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Katedra pedagogiky

Eva J a n e b o v á

Internationalization of higher education institutions

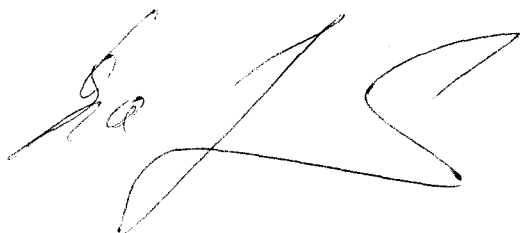
Internacionalizace vysokých škol

Disertační práce

Vedoucí práce - Doc. PhDr. Hana Kasíková, CSc.

2008

Prohlašuji, že jsem disertační práci vykonala samostatně s využitím uvedených pramenů a literatury.

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Abstract

The thesis elaborates on a topical issues, namely how can a higher education institution react to changing interdependent world around. The neediness of this topic proves the fact that internationalization has recently become a priority of Czech higher education policy (Long-term vision of ministry, 2005); however, there has been no research based on theories of international education or a theoretical study on the topic. The author in the first chapter introduces the goals, limitations, structure of the study, and defines major terms (international education and internationalization) and other that she uses throughout the paper.

The second chapter the author analyses the development of international education in USA and Europe in the last fifty years. Further, she offers a comprehensive and well-arranged review of current approaches to internationalization: a) the first one is called Internationalization as Europeanization; b) the second one is a just recent critical reaction to envisaging internationalization in terms of mobility; c) the third concept indicates ways of just “adding-on” international dimension; d) the last on the list looks at internationalization from the system-wide perspective and describes it as institutional change including all its components, in particular its curriculum, institutional culture, research, engagement of (international) students and faculty, leadership and service to society. This perspective is taken up as the leading perspective of the research.

The third chapter introduces the current effort to bridge the gap between multicultural education and international education by comparing their differences and similarities together with mutual flashpoints. The author uses the existing Czech scholarship on multicultural education to help the reader understand the connections between rationalization of multiculturalism and internationalization in higher education institutions. Lastly, she lends the knowledge of research on benefits of intercultural diversity on students and higher education institutions as such, which essentially widens the reasoning about internationalization as a way of being competitive.

In the chapter on methodology, the author argues for chosen case study and describes the methods of data collection and choice of institution and interviewees in connection to the research questions. The formulation of theoretical framework holds an important part of this chapter and becomes the bone of report writing in the next chapter.

The last chapter is called Discussion of Findings and firstly provides the overview of the major findings and on the following, some dozens of pages, she provides detailed discussion

over the results of her research. The discussion ends with support on how to work on with offered recommendations. These are structured according to list of components. The whole text is closed with the author assessing the achievement of aims of the thesis set up in the introductory chapter.

Abstrakt

Předkládaná disertační práce zpracovává aktuální téma - jak může vysokoškolská instituce reagovat na měnící se, vzájemně propojený svět kolem. Potřebnost zpracování tohoto tématu v odborném diskurzu dokládá fakt, že se internacionalizace stala prioritou české vzdělávací politiky (Dlouhodobý záměr MŠMT, 2005). Do dnešního dne však nebyl v České republice publikován žádný výzkum založený na teoriích mezinárodního vzdělávání či jiná teoretická monografie.

V úvodu autorka kromě cílů, východisek, omezení práce a představení struktury práce, definuje základní terminologii (mezinárodní pedagogiku, internacionalizaci), ale i další termíny, se kterými v práci operuje.

V druhé kapitole nabízí analýzu vývoje mezinárodního vzdělávání v USA a v Evropě za posledních padesát let a pomocí zásadních strategických dokumentů popisuje vývoj vzdělávací politiky. Dále pak srozumitelně a přehledně představuje soudobé přístupy k internacionalizaci:

- a) Internacionalizace jako evropeizace;
- b) Internacionalizace doma (Internationalization at Home). Teprve nedávno formulovaný přístup, který kriticky reaguje na předcházející pojetí internacionalizace - především jako podpory mobility;
- c) Koncept ukazující jak je možné přidávat (add-on) mezinárodní dimenzi především do kurikula;
- d) Internacionalizace z pohledu systémové perspektivy pak popisuje proces rozvoje instituce (pomocí teorií změny), který zahrnuje všechny její komponenty. Především její kurikulum, kulturu instituce, výzkum, zangažovanost (zahraničních) studentů, a akademických pracovníků, vedení instituce, administrativu internacionalizace a rovněž možnosti jak může přispět společnost (servisní funkce). Po důkladné kritické analýze směrů je tento přístup přijat za základní hledisko práce.

