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Global Citizenship Development in Higher Education Institutions: A Systematic Review of the Literature

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Abstract

Institutions of higher education continue to emphasize the need to create and develop global citizen graduates who will face challenging global issues in the workforce. A systematic literature review of empirical studies on global citizenship in higher education was conducted to understand the various ways this term is being studied, measured, and operationalized. The process of inclusion and exclusion criteria identified 57 studies. A content analysis revealed global citizenship is being included into higher education through scales of measurement, studying abroad, faculty and student perceptions, coursework, and university programs. The results are discussed in relation to the current literature on global citizenship along with future avenues of research.

Keywords: global citizenship, postsecondary education, undergraduate students, systematic literature review

Introduction

Determining the role of universities and colleges in educating the citizens of tomorrow has dominated discourse for the past couple of decades. Questions about whom to educate, how to educate, and what subject matter to educate have led debates amongst university administrators, instructors, and researchers. One of the most critical concerns is how institutions should approach global topics such as climate change, the global political economy, and immigration policy. These are vexing issues that graduates will face in their careers and post-college lives. Students will have to make challenging decisions, such as whether to secure national borders and retreat to a state of isolation or to seek out global connections knowing the risk of losing national autonomy.

The notion of global citizenship consistently arises as one way to prepare students for the global workforce. Global citizenship has been incorporated into primary and secondary schools and institutions of higher education to help students think about their roles and those of others in local and global contexts. Goren and Yemini (2017) united part of the literature on global citizenship in their literature review of the empirical research carried out in primary and secondary schools. They excluded institutions of higher education from their review of global citizenship education, claiming the goals of global citizenship are broader than those in primary and secondary education. However, the frequency of global citizenship as a learning objective in higher education and the lack of a synthesis of the literature in this area propelled this literature review, which aims to extend Goren and Yemini's work by examining the research of global citizenship in the context of higher

education. This was accomplished by reviewing how institutions are developing global citizens and the learning outcomes determined for that task. Understanding these initiatives is important because undergraduate students are on the brink of entering the workforce where their ideas and actions will impact local and global communities. The focus here is on global citizenship, the most commonly deployed term in the related literature—yet one of the least studied. This literature review was guided by following research questions:

1. Among empirical studies of higher education institutions actively developing undergraduate global citizens, what patterns are evident in terms of activities, goals, definitions, and measures?
2. What are the learning outcomes associated with participation in global citizenship focused initiatives?

This review begins with the background and history of global citizenship and how it is defined and critiqued in the literature. Next is the application of global citizenship to the field of higher education. This is followed by the methods used to conduct a systematic literature review on global citizenship in the context of higher education. Details of the findings and a discussion of the literature review follow. Finally, conclusions, implications, limitations, and ideas for future research are provided.

Background and History of Global Citizenship

Global citizenship is a term Appiah (2007), Miller (2013), and Nussbaum (1997) argued dates back to the fourth century B. C. E., when Diogenes, a Greek Cynic philosopher, proclaimed “I am a citizen of the world.” The Stoics, a group of philosophers from ancient Greece and Rome during the third century B.C.E., developed Diogenes’ idea by placing the concept of a *world citizen* at the forefront of their educational program. The Stoics believed human beings’ first allegiance was to the moral community of all human beings and not to a government (Appiah, 2007; Miller, 2013; Nussbaum, 1997). Nussbaum (1997) asserted that global citizens view human beings as one community who values languages, sees itself from outsider perspectives, and treats its members with dignity and respect. She proclaimed that higher education should foster global citizenship attitudes of mutual respect, empathy, understanding, solidarity, tolerance, and friendship.

Attitudes of global citizens have been developed into specific dispositions, including pro-social values, valuing diversity, equitable treatment of one another, the ability to handle ambiguity and unfamiliarity, critical thinking and comparative skills, moral reasoning, intercultural communication skills, concern for the environment, social responsibility, global awareness, and active engagement (Chang, 2016; Cho & Chi, 2015; Eisenhardt & Sittason, 2009; Hatipoglu et al., 2014; Lilley et al., 2015b). Shiel and Mann (2006) believed a global citizen is one who understands the workings of the economic, political, social, cultural, technological, and environmental world and has a sense of their role in it. Global citizens respect and value diversity, challenge social injustice, participate on various community levels from local to global, take responsibility for their actions, and care for the fate of human beings across societies (Appiah, 2007; Shiel & Mann, 2006). Morais and Ogden (2011) summed up the attitudes and characteristics of global citizens by positing the concept based on three dimensions: (a) social responsibility, (b) global competence, and (c) global civic engagement.

