Measuring New Zealand students’ international capabilities: An exploratory study

Final report

Rachel Bolstad, Rosemary Hipkins, and Liesje Stevens
New Zealand Council for Educational Research
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Acknowledgements

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Student workshops

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- Annie Zhen
- Anonymous student 1
- Anonymous student 2
- Aroina Tauta
- Corey Mantell
- Deana Lynch-Blosse
- Dewald Pieterse
- Nathaniel Lecante
- Sunnie Dasgupta
- Tristan Jacks
- Xiaofan Lin
- Shakira du Pille

**Aorere College**
- Anonymous student 3
- Javier Quinones
- Karl Ramos
- Nerisa Foïsaga-Suë
- Nureen Mohammed
- Rupampreet Kaur
- Shoneil Ballu
- Victoria Nofoaiga
- Zubaida Jawadi

School staff workshop

- Anne Scott: Epsom Girls Grammar
- Deborah Ward: Epsom Girls Grammar
- Mala Karan: Ormiston Senior College
- Diana Patience: Ormiston Senior College
- Kate Burkin: Diocesan School for Girls
- Dian Fisher: Diocesan School for Girls
- Pritika Hardnar: Glendowie College
- Jackie Rodgers: Takapuna Grammar School
- Terry Holding: Takapuna Grammar School
- Tom Brown: Aorere College
- Anonymous teacher: Aorere College
- Denise Edwards: Selwyn College
- Milton Henry: Selwyn College
Mixed expertise workshop

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<td>Anna-marie Luke</td>
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Executive summary

This exploratory study considers the feasibility of measuring New Zealand senior secondary (Years 12/13) students’ “international capabilities”. Building on background work undertaken by the Ministry’s International Division, the methodology had three components. An analysis of New Zealand and international literature pertinent to assessment of international capabilities was undertaken. Small-group workshops were conducted with 13 secondary school staff, 21 senior secondary students, and 10 adults with relevant expertise and perspectives about expression of international capabilities in post-school life. The third component was a visit to the Australian Council for Educational Research (ACER) to discuss similar assessment challenges in their work.

What are international capabilities and why measure them?

Broadly speaking, international capabilities can be described as the knowledge, skills, attitudes, and values that enable people to live, work, and learn across international and intercultural contexts. These capabilities, or aspects of them, are described by a range of terms in the literature, including *international knowledge and skills*, *global competence*, *global/international citizenship*, *global/international mindedness*, and *intercultural competence*.

The Ministry’s background work suggests international capabilities can be seen as “the international and intercultural facet of the key competencies”. Focusing on development of New Zealand students’ international capabilities could, among other things:

- help make more explicit what the key competencies look like when they’re applied in intercultural or international situations
- provide a way to open a conversation with schools about internationalisation of education
- support New Zealand schools to better understand, analyse, and talk about the intercultural/internationalising learning activities they already do
- open conversations about cultural diversity in New Zealand schools and communities and the opportunities this can provide for intercultural learning
- create an opportunity for schools to revisit parts of *The New Zealand Curriculum* (Ministry of Education, 2007) vision, including the notion of students being “international citizens”
- encourage schools to connect with businesses and the wider community to develop learning opportunities that help students to develop innovation and entrepreneurial capabilities *and* connect these capabilities with intercultural and international contexts.
Measuring New Zealand students’ international capabilities could help us to better understand how the schooling system helps to “increase New Zealanders’ knowledge and skills to operate effectively across cultures.”\(^1\) It could feed into ongoing developments within educational policy and practice to better align curriculum, assessment, and pedagogy with the high-level goals of The New Zealand Curriculum. Looking further into the future, knowledge about how our schools support the development of students’ international capabilities could assist with longer-term redesign of educational policy, curriculum, assessment, and qualifications to keep pace as demands and pressures on learning and schooling continue to change through the 21st century.

**Learning from research on measuring key competencies**

If we want to assess school leavers’ international capabilities, how might we go about doing so? Because this question addresses a hypothetical space (as far as we have been able to establish no other nation has done exactly this) we need to draw indirect lessons from other similar assessment projects. International literature, and almost 10 years of research on the implementation and approaches to measurement of the key competencies in The New Zealand Curriculum, indicates that there is no overall “best” way to try to measure competencies, but there are different ways that are best for measuring specific expressions of competencies in specific contexts. The key competencies research indicates that assessment should include a focus on self-awareness and deliberate, strategic use of one’s current capabilities if it is to translate into better lifelong learning. All of the key findings to date support the idea of a measurement approach that engages and involves students in gathering and reflecting on the evidence of their learning and growth.

**Should we measure students, or the system, or both?**

One key question to emerge from our study is whether this programme of measurement should find its locus within students, or at the level of the system. There are valid arguments to support both approaches. Arguments for assessing students’ international competence assume that we can identify what an “internationally capable” person might know and be able to do and devise valid and reliable measures to assess these capabilities in young people. Arguments for an assessment of the system respond to challenges that it may be unreasonable to attempt to assess in students what is possibly not yet being widely taught, supported, or encouraged in schools. Furthermore, the literature establishes that from a systematic research perspective, we currently know as little about how “internationalisation” is understood and manifested in New Zealand secondary schools’ practice, as we do about students’ international capabilities. Our initial contacts with schools to set up workshops indicated there is some conceptual confusion between the more

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\(^1\) This is one of the objectives under Goal 3 of the Government’s *Leadership Statement for International Education* (New Zealand Government, 2011).
familiar conception of international education as fee-paying international students in New Zealand schools and internationalisation as a process which can change aspects of the purpose, functions, or delivery of education for all learners.

**International capabilities as a “nodal point”**

This study reveals that the idea of international capabilities integrates several different high-level discourses around what matters for learners and learning in a 21st century globalised environment. In this sense it functions as what some theorists call a “nodal point” (Mannion, Biesta, Priestly, & Ross, 2011). Nodal points—increasingly a feature of 21st century educational policy and curriculum discourses—bring together a range of ideas and seek to fix a particular meaning that can be widely agreed on and used to catalyse educational actions. Paradoxically, nodal points are also malleable and unstable, precisely because people will bring a range of opinions and perspectives as they make meaning from these ideas and put them into practice. On one hand, this is a good thing, because it offers people the opportunity to interpret things in a way that fits their context. On the other hand, it is likely that the means by which students’ international capabilities might be developed in practice may be contested. This is because (among other reasons) people have very different ideas/visions of how New Zealand society should grow and develop and what the role of education in that process ought to be.

In terms of this exploratory study, failing to recognise these complex spaces between policy and practice has thus surfaced as a risk for ongoing work in this area. Conversely, moving forward with a clear understanding of these complexities and designing policy programmes of work with them in view has surfaced as an opportunity for further work in this area to be ground breaking, not just for New Zealand, but internationally.

The workshop sessions convened as part of this project showed that the notion of developing students’ “international capabilities” interested and engaged the secondary teachers, students, and other stakeholders in our workshops in rich thinking and conversations that brought to the surface many diverse and interlinked ideas about school, learning, students, New Zealand communities, and New Zealand’s place in the world.

**Teacher workshops**

Teachers believed their schools already supported the development of students’ international capabilities through, among other things:

- a strong focus on learning languages and a school-wide focus on celebrating and recognising cultural and linguistic diversity
- overseas trips built into learning across multiple subject areas
- “service” programmes with an international connection
• hosting visiting international student groups and sister-schools programmes
• cultural fairs and festivals within the school.

Teacher workshop discussions raised interesting questions about students’ equity of access to internationalising or intercultural learning opportunities, and indeed what the nature of those learning opportunities might be in one school compared with another. Although there were some hesitations about whether or how senior students’ international capabilities could be assessed, the teacher workshop provided many examples of evidence on which teachers were basing their views of their schools’—and their students’—international capabilities. This suggests that schools might indeed find value in having access to assessment tools and approaches that they or their students could use to collect and analyse data to test schools’ assumptions about current practices and the learning impacts for students’ international capabilities.

**Student workshops**

We visited two secondary schools with very culturally diverse student populations and talked to groups of 12 and 9 senior students respectively. Encouraged to consider their own views about what it meant to be internationally capable, or a “global citizen”, both groups identified types of knowledge and qualities that someone would need to be able to interact across cultural and national boundaries. When asked how they thought these capabilities might be assessed or measured, students suggested:

• interviewing students
• looking at what international or intercultural opportunities students had been exposed to—including both what had been offered by school and through family experiences
• keeping a record or portfolio of students’ activities and experiences that contribute to international competence
• evaluating students’ knowledge of languages
• undertaking a survey of students’ interests (in other people, cultures, global issues, or events and travel).

One interesting theme to emerge from the young people’s workshops was the significance of the highly multicultural social interactions and friendship groupings they experienced in their schools. Both the student and teacher workshops suggested that something interesting may be happening in parts of New Zealand where students are “growing up internationalised” in ways that their parents and teachers may not have experienced in their own youth and schooling. This suggests value in continuing to involve young people in shaping a New Zealand discourse on what it means to be internationally capable, as their lived experiences might offer insights on international or intercultural capability that differ from those of adult policymakers or teachers.
Mixed-expertise workshops

Among the 10 participants who were able to attend the mixed-expertise workshop, at least four worked in the tertiary sector, at least two worked in business development projects or programmes with an explicit focus on building business relationships between New Zealand and Asia, at least two young adults had developed their own social or commercial enterprises, and at least two had worked with refugees or in international development volunteer programmes. Compared with the teacher and student groups, the mixed-expertise group was the most easily able to engage with some of the economic policy arguments for growing New Zealanders’ international capabilities. These participants were well aware of the arguments for developing New Zealand’s international business capability; indeed this was a key focus for some participants’ work.

Participants in the mixed-expertise workshops were also the most likely to question presumed relationships between schooling and what contributes to becoming an internationally or interculturally capable adult. One concern arising for these participants was whether a measure of students’ capabilities or international mindedness while they are still at school would genuinely indicate what those people might be, do, experience, and become over the duration of their lives, particularly when (as some pointed out) the kinds of learning experiences they felt could contribute to developing these capabilities may be less accessible to young people because of the ways school learning is commonly structured and organised.

Visit to ACER

We consulted with staff from the Australian Council for Educational Research (ACER) with a focus on understanding their work in the development of measures of ability/capability in the areas of intercultural and interpersonal competence. This was exemplified in two specific assessment programmes which were a focus of our meeting: The National Assessment Program—Civics and Citizenship (NAP-CC), and the UMAT (Undergraduate Medicine and Health Sciences Admission Test). Both tests are designed to measure ability/capabilities/knowledge of individuals (learners). However, they do not directly provide measures of students’ opportunities to learn, nor do they provide information about what sorts of learning environments and contexts schools can or should be developing in order to foster the development of students’ capabilities on these measures. The periodic release of items from these tests means they can become potential resources for curriculum and teaching, and in that way they may contribute to shifts in the learning environments and opportunities that schools provide to support the development of those capabilities.
Recommendations

Overall this study suggests the wisdom of adopting a view of New Zealand senior secondary students’ international capabilities as both a potentially measurable outcome for students and as a feature of the system (a process). In other words, we need to understand what opportunities students have to develop these capabilities, as well as what they actually learn from those experiences, particularly if the long-term goal is to improve or transform schooling practices to better meet 21st century learning needs.

Revisiting the overall purpose of assessing Years 12/13 students’ international capabilities, and how it might be used to support better practice in schools and better learning for students, presents some different options. Previous New Zealand research identifies at least three different policy purposes for such an assessment:

**Purpose 1:** for accountability at school and wider policy levels, and for reporting learning progress to any stakeholders who have a need for this information

**Purpose 2:** improving classroom teaching and learning practices

**Purpose 3:** to empower students to become lifelong learners.

Any measurement approach will have different degrees of value in achieving each of these purposes. The options below are arranged in order from a strong focus on purpose 1 through to a strong focus on purpose 3.

1. **Using an externally devised assessment framework and a national sampling approach**

   This would represent the most conventional approach to addressing the questions at the centre of this study. There are well-established precedents for using large-scale assessments to report on students’ learning progress, but also to gauge schools’ success in helping students meet the intended outcomes of their learning, and to monitor the success of government policies or to provide international comparability (e.g., Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA), International Civic and Citizenship Education (ICCS)).

2. **Develop formative assessment tool(s) for schools, with the understanding that some national data could be collected as a secondary benefit**

   This approach would focus on the development of a formative assessment tool or tools that schools could choose to use as a way to gather and reflect on data about their own school/students and use this data to inform practice or track changes over time. If there was a high uptake, data from many schools could be used to develop more of a national picture that could support and inform ongoing policy work.

3. **Use the National Certificate of Educational Achievement (NCEA) to assess and record data about students’ international capabilities**
This approach would utilise the opportunities that NCEA already provides for assessing students’ learning and build on these in a principled way to explicitly strengthen the learners’, teachers’, stakeholders’, and policymakers’ knowledge of what international capabilities look like when demonstrated in context by senior secondary learners.

4. Focus on an approach that is explicitly geared towards a lifelong learning/learner-empowerment paradigm

The final approach invites the Ministry to step back and consider what directions it might take if the primary driver for its work in this area is to support and empower lifelong learners who are internationally capable. In this approach the single most important reason for devising an assessment is to support learners to become more capable and more self-aware of their own capabilities, and to identify areas they can work on and next steps for their own learning and development. While this would generally be considered to be an important purpose for educational assessment, in practice it is actually very rare to find examples which genuinely prioritise this aim ahead of other assessment purposes. Such an approach might involve co-opting young people, their teachers, school leaders, and, potentially, wider communities in a learning-driven process of examining and shaping their own meanings for international capabilities and practices, and collecting and sharing reflective evidence from that learning. The ideas, materials, stories, and examples created by learners and teachers could be shared laterally, from learners to learners or from schools to schools, as rich stories of practice that support, encourage, and inspire the proliferation of new practices.

Fundamentally, this approach represents a shift away from a question like “how internationally capable are New Zealand students?” and instead centres around the more open question of “what could New Zealand students’ international capabilities be?”

In outlining four feasible assessment approaches and their strengths and weaknesses, we hope we have provided a solid foundation for next-step decision making. If New Zealand work in this area aims to be genuinely innovative and world leading, we recommend beginning with a clear focus on the areas that traditional approaches to assessment have been least likely to start from in the past. These are:

- enlisting learners as key partners in shaping meaning for the construct under study (and in doing so enlisting teachers, schools, and potentially, wider communities in this process)
- utilising new technologies/networked technologies to generate new assessment possibilities. This does not mean using technologies to do the same things in new ways, but rather, opens a space for considering what new ways we have for generating, sharing, documenting, experiencing, and utilising learning and knowledge, and what this could lead to in terms of our capabilities to know what learners are capable of.
1. Introduction

This report describes the outcomes of an exploratory study on the feasibility of measuring New Zealand senior secondary students’ “international capabilities”, undertaken by the New Zealand Council for Educational Research (NZCER) on behalf of the Ministry of Education’s International Education Division.

What are international capabilities?

Broadly speaking, international capabilities can be described as the knowledge, skills, attitudes, and values that enable people to live, work, and learn across international and intercultural contexts. These capabilities, or aspects of them, are described by a range of terms in the literature, including international knowledge and skills, global competence, global/international citizenship, global/international mindedness, and intercultural competence.