Třetí kapitola představuje aktuální snahu o přemostění mezi mezinárodním vzděláváním a multikulturním vzděláváním pomocí porovnávání rozdílů, společných charakteristik i

vzájemných nedorozumění. Autorka vychází z možností, které ji nabízí v České republice dostupná literatura s tematikou multikulturalismu a snaží se pomoci čtenáři lépe porozumět (nejen) souvislostem ve zdůvodňování přínosu multikulturality a internacionalizace na vysokých školách. V neposlední řadě pak přináší znalost výzkumů dokládajících prospěch kulturní diversity jak pro studenty, tak pro instituce vysokých škol a zásadním způsobem tak rozšiřuje uvažování o internacionalizaci jako cestě ke konkurenceschopnosti.

V metodologické části práce autorka argumentuje svoji volbu případové studie a popisuje zvolené metody sběru dat, rovněž volbu instituce a dotazovaného vzorku lidí v souvislosti s navrženými výzkumnými otázkami. Důležitou součástí této kapitoly tvoří formulování teoretického rámce výzkumu, který se stává zásadní oporou při vypracování výzkumné zprávy v následující kapitole.

Poslední kapitola, nazvaná Diskuze zjištění (Discussion of Findings), shrnuje nejprve zásadní poznatky a na několika desítkách stran pak podrobně rozebírá výsledky výzkumu. Diskuze je zakončena návrhem postupu, jak pracovat s nabízenými doporučeními, jež jsou členěny podle jednotlivých komponentů. Závěrem práce je zhodnocení dosažených cílů práce, jež si autorka stanovila v úvodní kapitole.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

1	<u>SCOPE AND OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY.....</u>	<u>4</u>
1.1	STATEMENT OF THE THESIS'S REASONS	4
1.2	DESIRED OUTCOME OF THE STUDY	8
1.3	SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY.....	9
1.4	AIMS OF THE STUDY.....	9
1.5	LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY	13
1.6	THE STRUCTURE OF THE THESIS	13
1.7	BRIEF DEFINITION OF TERMS:	18
1.7.1	INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION AND INTERNATIONALIZATION	18
1.7.2	DEFINITION OF OTHER USED TERMS	25
2	<u>SURVEY OF LITERATURE</u>	<u>28</u>
2.1	HISTORICAL BACKGROUND AND POLICIES OF INTERNATIONALIZATION.....	29
2.1.1	INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION IN THE U.S.	29
2.1.2	THE FOUR PHASES OF INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION	29
2.1.2.1	The First Phase.....	29
2.1.2.2	The Second Phase	30
2.1.2.3	The Third Phase	31
2.1.2.4	Fourth Phase	31
2.1.3	STRATEGIC PAPERS.....	32
2.1.4	BACKGROUND TO INTERNATIONALIZATION IN EUROPE	36
2.1.4.1	National Policies before the Bologna Process	38
2.1.4.2	The European policy	40
2.1.4.3	The impact of the Bologna Process	42
2.1.5	EUROPEAN AND CZECH STRATEGIC PAPERS.....	43
2.1.5.1	European Strategic Papers	44
2.1.5.2	Czech strategic papers:	49
2.1.5.3	Notes on scholarship in the Czech Republic.....	54
2.2	APPROACHES TO INTERNATIONALIZATION.....	58
2.2.1	INTERNATIONALIZATION AS EUROPEANIZATION.....	59
2.2.1.1	Mobility	59
2.2.1.2	Administration and other services	60
2.2.2	INTERNATIONALIZATION AT HOME	64
2.2.2.1	Origins and Rationale of the Concept.....	64
2.2.2.2	Characteristics.....	65
2.2.2.3	Internationalization of Curriculum as Centerpiece	67
2.2.2.4	Involvement of the Faculty	68
2.2.3	INFUSION APPROACH TO CURRICULUM	71
2.2.4	SYSTEM-WIDE APPROACH	76
2.2.4.1	Curriculum transformation	77
2.2.4.1.1	Internationalization of degree programs	80
2.2.4.1.2	Internationalization of Disciplines.....	83
2.2.4.1.3	Curriculum and culture	85
2.2.4.1.4	Emic and Etic perspective.....	87
2.2.4.1.5	Ethnocentrism of the curriculum	88
2.2.4.1.6	Internationalization of individual courses.....	91
2.2.4.1.7	Intercultural competencies	92
2.2.4.1.8	Cognitive skills	94
2.2.4.1.9	Teaching and learning strategies.....	98
2.2.4.1.10	Rethinking the curriculum	101
2.2.4.2	More components of system-wide internationalization	105