Attempting to understand the literature on global citizenship education, Oxley and Morris (2013) argued that models of global citizenship in the literature fall into two main categories: *cosmopolitan* and *advocacy-based*. They then developed a typology to evaluate curriculum comprised of antecedents, transactions, and outcomes, which has helped scholars and educators better understand how global citizenship is framed within curriculum, policies, and other documents.

Critiques of Global Citizenship

Global citizenship has been heavily criticized for a number of reasons. Jooste and Heleta (2017) believed the concept to be a *Northern* idea that does not apply to the global South. Similarly, Bowden (2003) argued that global citizenship is both a Western and a political notion that offers false hope to stateless individuals such as refugees. The term *citizen* generally means rights and security provided by a sovereign state (Bowden, 2003). However, to claim oneself a *citizen of the world* will not afford help from any government because individuals have no rights at the world level (Miller, 2013). Thus, Parekh (2003) claimed the notion of global citizenship is not practical since a global citizen has no political home for there is no actual global government to claim membership.

Global citizenship is also a concept fraught with credentialism. Aktas et al. (2017) cautioned that institutions offering a degree in global citizenship could send the message that global citizenship is something to be earned rather than developed. This creates the illusion that global citizenship is an elitist activity (Kingston et al., 2014). The recent development of the concept and its traction gained in educational institutions also lends the possibility that it could become merely a buzzword in education (Jooste & Heleta, 2017; Levintova et al., 2011). Further, Lilley et al. (2015a) suggested that universities promoting the idea of global citizenship have “limited evidence in practice” (p. 957) of how to accomplish this goal.

Out of this debate comes an effervescent number of terms related to the concept of global citizen(ship) including *global mindedness*, *globally-minded*, *global learner*, and *globally oriented*. These terms pull away from the idea of citizenship and put forth the notions of knowledge, understanding, consideration, and empathy. For example, Bowden (2003) emphasized that to be a globally-minded citizen means abiding by the phrase, “think globally, act locally” (p. 359). While the nuances of these terms are important, this review uses the term *global citizenship* because it is most commonly cited in the related literature.

Global Citizenship in Higher Education

The scholarship on global learning in the context of higher education has risen dramatically since the start of the 21st century and is now a common goal among institutions of higher education (Shultz & Jorgenson, 2009). This could be in response to the events of September 11th and its global impact. Also noteworthy is the increase in scholarship and the performance assessment movement in the United States, which mandated curriculum standards and assessment of student learning. This helped facilitate the notion of global citizenship as a potential learning outcome in curriculum standards.

For students to develop global citizenship, Shiel and Mann (2006) believed students must first adopt a global perspective and see their lives in connection to people around the world. Then, through university curriculum and extra-curricular activities, students will learn about global issues, global processes, internationalization, and sustainable development. As a result, Shiel and Mann (2006) argued this would enable students to develop the values, attitudes, and skills of a global citizen. Many institutions have designed curriculum, activities, and programs to help students acquire global citizenship skills. Aktas et al. (2017) analyzed 24 institutions in five countries offering programs in global citizenship and found themes of international travel, language proficiency, service learning, and curriculum content. They found most programs aimed at preparing students for the global economy and that the wide range of programs offered had no formulaic curriculum.

In the United States, the Association of American Colleges and Universities (AAC&U; n.d.) serves as a national organization that aims to advance the quality and equity of undergraduate liberal education. The AAC&U (n.d.) recognizes that “we live in an interdependent but unequal world,” and higher education can help prepare students to become innovative problem solvers (para. 1). The AAC&U created an initiative to incorporate global learning into higher education by funding ten projects to be implemented at the undergraduate level. Shultz and Jorgenson (2009) reviewed the projects and discovered common goals of intercultural skills and global competency, but their central procedures differed. The activities carried out in the projects varied from single to multiple components, as the AAC&U did not enforce a set of standardized procedures for them.

It is important to note that the interconnected world has become evident by the rapid spread of the COVID-19 virus. The pandemic has caused universities to transition face-to-face courses to online courses, send students home when possible, and cancel study abroad opportunities. These recent changes have impacted students, faculty, and administrators in higher education in many ways. Though higher education institutions may continue to aim to develop global citizens, their ability to do so may be severely affected by the pandemic.