The Ministry considers international capabilities (or international competence) to be “the international and intercultural facet of the key competencies”. That is, they are not additional to the key competencies, but rather they make particular dimensions of the key competencies more explicit. For example, the Ministry’s background work (see Siddle, 2009, 2011) suggests international competence or capability comprises particular functional skills (including communication, self-management, and linguistic skills), particular aspects of social competence (including empathy, tolerance for ambiguity, the ability to influence others and manage conflict, etc.), and particular kinds of knowledge (including knowledge of one’s own perspectives and culture, knowledge of the world and global events, etc.).

Knowledge, skills, values, attitudes, competence … why “capabilities”?

Early in this project, we adopted the term international capabilities to describe the construct at the centre of this inquiry, although in our view the terms competence/competencies or capabilities can be used interchangeably. The choice to use capabilities was one way to signal the conceptual relationship with the key competencies, described in The New Zealand Curriculum as “capabilities for living and lifelong learning” (Ministry of Education, 2007, p. 12). Framing international or key competencies as capabilities for living and lifelong learning helps to foreground the importance of assessment approaches that can help us to understand not only what

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2 The key competencies in The New Zealand Curriculum are: thinking; relating to others; participating and contributing; understanding language, symbols, and texts; and managing self.

3 See Appendix A.
students know and can do now, but what they might be capable of doing in their futures, in an increasingly internationalised environment. Like the key competencies, international capabilities are a “holding idea” for many interrelated capabilities that may be expressed in a myriad of different situations over a person’s lifetime. In the business environment, it is common to find these referred to as skills—international, interpersonal, intercultural, or “soft skills”. But from an educational perspective, capabilities or competencies are recognised as being more complex than skills. As described in *The New Zealand Curriculum*, competencies “draw also on knowledge, attitudes, and values in ways that lead to action”. (p. 12, emphasis added). It is the holistic and integrative nature of competencies that makes them powerful, yet these same characteristics present challenges for the development of relevant and meaningful assessment.

This study explores the feasibility of measuring New Zealand senior secondary (Years 12/13) students’ international capabilities. In doing so it also raises questions about what aspirations we have for our young people as they prepare to transition from school into post-school pathways, and how we think New Zealand secondary schools help to increase “New Zealanders’ knowledge and skills to operate effectively across cultures.”

The questions at the centre of this work are touchstones for a much broader set of questions about the purposes and contexts for school learning in an increasingly globalised environment. As such, these questions make connections with a wealth of other literature about the changing purposes for, and practices within, secondary education in the 21st century. It is no surprise then that the outcomes of this exploratory study reveal considerable big-picture complexities that come into play in assessing the overall feasibility of the proposed measurement programme.

**Background**

The current project builds on background work already undertaken by the Ministry’s International Division. Siddle (2009) synthesised international literature to distil a view of the subcomponents of international competence (see Appendix A). This was followed by a second literature review (Siddle, 2011) to scope possible approaches to measurement and assessment of international competence, including looking at how other government bodies, education departments, and/or schools have approached the task, both in New Zealand and abroad. The Ministry’s review identified that most assessments of these competencies occur in tertiary-sector contexts, and “did not identify any reports from any government bodies or departments of education internationally that have carried out such a study of school students’ global knowledge, skills, and attitudes, either at a national or local level” (p. 2).

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4 New Zealand Government (2011)
5 See, for example, Yemini (2012), Hipkins (2009), Bolstad and Gilbert (2008), and Vaughan and Spiller (2012).
Project scope and methodology

This project was designed to build on and extend the Ministry’s background work. Research activities were undertaken in three phases between June and September 2013 (Table 1). Data from all the research activities were analysed, with a particular emphasis on looking at the relationships between the different sources. It was important to think about what each source contributed to an understanding of how New Zealand students’ international capabilities might be measured effectively, with associated opportunities and challenges for seeking these measures (Figure 1).

Table 1   Key research phases and activities

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<td>In the first stage of the research we familiarised ourselves with the background work already undertaken by the Ministry of Education, and undertook a scan of the international literature to identify any significant new developments in the field since the completion of the Ministry’s initial reviews. We also reanalysed prior NZCER research on key competencies to identify relevant conceptual issues around measurement, and to further examine the relationships between international capabilities and key competencies.</td>
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<td>In the second stage we drew together key ideas from the new international literature picked up during phase one. We also generated a set of “mini-maps” that unpacked the relationships between the Ministry’s initial synthesis of international competence and the key competencies. The analysis was contextualised in reference to three broad scenarios in which a young person could conceivably need to draw on or demonstrate international capabilities (See Appendix B).</td>
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We also visited colleagues at ACER to learn about their work in the development of assessment tools for interpersonal competence and citizenship.

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<td>The final stage of the research comprised two workshops and two student group discussions. Workshop 1 involved 13 teachers from 7 Auckland secondary schools. Student group discussions were convened with two groups of senior students at two of these schools. Workshop 2 was a “mixed-expertise” group, comprised of 10 people with a range of backgrounds and experiences of living and working in international/internationalised environments.</td>
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The next chapter considers why New Zealand might want to measure students’ international capabilities. Chapters 3–7 outline findings from each of the data sources and Chapter 8 draws on all of the research findings to discuss the overall feasibility of measuring New Zealand secondary students’ international capabilities and outline a set of options.
2. Why might New Zealand want to measure students’ international capabilities?

The Ministry’s background work outlined a range of questions that need to be addressed before beginning an assessment project to gauge New Zealand senior secondary school students’ international competence. For example, there is a question about whether we can clearly define what we are seeking to measure. Other questions include asking about the big-picture or wider context for the assessment, and the relationship between the proposed assessment and teaching/curriculum.6

Drawing from across the data sources that informed this project, it is evident that there isn’t just one answer to any of these questions. Rather, each question has several legitimate answers with different implications for the next steps in a hypothetical assessment approach. Decisions about whether or how to progress in seeking to measure New Zealand secondary students’ international capabilities will require considered choices between various feasible options (see Chapter 8).

This chapter prefaces the analysis of data across sources by discussing the most important question of what purpose(s) the proposed measurement might serve.

Clarifying purposes

What purpose(s) may be served by measuring or assessing New Zealand Years 12/13 students’ international capabilities? Before addressing this question, we could ask what benefits there may be in naming and defining international capabilities, when New Zealand schools already have other ideas like key competencies, or career management capabilities, to work with across their curriculum and teaching?

One argument is that the idea of international capabilities integrates several different high-level discourses around what matters for learners and learning in a 21st century globalised environment, including discourses associated with key—and career management—competencies. In this sense the idea of “international capabilities” functions as what some theorists call a “nodal point” (Mannion et al., 2011). Nodal points are increasingly a feature of 21st century educational policy and curriculum discourses. They bring together a range of ideas and seek to fix a particular meaning that can be widely agreed on and used to catalyse educational actions.

6 Appendix C provides the full list of questions identified by Siddle (2011).
With this in mind, there are a number of reasons why an explicit focus on international capabilities could be very beneficial for New Zealand schools, learners, and teachers. For example, it could:

- help make more explicit what the key competencies look like when they’re applied in intercultural or international situations, or at least, which dimensions of the key competencies can be usefully developed and applied in those situations
- provide a way to open a conversation with schools about internationalisation of education
- support New Zealand schools to better understand, analyse, and talk about the intercultural/internationalising learning activities they already do (and reflect on ways they can intentionally build on what is already happening)
- open conversations about cultural diversity in New Zealand schools and communities and the opportunities this can provide for intercultural learning
- create an opportunity for schools to revisit parts of The New Zealand Curriculum vision, including the notion of students being “international citizens” and the “future focus” principle which includes an explicit mention of globalisation as a theme students should explore during their schooling
- encourage schools to connect with businesses and the wider community to develop learning opportunities that help students to develop innovation and entrepreneurial capabilities, and connect these capabilities with intercultural and international contexts.

The workshop sessions convened as part of this project (see Chapters 4–6) showed that the notion of developing students’ “international capabilities” interested and engaged the secondary teachers, students, and other stakeholders in our workshops in rich thinking and conversations which brought to the surface many diverse and interlinked ideas about school, learning, students, New Zealand communities, and New Zealand’s place in the world.

This illustrates another interesting feature of nodal points; while they attempt to support convergence of ideas, and fix meaning in useful/useable ways, paradoxically they are also malleable and unstable, precisely because people will bring a range of opinions and perspectives as they make meaning from these ideas and put them into practice. On one hand, this is a good thing, because it offers people the opportunity to interpret things in a way that fits their context. On the other hand, it is likely that the means by which students’ international capabilities might be developed in practice may be contested. This is because (among other reasons) people have very different ideas/visions of how New Zealand society should grow and develop and what the role of

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7 As the next chapter explains, the literature indicates there is general conceptual uncertainty about the meaning of “internationalisation” for the school sector. For example, some schools we contacted for this research confused the focus of this study with the more familiar conception of international education as fee-paying international students in New Zealand schools.

8 This point particularly connects with the Government’s goal to increase New Zealanders’ knowledge and skills to operate effectively across cultures and maximise the contribution of education to New Zealand’s economic growth (New Zealand Government, 2011).

9 See, for example, Camicia and Franklin (2011).
education in that process ought to be. At a more pragmatic level, history demonstrates that ideas that could provide a means for convergence and connection across existing curriculum and teaching structures, systems, beliefs, and practices do not always find traction or live up to their transformative potential without additional support to help people think reflectively about, and explore ways of using, these ideas to enhance their thinking and practice.¹⁰

In this project we elected to approach international capabilities as a nodal point. As this was an exploratory study we developed research tools that would enable workshop participants to find points of connection with the concept of international capabilities so that they would be able to provide rich data about their own practice and experiences. Early in the project we devised three very broad contexts or scenarios in which young New Zealanders might theoretically need to draw on international capabilities (Table 2). Each scenario is designed to present a different kind of life situation that most people might be able to relate to. They might even be able to connect each scenario with stories from their own lives, or their friends’ or children’s situations. Each of the scenarios has links into a range of existing discourses and ideas about education, society, the economy, globalisation, and young people.

These three contexts do not necessarily represent all possible viewpoints on why international capabilities might be important in a New Zealander’s life. They do capture some of the different reasons that a parent, teacher, business person, community member, or indeed policymaker might see international capabilities as something all young people need the opportunity to develop.

¹⁰ This has been demonstrated for the implementation of key competencies into the school curriculum (Hipkins, Cowie, Boyd, Keown, & McGee, 2011) and for secondary schools’ early understandings of the intent and impact of career management competencies (Vaughan & Spiller, 2012).
Table 2  Three broad contexts in which young New Zealanders might need to call on “international capabilities”

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Making post-school learning and work choices in a global context</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Young people face an increasingly complex range of choices related to ongoing learning and work once they leave school. The concept of “career” has become a process rather than an outcome. A career might involve differing combinations of: finding and getting a job (during, between, or instead of studying); tertiary education (at a university or polytechnic, or a local provider); on-job training (at any stage of expertise); or travelling to learn through experience and work. Whether they stay home or travel, young people need capabilities (including the career management competencies11) to manage choices related to: occupational and cultural diversity, geographical mobility of work and workers, worldwide education provision, and global labour markets.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Engaging cross-culturally</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Most communities now are culturally diverse and there is considerable movement of people between cultures and countries. Even if our young people do not leave New Zealand, capabilities for relating to people from other places and cultures are likely to be needed for: employment (e.g., in service industries, firms that employ people from different cultures), participation in community groups and events (sports, church, cultural, etc.), tertiary study (e.g., work completed in mixed groups), and even being a good neighbour.</td>
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</tbody>
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<table>
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<tr>
<th>Being an active and engaged change agent in global contexts</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Wanting to make the world a better place is a typical characteristic of adolescence. Today’s young people have new types of opportunities to help shape our collective futures as opposed to waiting to cope with whatever may come. Capabilities involved in being an active and engaged “change agent” in a global context could be needed for: taking part in global change movements (either in person or by virtual means), addressing interconnected social/environmental/political/economic issues (perhaps by participating in local groups with global outreach), or being a social and/or economic innovator (identifying problems and designing solutions that have the potential to serve global needs, including the development of new knowledge, products, services, and systems for global markets).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

We used these short scenarios to support conversations in our teacher and mixed-expertise workshops. We also undertook a mini-mapping exercise, working backwards from the scenarios to speculate on which key competencies and dimensions of capability might need to be developed by people in these scenarios, and how these in turn mapped against the Ministry’s identified sub-components of international competence (Appendix B).

These exercises, and the Ministry’s background work, provide a reasonable case for why international capabilities, writ large, provide points of connection to a range of diverse ideas about what is important for secondary school learning in the 21st century. However, it is important to keep in mind that even though work has been done to define sub-components of international competence (see Appendix A), the larger discourse which surrounds them inherently mixes together a range of other ideas and discourses.

Because the idea of international capabilities is a nodal point, people can be expected to bring a range of opinions and perspectives as they engage and make meaning from these ideas (and in the

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11 New Zealand’s three career management competencies are: developing self-awareness, exploring opportunities, and deciding and acting.
case of schools, put them into practice). On one hand, this is a good thing, as it offers people the opportunity to interpret things in a way that fits their context. On the other hand, it is likely that the means by which students’ international capabilities should be developed will be contested because people have very different ideas/visions of how New Zealand society should grow and develop, and different points of view on education’s role in that process.12

This suggests an opportunity for policy work to help schools identify and work with the unique curriculum and learning opportunities associated with a focus on developing students’ international capabilities, while also enabling schools to develop their own interpretations and share examples of practice. Work in these areas could help build a stronger profile for and understanding of the policy and practice value of developing New Zealand students’ international capabilities.

What policy work could support the development of young people’s international capabilities?

Siddle’s (2013) analysis suggests at least three potential areas for further policy development work. These break down into 1) curriculum/strategy, 2) resourcing, and 3) assessment. First, Siddle explores the question of whether New Zealand needs educational policy documents which provide explicit focus, guidance, and attention to international competence and strategies for its development, noting that this is currently a gap.13 Second, she looks at the extent to which the Ministry and others providers’ programmes and resources assist in building students’ international competence.14 Finally, she addresses the question of how New Zealand is assessing students’ international competence, noting that:

No direct assessment of students’ global knowledge, skills, and attitudes is currently taking place at the national level. There is no purpose-built assessment in place which will specifically measure the extent of a students’ international knowledge and the degree of sophistication with which they can interact interculturally. (Siddle, 2013, p. 15)

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12 Some of these issues emerged in our workshops as participants began to question and explore some of the deeper implications of a focus on international capabilities. For a comprehensive New Zealand example which shows the challenges for large-scale evaluation in relation to a nodal point strongly connected with international capabilities (education for enterprise), see Bolstad, Roberts, and McDowall (2009), particularly pp. 165–172.

13 Siddle’s informal analysis of educational policy across 12 countries suggests that global or international competence “is not commonly communicated explicitly within either international education or skills development policy documents for the compulsory education sector” (2013, p. 9). In New Zealand, like Finland, international capabilities are included implicitly in the national curriculum via a core group of competencies for implementation across all learning areas.