2.2.4.3	Culture of an institution	108
2.2.4.3.1	Definition of institutional culture	109
2.2.4.3.2	Culture and institutional change	112
2.2.4.4	Faculty	115
2.2.4.4.1	Faculty development	116
2.2.4.4.2	Faculty involvement	120
2.2.4.5	Research.....	121
2.2.4.5.1	Programs for international research	123
2.2.4.5.2	Character of international research	123
2.2.4.6	Involvement of Students	125
2.2.4.6.1	International diversity	126
2.2.4.6.2	Learning together.....	127
2.2.4.7	Administration of internationalization.....	128
2.2.4.8	University's Outreach and service to society.....	132
2.2.5	LEADERSHIP AND INSTITUTIONAL CHANGE	134
2.2.5.1	Institutional change.....	135
2.2.5.2	Leadership role in internationalization	137
2.2.5.3	Leadership in higher education institution of internationalization	138
2.2.5.4	Effects of Culture on Leadership	141
2.2.5.5	Involving leadership	142
2.2.5.5.1	Leadership skills and strategies	144
2.2.6	SYSTEMIC GUIDELINES FOR INSTITUTIONAL CHANGE	149

3 UNDERSTANDING INTERNATIONALIZATION THROUGH MULTICULTURAL EDUCATION153

3.1	WAYS TO LOOK AT INTERNATIONAL AND MULTICULTURAL EDUCATION.....	153
3.1.1	WHY TO ENGAGE IN BRIDGING THE GAP	154
3.2	DIFFERENCES OF INTERNATIONAL AND MULTICULTURAL EDUCATION.....	155
3.3	MUTUAL FLASHPOINTS	158
3.4	FACTORS HELPING TO BRIDGE THE GAP.....	160
3.4.1	COMMON GROUNDS.....	161
3.4.2	CZECH SCHOLARSHIP ON CULTURAL DIVERSITY IN THE CZECH REPUBLIC.....	162
3.4.2.1	Shared learning outcomes	164
3.5	RATIONALIZATION.....	165
3.5.1	RATIONALES FOR MULTICULTURAL EDUCATION	165
3.5.2	THE RATIONALES FOR INTERNATIONALIZATION	167
3.5.2.1	The economic rationale.....	169
3.5.2.2	The academic (institutional and individual) rationale.....	172
3.5.2.3	Social and Cultural Rationale	175

4 METHODOLOGY177

4.1	QUALITATIVE METHODOLOGY.....	178
4.1.1	DISADVANTAGES AND CHALLENGES.....	179
4.2	CASE STUDY.....	180
4.3	TOOLS.....	181
4.4	DATA ANALYSIS	183
4.5	SELLECTION OF COLLEGE.....	184
4.6	SELECTION OF INTERVIEWEES.....	185
4.7	QUALITY CRITERIA OF THE RESEARCH	186
4.8	ETHICS	187
4.9	LIMITATION OF THE STUDY	188
4.9.1	THE BIAS OF THE RESEARCHER	188
4.9.2	OTHER LIMITATIONS	189
4.10	DESCRIPTION OF THE PROCESS OF RESEARCH	189

4.11	THE CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK OF THE RESEARCH	190
4.11.1	SYSTEM-WIDE PERSPECTIVE	190
4.11.2	CURRICULUM	191
4.11.3	RATIONALE FOR INTERNATIONALIZATION.....	192
4.11.4	INTERNATIONAL OFFICE.....	193
4.11.5	LEADERSHIP	194
4.11.6	SYSTEMIC GUIDELINES FOR ORGANIZATIONAL CHANGE	195
4.12	RESEARCH QUESTIONS.....	196
5	<u>DISCUSSION OF RESEARCH FINDINGS.....</u>	198
5.1	MAJOR FINDINGS	198
5.2	GENERAL DESCRIPTION OF THE COLLEGE	200
5.3	THE PERCEPTION OF INTERNATIONALIZATION	200
5.3.1	DEFINITIONS OF “INTERNATIONALIZATION OF THE INSTITUTION”	200
5.3.2	EXISTING INTERNATIONAL STRATEGIES ACCORDING TO THE INTERVIEWEES	201
5.3.3	INTERNATIONALIZATION AS A PROCESS	202
5.4	RATIONALES FOR INTERNATIONALIZATION	202
5.5	COMPONENTS OF INTERNATIONALIZATION	204
5.6	LEADERSHIP ROLE IN INTERNATIONALIZATION	205
5.7	THE ROLE OF INTERNATIONAL OFFICE AND VICE-DEAN IN THE INTERNATIONALIZATION	207
5.8	STRATEGIC PLANNING.....	211
5.8.1	INSTITUTIONAL LEVEL	211
5.8.2	DEPARTMENTAL LEVEL PLANNING	214
5.9	OTHER POSSIBLE FACTORS PROMOTING INTERNATIONALIZATION OF THE INSTITUTION: EVALUATION, HR POLICIES, INCENTIVES	219
5.10	CURRICULUM.....	221
5.10.1	OVERALL DESCRIPTION.....	222
5.10.2	THE TYPOLOGY OF INTERNATIONALIZED CURRICULA.....	222
5.11	STUDENTS.....	235
5.11.1	INTERNATIONAL STUDENTS	235
5.11.2	DOMESTIC STUDENTS.....	236
5.12	FACULTY	237
5.12.1	INTERNATIONAL FACULTY	239
5.13	INSTITUTIONAL CULTURE:.....	241
5.14	RESEARCH.....	242
5.15	OUTREACH AND SERVICE TO THE SOCIETY	244
5.16	INSTITUTIONAL DEVELOPMENT GUIDELINES	246
5.17	RECOMMENDATIONS.....	246
5.17.1	LEADERSHIP	247
5.17.2	INTERNATIONAL OFFICE.....	247
5.17.3	CURRICULUM	248
5.17.4	INTERNATIONAL AND DOMESTIC STUDENTS.....	248
5.17.5	INTERNATIONAL AND DOMESTIC FACULTY	249
5.17.6	RESEARCH.....	249
5.17.7	INSTITUTIONAL CULTURE	249
5.17.8	OUTREACH.....	250
5.17.9	GENERAL SUGGESTIONS	250
5.18	CONCLUSION.....	250
Bibliography		252
Appendix 1		277
Appendix 2		299
Appendix 3		310

