little importance to the internationalisation of their programmes, and they were only an alternative compulsory component of one programme. Even informants who identified this dimension as quite or very important to internationalisation voiced their concern over a decrease in student demand due to funding issues and language barriers. Most funding came from external sources, such as Erasmus or educational trust funds. Others noted that the increase in the diversity of the student body also had a negative impact on study-abroad opportunities as a result of age and personal or family commitments. When hospitality students did undertake study exchange, those offered at programme rather than university level were more popular with students. These exchanges tended to be developed through personal networking by individual academics who then frequently became a champion for them. Staff exchanges were also reported to be limited on the whole, with few informants reporting exchanges through Erasmus or with partner institutions.

Field trips are also considered to be an opportunity for intercultural exchange, and the majority of informants considered field trips as quite or very important to internationalisation of their degrees. Optional field trips were reported in more than half of the programmes, usually within an industrial context. However, informants reported a number of restrictions when organising international field trips that negatively impacted on the number of trips offered or student uptake. Visa restriction for international students, health and safety requirements, and funding constraints were reported to be the key limiting factors. International volunteering was seen by some participants as a potential solution to overcome these constraints while still facilitating intercultural

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exchange. However, volunteering was not a core dimension of many of the programmes under review. There was also limited evidence of student participation in international conferences at the undergraduate level.

The importance of alumni was also highlighted by the majority of informants. Alumni members were used to aid with student and graduate placements and as in-country advisors for recruitment purposes. Formal links with alumni were more often than not maintained at a central university level, rather than at a departmental level. These were for the purposes of hosting international events within countries that represented key feeder markets for the universities. However, informants also noted that individual members of staff maintained more informal networks with alumni members, particularly for the purposes of student internships.

There was no evidence provided of joint course development between staff and international partner institutions, although the majority of informants provided examples of working collaboratively with partner institutions outside of the United Kingdom. In some cases, this was through the franchising of degrees, predominantly within India, Singapore, and Europe. Credit-rating agreements were more prominent and from a broader range of countries. Although students could enter most programmes at any level of study, the majority of students joined after completing a diploma programme elsewhere to gain a degree qualification. This frequently changed the international constituency of student cohorts in the final year of programmes and served to further emphasise internationalisation at latter stages of the programmes.

Developing Global Perspectives Through the Internationalisation of Degree Programmes

The findings reveal that most programmes reviewed for this study have incorporated all internationalisation dimensions within their programmes to some extent. The study identifies a number of strengths in current provision as well as constraints currently faced by educators when internationalising their programmes to develop graduates with global perspectives. These are considered in the following discussion according to internationalisation-at-home and internationalisation-abroad dimensions.

Internationalisation at Home

The findings reveal that when it comes to curricula aims and outcomes, the importance of developing a global-ready graduate (Hunter et al., 2006) is considered important and clearly articulated in course documentation and by programme managers. Furthermore, the relevance of cross-cultural knowledge and understanding, attitudes, and skills at both business and individual levels is well recognised. As such, hospitality graduates are required to use their knowledge, values, and skills to inform ethical decision making as recommended by Shiel (2006).

Given the international nature of the hospitality industry, there is enormous scope for the development of global perspectives within curricula, and the programmes investigated in this study appear to be making concerted efforts to do so. In most programmes,

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there are a number of modules at different levels explicitly designed to address international perspectives at a business level as advised by Black (2004). However, in others, there is a lack of transparency as to where these perspectives are explicitly developed, particularly where they are embedded in modules that may be studied from a generic, rather than an industry, perspective. There is also a need to consider whether more international courses need to be included at earlier stages of programmes. Although languages are also considered an effective way of helping to develop these perspectives (Rollin, 2008; Taylor, 2004), the study identifies a decline in the uptake of languages due to practical considerations.