14 Siddle’s initial surface-level stocktake identifies a number of existing initiatives and materials, but notes the extent to which schools are using these is only partially known, and the effect in terms of impacts for student learning is unknown.
From a policy perspective, developing an approach to student assessment as a next step does make sense because this would at least provide the beginnings of a knowledge base about what is actually happening for our students. At the same time, it is useful to recognise that development work in curriculum support or resourcing could be equally important starting points for progressing an agenda to support the development of New Zealand students’ international capabilities.

**Why assess competencies/capabilities?**

Given that this study is looking at the feasibility of assessing students’ international capabilities, it is useful to look at three different policy purposes for such an assessment, as identified by Hipkins, Boyd, and Joyce (2005), in Table 3 below.

**Table 3  Three policy purposes for assessing competencies (adapted from Hipkins et al., 2005)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Purpose One: Systems accountability and reporting</th>
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<tr>
<td>This is the most familiar and traditional of the three assessment purposes. There are well-established precedents for using large-scale assessments to report on students’ learning progress, but also to gauge schools’ success in helping students meet the intended outcomes of their learning, and to monitor the success of government policies. In this model of assessment, it is most common to use standardised summative forms of assessment. Assessment issues tend to be technical in nature and validity is defined by technical, rational psychometric principles. These kinds of assessment programmes have historically relied on pencil-and-paper tests, but over time new forms of assessment tasks are being devised, for example, to try to gather evidence in the context of authentic tasks.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Purpose Two: Improving teaching and learning**

This purpose for assessment has a clear focus on improving learning and teaching. The main purpose of the assessment is formative—to provide feedback to the learner. Assessment always takes place in authentic contexts, sometimes provided by the teacher, other times selected by the learner. In these cases the final judgement is made by somebody else, such as a teacher or parent, although the learner is involved in discussions about their learning and what they are trying to achieve. Indicators, such as exemplars, may give guidance (to learners or teachers, or both) on what to look for.

**Purpose Three: Supporting lifelong learning**

This purpose for assessment is to empower students as lifelong learners. Students take an active part in collecting evidence and in the judgement of their own performance, and the assessment itself may become an important part of the learning. This aligns with sociocultural learning theories, which seek to empower learners by situating them centrally in the process of learning, but also at the centre of the assessment. Their viewpoint is included and they share the interpretation of the assessment information with the teacher. This could involve students selecting the evidence that demonstrates the competencies they can exhibit within the learning context. While this might take place within the classroom, it could also be within contexts outside formal learning situations. There is usually some sort of validation of students’ own judgements. These sorts of assessments can be used for summative purposes (to demonstrate a competency for employers, for example), but can also be used formatively to identify areas for future learning. Assessment issues tend to be social, political, and cultural.
Any measurement approach will have different degrees of value in terms of achieving each of these three purposes, although it is certainly possible to think about constructing an approach that integrates across these paradigms.\textsuperscript{15} We will return to this challenge in Chapter 8.

The next five chapters outline key findings from each of the data sources: the literature, the staff workshops, student discussion groups, mixed-expertise workshops, and our research visit to ACER. The final chapter returns to the overall question of how New Zealand’s senior secondary students’ international capabilities might be measured and provides some different options.

\textsuperscript{15} Hipkins et al. (2005) suggest that assessment systems designed to gather rich data to support lifelong learning aims (purpose 3) can also subsume purposes 1 and 2. More recently, Masters (2013) discusses the development of a more unified conceptualisation of assessment based on the premise “that the fundamental purpose of assessment is to establish where learners are in their learning at the time of assessment ... this principle recognised that all assessments have the same fundamental purpose and that there are varying uses to which assessment information can legitimately be put” (pp. 5–6, emphasis in original).
3. The literature

Our international literature searches were designed to build from the Ministry’s background work (Siddle, 2009, 2011). We did not locate evidence that other countries have already designed or implemented a measure of international capabilities in school students, supporting the contention that New Zealand’s work in this area could be potentially world leading. However, the international literature indicates strong interest in the same kinds of questions as are being explored in the current project, and recent academic analyses provide valuable perspectives on how New Zealand might proceed. There is a strong resonance between international literature on assessment of international capabilities and the sizeable body of New Zealand research on the assessment of key competencies. This chapter synthesises the New Zealand and international literatures to identify a range of practical and theoretical issues germane to the focus of this study. These analyses add to the findings and recommendations already identified by Siddle (2009, 2011).

Learning from research on measuring key competencies

If we want to assess school leavers’ international capabilities, how might we go about doing so? Because this question addresses a hypothetical space (as far as we have been able to establish, no other nation has done exactly this) we need to draw indirect lessons from other similar assessment projects. Given that the sorts of outcomes we might expect to see as indicators of students’ international capabilities will have strong overlaps with the key competencies, we can draw on lessons from the implementation of the latter into the New Zealand school curriculum.

NZCER has contributed extensively to the New Zealand knowledge base in this area. It has been our experience that developing a deep understanding of the key competencies is a recursive journey, as illustrated in the largely chronological discussion of research outlined next.

Is there a best way to assess competencies?

A paper by Hipkins et al. (2005) was commissioned while The New Zealand Curriculum was still in development, in the face of concerns—expressed by the New Zealand curriculum advisory

16 See Appendix C.
17 It is still possible we could have failed to locate this, particularly if it is not easy to find in English-language published sources.
18 For example, see: Shute, Dennen, Kim, Donmez, and Wang (2010), Morais and Ogden (2011), Yemini (2012), Mannion et al. (2011).
group, among others—that key competencies would not be taken seriously unless they were assessed in some way. The team analysed five existing assessment initiatives, chosen because they appeared to pose the types of challenges that might be anticipated for assessment of key competencies. The researchers commented that “no one overall ‘best’ solution emerged from the analysis” (p. 94). Key findings included the recommendation that assessment be approached as a “complex performance” and that more than one source of evidence would be needed to deal with issues of validity and reliability. Development of portfolios of evidence was recommended as one possible approach, as were observations of authentic performances, combined with a degree of self- and peer assessment. The challenge of acknowledging opportunities for competency development in wider community settings was noted.

What kinds of assessment approaches are recommended?

Insights from the work above were drawn on to develop a pamphlet published by Learning Media for the Ministry of Education (Hipkins, 2007), which lists suitable assessment strategies. These include: learning logs or journals, learning stories, portfolios, and rich tasks. Importantly, these are seen as extending/complementing rather than replacing traditional assessments. Their inclusion in the overall assessment mix was seen as a way of proactively addressing evident challenges for assessing competencies. Challenges to traditional assessment practice (p. 10) were also identified, including:

- Appropriate use of knowledge is best assessed via meaningful tasks.
- Demonstrations of competency typically draw on knowledge from across learning areas.
- Reflective dimensions of competency need to be included in the assessment.
- Dispositions also need to be taken into account, as demonstrated in action.
- Learning to learn/transfer of competencies to different contexts or tasks needs to be considered.
- Competences are typically inferred by others via imposed tasks, and hence don’t necessarily allow students to demonstrate growing autonomy.
- Some aspects of competency are enabled/demonstrated in group settings, but assessment typically has an individual focus.
- Some opportunities to demonstrate competency lie in settings beyond the school.

Issues related to the inappropriate use of generalised rubrics are described (Hipkins, 2007, p. 11). This practice was seen at the time as one way of demonstrating that a school was taking key competencies “seriously” as they implemented The New Zealand Curriculum. The advice given

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19 These initiatives were: New Basics (Queensland Government, Australia); PISA problem solving (Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development); Equipped for the Future (National Institute for Literacy, USA); assessment of vocational key competencies (Vocational Education and Training (VET), Australia); and Learning Stories (early childhood, Ministry of Education, New Zealand).

20 Such as those developed for the New Basics initiative in Queensland.
was that, where rubrics\textsuperscript{21} were used, students should be involved in conversations about their meaning, and take an active part in the judgement being made. Ideally, they would also be involved in constructing the rubrics in the first place.\textsuperscript{22} However, there was also a caution that many questions still surrounded the nature of progression in competency development.

**Are competencies hard to measure, or simply hard to define?**

A subsequent paper commissioned by the Ministry of Education to inform a review of national assessment policy (Hipkins, 2009) took the position that key competencies were less “hard to measure” (the commissioned topic) than they were “hard to define”. It illustrated this challenge by elaborating on different types of outcomes that might be anticipated when “thinking” is fostered as a multi-faceted key competency. These various types of outcomes were then positioned on a four-quadrant heuristic developed by Carr (2008) to discuss the challenges of assessing progress in holistic but multi-faceted competency development. The four quadrants are created by the intersection of two continua. The first looks at the scale of the assessment focus, from “zooming in” (detail) at one end and “zooming out” (big picture) at the other. The intersecting continuum looks at the perceived nature of outcomes and endpoints for learning, and whether these are constructed as more certain (at one end) or more uncertain (at the other).

The message in Hipkins’ paper is that approaches to measuring learning and progress in key competencies—or for that matter, international competencies/capabilities—could be created within any of the four quadrants, with different assessment possibilities and issues in each quadrant. Hipkins’ analysis of the challenges for key competency assessments across these four quadrants draws links with key international literature (Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, 2007; Harlen, 2007) to show that these assessment challenges genuinely sit at the cutting edge of thinking about the purpose, context, and means of assessment for learning in the 21st century.

Hipkins takes the position that the conceptual uncertainties that dog this field are in fact *curriculum* questions, rather than simply technical questions of how to assess. She suggests there is a debate to be had about how we balance and deliver on the mix of national educational priorities signalled by *The New Zealand Curriculum*, and raises pertinent questions:

- How do we seek information about less familiar outcomes (less familiar, that is, in terms of what we have had experience of assessing in the past) as well as those that we already have the tools to assess?
- For what purposes do we intend to gather assessment data, and how does the purpose impact on the type of data to be gathered?

\textsuperscript{21} Rubrics aim to describe criteria against which students’ achievement or progress might be measured.
\textsuperscript{22} Interestingly this advice anticipated the main thrust of the assessment policy paper *Directions for Assessment in New Zealand* (DANZ) (Absolum, Flockton, Hattie, Hipkins, & Reid, 2009) This paper recommended developing assessment-capable teachers and students, so that the latter could become increasingly autonomous in making realistic judgements about their progress, and in setting their personal learning goals.
• What does “making progress” look like when the focus is on aspects of learning that have not traditionally been assessed?
• Is it reasonable to attempt to describe and then look for evidence of progress in what is not yet being widely taught?

A final unpublished paper, produced as background advice for the National Monitoring team (Hipkins, 2011) takes account of several more years of ever-deepening learning about the complexity of the key competencies themselves, and our growing awareness of the complexities of weaving them into subject learning within the broad ambit of a framework curriculum. Five specific challenges for National Monitoring were identified in this paper, three\textsuperscript{23} with specific relevance for measuring international capabilities.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 4</th>
<th>Competency measurement challenges identified by Hipkins (2011)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Part/whole challenges:</strong></td>
<td>Ideally it would be possible to report on students’ competencies in relation to all of knowledge, skills, attitudes, and values, and to look for interactions between these. Just as these parts are woven together as specific individual key competencies, so all the key competencies will be woven into a coherent whole in any one task situation. It follows that whichever of the competencies is least developed will likely limit what students are able to do.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Challenges associated with contexts and opportunities to learn:</strong></td>
<td>Key competencies are demonstrated in context, and dimensions of a chosen context for action will impact differently on different students’ abilities in demonstrating their competencies. It is important to avoid assessing and reporting on key competencies as if they are solely personality traits of the individual. Students’ backgrounds and prior learning experiences can help enable students to see the action possibilities in a task: it is important to take identity, language, and culture into account both when designing assessments and interpreting their results. If the task asked of them links meaningfully to their own life, they are likely to demonstrate their competency more readily than they might in different, less personally engaging circumstances.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Aligning key competencies and learning to learn:</strong></td>
<td>It is not enough to be intuitively good at something without being able to say how and why competency has been utilised in action. Self-awareness and deliberate, strategic use of one’s current capabilities needs to be an assessment focus. However, young students can’t necessarily be expected to recognise what could be relevant without support. Reflective tasks should be specific and not just wide-open prompts to “tell us about your thinking”.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### The case for a systems-level measure

This project was conceived around the notion of measuring students’ international competence (Siddle, 2009, 2011). However, recent work by international academics\textsuperscript{24} reopens valid questions about what might be “in scope” for a project that seeks to understand and measure New Zealand secondary students’ international capabilities. In particular, they draw attention to the fact that both in education policy and practice, big-picture ideas such as global citizenship\textsuperscript{25} or international capability do tend to be framed first of all as a competence (hence seen in terms of

\textsuperscript{23} Specific issues associated with the learning areas being developed for the first round of National Monitoring are not as directly relevant to this paper.

\textsuperscript{24} See especially Yemini (2012), Mannion et al. (2011), Parmenter (2011).

\textsuperscript{25} Or, for that matter, simply citizenship.
something individuals *have*, which can be measured in those individuals), rather than a *practice* that people do, sometimes individually, but often in collaboration and interaction with other people.  

If we take a broad perspective that sees international capabilities not only as outcomes (or sets of measurable competencies that a person *has*) but also as a *process* that constantly needs to be achieved through actions and behaviours, what are the implications for educational measurement? Referring to the “global citizenship” discourse, Mannion et al. differentiate between “outcome” and “process” perspectives as follows:

In the outcome perspective, global education becomes the producer of global citizens; in the process perspective the first question to ask is what citizenship practices are possible within schools and society more generally, and only then to ask what and how students might learn from such practices (Mannion et al., 2011, p. 453).

In short, the ideas expressed in this set of literature suggest the importance of seeking to assess not only students’ international competence, but also the opportunities available to New Zealand students to experience and engage in practices that align with internationalisation or global citizenship goals (and, as Mannion et al., suggest, to then explore how students engage with those opportunities, and what they actually learn from those practices).  

Figure 2 visualises these two perspectives in terms of a “zooming in” and “zooming out” metaphor. In the first perspective, the assessment is focused on the individual student. The system’s performance is presumed to be measurable by aggregating across all individuals’ performance in the assessment. Education systems have historically been designed around the “individual outcome measure” form of assessment and there is a huge amount of knowledge about how to do this (Hipkins et al., 2005).

In the second perspective, the system *itself* is part of the focus of assessment. From this “zoomed out” perspective, attention is paid not only to what the individuals in the system know and can do, but what the system itself does, and what groups and collectives of people in the system know and can do together. While there is nothing particularly ground breaking about system-level measures,

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26 The practice/doing aspect of international competence is indicated in Siddle’s (2011) recommendation to use multiple methods of assessment, including those that show what students can *do*, such as: observation/analysis of student interactions by teachers or other students, written projects or student papers/presentations, portfolios, learning logs, summaries of accomplishments, narrative diaries. The point made here is that the process/doing dimension of the competence can also be viewed as something done by the system, which includes the actions and interactions of learners and teachers, but also the actions and interactions of the overall system, including curriculum; teaching; learning; the culture and organisation of schools; timetables; interactions between teachers, learners, and other people and groups, etc.

27 This approach goes further than, but does not exclude the adaptation of, research approaches designed to measures particular aspects of (tertiary) learners’ international capability, using tools like the Global-Mindedness Scale (e.g., see Fielden, 2008, Kehl and Morris, 2008, Meyer, Sleeter, Zeichner, Park, Hoban, and Sorensen, 2011).