Methods

Search Strategy

A systematic review of the literature was completed in June 2018 to better understand how global citizenship is being studied, measured, and operationalized in the context of higher education institutions. According to Xiao and Watson (2019), if researchers are able to understand a group of related literature, then they are able to “test a specific hypothesis and/or develop new theories” (p. 93). Therefore, a systematic literature review was conducted because of its potential to aid scholars, faculty, and administrators in designing future studies, curriculum, and global initiatives in higher education.

Systematic searches for this review were completed in all of the databases on EBSCOhost and ProQuest. Terms were searched for in the abstract to locate empirical studies with a main focus of global citizenship in higher education. Asterisks were used in the terms as a truncation command, which searched for a particular root word and retrieved results with any ending. The following terms were searched on both databases: (*global citizen** OR *global mindedness* OR *global* minded* OR *global learn** OR *globally concerned* OR *world citizen**) AND (*qualitative* OR *quantitative*

OR *quasi-experiment** OR *experiment** OR *research* OR *study* OR *randomize** OR *mixed method** OR *empirical*) AND (*higher education* OR *college* OR *university* OR *post secondary* OR *postsecondary* OR *undergraduate*). A second search was conducted in May 2020 using the previously mentioned terms along with the term *pandemic* to determine whether or not there is a relationship between the concept of global citizenship and its use on the world stage due to recent events. These terms, originating from the literature and recent events, provided a broad enough spectrum of global citizenship scholarship in higher education to continue the systematic review.

Inclusion and Exclusion Criteria

Inclusion and exclusion criteria were then developed to help determine study eligibility. For studies to be included, they had to be of empirical research and conducted with either undergraduate students or faculty of undergraduate students at public or private higher education institutions or community colleges. The search was limited to only peer-reviewed articles published between 2000 and 2018 to reflect the surge in scholarship on this concept at the beginning of the 21st century. Variations of the concept of global citizenship are prominent in the literature and often used interchangeably (McGaha & Linder, 2014), so the terms *global mindedness*, *global learning*, and *world citizen* were included in the search terms.

During the search, it became evident that several articles listed global citizenship or another similar term in the abstract or as a keyword but then failed to fully address the topic in the manuscript (e.g., Bergami, 2011). Thus, exclusion criteria were also developed. Studies were excluded if they were a research review; program evaluation; conceptual; based in preschool, primary, secondary, graduate, or adult education; or not primarily focused on global citizenship or a related term. Studies were also excluded if they were in a language other than English due to the author's inability to read them.

Screening Procedure

The initial search in *EBSCOhost* identified 422 studies and *ProQuest* identified 182. The second search, which included the term *pandemic*, yielded no results. An additional five studies were also identified through handsearching the references of identified articles. All 609 studies were downloaded into an Excel spreadsheet, and 370 studies remained once duplicates were removed. The initial review consisted of scanning the titles and abstracts to determine whether or not they met the inclusion criteria. This first round of review eliminated 268 studies leaving 102 studies for further consideration. The full-texts of the remaining studies were read and assessed for eligibility requirements. From these studies, 57 met inclusion criteria.

Findings

A codebook was created to gather the following information about each study: citation, purpose, geographical location, participant details, definition of global citizenship or related term, methodology, data collection, findings, cited limitations, and contributions to the literature. After reading and then rereading the information gathered on the included studies, patterns began to emerge in response to the research questions. The first research question asked about the patterns of activities, goals, definitions, and measures used to develop global citizenship among undergraduate students that scholars have studied at institutes of higher education. The most

prominent pattern in the codebook was the kind of activity, or initiative, that researchers studied at institutes of higher education to better understand how the goal of developing global citizenships is fulfilled. Therefore, the findings of this literature review are organized around the initiatives and types of studies that were conducted. The second research question inquired about the learning outcomes associated with these initiatives. Those naturally followed the identified types of studies because their purpose was to understand how they impacted students' development of global citizenship. Using content analysis (White & Marsh, 2006) and the research questions as a guide, five themes emerged (see Table 1) as to how scholars are researching the development of global citizens at institutions of higher education and the outcomes of these studies: (a) measurements of global citizenship, (b) studying abroad initiatives, (c) investigations of faculty or student perceptions, (d) coursework, and (e) university programs.