1 Scope and objectives of the study

1.1 Statement of the Thesis's Reasons

Researchers, faculty, policy makers and students agree with the idea that the roles of universities must be adjusted to the changing world. The reiterated characterizations of today's world are globalization and cultural diversity. Groennings and Wiley (1990) stated that the global economy is having a major impact on higher education and is causing internationalization to be arguably the most powerful substantive redirection in the history of higher education (p. 28). Briefly, it is no longer possible to live and not to transgress imagined or real borders of nations and cultures.

Monumental changes are occurring outside academia on a global, political, cultural, economic, social and technological scale. Some higher educational institutions react slowly to external environment factors, especially those factors attempting to influence or shape thinking from monocultural, even parochial, singular points of view when broadly based, future-oriented, interdisciplinary dimensions are needed. At the same time, higher education institutions need to consider reacting to these changes because it is they who are considered to represent great innovative potential of a society (World Bank, 2002 In Matějů & Straková, 2005, p. 95).

As will be seen from the literature review, most European sources attribute international education to "Europeanization," practiced especially by the mobility of students or to what they like to call globalization, as the external source to which nation states have to adjust. At the same time globalization serves as a means for them to become the top institutions in the field. Such a formulation is, however, misleading and inappropriate. Internationalization cannot be reduced to physical mobility of students and/or scholars. Neither globalization equates to internationalization.

First of all, globalization is a too ubiquitous phenomenon that manifests itself in ICT, problems in the third world, or global warming, cultural, economic and ecological dominance power (for more on globalization see Rinne & Koioula, 2005). In higher education, according to Teichler (2004, p. 23), it focuses on marketization, competition and management. The grounding idea behind internationalization has been, however, international understanding and mutual enrichment. In addition, as Husén (1994, p. 181) has pointed out that when discussing the profitability and competitiveness of universities, although universities cannot escape the trend of marketization, they tend to totally disregard the cultural and social significance they have (see also Elbay, 2000, p. 89, Amaral and Magalhase, 2002, p.). In the Czech Republic it

has been e.g. Matějů and Straková (2005) pointing to the potentials of schools in equalizing chances in the society.

Secondly, the most important reason for international education is hidden in the domestic forces, if we continue to cling to the age-old distinctions between domestic and foreign. Paradoxically, however, that distinction is blurring so that it is more appropriate to attribute the need for international education to ethnocentrism – to which international education is its antidote. Ethnocentrism is a common human condition that results from many decades or even centuries of socialization to a culture that becomes our gold standard by which we judge and evaluate our (global) environment. This is also a reason why tackling international diversity goes hand in hand with the way one views intercultural diversity.

One of the consequences of ethnocentrism in the Czech Republic seems to be the fact that international education is not a category in either the libraries, in the curriculum of universities, or in the national organization of education in the Ministry of Education, and is minimally covered in the public discourse. For this reason, I depended almost entirely on literature from foreign sources, most notably from other European countries and the United States. There is growing literature about international education in Australia, Canada, Japan, Korea, other nations of the Pacific region, India, and Middle East, but that literature will continue to be inaccessible to the Czech people. The predominance of “western”, and most notably American literature, raises important questions as to how relevant such literature may be to the Czech educational and cultural scene. That very question has an answer: knowledge is knowledge in the age of knowledge and learning society, regardless of its origin. Such knowledge needs to be identified, sought after and transferred in order to create new knowledge. In addition, the use of such knowledge depends precisely on international education, which provides the tools for assessing critically the applicability and use of such global knowledge to local conditions.