28 See also Carr (2008), Hipkins (2009), Masters (2013).
these are relatively less familiar or widely used in the education system, compared with the “individual outcome measure” approach.29

The two perspectives are by no means mutually exclusive, and the literature reviewed in the rest of this chapter points to the need for both. There is a good case to be made for New Zealand to develop some measure of the “internationalisation” of secondary schools as a way to examine the system’s capacity to support the growth of internationally capable young New Zealanders.

29 For an example of system-level measures of practice applied to measuring management practices in New Zealand manufacturing sector, see Green, Agarwal, Brown, Tan, and Randhawa (2011).
Figure 2  Two ways to think about measuring international capability

Zooming in: focus on the individual

Zooming out: focus on the system
Some general differences between schools and higher education with respect to internationalisation

As Siddle (2009) identified, most assessments of “global competence” occur in tertiary sector contexts. She and others have suggested that conceptual and practical issues raised in the tertiary-level literature on assessment of global competencies would also be relevant for whatever approaches might be adopted in a school-level approach. While this is undoubtedly true, the international literature also underscores some of the contextual differences between schools and tertiary education that need to be recognised prior to any attempts to develop measures of internationalisation or international capabilities in schools. Yemini (2012) identifies some of these contextual differences—from a general international perspective—as follows:

30 Table 5  Some key differences between internationalisation in higher education and schools—generalisations from an international perspective (adapted from Yemini, 2012)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Higher education</th>
<th>Schools</th>
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<tr>
<td>• The importance of internationalising is widely accepted. There is compelling pressure to internationalise, and some argue it has been “mainstreamed” in institutions of higher education.</td>
<td>• While schools are moving towards greater internationalisation, the rationale for this trend is not clear enough, and questions about the definition of internationalisation in schools remain unresolved.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Internationalisation is not seen as a luxury, but a necessity.</td>
<td>• Student and staff mobility are less relevant reasons for thinking about schools’ internationalisation than for higher education institutions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Student and staff mobility is a feature of higher education institutions (hence part of the pressure to internationalise).</td>
<td>• Schools are naturally more internally oriented than higher education institutions, and operate with national or local regulations, and are dependent on formal funding sources.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Schools face pressures to internationalise from different directions: from higher education, parents and other stakeholders, and from students themselves (including through their experiences with changing technologies, the social and economic environment, etc.).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| | • Schools are “located at a junction of contradicting pressures”. Trends to internationalise are “in some sense contradictory to the very basic rationale of children’s educational systems in terms of nation-state building and socialisation”, and “national pressures remain strong in local schools worldwide”.

30 Note that these general differences may not apply to New Zealand’s school and tertiary sectors to the same extent as they do in other countries.
31 For example, national education systems increasingly promote an internationalisation agenda, and there has been growth in concepts such as global citizenship education.
32 This is perhaps more true of the schooling system as a whole, as some particular schools might have high international mobility among students and staff.
33 Decentralisation/deregulation policies allow schools some opportunities to establish their own policies and practices, which could include more “internationalised” approaches.
The bottom line message from the international literature is that “internationalisation” and its implications are still not as clear-cut for schools as they may be for tertiary education. Schools and tertiary settings are different, not only because of the ages and situations of the learners they serve, but because of their historically different social, economic, and cultural purposes.34

Yemini (2012) argues that inadequate attention (both in research terms and practice) has been paid to evaluating the intensity of internationalisation in schools, and that there are still more debates over the definition of internationalisation in schools than in higher education, where a neutral and objective definition formulated by Knight (2004) appears to be broadly accepted.35 Yemini favours this definition and proposes such a measure of the internationalisation of schools would need to include a descriptive account of schools’ international dimension. First, because the intensity of a school’s internationalisation is a parameter assumed to influence that school’s outcomes (including student outcomes, however defined). Second, because understanding the level of internationalisation in schools will assist the understanding of contextual factors that influence internationalisation in any given school. Third, Yemini also suggests that in an environment of school choice this would provide parents an indicator of a dimension of “quality” of a school’s education. Finally, she considers assessment of schools’ internationalisation to be necessary as part of the broader accountability culture of schools (PISA, Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study -TIMSS, Progress in International Reading Literacy Study -PIRLS).

Yemini proposes adaptation of an existing internationalisation tool, developed by the American Council on Education (ACE) for use in higher education (and which has been adapted and used across multiple higher education contexts36), which could look at measures within these categories:

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34 Many authors comment on the potential conflict between educating for international capabilities and educating for more nationally-minded purposes, although paradoxically it is also widely argued the two are not necessarily in opposition and can be complementary or even synergetic (see Hill, 2012 and Mannion et al., 2011).

35 Knight defines internationalisation as “the process of integrating an international, intercultural, or global dimension into the purpose, functions, or delivery of education”.

36 See Beerkens, Brandenburg, Evers, van Gaalen, Leichsenring, and Zimmermann (2010).
Table 6  **Indicators of schools’ internationalisation suggested by Yemini (2012)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1. Institutional support:</th>
<th>Variables that assess the intensity of a school’s management support and commitment to internationalisation. Mission and vision, values, etc.</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2. Academic requirements, programmes, and extracurricular activities:</td>
<td>School’s internal activities that can express an international dimension, including offerings of foreign languages, use of information and communications technology (ICT) for international purposes, international partnerships and exchanges, and other internationally-minded curricular and extracurricular activities.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Faculty policies and opportunities:</td>
<td>Internationalism among school staff, hiring, staff opportunities to learn about internationalisation, use global teaching resources, increase foreign language skills, etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. International students:</td>
<td>Includes students’ international engagement in e-learning and virtual courses, school resources allocated for external and international students, and international activities of alumni. But this measure needs to take into account contextual variables that influence schools’ internationalisation—such as socioeconomic status, location, size, sector, private or public status, backgrounds of the student and staff communities, principal, etc.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This chapter has outlined some key messages and themes from the international literature, as well as New Zealand research on measurement of competencies, adding to and complementing the earlier reviews undertaken by Siddle (2009, 2011).

Overall the literature suggests there is value in adopting a view of New Zealand senior secondary students’ international capabilities as both a potentially measurable outcome for students, and as a feature of the system (a process). In other words, we need to understand what opportunities students have to develop these capabilities, as well as what they actually learn from those experiences. As the research on measurement of key competencies suggests, there is no one clear “best” way to undertake these sorts of measurements, but there are many different forms of assessment and measurement which are best suited to gathering different kinds of information about different aspects of competencies or capabilities when they are learned and expressed in particular contexts.

The next three chapters draw on data from teachers, students, and other adults to identify what sorts of contexts people saw as relevant for students to learn and express international capabilities.
4. Staff workshop

The staff workshop was convened in Auckland. This provided a cost-effective way to access a diverse range of secondary schools representing a demographically non-homogeneous population. Thirteen schools were contacted, and 7 schools took up the invitation to participate in the workshop. Each school was invited to send two staff to participate in a mediated conversation. We suggested at least one staff member be someone holding a curriculum leadership responsibility role within the school. In total, 13 staff took part in the workshop with three NZCER facilitators.

The workshop was an opportunity for a rich probe of ideas and experiences to inform the central questions of this study, but the sample of participating schools and teachers was in no sense intended to be representative. The workshop discussion focused on:

- what developing students’ “international capabilities” meant at their schools—including opportunities through curriculum, assessment, and co-curricular activities
- ideas about how these elements might be enhanced and more connected in learning
- enablers and barriers to enhancing international learning in New Zealand schools’ curricula.

We asked staff to come to the workshop prepared to speak about at least one relevant example or story from their school. We also sent staff copies of the three hypothesised scenarios (see Table 2) to indicate some of the conceptual work we had already done, and discussed these in more depth during the workshops. On the day, we provided a full brief to staff about the background to, and intentions of, the exploratory study, and emphasised the Ministry’s focal question on the feasibility of measuring Years 12 and 13 students’ international capabilities.

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37 Our main selection criteria for schools was to ensure that we had a spread across different areas of the city, with sufficient geographic proximity to the workshop venue that staff would be able to easily get to and from the it within a school day. Although we had some prior knowledge of some of the schools we invited, there was no clear way to presuppose how these or other schools might be thinking about “international capabilities” and what perspectives they might bring to the discussion.

38 The participating schools and staff are listed in the acknowledgements page. Staff were able to choose whether or not they wanted to be acknowledged by name in the report; all but one gave consent to be named.

39 One teacher was unable to attend due to illness.
The mediated conversations workshop methodology

The mediated conversations research approach has been developed and used successfully across a number of recent NZCER research projects. It is an effective way to gather data about perceptions and practices across more than one school. It also provides valuable professional learning opportunities for staff, as they have an opportunity to discuss and reflect on their ideas and practices with a group of engaged and interested peers.

Participants come to mediated conversations prepared to talk about an aspect of the practice under scrutiny (in this case, what developing students’ international and intercultural competencies means in their school or classroom). Peers who share an interest in this practice provide an authentic audience and hence mediate responses by ensuring that the conversation is focused on what other school leaders might want to know, not on what participants think researchers might want to hear. Subsequent to these small-group discussions all participants embark on a retrospective reframing and reflection of the stories they have just heard. This second conversation provides a participatory first level of analysis of the focus group data as people “think with” the researchers about the research questions.

This methodology is, in fact, so productive that it can lead to data overload. For the purposes of this exploratory study we have selectively gathered data from the day’s conversations, but wish to signal the additional richness of discussions that are difficult to encompass in this report. In this sense, our workshops demonstrated the process value of the methodology as a highly effective way to provide reflective and open-ended professional learning and growth. We encourage the Ministry of Education to consider the value of scaling up this process-based approach to stimulate and support ongoing learning and conversation around international capabilities in the secondary sector.

How did staff think their schools were supporting the development of students’ international capabilities?

Activities that staff believed supported the development of students’ international capabilities included, for various schools:

- a strong focus on learning languages and a school-wide focus on celebrating and recognising cultural and linguistic diversity (one school in particular elaborated in depth on the value they placed on language learning as a way of seeing into other worldviews and cultures)
- overseas trips built into learning across multiple subject areas (e.g., not just language learning trips, but international trips based on business studies or social studies classes)

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40 These include the Curriculum Implementation Exploratory Studies (CIES) (Hipkins et al., 2011) and e-in-science research, (Bunting & Bolstad, 2013), both for the Ministry of Education.
• “service” programmes with an international connection (e.g., students might travel to do volunteer work to build a school playground in Fiji)
• hosting visiting international student groups and sister-schools programmes.
• cultural fairs and festivals within the school (based around food, dance, other forms of cultural practice).

Table 7  **Snapshot: Cultural intelligence in business studies**

One business and economics teacher has strong international connections through the school’s relationship with the Asia New Zealand Foundation. This has provided professional learning opportunities for school leadership and staff, as well as scholarship opportunities for students. Access to these scholarships is open to students from other schools and is also promoted through the Auckland City Council website.

Two staff have had the opportunity to go to conferences in Shanghai, and the principal has attended a conference in Singapore. As a result they have developed a unit titled “Cultural Intelligence” (as part of the Level 3 Business course). The aims of this unit were to develop an understanding of cultural intelligence—how cultural intelligence relates to business in terms of relationships and flexibility. Students are asked to think about the difference between being culturally aware and being culturally intelligent. Drawing on the cultural diversity in the class they came up with a table that listed the country down the side and across the columns they made notes about the things that are done or perceived differently in each culture, such as food, festivals, and language, but also less well-known areas such as politeness/directness, dressing, sleep patterns, use of business cards, and gift giving. This student group decided they are quite culturally aware but need to work on being culturally intelligent as far as business practice is concerned.

Table 8  **Snapshot: Social studies in action**

One social studies teacher talked about the emphasis in their school on supporting students to “take action” as part of their learning. In the social studies curriculum, the focus for junior secondary students was on students building an understanding of self in relation to community. Over time this focus expanded outwards towards global events. The teacher saw a key purpose in supporting students to “understand how the world works” by beginning with actions in contexts the students could connect with. For example, students in Year 9 critically analysed magazines and wrote to them to question the ways girls and women were represented. The point was for students to “know they can make a difference”. As students grew older and the curriculum turned to more global issues, they were encouraged to examine issues from multiple perspectives, “not just from a Western ethnocentrist point of view”. For example “If something happens in China, what are the Chinese newspapers saying about it?”

Table 9  **Snapshot: Internationalised assessment and qualifications**

Some of the schools in the workshop deliver both NCEA and the International Baccalaureate (IB). The presence of the IB in these schools was considered to bring an “internationalisation” focus into the school which had an impact across the curriculum as well as on whole-school teacher professional learning. International-mindedness is a core aspect of the IB and part of the IB learner profile, and staff considered that students could not do IB without developing and demonstrating international capabilities. One teacher talked about the international recognition of NCEA Level 3 and how “IB and NCEA both set students up for overseas study”. However, it was suggested that while NCEA doesn't preclude an internationalising focus, it certainly does not require or encourage it in the same way as IB.
Are some schools more internationalised or intercultural than others?

Many of the schools represented in the workshop have highly internationalised and/or multicultural student populations. Staff acknowledged that Auckland on the whole has become much more culturally diverse than it has ever been, and that this may be very different in different schools around the country.

- Staff at one school noted that for some of their students, New Zealand was their third country.
- Some schools have no single dominant cultural group.
- Some staff don’t know which students in their classes are the “international [fee-paying] students” and which are the domestic students because “everyone is international”.
- Some schools have a significant number of international staff.
- Other staff recognised themselves as being in “the minority” as monolingual English speakers compared with a mostly multilingual student population: “Often there is not English heard in the corridors”.

These discussions led some staff to speculate on the nature of a “mature” multicultural or intercultural school.

- What are the implications for students for whom intense multiculturalism is “the norm” in their school?
- What might be the impact of secondary schooling in a “mature” internationalised/intercultural/multicultural school by the time students reach Years 12/13?
- What might be seen as the challenges associated with a highly culturally diverse school population or the challenges of a school where teachers’ cultural diversity is different to that of their students?

Table 10  **Snapshot: Where are schools positioned in relation to students’ home cultures?**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Details</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>One teacher talked about how they were trying to address “problems” associated with the different norms and values their culturally diverse students encountered in their school cultures compared with their home cultures. Some of these issues seemed to position the school/staff as intermediaries or advocates “between students and their families”. This could be in the context of a student whose parents wanted them to leave school to get married rather than continue their studies, or when students’ aspirations (or the schools’ aspirations for the student) were perceived to differ from what families expected or wanted the young person to do. All of these issues, from the “small minutiae” of school life through to larger questions around students’ career pathways and transitions from school, required staff to have a consciousness about the cultural differences they were encountering. This, in turn, meant that staff had to be aware of their own cultural values and backgrounds as well as those of their students, in order to learn how to effectively communicate cross-culturally. The teacher who told this story acknowledged that this was not something that all teachers were necessarily well-equipped or willing to do.</td>
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</table>

An important question to emerge during the day’s discussion was whether New Zealand students have equitable access to intercultural/internationalising learning opportunities, both within schools...
and between schools. A related question is what the nature of those intercultural or internationalising learning opportunities are and what the impacts of those might be.\textsuperscript{41}

Some teachers talked about the role of ICT in supporting students’ “connectedness” and ability to engage, connect, and learn across international boundaries. Other teachers pointed out how “human connections”, such as students working to support refugee services, were just as important.