Table 1. Summary of Study Characteristics

Content of study	Number of studies	Country/ region	Research methods	Outcomes
Measurements of global citizenship	3	USA (1) Turkey (1) Poland (1)	All 3 studies used quantitative research methods and sought to assess GC and find differences between students	No differences in gender, race, ethnicity, grade point average, daily Internet use, or college entrance exam scores; differences in total family income, international experiences, second language proficiency, friends from different cultural backgrounds, national identity, and trust
Studying abroad	24	USA (15) UK (2) Australia (1) Hong Kong (1) South Korea (1) Poland (1) Taiwan (1) The Netherlands (1) Turkey (1) Vietnam (1)	11 studies used qualitative methods: pre-departure interviews, pre- and post-surveys and interviews; pre-, mid-, and post-interviews; post-surveys and interviews; document analysis of diaries, journals, and blogs; observations; 10 studies used quantitative methods: pre- and post-or post-measurements of GC; 3 studies used mixed methods	Development of GC; increased academic knowledge, cultural knowledge, global awareness, self-efficacy, language skills, personal growth, and cultural sensitivity; awareness of national identity; strong impact of student and community relationships; reduction of negative stereotypes; students need more than studying abroad experiences to become global citizens
Faculty and student perceptions	14	USA (6) Australia (4) EU (3) UK (3) Spain (1) Hong Kong (1) Thailand (1)	8 studies used qualitative methods: interviews, focus groups, observations, and document analysis; 4 studies used quantitative methods: one-time surveys to capture attitudes/perceptions and surveys to compare groups of students; 2 studies used mixed methods combining a survey and focus groups	GC can be developed in cosmopolitan community spaces; students are aware of the impact of globalization; students have different perceptions of citizenship; internationalizing the curriculum is important
Coursework	10	USA (7) Canada (1) The Netherlands (1) UK (1)	5 studies employed qualitative methods: interviews, focus groups, journal entries, document analysis, action research, arts-based research, observations, and field notes; 3 studies used a mixed method research design; 2 studies used quantitative methods: a pre/posttest and a cross sectional survey	Coursework can expand and deepen students' understanding of global issues; develop international-mindedness, gain appreciation for world music; increase in students' ethical sensitivity and critical consciousness; shifts in global competency and related dispositions
University programs	6	USA (4) Hong Kong (1) Spain (1) Thailand (1)	4 studies employed a mixed methods research design, 1 of which was a longitudinal study; 1 collected data through pre/post quantitative surveys; 1 collected qualitative data through journal entries	Freshmen have little knowledge of human rights and are not activist oriented, but they are capable of learning about social and human rights; students can develop a GC orientation over time in programs with multiple components; most significant impact on global citizenship identity came from interactions with other cultures and places; programs need to better communicate with students about related opportunities

Note. Some studies examined participants from multiple countries. In these cases, all of the countries were accounted for in the country/region category. EU = European Union; GC = global citizenship; UK = United Kingdom; USA = United States of America.

Measurements of Global Citizenship

Since the 1950s, scales have been developed to measure global citizenship and related concepts (Hett, 1993). The more commonly used instruments are Morais and Ogden's (2011) Global Citizenship Scale designed to measure global citizenship among undergraduate students, Hett's (1993) Global-Mindedness Scale developed to measure global-mindedness among undergraduate students, and Hammer and colleagues' (2003) Intercultural Development Inventory, which takes a developmental approach to measuring intercultural sensitivity.

Three of the 57 (5%) identified studies aimed to administer a survey solely for the purpose of measuring students' levels of global citizenship and looking for differences based on demographics and student characteristics between groups. The measures used in these studies were not in conjunction with a university program, studying abroad, or another initiative. Two studies employed the Global Citizenship Scale (Anthony et al., 2014; Kayisoglu, 2016) and one used the Global-Mindedness Scale (McGaha & Linder, 2014).

Anthony et al. (2014) measured freshmen students' global citizenship development and did not find any differences between them based on grade point average or gender. However, there were significant differences between students based on their majors. Students who were Undecided Majors scored significantly different on the Global Citizenship Scale than students who were Communications, Arts, Humanities or Fine Arts majors. Kayisoglu (2016) surveyed pre-service physical education teachers and found no significant differences in students' global citizenship level by gender, daily Internet use, and college entrance exam scores. However, there were differences based on second language proficiency and total family income. Finally, McGaha and Linder (2014) examined pre-service teachers and discovered that students with two or more friends from different cultural backgrounds, experiences outside of the United States, and those planning to study abroad while in college scored higher levels of global citizenship than students who did not exhibit these characteristics.