Nonetheless, U.K. hospitality degrees appear to attract high numbers of international students providing a ready-made resource as Lowe (2008) and Seymour (2002) advise and further scope to develop individual's global perspectives through shared experiences. The study highlights how important this internationalisation dimension is to hospitality programmes, with many programmes creating opportunities for shared experiences from the point of induction. Although one programme has mapped all intercultural experiences throughout the formal and informal elements of the curriculum, in others a more ad hoc approach is taken, suggesting the potential for further improvement. These findings confirm what Shiel (2008) describes as a "patchy picture," and support to some extent Carroll and Li's (2008) assertion that group work to support and develop cross-cultural competence remains aspirational in the United Kingdom and that there is room for improvement (Lowe, 2008). These findings may be explained through student perceptions of the possible detrimental impact on their marks in relation to working in culturally diverse student groups (Wicaksono, 2008) and highlight the need to go further to break down perceptual barriers (Lim, 2009). The study also suggests a need for more strategic approaches to multicultural group work is warranted.

The contribution of international students to the development of global perspectives and their financial contribution to institutions appears to be recognised through the high level of support services provided to international students, prearrival and throughout their studies, suggesting these remain important dimensions of internationalisation despite the growing importance of learning, teaching, and research dimensions as identified by Kehm and Teichler (2007).

Within the classroom, the very nature of hospitality assures that the vast majority of staff and students have an international experience of hospitality to share either from a customer or work-related perspective. Nevertheless, the extent to which these experiences are shared effectively to develop students' intercultural knowledge, attitudes, and skills is dependent on the willingness of students and the ability of individual staff members to facilitate cross-cultural discussions; otherwise, cultural integration problems may be exacerbated (Sovic, 2008). As Darricotte and McColl (2008) advise, this requires academics to have an understanding of different pedagogic practices and processes. Although informants were not asked outright, the study provided little evidence of the extent to which staff were offered development opportunities to support them in this task as advised by Sanderson (2008). Furthermore, the extent to which

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pedagogic practices have been adapted to suit a culturally diverse classroom is also not apparent from the study. As such, current practice could favour the home student, contrary to the advice of Haigh (2002). These tasks are also dependent on the mind-set of individual staff and students and the extent to which they embrace a truly global perspective (Killick, 2009). In addition, they call on faculty, both academic and administrative, to adopt a more open-minded attitude to change so that faculty and students learn about, from, and with others (Stohl, 2007).

Internationalisation Abroad

The study reveals that cross-cultural experiences as internationalisation-abroad activities (Knight, 2003) are considered very important in achieving programme aims by educators and are encouraged through international placements and international field trips to some extent, but to a lesser extent when it comes to study exchanges. Nonetheless, the research highlights a greater reluctance of students to undertake these placements, international or otherwise. This trend appears to be part of a general pattern evident since the late 1990s across other U.K. subjects (Little & Harvey, 2006). However, recent research by the Council for Industry in Higher Education on graduate employability determined that 65% of employers felt that overseas work experience would make a candidate more employable (Archer & Davison, 2008). A similar decline in study exchanges or field trips within hospitality programmes is also revealed, even though one third of employers consider a graduate with any overseas study experience to be more employable (Archer & Davison, 2008).

Despite the potential value of these international student experiences, they have frequently been dropped as compulsory requirements in response to student demand and other external constraints. Stohl (2007) reports that internationalisation challenges include funding, political interference and scrutiny, and greater competition. Competitive pressures on individual programmes of study arguably require them to be more responsive to student, rather than industry, demand. At the same time, politically driven massification agendas have created more diverse student populations, and this study identifies that many students are not in a position to travel overseas easily due to personal or financial constraints. As tuition fees continue to rise in the United Kingdom, financial constraints are likely to restrict even further the number of students who are able to take advantage of these international opportunities. In addition, the research reveals other external forces related to health and safety legislation and visa restrictions may serve to exacerbate this decline. For some students, volunteering schemes that are financially supported may prove to be a potential solution for students to enhance their international experience (Jones, 2008), although the length of these may need further consideration given Hunter et al.'s (2006) findings.

When students do undertake these international experiences, the study suggests that greater consideration must be given to how they reflect and learn from them, as advised by Jones and Lee (2008), within some programmes. There was limited evidence in some of the sample programmes about how students derived value from these

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experiences to increase their cross-cultural understanding and develop their attitudes and skills, apart from actually having the experience.