**Underutilised opportunities?**

Working in groups to look at current practices across their schools, staff identified a number of opportunities that could, in theory, lead to even greater support for students’ international capability development. Some of the open questions they reflected on were:

- Are schools utilising opportunities to draw on the diversity of school staff and students to develop understandings of internationalisation/what it is to be internationally capable?
- Can schools encourage students to be more “globally minded” if the system does not provide any particular “reward” for this? If it is not assessed or measured, will it be supported and valued?
- Does our curriculum reflect the diversity of the world? (For example, what would English in the curriculum look like through a lens of internationalisation?)
- How strong are schools’ links to the community? How could these be used to strengthen students’ development of intercultural and international capabilities?
- How are schools recognising, supporting, and developing students’ “EQ”, their dispositions, tolerance, comfort in uncertainty, or willingness to be internationally minded?

Teachers did not necessarily have answers to these questions, but different teachers discussed different ways in which these questions related back to their schools’ current practices, or identified ways in which they and their schools might work with these questions to shape “next practice”.

\textsuperscript{41} There is a strong link here to Theme 2 in a report for the Ministry of Education (Bolstad & Gilbert, 2012) which identified six themes to underpin a future-oriented learning system. This theme emphasises the need for new understandings of diversity and, in particular, how to recognise diversity as a strength to be actively fostered. This means catering for learners’ diversity as well as preparing learners to work with diversity. The changing global environment requires learners to engage with people from many different backgrounds and world views. Learners also need to develop the ability to work with a diversity of ideas—to think outside existing knowledge paradigms in order to solve increasingly complex real-world challenges.
How do schools measure, assess, or track the development of students’ international capabilities?

The question of how students’ international capabilities might be measured or measurable was initially met with some resistance or aversion. However, in conversation it became clear teachers were in favour of building on existing approaches and practices that encouraged formative-assessment and lifelong-learning approaches, and were resistant to the idea of assessment or measurements designed with narrower measures for system accountability. Different means by which teachers felt schools were already tracking and supporting students’ capability development included

- the Effective Lifelong Learning Inventory (ELLI), used in one school
- the IB learner profile
- opportunities for students to engage in verbal or written reflection on their learning and experiences in a variety of cross-cultural or international learning contexts
- student portfolios.

Some staff started to think about their existing systems for student learning portfolios and identified the possibility that some of the “reflective” dimensions needed to be further developed.

What did the teacher workshops contribute to this exploratory study?

It is important to note that while all the schools seemed to believe they had a grasp on what it meant to support internationally capable learners, each school had a range of ways to talk about this, and there were some areas of practice about which teachers seemed more readily able to talk or reflect critically on what they currently did. Comparing the school staff data with the international literature reaffirms the sense that international capabilities, as a “nodal point”, is invariably difficult to pin down to one set of ideas and practices. At the same time, this construct provides a highly generative focus and meeting point for people to talk about and reflect on many important questions about what matters for learners and learning in the 21st century.

Although there were some hesitations about whether or how senior students’ international capabilities could be assessed, the teacher workshop did in fact provide many large and small examples of evidence on which teachers were basing their views of their schools’—and their students’—international capabilities. These included descriptions of things you might see, hear, or experience in a normal day at the school and stories about particular learning episodes or conversations that have happened between teachers and students, or between teachers and parents/the wider community.

This suggests that schools might indeed find value in having access to assessment tools and approaches that they or their students could use to collect and analyse data about particular dimensions of their school’s “internationalness” or their students’ international capabilities,
particularly if having this kind of data about their own school can be used to test assumptions about their current practices, inform ongoing practice, and, of course, provide another form of feedback that can support student learning.
5. Student groups

We visited two of the participating schools and convened group discussion sessions with groups of 12 and 9 senior secondary students respectively. These were run as informal semi-structured discussions with the key purpose being to generate productive conversations to elicit students’ views and experiences. The table below gives examples of some of the questions used to guide discussions.

Table 11  Guiding questions for the student group discussions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Some people say students today are global citizens. What do you think? What does that mean to you?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Does this school help you to be a more international/global citizen? How?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How would people know if secondary students were global citizens or internationally capable people?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do you think you are more internationalised or intercultural than your parents?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What have you learned about other cultures, people, and countries because of being at this school?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Some people say New Zealanders aren’t very good at doing international business. What do you think?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How would people know that your school is very internationalised/intercultural? What would they look for? How would they know?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Many young people like to travel overseas when they leave school. Do you think you would like to? What will you need to know or be able to do if you want to live or work in another country?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Both schools we visited had very culturally diverse student populations, and students seemed to consider ethnic and cultural diversity to be the norm. Some illustrated this by naming the range of cultures, languages, or religions represented within their close friendship groupings. While they were all domestic students, the majority of students in these discussion groups had an overseas connection, with either themselves or at least one parent born outside New Zealand. Given the level of internationalism amongst these students, it would be interesting to replicate this process in other New Zealand schools and see whether other students have different views about what it means to be an international or global citizen.

42 For this reason we did not structure the student group sessions around the more formal language of “international capabilities” that we used with the adult groups.

43 As with the teacher workshops, the student sessions were highly generative. While a selection of relevant data is included in this report, the process used to generate the data is of itself of potential value for thinking about how to engage more young New Zealanders in shaping an ongoing programme of work in this area.
What is a global citizen?

Despite their exposure to ethnically and culturally diverse environments, both groups were uncertain about what was meant by a “global citizen” and asked for clarification. Encouraged to consider their own views about what it meant, both groups also quickly came up with the types of knowledge and qualities that someone would need to be able to interact across cultural and national boundaries.

They used terms such as: connectedness, being “internationally aware”, outwards focused, curious, and being interested in other people and their culture; understanding or at least knowing something about other cultures; and knowing that what is normal in one culture may not be normal in another. They also described the need to be adaptable and respectful.

The students described connectedness as the need to know what’s going on in the world, or keeping up with news.

Table 12  Snapshot: International connectedness and media

| Students at one school in particular asked critical questions about how the media reported on international events. These students felt social media could provide a different perspective than traditional news sources such as TV or newspaper reporting. The news might be about dramatic events such as wars, but at the same time they acknowledged that the source of this knowledge may not be contextually accurate, and there was a need to filter and critique news about dramatic events. They acknowledged that cultural views will inevitably vary but that complex issues could easily turn into a confrontation between two points of view in the media. They believe that use of social media gives them immediate access to news as well as the opportunity to respond. |
| "We get to know what’s happening around the world really easily and we all get to put our two cents in, we all get to say what we’re thinking or how we feel, whether it’s through Facebook or commenting on a news story on YouTube or something like that.” (Student) |

International awareness was seen as “knowing things” about other parts of the world and cultures. Not only current events, but also things such as laws (particularly of a potential travel destination, such as visa requirements, local laws) and knowing something about the practicalities of functioning in, and getting around another country, including driving rules, currency, local etiquette.

Adaptability and acceptance seemed to be associated with some students’ perceptions of themselves as open-minded, believing that open-mindedness allowed them to be more able to adapt to and accept new situations. Students talked about being encouraged or given the opportunity to make up their own minds about issues, and reflected on changing attitudes in society (e.g., attitudes to homosexuality) and consequently saw themselves as more open-minded than their parents’ generation. This was also associated with a willingness to accept others as they are, as they noted it was possible for someone to be exposed to other cultures but to remain “in their own bubble”.

In addition to understanding and acceptance, one group talked about being interested in and curious about people from other cultures. For this group “global mindedness” didn’t necessarily
mean engaging with the whole world, but might just be about showing an interest in someone different from them. The students illustrated this by describing how they all tend to “pounce” on new international students to the school (i.e., everyone wanted to meet and get to know that person). In discussion with students it was suggested that evaluating international students’ experiences of feeling welcomed and included in the daily life of a New Zealand secondary school could perhaps be a reliable indicator of a school’s international/intercultural character.

How does school support the development of international capabilities?

Both groups reported that students from all cultures felt welcome and included at their school. One group described themselves as a “culturally rich school”, citing a range of events and festivals such as Bollywood, Pasifika, Māori, and African dance evenings and Polyfest; also recognition of cultural or religious festivals such as Jewish holy days or Ramadan.

Languages were noted as part of the culturally rich environment as well as a way of developing international competence. Many languages were able to be heard around both schools, with most of the students in the discussion groups being able to speak more than one language, and interested in learning more.

One group noted that the staff at their school expressly built close mentoring relationships with students as they progressed through the senior school through an academic tutor mentoring system (ATM), which included daily mentoring times. They believed they had more access to their teachers than in many other schools, and that the staff reflected the cultural diversity of the student population.

Making your mark on the world

The importance of international competence in relation to business and overseas trade did not arise spontaneously out of the discussions. To prompt these conversations, we used the following question, “Some people say New Zealanders are not very good at doing business internationally. What do you think?”

Students acknowledged the importance of international trade for New Zealand, and had opinions and questions about specific issues in recent news (e.g., issues related to New Zealand milk products in China). Those with more international travel experience believed that New Zealand is often overlooked because of its small size and geographic isolation. They had some understanding of the importance of Asia with regard to trading relationships. They were more inclined to focus on international or global capability in terms of the development of relationships than trading opportunities, although when questioned they saw the two as connected.
If you develop the business relationships you will develop the bonds and relationships with other countries. (Student)

Students in one group offered the suggestion that international capabilities or global citizenship were about having the aspiration to “make your mark on the world”. For students, this could be anything from making a video that went viral (e.g., “Gangnam Style”) to the idea that you could have an impact on the life of at least one other person, whether they were in your own community or somewhere else in the world.

**Living and working overseas**

Almost all students reported planning or at least wanting to travel, though they seemed to have various levels of confidence. Some were very keen and excited to explore the world as soon as they could, with others more nervous at the prospect of finding themselves in unfamiliar surroundings. Most students discussed their future international travel in terms of “gaining experience”, and focused on the opportunities for personal growth, adventure, and finding their own pathways. Although few explicitly associated the desire to travel with specific work or business opportunities, one student wanted to seek out an international business internship and had her sights firmly set on a business career.

**How could students’ international capabilities be measured?**

When asked how they thought the kinds of skills and competencies that had been discussed might be assessed or measured, students suggested:

- interviewing students
- looking at what international or intercultural opportunities students had been exposed to—including both what had been offered by school and through family experiences
- keeping a record or portfolio of students’ activities and experiences that contribute to international competence
- students’ knowledge of languages
- a survey of students’ interests (in other people, cultures, global issues or events, and travel).

**Students’ questions**

We asked students if they had any questions for us or about the project. They responded with several thoughtful and open-ended questions:

- What do you think a global citizen is?
- Why are you interested in doing this work?
- Do you think that you are influenced by the media?
What did the student workshops contribute to this exploratory study?

Both groups of students offered thoughtful and reasonably consistent responses to the questions we asked. However, within both groups there were a few students who were quieter or did not contribute, and it is important to remember that within any group there will be some students who may have different views or experiences that may not be offered publicly in a group conversation. We also note that both we and the students identified their schools as being potentially different from many other New Zealand schools in terms of the degree to which internationalisation and multiculturalism were integrated into the fabric of school life. Some students who had attended other schools explicitly identified ways in which their current school was different in this respect.\textsuperscript{44}

The students’ input into this exploratory study gives some insight into what young people, as the potential subjects or beneficiaries of assessments of international capability, consider to be important dimensions of being internationally capable. It is worthwhile remembering that adults’ perspectives of what young people need, want, and should aspire to in their learning and lives beyond school are not necessarily the same things that young people value or consider important for their own lives, and do not necessarily reflect their day-to-day priorities, interests, and concerns. As the final chapter discusses, one criticism in the internationalisation/global citizenship literature is the notable absence of young peoples’ involvement in shaping these discourses.\textsuperscript{45}

One interesting theme to emerge from the young people’s workshops was the significance of the highly multicultural social interactions and friendship groupings they experienced in their schools. The consequences of these social bonds seemed considerable in terms of how internationally minded, or comfortable with diversity and difference, they believed themselves to be. Both the student and teacher workshops suggested that something interesting may be happening in parts of New Zealand where students are “growing up internationalised” in ways that their parents and teachers may not have experienced in their own youth and schooling. This suggests value in continuing to involve young people in shaping a New Zealand discourse on what it means to be internationally capable, as their lived experiences might offer insights on international or intercultural capability that differ from those of adult policymakers or teachers.

\textsuperscript{44} We note that as this report was being completed, a front page headline in \textit{The Dominion Post} “New study finds racism rife in the schoolyard” (Duff, 2013) reported results from a University of Auckland study on New Zealand school students’ ethnic attitudes and their own racial and cultural identities. The study suggests that the students in our discussion groups may be atypical of the New Zealand student population as a whole.

\textsuperscript{45} And in particular, the absence of representation of young people who come from traditionally marginalised cultural or geographical groups, including non-English-speaking nations, and youth from the Global South. See Parmenter (2011).
6. Mixed-expertise group

The mixed-expertise group drew together people in a position to discuss, from their own experiences, how they and the people they worked with developed and demonstrated international capabilities in adult lives. The mixed-expertise workshop was convened in Wellington, used a similar mediated conversations approach to the teacher workshop, and was similarly generative as a data-gathering approach. As with the other workshops, this section presents only a small selection of the knowledge generated by the group, providing a representative view of themes discussed.

We sent invitations to approximately 20 people, using our existing professional networks and recommendations from the Ministry. Among the 10 participants who were able to attend the half-day workshop:

- at least four worked in the tertiary sector
- at least two worked in business development projects or programmes with an explicit focus on building business relationships between New Zealand and Asia
- at least two young adults had developed their own social or commercial enterprises
- at least two had worked with refugees or in international development volunteer programmes.

Several of the participants had worked in several countries over the course of their careers. Some of the participants were New Zealand-born while others had been born overseas and settled in New Zealand either as children or adults.

Like the teachers, our mixed-expertise group was invited to bring a story or example from their own experience to share in small-group discussions. The whole group then shared themes from their stories and drew on the group’s collective thinking to address the core questions for the study. As the mixed-expertise workshop was the last to be convened, we also shared excerpts from the staff and student sessions and invited their response.

What does it mean to be internationally capable?

The mixed-expertise group offered a range of stories and experience to illustrate their interpretations of what it meant to be internationally capable. Participants talked about different

46 Their roles ranged from tertiary education policy development, co-ordination of New Zealand university students’ international programmes, and academic qualification and tertiary teaching experience in the fields of youth development and international development.
life experiences ranging from growing up in a bicultural family, to living and working in multiple countries, to specific instances in which they had learned some particular piece of knowledge or way of interacting with people across cultural or national boundaries.

Table 13  **Snapshot: “Having international capabilities should feel effortless and natural”**

One participant was a New Zealander who had done her secondary schooling in Singapore, which was very internationalised, and only returned to New Zealand for university. She felt that “being international and having international capabilities should feel effortless, it should feel natural”. However, when she came to New Zealand she described feeling like an outsider or an international student herself and was seen as “different” by her New Zealand peers, because of her internationalised schooling experience.