Studying Abroad

Studying abroad was the focus of 24 of the 57 (42%) studies. These studies either focused on the impact of a study abroad program or compared students who had an international educational experience to those without one. The findings from these studies indicated a range of outcomes, but the majority of them argued that students overall benefited from studying abroad. Seven studies indicated that studying abroad helped students develop global citizenship, global-mindedness, or intercultural competencies (Clarke et al., 2009; Hadis, 2005; Karatekin & Taban, 2018; Mason & Thier, 2018; Macdonald & MacLeod, 2018; Wright & Clarke, 2010; Wynveen et al., 2012). Chang (2016) noticed that participants who studied abroad tended to identify themselves as global citizens. However, Cho and Chi (2015) discovered U.S.-educated Koreans showed higher levels of trust and national identity than the Korean students in Seoul, yet both groups were aware of social issues.

Other studies revealed more detailed findings such as studying abroad increased academic knowledge, cultural knowledge, and global awareness (Blake-Campbell, 2014); reduced negative stereotypes and increased self-efficacy (Eisenhardt & Sittason, 2009); improved language skills, personal growth, and cultural sensitivity (Chi, 2013); improved intercultural communication and

global knowledge (Hatipoglu et al., 2014); and developed students' awareness of their own national identity and counteracted American stereotypes (Dolby, 2007). Kehl and Morris (2007) found that students who studied abroad for a semester had higher levels of global citizenship than students who studied abroad for shorter lengths of time, and Killick (2012) noted that students who experienced living in a community tended to feel more connected to the people of that community.

Though, some of these studies provided alternative findings suggesting that developing global citizenship is more complicated than a single studying abroad experience. Two studies noted that studying abroad alone was not a strong indicator of global citizenship development, but rather the location of the experience combined with academic focus was more significant (Tarrant et al., 2011; Tarrant et al., 2014). Howard et al. (2017) noticed that students were able to develop aspects of global citizenship abroad and through online components at home. Two studies showed that studying abroad can increase knowledge and awareness but does not always create global citizens (Chi, 2013; Rapoport, 2017). Similarly, Mathews (2017) indicated that a single exposure to another country is not enough to shift the mindsets of students. This coincides with Young et al.'s (2017) discovery that participants needed more guidance during their abroad experience to develop global citizenship. At times, studying abroad is more in line with global consumerism than global citizenship as students felt differences in cultures and lifestyles but did not always seek to understand or embrace them (Hermann et al., 2016). On the other hand, participants who expressed more interest in global issues and higher levels of second language skills during a study abroad program were more likely to develop a global citizenship mindset than students who did not, indicating that personal dispositions have a strong role to play in the development of global citizenship (Jackson, 2015).

Faculty and Student Perceptions

Of the 57 studies, 14 (24.5%) sought to understand how students experienced and perceived global citizenship and how faculty members prepare students to become global citizens and their perceptions of that initiative. Altikulaç (2016) found that pre-service social studies teachers in Turkey were more likely to consider themselves patriots than global citizens. Streitwieser and Light (2010) noticed that students in the United States talked about global citizenship in specific manners, including global existence, awareness, openness, participation, and commitment. While students in Hong Kong were aware of globalization, yet apathetic to international affairs led researchers to conclude that global citizenship is not a goal for most undergraduates (Chui & Leung, 2014). Lilley et al. (2015b) determined that students needed to leave their comfort zone, think critically, and engage with people beyond their immediate network to develop global citizenship.

Other studies investigated the alignment of university goals and student and faculty perceptions. Thanosawan and Laws (2013) discovered that a Thai university's goals, curriculum, and values did not align with students' and administrators' perceptions. Their results revealed that while the International College within the university promoted global citizenship development, administrators felt it was not expected of their graduates and students believing four years is too short of a time to develop global citizenship (Thanosawan & Laws, 2013). Robertson (2015) noted that internationalizing the curriculum is important, yet Trede et al. (2013) concluded that even though international programs seemed well planned, there is a need for purposeful pedagogy to accomplish their goals. Hu and colleagues (2014) found that faculty members tended to think that

students lacked global knowledge and awareness, and Shiel's (2007) study concluded that, in fact, students did not always know the terminology of global issues. This lack of translation from objectives to learning is supported by Schartner and Cho's (2017) study, which indicated that more effort is needed to expand internationalization among faculty members and students.

Alternatively, Shiel (2009) compared the results of their self-created survey to one previously given and found that current students seemed to have a better understanding of global perspectives and sustainable development and concluded that the university had made strides in developing global citizens. Lilley et al. (2017) called upon scholars to move past the terminology and definitions surrounding global citizenship and instead consider it as a fluid concept of learning to think differently. This idea of fluidity is supported by Estellés and Romero's (2016) finding that students have different perceptions of what it means to be a citizen and not all include global aspects into their understanding of citizenship.