This study also reveals that participation in cross-cultural exchanges and other efforts to create global perspectives is frequently down to the contribution of individual staff members and students. International placements and study exchanges appear to be developed and championed by individual staff members and supported through alumni networks. For staff members, participation in international teaching, conferences, research, and consultancy also appears to be reliant on the initiative and drive of individuals, particularly in the face of dwindling financial resources within individual HEIs. However, the extent of international collaboration with international partners identified in this study may provide an opportunity to overcome some of the current shortcomings, particularly if there is greater reciprocity in programme development that could facilitate staff development (Randall, 2008).

Internationalisation at Home and Abroad

Despite the strengths identified in current provision, there does appear to be room for improvement in the internationalisation of undergraduate hospitality management programmes, as informants themselves clearly recognised. Only one informant considered their programme to be effective in developing graduates who were global citizens, and this was measured by international graduate positions, although not on a formal basis. Other informants considered their programmes had the requisite ingredients, but whether students graduated as global citizens was dependent on the extent to which they engaged in the opportunities available to them. In other words, the situation reflects a "you can lead a horse to water" syndrome; yet the current situation is one where the students don't necessarily have to drink. Most informants believed that their programmes were getting better in achieving their overall aim and in developing graduates with global perspectives, but there was still room for further improvement. The research suggests, therefore, that within hospitality management education, we have not yet reached the phase of normalisation (Webb, 2005).

Conclusion

This study has examined internationalisation at the programme level to determine how global perspectives are developed within graduates within the context of U.K. undergraduate hospitality management degrees. It has removed some of the fuzziness (Kehm & Teichler, 2007) of internationalisation as a construct within HE through the development of a framework of internationalisation that can be applied to degree programmes. The study serves to highlight the importance of engaging students and staff in cross-cultural experiences to develop global perspectives. Furthermore, it has identified opportunities for more effective use of cross-cultural student bodies as well as the limitations in current approaches to internationalisation. The research also highlights the challenges faced in undertaking internationalisation-abroad activities. Ironically, the very forces driving internationalisation initiatives within U.K. HEIs are also serving to

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hinder the extent to which programmes are internationalised. As a result of the study, a number of recommendations are made for hospitality educators to enhance the global perspectives of both staff and students.

For internationalisation-at-home activities, there is a need to examine how language provision could be improved and the extent and stage at which international modules are embedded in the curriculum. As previously suggested, there is also a need for a more strategic approach to cross-cultural group work to be adopted and for staff development to support these initiatives. Further development in internationalisation-abroad activities for students and staff would also help to enhance internationalisation of hospitality undergraduate degrees. There is a need to develop more support for students wishing to undertake international placement or study exchanges, in light of their personal circumstances and given the recent research on graduate employability. Greater engagement with industry partners and alumni may be one way to achieve this support for students and to highlight the importance of international work experience for graduate employability. Industrial partners may also serve to provide international research and consultancy opportunities for hospitality academics, which is currently underdeveloped within many of the programmes reviewed. Rather than relying on the willingness and drive of individuals, consideration should be given to building these activities into a workable timetable for staff as these activities would serve to help them develop a more global mind-set and embrace a truly global perspective. Joint development of programmes with international collaborative partners might also help develop staff understanding of different pedagogies. These efforts might serve to help achieve a stage of internationalisation normalisation (Webb, 2005) at the programme level. Internationalisation must also be truly embraced and fully supported at the institutional level to overcome the current constraints faced in internationalizing degrees

However, as a case-study set within one specific type of management programme and within one country, there are limitations to the generalisability of the findings. Nonetheless, the study may have relevance to educators across a wider variety of business and management programmes, particularly if they are considering applying for EQUIS accreditation. In addition, the internationalisation framework developed provides a tool that can be used to assess the internationalisation of a wide range of degree programmes. Furthermore, the findings from this study may provide food for thought for programme managers and help ascertain the extent to which internationalisation at home and abroad activities are embedded in their programmes and how these are used to develop global perspectives in graduates. As De Vita and Case (2003) advise, internationalisation should be seen as the chance to rethink not only what we teach but also how we teach as "every decade brings new challenges and opportunities for the further internationalisation of higher education" (Stohl, 2007, p. 359). In this way, the study may help to close the gap between the rhetoric and the reality in internationalisation within HE.

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