Table 14  **Snapshot: “Knowing the unspoken rules”**

One participant, whose job supports New Zealand business to grow and develop international relationships, talked about the importance of New Zealand businesspeople learning to know “the unspoken rules” for how things worked in other countries, such as China or Vietnam. From this perspective, an internationally capable New Zealander wanting to do business in these countries might know that they need to try to build a personal connection before they try to set up a formal meeting. These societies have cultural roots in Confucianism and a strong emphasis on family and place in society, and thus value establishing relationships before business is done. “[If you wanted to establish a business connection] you might need to look at who among your family and friends or the people you work with might have a connection. It’s a “trusted network”—who do I know and trust that might be able to establish that trust? You are more likely to get a commitment there from someone who will help you. The closer to family it is, the better.” A participant in another discussion group talked about learning the value of “strategic drinking” in China as part of how to build business relationships.

Table 15  **Snapshot: Having an “outsider” perspective your whole life**

One participant grew up in a predominantly white Christian city in the United States to an American mother and a Vietnamese father. Growing up in a bicultural home in a largely monocultural environment, she described a lifelong comfort in being an “outsider”, always feeling slightly alienated from the dominant culture but “being OK with that”. She felt these formative experiences had led her to feeling comfortable with a nomadic life, partially driven by economic necessity, as she and many of her peers discovered that in order to build careers and gain experiences, they needed to leave their home countries and experience life and work in other countries. She felt that change (of countries, of jobs) and “feeling comfortable through culturally challenging times” was a theme in her life, and the notion of being “settled” in one place or culture was actually a new and less familiar concept.

The mixed-expertise group’s stories demonstrated their own ability to reflect on, and make meaning from, their experiences across cultural and national contexts. This linked with the next theme, the notion that being internationally capable meant being able to “allow the world to teach you”.

**Allowing the world to teach you**

Participants discussed examples of people they had seen step into an international or intercultural situation and be unchanged by it, or worse, unable to cope or adapt. This contrasted with a more reflective ability, demonstrated by the participants, which they described as “allowing the world
to teach you”. This included being able to recognise when you might have got things wrong, or feeling comfortable to reframe your own expectations of yourself and the situations you might find yourself in.

### Table 16  Snapshot: “That moment when you realise you didn’t get it quite right”

One participant talked about her experiences working with refugees from different cultures and backgrounds and, as a result, feeling that she had developed a strong sense of cultural sensitivity, as well as learning how to communicate with people with many language backgrounds. However, in one episode of working with a refugee woman from Burma, all of her experience and skill did not prepare her for an unexpected moment in which the refugee became very distraught. For the participant, this was a reminder that “cultural sensitivity is not the same as understanding the experience/background of another person”. As well as their cultural backgrounds, each person has their own personal journey. For this reason, working cross-culturally with people can have consequences that neither party might expect, because every interaction is an interaction not just between cultures, but between individuals.

### Table 17  Snapshot: “You can’t let it destroy you”

One participant talked about working with other international workers in Thailand. Some of the non-Thai people “struggled with the way Thai people did things”. This underscored the need to be able to step back and realise why you might feel confused or frustrated in a cross-cultural situation. To be able to operate effectively, you have to be able to empathise “but not let [the cultural differences] consume or destroy you”. The observation was made that in order to recognise a cultural difference, one has to be able to recognise one’s own culture and that some of your own views and beliefs are cultural.

### Table 18  Snapshot: “You have to allow the world to teach you”

Participants discussed different situations based on their own or others’ experience which called into question whether it was enough to simply go out into the world and experience cross-cultural and international situations. One participant talked about a programme they knew of in which students went out into the world with a particular set of beliefs, and “came back with the same mask on”. By contrast, other participants talked about changes in their own outlooks when they had gone into another country or culture and been confronted by their own initial beliefs and expectations and felt challenged to change because of what they were experiencing.

### Are we aware of our own lens?

The snapshots above illustrated another theme discussed by the mixed-expertise group, which was the need for internationally capable people to be conscious and aware of their own cultural beliefs and habits. As one participant put it, “we tend to think of culture as something ‘different’ to us, we don’t realise that we have cultures as well”. This was thought to be particularly true for people who are part of the dominant culture who may experience their own ways of being as “the norm” and anything else as “other”.

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Table 19  **Snapshot: Identity—the “strong core”**

One group of three participants within the workshop developed an analogy with Pilates of having a “strong core”. This core, for an internationally capable person, was thought to be a strong reflective understanding of one’s own culture and identity. Some participants in the mixed-expertise workshop expressed concern that young New Zealanders had too few opportunities to learn about and make sense of New Zealand’s own culture and history as a bicultural nation. As one participant put it, young New Zealanders may be going out into the world with “very sketchy understandings of New Zealand culture and history”. They pondered on what the implications of this were as the young people went out into the world.

**Can schools support young people to be more internationally capable?**

Bringing the focus to the Ministry’s main question, the mixed-expertise group expressed a range of views about the extent to which young people could be expected to demonstrate international capabilities in their pre-adult lives, and what schools’ responsibilities were in supporting this kind of capability development. The snapshots below pick out key questions, suggestions and challenges for educational policymakers to consider.

Table 20  **Snapshot: Why focus on young people?**

Participants raised an interesting question about whether it was appropriate or even ethical for policy efforts to build international capabilities to be so strongly focused on young people, when participants’ stories illustrated quite effectively that developing international capabilities occurred, for many people, well into their adult life. One participant noted that he had not lived overseas until he was 36, and another described how her father’s previously bigoted attitudes to cultural difference had changed drastically when, at age 50, he went to live and work in China. The kinds of experiences and opportunities available to these adults may differ significantly from those available to students currently in schools (see next snapshot).

Table 21  **Snapshot: Are we expecting too much to think all young New Zealanders need to be internationally capable?**

One participant questioned whether educational policy was framing young people as “renaissance people”—expecting them to have a diverse range of skills and aptitudes, as well as “being able to do maths, science, etc.”. He speculated that one problem was that education tended to frame young people as an idealised “whole package” that many young people would not be able to be. He suggested a greater focus needed to go towards developing each person’s strengths and thinking about the collective value that people could build together, with some people having skills or aptitudes in one area, and others having different skills and aptitudes.

“If by nature and aptitude and inclination some young people are international, how do the schools embrace them and build on their strengths? That’s not to say don’t give opportunities to the other kids, but some by nature or by inclination, won’t be. And yet we kind of have this [idea] that everyone should have this whole package.”
Another participant questioned whether it was possible to predict what choices and pathways a person might take over their lives, and how those might shape their ongoing international capabilities. She felt that as a young person she would never have imagined she would go on a 6-month exchange to China, let alone love it, and eventually work in an organisation that supports relationships between Asia and New Zealand. She felt that people will be interested in different things at different ages, and that a lack of interest or capability at one stage of life might not be a reliable predictor of what that person could become due to the opportunities and situations they might encounter later in their lives.

“If someone’s not international by the age of 7 do you then focus on something else or do you keep trying to make them embrace these things around them? Do you wait ‘til they are 14? Do you wait ‘til they are at university?”

Is international capability an economic priority, a social priority, or both?

Of the three participant groups (teachers, students, and mixed expertise), this group was the most easily able to engage with some of the economic policy arguments for growing New Zealanders’ international capabilities. These participants were well aware of the arguments for developing New Zealand’s international business capability, indeed this was a key focus for some participants’ work.

One young entrepreneur commented on his own experience that international employees were often “hungrier” and prepared to work harder than his New Zealand employees. Another participant wondered whether New Zealanders had a strong-enough work ethic or even sufficient opportunities to compare their own attitudes toward work and study with the attitudes of people from other countries. A third speculated that New Zealanders might already be quite internationally capable in a social sense, but that this did not necessarily mean they were equally capable in having the skills for economic and commercial success:

I think as a society New Zealanders are very international—[we] travel a lot—but what are we doing when we travel? How do we get more [young New Zealand entrepreneurs] in the world, starting companies and taking New Zealand out to the world? There is a wide range of skills and aptitudes essential to ‘make it’ in that world. What I hear about New Zealand is that we are great innovators, no. 8 wire stuff, but when it comes to taking our products and ourselves to the world, that is where we fall down. Note that this is probably not international skills more broadly, but is about international skills for commercial and economic success. How do we think about growing this [latter set of skills] and when?

(Participant)

The mixed-expertise group challenged the conflation of the dispositional or social aspects of international capability with commercial and business skills, pointing out areas in which they overlapped and other areas where the assumed relationships between these ideas needed more critical analysis. At the system level, participants discussed the importance for New Zealand of
being able to succeed economically, but the place of social enterprise and innovation was also highlighted. Several participants questioned the consequences of taking an inherently capitalist view of what being an internationally capable young person meant.

What messages and opportunities are schools giving learners?

Workshop participants offered the view that some “myths” need to be busted if education is to genuinely address and support learning needs for the 21st century:

Life isn’t linear but education “story” tells you that it is. Young people are told, do these things, become a renaissance person, and there will be a job waiting for you. But what we really need are more people who can go out and create opportunities—inovation. How do you do this—new processes, new ways of doing things. This is not something that happens much in school because school looks quite siloed and linear. We think we should introduce more chaos and risk into school learning. (Participant)

A key message from a number of participants was that schools simply do not provide learners with the kind of complex, real-world learning opportunities they need to develop the kinds of complex, real-world capabilities they need. Participants were in favour of creating more open-ended learning situations in which learners might be develop skills such as facilitation to help them to find and solve problems, rather than only learning rote “problem-solving skills”:

How to bring people around the table—knowing who are the right set of people you need to get around that table. The need for facilitation and consultation skills. How to put together a group and value how you work together. Also not thinking that we have to come out of school as the person who can do everything. Instead, being able to recognise what am I really good at, where can I add the most value? (Participant)

The last comment underscored another important contradiction or “myth” that some participants could see between the educational “story” and the real world:

So much of education is based on the individual and what the individual gets out of it. But life outside school is often predicated on the value that you bring to other people’s lives. Young people in school don’t have enough opportunities to explore and experience this. (Participants)

Some of the workshop participants illustrated ways in which they thought education could be structured and supported differently, in ways that did enable learners to experience firsthand what it means to contribute value to a process, group, business, or system in ways that cannot be
reduced to an individual measure of what abilities, knowledge, or skills one person does or does not “have”. 47

**Should we be measuring young peoples’ international capabilities?**

Like all the workshop groups, the mixed-expertise group had more questions than answers when it came to considering questions of measurement. While recognising that many of their ideas placed the challenge on the system to review and reflect on its priorities and practices, at least one participant urged for a continued effort to start somewhere with measurement:

> I am a bit more [in favour of] measures—it goes back to planning. There are things you could invest in that more effectively build capabilities. I have seen different measures used. The best I have seen is the IDI 48 which can be used to show a ‘movement’ in measures. Coupled with other measures like qualitative measures and reflection … it is the reflective component of the [learning] experience which seems to matter the most. Measures can help you to determine where to put the resources. It isn’t easy but we should at least try. (Participant)

**What did the mixed-expertise workshop contribute to this exploratory study?**

These participants offered a range of insights developed over their own lives and careers which both connected with, and provided a critical interpretation of, high-level policy discourses around education and international capabilities. Of all the workshop groups, the participants in the mixed-expertise workshop were the most likely to question presumed relationships between schooling and what contributes to becoming an internationally or interculturally capable adult. Although the participants sometimes discussed their own education when describing their international or intercultural capabilities, they were just as likely to talk about a personal experience, their family background, a professional learning episode, or an experience of “getting things wrong” in the world.

One concern arising for these participants was whether a measure of students’ capabilities or international mindedness while they are still at school would genuinely indicate what those people might be, do, experience, and become over the duration of their lives, particularly when (as some pointed out) the kinds of learning experiences they felt could contribute to developing these

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47 The examples were drawn from initiatives the participants had been or were currently involved with, and involved learners ranging from primary school to tertiary level. The details of these programmes are beyond the scope of this report.

48 Intercultural Development Inventory.
capabilities may be less accessible to young people because of the ways school learning is commonly structured and organised.

Unfortunately, this small exploratory study was not able to provide an opportunity for participants across groups to interact and bring their perspectives to bear on the question of assessing students’ international capabilities. Given some of the interesting differences—as well as some thematic similarities—between the groups’ discussions (teachers, students, and mixed expertise), we speculate on the value that might arise in supporting future mediated conversations that bring these and other groups not represented in this small exploratory study together to further the conversation and continue to build the discourse about what being internationally capable means for New Zealand and young New Zealanders.
7. ACER

As part of the exploratory study we consulted with staff from ACER, with a focus on understanding their work in the development of measures of ability/capability in the areas of intercultural and interpersonal competence. This was exemplified in two specific assessment programmes which were a focus of our meeting.

1. National Assessment Program—Civics and Citizenship (NAP-CC)

As part of the Australian NAP (National Assessment Program), student performance in Years 6 and 10 are measured in 3-yearly cycles against the *National Goals for Schooling in the Twenty-first Century*[^49^]. This includes assessment in civics and citizenship at Years 6 and 10.

The NAP-CC (like the ICCS) presents a model for how a national sampling approach can be used for the purpose of making a judgement on where a population of students are at in relation to a construct (“civics and citizenship”) that is seen to comprise knowledge, cognitive capabilities, attitudes, and values. Like ICCS, its focus is on students at lower secondary (and upper primary) year levels. There are some relevant overlaps between “civics and citizenship” and certain aspects of “international capabilities”, but the two should not be conflated.

The NAP-CC is done with a national sample of students in the target year levels. It is currently a pencil-and-paper test (although an online version is being trialled). Test items include multiple-choice and open-response questions. The NAP-CC assessment programme contains “link” items across cycles (providing a basis for measurement of national-level change over time between assessment cycles). There are also “link” items across year levels (e.g., items common to Year 6 and Year 10, to indicate differences at different age/schooling levels). Assessment items are periodically released, meaning that released items can be used by teachers to support civics and citizenship education teaching and learning and assessment according to the NAP-CC assessment framework.

2. UMAT (Undergraduate Medicine and Health Sciences Admission Test)

UMAT is developed by ACER on behalf of the UMAT Consortium universities. The test is used specifically to assist with the selection of students into the medicine, dentistry, and health science

degree programme. Within the UMAT there is a section that tests the construct “understanding people”:

**Understanding People**: This construct assesses the ability to understand and think about people. Questions are based on a scenario, dialogue or other text representing specific interpersonal situations. Most passages will have several questions. The questions assess your ability to identify, understand, and, where necessary, infer the thoughts, feelings, behaviour and/or intentions of the people represented in the situations.\(^{50}\)

The UMAT test is designed for, and presupposes, a particular level of capability, particularly language capabilities, as the language loading of the written version of the test is quite high. There is interest in how this construct might be assessed in a range of other areas, including for vocational testing in many different fields and professions. The UMAT test (and the other examples where these tests of interpersonal/intercultural competence are wanting to be applied) represent models for development of tests that are useful and functional for “screening” purposes. In these tests it is important that the test can reliably differentiate and distinguish people’s abilities. If the test cannot do this it is not a reliable means for screening potential candidates for whatever it is they are seeking entry into. (Medical school is one example; other applications that are being discussed look at how such a test could be used to reliably predict whether students would be likely to succeed if living and studying in an international/intercultural context). These tests are designed to be taken by students in early adulthood—either high-achieving senior secondary students or students at tertiary level.