Coursework

Of the 57 studies, 10 (almost 18%) investigated how global citizenship is incorporated into coursework. These studies looked at how specific courses, assignments, and pedagogy have influenced student development of global citizenship. All of these studies found that deliberate instructional approaches have positive impacts on student development of global citizenship. An undergraduate honors course had positive impacts on student knowledge, insight, ethical sensitivity and understanding of their role as a global citizen (Schutte et al., 2017). A first-year seminar facilitated an increase in students' abilities to make connections between the coursework and their knowledge, skills, and attitudes of global citizenship (NguyenVoges & Lyons, 2017). Even a one-unit seminar course contributed to the active learning, meaningful engagement, and development of global citizenship skills in the students (Anderson et al., 2003), and a global education elective course helped students shift their global thinking, knowledge, and dispositions (Kopish, 2017).

A few studies investigated a certain component of a course. Fluck et al. (2007) studied two international business courses taught by the same instructor, but one contained an online multicultural component. They noticed that student global-mindedness scores increased by 5.55% when they participated in the online multicultural component. Another study examined student participation in a role-playing simulation where students were assigned to be representatives of a country and worked together to adopt a resolution on sustainability (Levintova et al., 2011). As a result of the simulation, student knowledge of global politics and their perceptions of themselves as global citizens were positively influenced (Levintova et al., 2011). Kang et al. (2017) found that image-based, multimodal and practice-based pedagogies aided student understanding of global issues in ways that traditional lecture-based courses could not.

Other studies focused on the inclusion of a specific pedagogy or teaching practice. Fanghanel and Cousin (2012) examined the influence of a *worldly pedagogy* on Israeli and Palestinian students studying in the United Kingdom and found that it created a space for students to understand "global questions in the context of a common world shared by plural human beings" (p. 49). VanAlstine and Holmes (2016) discovered positive effects of an internationalized approach to instruction and the incorporation of world music on the global-mindedness of pre-service elementary teachers enrolled in a music methods course. Hanson and McNeil (2012) found common pedagogical

practices among faculty members such as a being grounded in social justice, challenging dominant or Western systems of knowledge, a commitment to connecting students to local and global communities, and the inclusion of different political and cultural representations aimed at encouraging students to take different perspectives when building their global competency.

University Programs

Six of the 57 studies (10.5%) sought to understand how university programs comprising of multiple components foster global citizenship among students. Allred and Somchanhmvong (2015) examined a program consisting of coursework and two study abroad experiences. They found students' language positively shifted when talking about global citizenship, and recommended that educators be intentional about learning objectives and provide students sufficient time for reflection. Ho and Lee (2012) looked at an interdisciplinary program that combined assigned readings, service learning, journal reflections, activities, and time to share their experiences with classmates. They concluded that students were able to develop humanistic concerns and increase their knowledge of themselves, their society, and the world. Hendershot and Sperandio (2009) studied a university program that included coursework, two study abroad experiences, experiential learning activities, and a capstone project. They noticed students' experiences with individuals from cultures different than their own and participation in organized travel contributed the most to their global citizenship development.

A study in Spain sought to explore three learning spaces and found that all of the components contributed to the development of global citizenship among student (Boni & Calabuig, 2017). More specifically, the elective courses increased critical learning, the international experiences increased understanding and empathy of others, and the student-led community component led to stronger agency among students (Boni & Calabuig, 2017). Another study examined the impact of a learning community on undergraduate freshmen's development of global citizenship (Kingston et al., 2014). A learning community is a group of students who take two or more classes together generally linked by a common topic (Kuh, 2008). Kingston et al. (2014) discovered that university freshmen enter college with little knowledge of human rights and generally do not participate in forms of activism. However, they also found that learning communities helped foster students' abilities to take different perspectives and empathize with others which led them to adopt a global citizenship orientation. Finally, Malecha and Dahlman (2017) investigated the second language requirement of an undergraduate university-wide honors program that included studying abroad, second language coursework, service learning, self-assessment, and reflection. They found that the majority of students agreed with the requirement and also understood the importance and role of global citizenship within the program.

Discussion

The first research question aimed to investigate how scholars are studying the activities, goals, definitions, and measures that contribute to the development of global citizenship among undergraduates in institutes of higher education. The findings of this literature review revealed that global citizenship is indeed being investigated at institutions of higher education, learning outcomes are generally positive, and that global citizenship is a fluid term holding different meanings among students, faculty members, and institutions. Scholars employed qualitative (26 studies), quantitative (19 studies), and mixed methods (12 studies) research to better understand

global citizenship in higher education. Global citizenship is clearly being studied through multitude methods and a comprehensive picture of the literature emerges.