The reasons why such knowledge is important is not only because of the “being competitive” rationalization, but also to securer higher goals of international relations, peaceful cooperation, and deeper human understanding among individual people and their nations and cultures. Our students need to know what others know and what there is to know about them and ourselves, so that they can see the gaps between what they are taught and what they need to know. It is for these reasons, and others that will become apparent from further reading of this thesis, why I made an extraordinary effort to bring much of this literature to the interested Czech public, and why I decided to study this topic so that the public can begin connecting the dots and join global discourse on our higher education.

That process of “connecting the dots” is, of course, the purpose of pedagogy, that makes international education both “international” and “education”. In order to assess the relevance of “foreign” knowledge we need to be internationally educated so that we can place this “foreign knowledge” into the context of its intellectual tradition; in other words, we need to have a thorough knowledge of other cultures as well as of our own in order to determine what knowledge or what parts of that knowledge will be functional or dysfunctional in our own culture. That is why this question is tackled in detail in section of internationalization of the curriculum. (The lack of research on Czech higher education leadership, culture, outreach was recognized as a hindrance especially for choosing the theoretical framework for the research.)

In general, recent higher education policies¹ are marked with new concepts like mass higher education (e.g. commented on by Scott, 1996) or the knowledge-based society (Ziman, 2000, Veselý 2008) which determined by knowledge driven economy and ICT as well as by more sociological and philosophical concepts of e.g. social responsibility (Drucker, 1993, Bell, 1973) and Popper’s open society². New concepts connected to the overwhelming rise of constructivism are emerging in not only in curricula instruction but also in the context-based multidisciplinary production of knowledge through Mode 2 (Gibbons et al. 1994, Novotny, Scott, Gibbons, 2002, conf. Petrussek, 2005), which means that new knowledge is being recombined from the old one by multidisciplinary approaches, context production, outreach, cooperation and multiple participants (i.e. university researchers, think-tanks, research organizations, NGOs, etc.) The elitist closed university, the so called Ivory Tower, is falling down (conf. Husén, 1996) with open models of universities as complex systems innovation (Edquist, 2001) are being introduced through such models as multiversity (Kerr, 1963) and Triple–Helix model (Leysdorf & Ezkowitz, 1997).

As far as the Czech context is concerned, since 1989, have the Czech higher education institutions been overwhelmed with regaining their autonomy (that had been taken by the state and ideology) and with the process of decentralization as well as to diversification and “massification” connected to the pushing through the principle of equal chances³ (Matějů, Simonová, 2005). According to Roskovec and Vašutová (personal conversation, 2008), probably the most burning issues today represent discussion over the funding, quality measurements (e.g. guidelines prepared by CHES) and leadership. A review of Czech higher

¹ For a full analysis of conceptual changes inside and outside higher education and more resources see Rinne and Koioula, 2005.

² The Open society and its Enemies was published after the world war II and later founded as a think-tank by Popper’s student Soros as defense to totalitarianism

³ For the difference between concept of equal chances, i.e. equity and equality concept practiced to certain degree after 1948 in the Czech Republic see Matějů, Straková, 2006.

education research (vysokoškolská pedagogika) reveals that most tackled issues concern: a) the constructivist approach to the curriculum with teaching strategies (moving away from lectures to more student-centered teaching methods which is in comparison to primary/secondary education advocated for little bit later and less vehemently); b) further education of faculty (Vašutová, 2006); and c) special attention is paid to colleges of education which are home institutions of most scholars dealing with higher education agenda. There have been done some comparative researches concerning the position and needs of higher education faculty (Tollingerová 1998, Teichler et al., 1998) and higher education development has been periodically reflected upon in OECD reports and reviews since 1991/92 prepared by the Centre for Higher Education Studies in Prague.

Czech higher education policies, in connection to internationalization, have been determined by the European Union's Bologna Process since the 90's. Institutions have undergone tremendous structural changes and three levels: Bachelor, Magister and Ph.D. program level were codified by the Education Act in 2001. Nevertheless, harmonization of the higher education structure within Europe and support of student and scholar mobility or inter-institutional cooperation in research should not be considered as the only strategies of internationalization either are the policy level (conf. Ministry of Education, 2005) or in everyday life of the institutions (conf. e.g. Long-term plan of Masaryk University, 2003).

Internationalization of higher education institutions is more than Europeanization; it is a reaction of the institution to the changing world as well as adaptation of the university model. Internationalization is a process of integration of international perspective into the school systems. It is an ongoing, future oriented, multidimensional, interdisciplinary process that involves all stakeholders working to change the institution to respond and adapt appropriately to an increasingly diverse, globally focused, ever changing environment (Ellingboe, 1998, In Mestenhauser & Ellingboe, 1998a, p. 199). Changing an entire institution means to internationalize its curriculum and research, culture and structure of the institution, administration, its outreach and service to the society, it demands the involvement of faculty, students, and most importantly its leaders. It requires system wide incentives, fostering both intercollegiate cooperation, and individual commitments.