Prior to 2002, people were looking to try to test constructs around “empathy”, but found that the canny students realised the “right” answer was always something to do with being empathetic. The point of the UMAT test is to be able to determine students’ abilities (not get students to respond with the “right answer” that they assume the testers are looking for). The tests are constructed as multi-choice where there is only one correct answer. Making the test “harder” to ensure it can meet its screening function often pushes the test towards more difficult verbal reasoning. The test has been a pencil-and-paper test but ACER has been developing and trialling video scenarios, where the test takers watch a video scenario and then answer questions online. ACER sees the potential for thinking even further about modes that could be appropriate for these tests, taking them even further from the conventions of a pencil-and-paper test (including the possibilities of developing online simulations, for example), and recommended further consideration of these more innovative formats by the New Zealand Ministry of Education.

**What did the ACER visit contribute to this exploratory study?**

The areas that ACER is working in are relevant for this scoping study. Both the tests above are designed to measure ability/capabilities/knowledge of individuals (learners). However, they do not directly provide measures of students’ opportunities to learn, nor do they provide information

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about what sorts of learning environments and contexts schools can or should be *developing* in order to foster students’ capabilities on these measures. However, the periodic release of items from these tests means they *can* become potential resources for curriculum and teaching, and in that way they may contribute to shifts in the learning environments and opportunities that schools provide to support the development of those capabilities.

ACER has developed a working relationship with the University of Warwick, which is interested in working with ACER on the development of tests for “intercultural competence”. It is clear that the questions of interest in this project align with emerging questions of interest in education across many countries. We suggest that in order to keep abreast of relevant international developments, there is a need for any further work in this area to include a focus on establishing ongoing relationships and connections with other key researchers and organisations working in these areas. As our visit to ACER demonstrates (see further below), important emerging knowledge in these fields may be accessible through these networks before it is available in published literature.
8. Conclusion

This final chapter draws together all the findings from the exploratory study to address the overall feasibility of assessing students’ international capabilities. The study indicates the wisdom of adopting a view of New Zealand senior secondary students’ international capabilities as both a potentially measurable outcome for students and as a feature of the system (a process). If the long-term goal is to improve or transform schooling practices to better meet 21st century learning needs, we need to understand what opportunities students have to develop these capabilities, as well as what they actually learn from those experiences.

Revisiting the overall purpose(s) of assessing Years 12/13 students’ international capabilities (discussed in Chapter 2), and considering how any proposed assessment initiative might be used to support better practice in schools and better learning for students, we have identified at least four options. These options are arranged in order below from a strong focus on purpose 1 (systems accountability) through to a strong focus on purpose 3 (empowering lifelong learning). Each option is discussed in terms of key strengths, weaknesses, and opportunities, and relevant examples or models are noted. In putting these options forward we also note that principled blending of these options can be recommended.51

1. Using an externally devised assessment framework and a national sampling approach

This would represent the most conventional approach to addressing the questions at the centre of this study. There are well-established precedents for using large-scale assessments to report on students’ learning progress, but also to gauge schools’ success in helping students meet the intended outcomes of their learning, and to monitor the success of government policies or to provide international comparability (e.g., PISA, ICCS). These assessments may include a range of measures, including direct student measures and measures gathered from teachers, school leaders, or others about school practices, systems, and structures. It is most common to use standardised summative forms of assessment. Assessment issues tend to be technical in nature and validity is defined by technical, rational psychometric principles. These kinds of assessment programmes have historically relied on pencil-and-paper tests, but over time new forms of assessment tasks are being devised, for example to try to gather evidence in the context of authentic tasks.

51 See also Masters (2013).
Table 23  **Strength of approach 1 in relation to the three assessment purposes**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Purpose 1</th>
<th>Purpose 2</th>
<th>Purpose 3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strong</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
<td>Weak/Indirect</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Strengths:** There is already significant expertise in the design and development of assessment frameworks for these sorts of approaches. Assessment developers could use the Ministry’s background work, and the work of this exploratory study, as the platform for building the assessment framework. By definition, the development of an assessment framework means that further conceptual development of the construct will occur. Building a new framework would also be likely to involve some level of engagement with learners and teachers, for example, during pilot testing and validation of the assessment approach. Over time, assessment items that are no longer needed for the national assessment could be released into the public domain where they could be used as teaching or formative assessment resources in schools.52

**Weaknesses:** The people who best understand the assessment framework, and the construct it aims to measure, are likely to be the assessment developers themselves. It may be more difficult to effectively convey this knowledge to the school sector in ways that inform and improve learning and teaching practice (although if this is intended as an outcome of the process it can be effectively designed for). If the assessment is intended to provide valid and reliable data over time, some test items need to be kept secure over time, and/or continual revision of items will be needed to ensure learners and teachers don’t seek to provide “the right answers”. Depending on how the assessment is designed and implemented, the strength of feedback loops to practice may be weak. The students who provide the data used to develop the national picture may not necessarily benefit directly in terms of their own learning, and the assessment approach may not provide direct feedback to schools that can be used formatively to inform practice.

A further weakness for this approach is that unless it is directly connected with existing senior secondary assessment and qualification structures, it could be seen as an additional high-stakes assessment demand on already busy teachers and students. This may be one reason that measures of this kind often focus on students in junior secondary level (e.g., ICCS).

**Opportunities:** Some of the weaknesses of this approach are at least partially attributable to the reliance, historically, on pencil-and-paper/text-based/individualised response formats. However, this is changing as new technologies, and new beliefs about learning, drive the development of different kinds of assessment approaches to collect complex competencies data in rich contexts.53

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52 The Australian National Assessment Program in civics and citizenship education is an example of this.

2. Develop formative assessment tool(s) for schools, with the understanding that some national data could be collected as a secondary benefit

This approach would focus on the development of a formative assessment tool or tools that schools could choose to use as a way to gather and reflect on data about their own school/students. They could then use this data to inform practice or track changes over time. If there was a high uptake, and with appropriate ethical permissions, data from many schools could be used to develop more of a national picture that could support and inform ongoing policy work.54

The development and design of the assessment framework underpinning this/these tools could be similar to the first approach (national sampling), or indeed the first approach could later translate into the development of a self-assessment tool for schools. To provide some balance between schools’ formative use of the tool and the applicability of this data for creating a wider national data set, some components would likely need to be collected in a “standardised” way, while other components might be adaptable so that schools could put them into practice in ways that generate the particular data they need.

The data that is collected and reported back to schools need not be at the level of individual students. Such data could be at the level of a class or whole-school sample. In this way the assessment could contribute to teaching and learning practice. However the assessment itself would not necessarily allow for direct feedback of information that individual learners could use for their own formative assessment.

Table 24 Strength of approach 2 in relation to the three assessment purposes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Purpose 1</th>
<th>Purpose 2</th>
<th>Purpose 3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Moderate (depends on design and uptake)</td>
<td>Strong (as schools receive their own data, with analysis)</td>
<td>Weak/Indirect (depending on design and use)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The strengths, weaknesses, and opportunities of this approach overlap with those in the first approach, although in the second approach, the strength of the feedback loop to practice is considerably stronger. Either of the two approaches above would be scalable in accordance with the scope of the assessment framework. They could aim for a broad and comprehensive data set, comprising multiple measures (for example, assessments of student knowledge, attitudes/perceptions, or abilities to interpret or respond to a complex intercultural scenario55, as well as data about the system, data from teachers, school leaders, etc.), or they could scale down

54 A New Zealand example is the Wellbeing@School and Inclusive Practices self-review tools. See [http://www.wellbeingatschool.org.nz/](http://www.wellbeingatschool.org.nz/)

55 For examples, see the assessment tools for testing learners’ interpersonal abilities developed by ACER for the UMAT test, and their ongoing development work with the University of Warwick to extend this work in the area of intercultural competence.
to a more targeted focus (on, for example, students’ scores on “global-mindedness” scales or other specific/narrow measures).

3. **Use NCEA to assess and record data about students’ international capabilities**

This approach would utilise the opportunities that NCEA already provides for assessing students’ learning, and build on these in a principled way to explicitly strengthen the learners’, teachers’, stakeholders’, and policymakers’ knowledge of what international capabilities look like in the context of different knowledge/learning areas/disciplines.

Review and redevelopment of assessment standards within specific areas of *The New Zealand Curriculum* would provide an opportunity to explore a “deep” view of international capabilities and their expression by secondary learners in context. However, the atomised nature of achievement standards presents some challenges in terms of showing how learners’ capabilities are expressed across contexts. Individual standards could be reshaped in ways that assess ability to make rich and deep connections, and Hipkins et al. (2005) suggests the performance of standards can be analysed over time to evaluate their reliability in being able to assess dimensions of international capability. However, as years of research on the key competencies, NCEA, and the senior secondary curriculum indicates, the most important conversation to be had in the senior secondary years is a *curriculum* one (Bolstad & Gilbert, 2008, Hipkins, 2009; Vaughan & Spiller, 2012). Secondary teachers will resist change they don’t see as important or within scope of their “subject” (Hipkins, 2013).
Table 25  **Strength of approach 3 in relation to the three assessment purposes**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Purpose 1</th>
<th>Purpose 2</th>
<th>Purpose 3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Moderate</td>
<td>Moderate/Strong</td>
<td>Moderate/Strong (depends on the quality of the standards)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Strengths:* The feedback loop into practice of this approach is potentially very strong, and has a focus on enhancing and developing the existing assessment and qualification structures rather than adding an additional form of assessment or measure on top of these. The analysis and design/redevelopment of standards always has the potential to support and improve curriculum and teaching in the senior secondary school as these standards are so central to the business of learning and teaching at these year levels.

*Weaknesses:* This approach is more complex, long-term, and diffuse than seeking to develop and implement a specific stand-alone assessment framework for measuring senior students’ international capabilities.

*Opportunities:* A promising area for further development is to consider what we can learn from New Zealand research on NCEA and curriculum innovation—for example, how sets of standards are packaged together into the courses of learning that teachers and schools design and enact in order to address 21st century learning needs (Hipkins & Spiller, 2012), or how teachers in different subject areas interpret and integrate ideas like career management competencies into the fabric of teaching and learning to transform practice (Vaughan & Spiller, 2012).

Connecting policy work around international capabilities with research on how the senior secondary curriculum is evolving *in practice* could lead to significant long-term gains, and provide strong direction and support for the future of senior secondary curriculum, assessment, and pedagogy.

4. **Take an approach that is explicitly geared towards a lifelong learning/learner-empowerment paradigm**

The final approach invites the Ministry to step back and consider what directions it might take if the *primary driver* for its work in this area is to support and empower lifelong learners who are internationally capable. In this approach the singular most important reason for devising an assessment is to support learners to become more capable *and* more self-aware of their own capabilities, and to identify areas they can work on and next steps for their own learning and development.

While this would generally be considered to be an important purpose for educational assessment, in practice it is actually *very rare* to find examples which genuinely prioritise this aim ahead of other assessment purposes. This may be because lifelong learning assessment approaches are so
formatively focused that they are inseparable from curriculum and pedagogy—they are essentially part of curriculum and pedagogy.

Various tools and approaches have already been designed to support reflective lifelong learning approaches. For example the Effective Lifelong Learning Inventory (ELLI), developed by a UK team based at Bristol University, is a self-report instrument which provides feedback to learners (and their teachers) on seven dimensions of “learning power”. The seven dimensions are combined to produce a profile that can help learners to identify areas they may need to strengthen.56

Table 26  Strength of approach 4 in relation to the three assessment purposes

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Purpose 1</th>
<th>Purpose 2</th>
<th>Purpose 3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Can be strong or weak, depending on the intention to design for this purpose</td>
<td>Strong</td>
<td>Strong</td>
</tr>
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</table>

A lifelong learning approach is about empowering learners

An approach that is genuinely oriented towards lifelong learning also represents a significant shift in the balance of power so that students are actively involved in decision making about their learning and assessment to degrees that other assessment approaches simply do not allow for. With reference to international capabilities, one stark and provocative message from the international literature concerns the rarity of young peoples’ direct involvement and engagement in defining these constructs themselves or making decisions about their implementation into practice, their evaluation or assessment. As Parmenter’s research (2011) shows, the dominant modes of knowledge production which have served to shape the discourses of global citizenship such as they are, have been largely adult, academic, English speaking, from the “global North”. She issues the challenge that:

In terms of position or status, there is still very little research published on children and young people’s perspectives on global citizenship … and this is a dimension which offers great potential for further understanding of the topic. (p. 379)

Policymakers who wish to move forward with an agenda of supporting young New Zealanders’ international capabilities might well consider whether young people themselves have yet had sufficient opportunity to share their opinions, ideas about, and experiences of international capabilities and global citizenship, or to feed into discussions about what kinds of evidence they think demonstrate capabilities in these areas. Our very tentative exploration of these questions with two small groups of secondary learners suggests that there could be significant value in pursuing this kind of work further.

56 At least one school in our workshops already uses this tool and has developed a customised version that supports their learners and is connected with a wider school vision for learners and learning at that school.
Such an approach might require adults to step back from the idea of defining the construct and doing most of the conceptual work to devise means for its assessment, and instead co-opt young people, their teachers, school leaders, and, potentially, wider communities in a learning-driven process of examining and shaping their own meanings for international capabilities and practices, and collecting and sharing reflective evidence from that learning. The ideas, materials, stories, and examples created by learners and teachers could be shared laterally, from learners to learners or from schools to schools, as rich stories of practice that support, encourage, and inspire the proliferation of new practices.

Fundamentally, this approach represents a shift away from a question like “how internationally capable are New Zealand students?” and instead centres around the more open question of “what could New Zealand students’ international capabilities be?” The best example of this approach we can find is the _As a Global Citizen in Finland_ project, documented in detail and in highly accessible format by the Finnish National Board of Education (Jääskeläinen & Repo, 2011). This project involved building a network of 15 Finnish schools, which themselves had networked relationships with just over a hundred schools and contacts internationally, and enlisting the schools as collaborators in the development and definition of global citizenship. One visual metaphor shown in the project report is a “competence flower” which “took shape during the project”. At its centre, the flower has global citizens’ identity, and ethics. Surrounding the centre are petals representing intercultural competence, sustainable lifestyle, civic competence, global responsibility and development partnership, and economic competence. What is most interesting about this diagram, however, is that one petal is labelled simply with a question mark. The authors signal the learning challenges indicated by this question mark as follows:

> Amidst the rapid change of the world, even competence cannot be static and it is therefore necessary to leave room for continuous reflection, new questions, and definitions. (Jääskeläinen, 2011, p. 75)

**Overall recommendations**

Given the significant knowledge gaps we have in New Zealand about how secondary schools are developing student’s international and intercultural capability, an approach to student assessment as a possible next step makes sense—as this would at least provide the beginnings of a knowledge base about what is _actually_ happening for our students. At the same time, it is useful to recognise that other kinds of development work (in curriculum support or resourcing, for example) could be equally useful starting points, and that any efforts to develop an assessment approach are only a beginning. Our recommendation is that the Ministry should continue to grow and support policy work in this area, and, in the first instance, work on strengthening alignments between existing

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57 A good example of this approach, albeit involving tertiary learners, is the “Intercultural Sydney” assignment described by Krajiewski (2011).

58 Four of which were upper secondary schools, and one a teacher training school.
work in curriculum, teaching, and learning and the work that has been and will be undertaken in the International Division.

In outlining four feasible assessment approaches and their strengths and weaknesses, we hope we have provided a solid foundation for next-step decision making.