Over a quarter of the studies investigated faculty and student perceptions of global citizenship. This could be attributed to the inconsistency of the term in the literature. From the identified studies, most scholars defined the term based on methodology and measures (e.g., Hett's [1993] Global-Mindedness Scale) and presented multiple sides and history of the concept. Though it was difficult to pinpoint a common definition due to the variety of terms (e.g., *global citizenship*, *global mindedness*, *global learner*), most studies described similar dispositions, responsibilities, knowledge, skills, and global engagement to define what it means to be a global citizen.

The results also indicated that the majority of studies conducted on global citizenship are taking place in the context of studying abroad. According to Chi (2013), studying abroad gained momentum in the late 1990s and programs are now prevalent on college campuses. Young et al. (2017) found commonality in these initiatives by stating, "Clearly, being a global citizen has become the overarching goal and outcome of educational travel" (p. 226). This could explain the numerous studies in this area. However, Streitwieser and Light (2010) challenged study abroad programs to reconsider the term global citizenship, what it means, and how it being used. They found that not everyone who studied abroad became a global citizen, suggesting that programs need to understand that every student has a different idea of the term and of their own expectations for the study abroad experience. This argument is cause for concern for the many institutions of higher education who primarily rely on study abroad programs as a means of achieving the goal of developing global citizens.

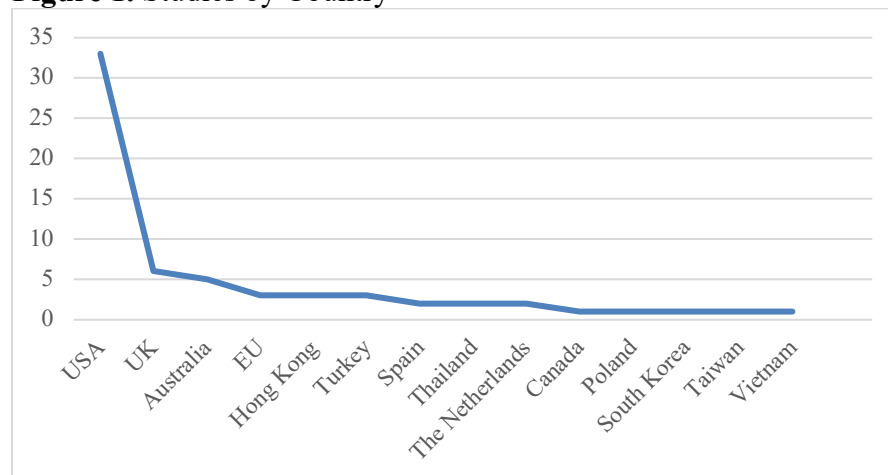
Investigating the development of global citizenship through scales of measurement and university programs had the fewest number of studies. One reason could be that the quantitative measures conducted in these studies were also used in other themes or that global citizenship development is more complicated than a baseline measure. For example, university programs aimed at developing global citizens encompassed a multitude of components including studying abroad, coursework, service learning, and language requirements. While this may be more than some scholars and institutions are willing to take on, the question becomes *why have more scholars not investigated the development of global citizenship in this context*, since Aktas et al. (2017) identified 24 institutions with global citizenship programs or degrees. Also noteworthy, only one study investigated a learning community, even though they are a common feature on college campuses (Inkelas & Weisman, 2003). As such, learning communities across university campuses are also likely to have the goal to develop global citizens, and therefore more research in this context is needed.

The second research question asked about the learning outcomes associated with global citizenship initiatives. The findings from each theme revealed that scholars are mostly discussing positive impacts on the initiatives in higher education. Students are able to become global citizens and become aware of global issues through studying abroad, courses, programs, and other diverse experiences. The outcomes of the studies included also indicated that students identify themselves on what could be considered a continuum of global citizenship development. Similar to Hammer et al.'s (2003) Intercultural Development Inventory, which lies on a continuum, higher education students are able to become aware of global issues, become more culturally sensitive, increase their academic and cultural knowledge, become proficient in multiple languages, develop certain

dispositions, and become more active in global affairs, development, and action. Changes in these individual aspects would shift students along the global citizenship continuum.