Overall, internationalization is one of the many mutually linked concepts that higher education institutions are facing today all over the world. Internationalization is what separates a UNIVERS-ity from other institutional types; it is why the former are sometimes called "world-class" learning institutions which are globally-focused, not regionally or nationally or monoculturally-framed. Internationalists believe that future depends on how teachers and students learn to encounter and deal with global as well as local diversity today. The challenge

is to create citizens who have the ability to move easily among different cultures, who understand diverse ways of knowing and thinking, who go beyond applying their own labels and categories to practices which seem strange, and who seek out the common humanity in those whose beliefs and practices are different, citizens who will be critical consumers of commodities, media reports, and economic policies, who will ask questions beyond those of individual or national self-interest when they assess the equity of economic, political, social, and educational choices. Providing these skills will be a major challenge for the academy of the next century, requiring faculty flexibility and ongoing development for transcending their own specializations and borders.

Education is driven by two seemingly oppositional forces: to protect traditions and to move societies into the future. If the second of these forces is to result into the innovative potential of a society, as is widely believed, the school has to change too, especially at the tertiary level. The Czech university has undergone tremendous structural changes since the Velvet revolution and later in connection to the Bologna Process; however, structural changes are not enough for changes that are system-wide and determined especially by commitment to a new vision and mind-shift of its stakeholders in direction to already interconnected world, remains a challenge.

1.2 Desired Outcome of the Study

The desired outcome is to produce new knowledge on international education in Czech Republic and to contribute to theories and methodologies used in internationalization of universities on international scale. This should concern the theoretical part of the study as well as the methodological – the proposed a theoretical framework and methodology of research of internationalization in a chosen higher education institution is to be transferable especially to other higher education of the same kind and to a certain degree as well as other higher education institutions.

Overall, the thesis should enrich the education sciences in Czech Republic and develop the topic of internationalization in the scientific discourse. Moreover, it should help the leadership and faculty of higher education institutions, administration (especially international education officers) to have better understanding of the phenomena and to reflect on their internationalization efforts. Above all, recommendations may provide practical guidelines and motivation for developing further internationalization efforts.

I intend to publish articles immediately after finishing the thesis in international journals, to translate the thesis into Czech and present it to broader Czech audience in Czech

scholarly journals which have revealed interest in the topic (Aula, Orbis scholae, as well as the new Charles University series), and in other forms.

1.3 Significance of the Study

To date, there has been no research of a Czech higher education institution from system-wide perspective on internationalization. This monograph is a pioneer both in theory coverage as well as in comprehensive approach to the case study research for the reviewed literature did not reveal any similar in-depth study done in the Czech Republic, except for some minor studies on the mobility of university students and faculty have been published in Aula (e.g. 2004, pp. 55-64) and Tollingerová (1998).

The importance and timeliness of the research are reinforced firstly by obligations connected to Bologna Process and especially the Bergen declaration (EUA, 2005) which stress quality assurances (including internationalization), and, secondly by strategic documents of Czech Ministry of Education on higher education and research (*Actualization of Conception, 2005* and *Long-term plan, 2005*) which prioritize internationalization and its evaluation. Thirdly, most universities are revising their mission statements in order to stress internationalization or some aspect of it (e.g. UK, MUNI, UP, etc...).

The thesis is to provide them with knowledge of some existing scholarship and research aims to help Czech universities adapt themselves to their changing roles in knowledge society and to the demands of competitiveness in globalized society. My dissertation may be useful for leadership of higher education institution and instruction units, faculty, and administration of international offices who are interested in reflecting and developing their efforts.

1.4 Aims of the Study

Before identifying the objectives of the study, I consider it necessary to explain what aims my thesis is not reaching. The study does not aim to place blame upon the Czech higher education institution nor their individual faculty members in saying that they may not be sufficiently internationalized. The author is aware that the Czech Republic has a specific culture, recent history of totalitarian government, a specific traditional model of university, and many other factors connected to individual stakeholders which determine, let me say at this point, “our” approach to internationalization, “our” rationale and form, which is clarified as elastically different from other internationalizations around the world.