If New Zealand work in this area aims to be genuinely innovative and world leading, we recommend beginning with a clear focus on the areas that traditional approaches to assessment have been least likely to start from in the past. These are:

- enlisting learners as key partners in shaping meaning for the construct under study (and in doing so enlisting teachers, schools, and, potentially, wider communities in this process)
- utilising the affordances of new technologies/networked technologies to generate new assessment possibilities. This does not mean using technologies to do the same things in new ways, but rather, opens a space for considering what new ways we have for generating, sharing, documenting, experiencing, and utilising learning and knowledge, and what this could lead to in terms of our capabilities to know what learners are capable of.  

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59 One area for consideration is the development of games, simulations, or complex real-world intercultural experiences that have the development of intercultural and international capability as their core goal. What would these look like, how would they work, what would learners and teachers do with them, and what evidence of learning and growth might they generate? Our research experiences suggest that the generative thinking that could support this kind of work requires educational specialists to collaborate with creative professionals from other fields who can push educational thinking into new territory (while maintaining an educationally driven focus). See, for example, Bolstad and Buntting (2013).
References


Siddle, M.-L. (2013). *Global and intercultural skills—have our students got what it takes?* Unpublished report to the Ministry of Education.


Appendix A: Subcomponents of international competence

Table 27  **Subcomponents of international competence identified by Siddle (2009, p. 9)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Functional skills</th>
<th>Social competence</th>
<th>Knowledge/understanding</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>- effective communication skills</td>
<td>- an understanding of globalization</td>
<td>- knowledge of one’s own perspective, perceptions, culture</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- observation skills</td>
<td>- perseverance and motivation</td>
<td>- cross-cultural awareness, knowledge of other cultures and peoples</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- analysis eg of situations, systems - interpretation and making judgements</td>
<td>- a tolerance for ambiguity – curiosity, open-mindedness, a non-judgemental attitude and resistance to stereotyping</td>
<td>- knowledge of another language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- making decisions, solving problems</td>
<td>- the attitudes of openness and flexibility to change, and a set of universal values</td>
<td>- knowledge of the world and its systems: social, economic, political</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- linguistic competence eg foreign language proficiency and advanced English ability</td>
<td>- an ability to collaborate across cultures in multinational teams and to live outside one’s own culture</td>
<td>- knowledge of current world events and issues eg globalisation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- self-management skills, and</td>
<td>- an ability to exert influence and persuade others, and to resolve conflict</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- technological skills</td>
<td>- empathy (treating others as they would wish to be treated, and seeing situations from other cultural perspectives)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- managing one’s own emotional responses and choosing cultural appropriate behaviours to achieve outcomes</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Appendix B: The mini-maps: International capabilities and key competencies

The set of mini-maps in this appendix was designed as part of the exploratory study to stimulate conversations about school-based opportunities to develop students’ international capabilities. Most students will also draw on other life contexts to develop and demonstrate these capabilities. However, school is where students should be able to:

- access carefully scaffolded support to develop and strengthen the various dimensions of capability
- practice and receive feedback on their achievements when developing their capabilities (and undertake summative assessment when relevant).

International capabilities broadly encompass the knowledge, skills, attitudes, and values needed to operate effectively across cultures, both within New Zealand and overseas. At a general level, they map onto the key competencies. But they are more specific, because they relate directly to contexts in which students use their developing capabilities to reach out and interact across cultures and places. Capabilities also have important reflective dimensions—students need to be aware of how and when they put them to work. These are the shaded rows on the mini-map.

Engaging cross-culturally (Mini-map 1)

Most communities now are culturally diverse, and there is considerable movement of people between cultures and countries. Even if our young people do not leave New Zealand, capabilities for relating to people from other places and cultures could be needed for: employment (e.g., in service industries, firms that employ people from different cultures), participation in community groups and events (sports, church, cultural etc.), tertiary study (e.g., work completed in mixed groups), and even being a good neighbour.
### Aspects of capability needed to engage cross-culturally

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Key competency</th>
<th>Capability dimensions of the foregrounded key competencies</th>
<th>Link to subcomponents of international competence identified by Siddle (2009)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Managing self</td>
<td>Self-awareness of own culture and its likely points of difference to other cultures</td>
<td>Knowledge of one’s own perspective, perceptions, culture</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Open-minded— not judging others by their differences from self</td>
<td>Doing: self-management skills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Tolerant but able to hold own values as appropriate (i.e., not being compromised in the name of tolerance)</td>
<td>Being: a tolerance for ambiguity, open-mindedness, a non-judgemental attitude and resistance to stereotyping</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| Metacognitive aspects of managing self | Able to articulate own values  
Able to access a repertoire of possible responses and purposefully select the most appropriate | Being: managing one’s own emotional responses  
Being: holding (and living) a set of universal values                                                                                           |
| Relating to others      | Ability to ‘walk in other shoes’— to see things from their perspective                                                  | Knowledge of other cultures, cross-cultural awareness                                                                                           |
|                         | Willing to actively seek points of connection and develop communication based on these                                     | Doing: effective communication skills                                                                                                             |
|                         | Ability to work well with others—as part of a team—recognising the strengths and contribution of teammates/group members | Being: empathy (treating others as they would wish to be treated, and seeing situations from other cultural perspectives)                        |
| Metacognitive aspects of relating to others | Awareness of impact of own actions on others  
Able to access a repertoire of possible responses and purposefully select the most appropriate | Being: choosing culturally appropriate behaviours to achieve outcomes                                                                         |
| Thinking                | Critical thinking related to all the above aspects  
Metacognitive elements are the “glue” that holds managing self/relating to others together as a strong set of capabilities | Doing: analysis (i.e., of situations, systems), interpretation and making judgements                                                            |

Some dimensions of using language, symbols, and texts and participating and contributing are also implicated in this capability set (e.g., being sensitive to body language, knowing when to act and when to watch and follow others). However they are unlikely to be called into play unless the

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60 The Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development called this key competency Functioning in socially heterogeneous groups and identified empathy as a key dimension of capability.
foregrounded capabilities are present. For this reason, we might think of them as secondary capabilities in these contexts.

**Being an active and engaged “change agent” in global contexts (Mini-map 2)**

Wanting to make the world a better place is a typical characteristic of adolescence. Today’s young people have new types of opportunities to help shape our collective futures as opposed to waiting to cope with whatever may come. Capabilities involved in being an active and engaged “change agent” in a global context could be needed for: *taking part in global change movements* (either in person or by virtual means), *addressing interconnected social/environmental/political/economic issues* (perhaps by participating in local groups with global outreach), and *being a social and/or economic innovator* (identifying problems and designing solutions that have the potential to serve global needs, including the development of new knowledge, products, services, and systems for global markets).

**Aspects of capability needed to be an active and engaged change agent in global contexts**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Key competency</th>
<th>Capability dimensions of the foregrounded key competencies</th>
<th>Link to subcomponents of international competence identified by Siddle (2009)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Thinking</strong></td>
<td>Curiosity: taking an interest in the world and in other people’s lives</td>
<td><strong>Knowledge</strong>: of the world and its systems: social, economic, political</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Systems thinking: being able to tease out and make connections between multiple dimensions of an issue (both locally and globally). Relevant dimensions might be: political, social, economic, geographic, historical, socio-scientific, cultural etc.</td>
<td><strong>Knowledge</strong> of current world events and issues, i.e., globalisation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Problem solving, creative thinking: where might potential solutions or partial solutions reside?</td>
<td><strong>Doing</strong>: analysis (i.e., of situations, systems), interpretation and making judgements</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Metacognitive aspects of thinking</td>
<td>Awareness of possibility of opposing interests Deliberately remaining open-minded while all dimensions are considered</td>
<td><strong>Being</strong>: an understanding of globalisation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participating and contributing</td>
<td>If a follower: action competencies to carry out plans devised by others If a leader: awareness of possibilities for action. Being ready, willing, and able to do something specific to address the issue or challenge. Entrepreneurial skills</td>
<td><strong>Being</strong>: openness and flexibility to change <strong>Being</strong>: ability to collaborate across cultures in multinational teams</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Managing self</td>
<td>Self-belief in one’s ability to make a</td>
<td><strong>Doing</strong>: self-management skills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Key competency</td>
<td>Capability dimensions of the foregrounded key competencies</td>
<td>Link to subcomponents of international competence identified by Siddle (2009)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------------</td>
<td>-----------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>--------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>difference and that doing so will be worthwhile</td>
<td>Being: perseverance and motivation; curiosity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Acting with due carefulness and self-control</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Key competency</th>
<th>Capability dimensions of the foregrounded key competencies</th>
<th>Link to subcomponents of international competence identified by Siddle (2009)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Metacognitive aspects of managing self | Seeing oneself as a change agent—having hope for the future and being able to articulate this  
Awareness of ethical dimensions of actions and communications | **Being:** holding (and living) a set of universal values |
| *Using language, symbols, and texts* | Ability to use another language  
Ability to use various communication technologies appropriately\(^6\) (e.g., tone, style, ethically appropriate content and choice of forum) | **Knowing:** knowledge of another language  
**Knowing:** cross-cultural awareness, knowledge of other cultures and peoples  
**Doing:** effective communication skills  
**Doing:** linguistic competence  
**Doing:** technological skills |
| Metacognitive aspects of using language, symbols, and texts | Being considered and deliberate in choice of communication technology and in shaping language and text choices within that means of communication | **Being:** choosing culturally appropriate behaviours to achieve outcomes |
| *Relating to others* | Knowing how to connect with others—(how, when, and with whom)—in order to advance a project or plan, or to seek input, guidance, or critique  
Looking for points of connection—building from and elaborating ideas of others  
Checking for meaning made by group members—ability to paraphrase, reframe key points in accessible language, pull out key points in other's ideas etc. | **Knowledge:** cross-cultural awareness, knowledge of other cultures and peoples  
**Doing:** effective communication skills, observation skills  
**Being:** an ability to exert influence and persuade others, and to resolve conflict |
| Metacognitive aspects of relating to others | Awareness of potential for miscommunication across language and cultural borders  
Awareness of potential for others to have different “ways of knowing” from self | **Being:** choosing culturally appropriate behaviours to achieve outcomes |

\(^6\) The equivalent Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development key competency is called *Using tools interactively*
Making post-school learning and work choices in a global context (Mini-map 3)

Young people face an increasingly complex range of choices related to ongoing learning and work once they leave school. The concept of “career” has become a process rather than an outcome. A career might involve differing combinations of: finding and getting a job (during, between, or instead of studying), tertiary education (at a university or polytechnic, or a local provider), on-job training (at any stage of expertise), or travelling to learn through experience and work elsewhere. Whether they stay home or travel, young people need capabilities (including the career management competencies\(^{62}\)) to manage choices related to: occupational and cultural diversity, geographical mobility of work and workers, worldwide education provision, and global labour markets.

### Aspects of capability needed to make post-school learning and work choices in a global context

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Key competency</th>
<th>Capability dimensions of the foregrounded key competencies</th>
<th>Link to subcomponents of international competence identified by Siddle (2009)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Thinking</strong></td>
<td>Ability to imagine multiple and different possible futures for oneself</td>
<td>Doing: analysis (i.e., of situations, systems), interpretation and making judgements</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Being: an understanding of globalisation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Managing self</strong></td>
<td>Taking responsibility for own choices</td>
<td>Doing: self-management skills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Being proactive in furthering existing opportunities, developing new ones</td>
<td>Being: perseverance and motivation; curiosity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Adapting to labour market changes</td>
<td>Being: openness and flexibility to change</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Willingness to take learning risks and aim high</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Understanding and constructively positioning oneself in relation to a team which may be culturally and linguistically diverse</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Metacognitive aspects of managing self</strong></td>
<td>Being “realistic”: avoiding making excuses or becoming rigid and understanding the relationship between individual responsibility and broader education and labour market trends by knowing one’s own abilities and strengths and working proactively on addressing known personal challenges</td>
<td>Being: holding (and living) a set of universal values</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Relating to others</strong></td>
<td>Seeking out opportunities to work with and get to know diverse others (not just sticking with safe choices of “people like me”)</td>
<td>Knowledge: cross-cultural awareness, knowledge of other cultures and peoples</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Making the most of work and/or learning opportunities to learn from and with others</td>
<td>Doing: effective communication skills, observation skills</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\(^{62}\) New Zealand’s three career management competencies are: developing self-awareness, exploring opportunities, and deciding and acting.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Key competency</th>
<th>Capability dimensions of the foregrounded key competencies</th>
<th>Link to subcomponents of international competence identified by Siddle (2009)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Metacognitive aspects of relating to others</td>
<td>Awareness of impact of own actions on others, in learning and work environments. See also dimensions in Mini-map 1.</td>
<td>Being: ability to collaborate across cultures in multinational teams.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Using language, symbols, and texts</td>
<td>Being open to learning new discourses and extending those already begun during the school years (other languages; discipline-specific ways of thinking, speaking, and representing knowledge; other cultural ways of being and doing)</td>
<td>Being: choosing culturally appropriate behaviours to achieve outcomes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Metacognitive aspects of language, symbols, and texts</td>
<td>Developing an explicit awareness of these discourses as discourses (e.g., being able to contrast and compare different ways of knowing, or different disciplinary tools for meaning-making; being able to select the right intellectual tools for a specific task and justify that choice)</td>
<td>Being: choosing culturally appropriate behaviours to achieve outcomes.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
- What is our definition of a ‘global citizen’ i.e. what is the big picture or wider context for this assessment?
- Is the competence we wish to assess in students clearly defined? What exactly do we want to measure? Do we want to also measure students’ motivation to be competent or commitment to being competent?
- Can this be assessed? Should it be assessed? Why is this assessment needed or desired? How will the resulting data be used? To whom will it be provided?
- What indicators will we use to decide whether students are demonstrating the competence we wish to assess? Are these indicators realistic given the degree of ‘input’ students are getting? Do we know what this level of input is?
- What type of assessment methods or tools will elicit these indicators of competence? What type of evidence will convince those to whom it will be communicated?
- Do the assessment methods or tools account for the different cultural backgrounds/identities of students being assessed?
- Will the assessment methods or tools being considered measure all the aspects of the competence to be assessed robustly?
- Will the assessment process be integrated into the teaching and learning process, or will it sit separately?
- Will the assessment take place over a period of time, therefore allowing for the development of competence over time?
- How will the assessment process be communicated to students? How will their buy-in be gained, and in what ways could they be involved in driving the process?
Appendix D: Literature search parameters

NZCER’s library and information services undertook searches in online journal databases, with a focus on articles from the last 3 years. Search terms included those listed below.\textsuperscript{63} Based on titles and abstracts, the most relevant-looking articles and book chapters were requested and delivered for review.

Table 28 Key search terms

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Based on titles and abstracts, the most relevant-looking articles and book chapters were requested and delivered for review.</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Table 28 Key search terms</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• assessment</td>
<td>• AND</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• measure</td>
<td>• international competence/competencies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• scale</td>
<td>• global competencies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• evaluation</td>
<td>• global mindedness</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• international-mindedness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• international education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• internationalisation/internationalization</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• global citizenship education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• intercultural competence</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\textsuperscript{63} Some snowball searching was also undertaken based on author names or titles already deemed as relevant to the project, or suggested by the Ministry.