Another pattern that emerged from the data was the uneven distribution of studies by country (see Figure 1). Every country where a study took place was counted. This resulted in 14 countries and a total count of 64. The United States overwhelmingly conducted the most studies with a total of 33. The United Kingdom and Australia were second and third with six and five studies, respectively. The remaining 11 countries and regions had three or fewer studies conducted. Interestingly, the top three countries, accounting for almost 69% of the studies, conducted studies in predominately English speaking, developed countries. Chang (2016) provides rationale for this by stating that the United States hosts the largest number of international students each year. Yet, this unequal distribution strongly reflects Jooste and Heleta's (2017) argument that global citizenship is a Northern concept that does not have a place in the Global South.

Figure 1. Studies by Country



Note. For studies that examined participants from multiple countries, all of the countries were counted.

Conclusions

Global citizenship has become a common outcome among institutions of higher education. This literature review set out to understand the empirical research on global citizenship in higher education. The challenge was investigating how a widely used term plays out in practice in the large arena of higher education. The results illustrated that empirical research is indeed being conducted to better understand how institutions aim to develop students' global citizenship. Five themes were identified and the outcomes of higher education initiatives were discussed. While the majority of the outcomes revealed positive benefits to global citizenship development among students, the lack of studies from the Global South and in languages other than English, and the impact of the COVID-19 pandemic indicate the need for more research and work in the future.

Theoretical Implications

This literature review unites some of the scholarship of global citizenship by identifying ways the concept is being studied in higher education and the outcomes associated with higher education initiatives aimed at global citizenship development. Though five themes emerged, global

citizenship still runs the risk of being a catchword without meaning with variant learning outcomes and definitions (Jooste & Heleta, 2017; Levintova et al., 2011).

Additionally, this literature review highlighted those studies in higher education on global citizenship are not as prevalent as they are in K-12 schools. Goren and Yemini (2017) identified 90 empirical articles in K-12 schools. One reason for this could be that K-12 school districts often follow and adapt a global citizenship curriculum, whereas institutions of higher education generally develop and implement their own programs and courses. Goren and Yemini (2017) used Oxley and Morris' (2013) typology to classify their identified studies. While this framework was useful in their context, the studies in higher education did not fit into this as well because of the greater flexibility of curriculum standards in higher education than in K-12 public schools.

Practical Implications

It is unfortunate that studying abroad was identified as the most common initiative because of the few numbers of students who are able to participate in this opportunity, its perception as an elitist activity, and the restrictions placed on travel as a result of the COVID-19 virus. Only 1.9% of undergraduates from the United States study abroad each year and 10.9% of all U.S. undergraduates study abroad at some point during their degree program (Institute of International Education, 2019). The expensive nature of studying abroad results in a program that only students with the financial means can participate (Shultz & Jorgenson, 2008). However, even the students who are financially able to participate are not currently able to due to the travel restrictions of COVID-19. Until students are once again allowed to embark upon these experiences, global citizenship development may decline. Therefore, institutions of higher education may need to look at implementing other initiatives to develop global citizenship among undergraduates.

Engaging students in active online global learning experiences, such as Liao et al. (2019) describe, are a practical and an effective way to increase students' global competency from their own homes when travel and face-to-face instruction is not possible. Coursework, university programs, and study abroad experiences related to global citizenship require faculty and staff to be familiar with and proponents of the concept. This first requires individuals to reflect on their own practices and understanding of global citizenship (Tenuto, 2020). Thus, if global citizenship continues to be a concept emphasized by institutions of higher education, then developing faculty and staff perceptions is one place to start.

Limitations and Future Research

The nature of systematic literature reviews results in inevitable limitations. First, only articles written in English were included. This is particularly limiting given the global implications of this topic. This could also explain why the majority of the studies included were conducted in English speaking countries. Also, the possibility of human error is always present even though careful records of the search and codebook were kept, as articles were reviewed, and decisions made about inclusion.

Looking forward, globalizing campuses through programs, courses, and learning communities has increased but remains understudied. Scholars in higher education are conducting research on global citizenship, but more empirical research must be done on this topic in K-12. The lack of

research leads to the inability to generalize findings across institutions, especially since only 14 countries and one language are represented in this review of the literature. The variability of studies reviewed here also demonstrates no universal approach to global citizenship development. Therefore, more research is needed in other countries and languages not represented in this literature review. As previously discussed, the COVID-19 pandemic has greatly impacted higher education and future research could examine how the pandemic has affected students' global citizenship development or alternative initiatives being implemented by institutions of higher education besides studying abroad. Other programs such as learning communities and university programs with a goal of global citizenship have yet to be studied within the context of global citizenship development. If programs can better communicate their goals and learning outcomes, then perhaps more scholars will be able to identify these areas of needed research and students will be able to listen more, develop more empathy, and become more socially responsible and engaged global citizens.

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