Therefore, individual faculty or leadership may read the theoretical part and say to themselves that they are actually participating in internationalization. That is very well and I do not mean to suggest that internationalization is not happening and the form it takes in a chosen institution is researched in my case study. Internationalization, as I describe in the part on historical background, could be seen by some to have its historical antecedents in Sophists, famous pedagogues (like Komenský) and university teachers who have always read “foreign” (meaning land behind borders changing according to the rulers) literature and been aware of what is happening in other countries, of course with comparatively limited communication and travel means. First of all, the amount of knowledge globally is a thousand fold greater. Secondly, all of the above-mentioned rather tend to think that the knowledge they are aware of is universal. However, what they usually comprehended was the same European intellectual tradition. Moreover, as far as colonies and more distant parts of the world, it seems that it was only in the second half of the 20th century that scholars started to point out to the biased perspective, miscomprehension, and emic versus etic viewpoint (conf. famous *Orientalism* by Said, 1978). Internationalization today also reacts to different social, political, and cultural concepts (globalization, Europeanization, cultural diversity, open society, regained democracy, interconnectedness by ICT, constructivist pedagogy, etc.) so that it takes up new forms and is supported with new rationales. In short, Mestenhauser expressed it eloquently: one cannot trace a linear continuity of international education to the middle ages or even further back in history; the current field of knowledge as well as its practice are qualitatively and quantitatively different and no generalization can do otherwise.

I hope that my work will not in the slightest be construed as just a temporary fashion; on contrary, I want to share my belief in benefits of internationalization and hope that my study will help the reader reflect on his or her practice as well as on the theories on which their practice is based (as all human sciences do with the existing or expected reality) – to consider internationalization as: a) a system-wide transformation of an institution, b) its functioning in a particular cultural system as well as in c) an international context, d) together with its democratic rationalization, and e) its various forms it takes up.

The first aim of the thesis is to introduce into Czech higher education the scholarship of the theory, research and practice of international education as an interdisciplinary field of knowledge that has been developed over the past fifty years, principally in U.S. as well as in Europe. The reader should have a better understanding of the several approaches of how to internationalize higher education institutions including components, rationalizations and educational policy background after having read the thesis. The reader will comprehend the reasons for choosing one of them for the research framework.

For this purpose, is the study based on an extensive literature review of mostly Czech, European, and American scholarship. Inasmuch as it is a pioneering study in the Czech Republic it reviews as comprehensibly and understandably current approaches to internationalization⁴. In order to contextualize these approaches, I introduce the reader to the development of international education in U.S. in the last fifty years and to the European version since the 90's of the last century (van der Wende, 1997). Moreover, I try to find connections to the discourse over multiculturalism, which is (unlike to scholarship over international education) in the Czech Republic relatively developed.

Moreover, the thesis aims to produce new knowledge and to enrich scholarship of international education both in the Czech Republic as well as internationally. International education has not yet been recognized in the Czech Republic as an academic. Despite the dominance of foreign language written literature, the purpose of this study is not to import uncritically the concepts that form international education as a field. In order not to end up with foreign policy borrowings or empty political proclamations of how important it is to be internationalized, the higher educational institutions' stakeholders have to find their own rationale and develop theoretical concept and research assumptions in international education. The author will attempt to develop assumptions compatible with the Czech historical and cultural conditions, rather than simply uncritically import ideas from other cultures, through a) describing and interpreting the existing concepts of multiculturalism and internationalization, b) testing them against the prevailing knowledge of Czech scholarship on cultural diversity and other relevant concepts such as organizational change which exist within the Czech discourse on multiculturalism, and c) placing them into the cultural context via existing cross-cultural research findings. This will also enrich the international discourse on international education with a Czech-indigenous perspective.

Moreover, I decided to write a separate chapter on bridging the gap between international education and multicultural education because multi/inter-cultural education⁵ (in Czech usually referred to as “multikulturní výchova/interkulturní vzdělávání”) is an already existing concept in the Czech Republic and therefore it will be useful to approach international education through comparing their differences and similarities. I hope that my efforts will help the Czech reader to better comprehend international education as such as well as its connection the multiculturalism.

⁴ The author acknowledges the inaccessibility of the literature to wider public and provides readers with necessary details, supporting background, tables or e.g. with a list of associations dealing with international education in the appendixes.

⁵ For definitions see chapt. 3.

As far as the international context, two educational fields of knowledge, international and multi-cultural education, have emerged recently as defining educational mega-goals. Both are perhaps reactions to global forces and – this should not be underestimated – to domestic conditions resulting from dynamic local democratization. Both fields have simultaneously cooperated and competed with each other over funding as well as over theoretical foundations regarding which is broader and who encompasses whom. Yet, there has been a visible bridge built between the two in policy and research and the trend has brought closer their rationales, subject matters, and open minded scholars and their journals. My paper has been greatly inspired by the 643 page long PhD thesis by Brenda Ellingboe (1999) which, apart from being a wide source of information on international education overall, was a strong inspiration to think about new ways to bridge the gap between multiculturalism and internationalization.

In addition to literature review, the second aim of this study is to analyze how a higher education institution is reacting to the changing world outside academia, namely with the view of the internationalization process of a particular institution. This task entails the development of theoretical framework and methodological conception of research of a particular human sciences institution in the Czech Republic. This case study of a Czech institution of higher education will help other Czech institutions to understand the strengths and weaknesses of their internationalization processes (including vision, leadership, curricula, culture, and other).

The case study draws on established methodology and theoretical concepts on internationalization and organizational change. The research instruments are: documentation analysis, interviews, questionnaires. A detailed description of methodology is contained in chapter 4. Finally yet importantly, the research section concludes with *Discussion of Findings*. The analysis of results leads to recommendations and suggestions how to best proceed in using them for the institutional development.

The overall rationale of the thesis research is to help Czech universities adapt themselves to their changing roles in knowledge society and to the demands of competitiveness in globalized society. I hope that conclusions from my case study will not only provide new knowledge and theoretical foundation, but that they will also serve as an inspiration to all constituencies of higher education, especially policy makers, administrators, deans, faculty and students, so that they will open themselves and their school to the world, and more importantly, stir up more general interest in the until recently neglected field of international education.

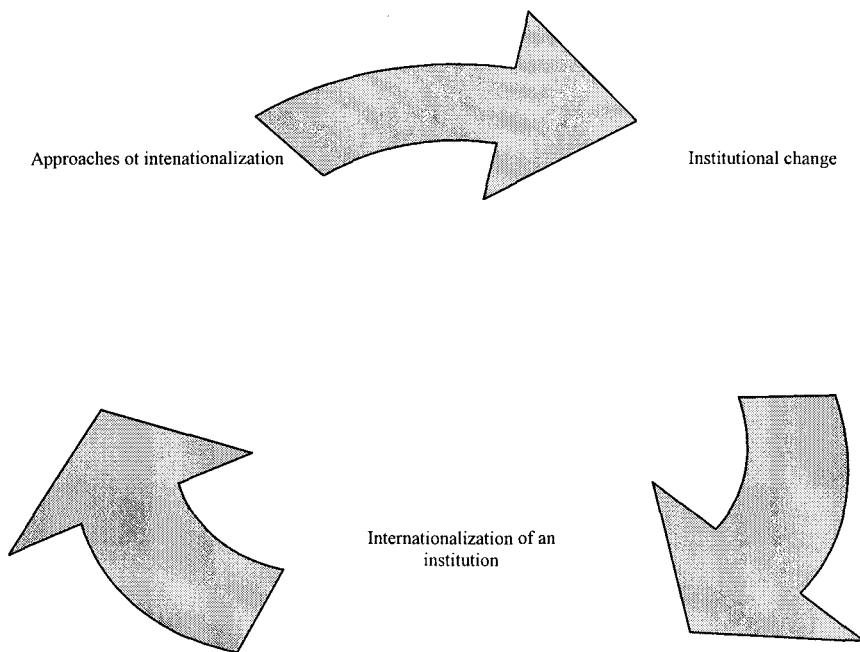
1.5 Limitations of the Study

The main limitation of the study is that there is very little Czech theoretical scholarship that would deal with internationalization of the university. That is why many parts of chapters will be based on international sources and will be accompanied by sections called noting on Czech scholarship, which will discuss the scarcity and limited character of existing relevant literature. The absence of the Czech theoretical literature was especially limiting when thinking about the suitable theoretical framework to internationalization for the case study. The pioneering character of the thesis has also meant limited possibilities of consultations on the topic with Czech scholars. Other general limit was limited funding for purchasing more relevant literature from abroad which the author was aware that existed. (For more limitations of the research see Chapter. Four on Methodology).

1.6 The Structure of the Thesis

Following the introduction chapter, the thesis is organized into five chapters. The second chapter deals with an extensive literature review of approaches to internationalization and together with chapter three leads to the fourth chapter on the selection of the methodology used in the research study. Relationship between multicultural and international education is included in a separate chapter number three where rationales of the two are tackled. The last, fifth, chapter deals with results of the study and discussion of the findings that leads to recommendations and suggestions for future research.

The second chapter is an extraordinarily extensive literature review that is divided into several parts. The first section reveals the historical development of international education both in U.S. and in Europe. The next part is concerned with different approaches to internationalization of higher education institutions and accentuates the perspective of the system-wide approach to internationalization as a process of change. Without understanding both the components of internationalization and internationalization as a process it would not be possible to do the research. The relationship could be pictured like this:



The literature review starts with the outline of conceptualizations of international education in US.A. and in Europe and in the Czech Republic. The historical review draws especially on strategic documents. The development of international education is usually dated after the First World War as a reaction to soldiers' unpreparedness in international environment; it was intensively supported also during the Cold War; and more recently the new wave was connected to the fall of totalitarian regimes. The seminal strategic paper for higher education: *University Looks Abroad* was published in 1965 and called for re-evaluation of the higher education curricula and institutions' structure in order to be international. Since then, dozens of similar documents have been published by the governmental bodies or scholarly and university associations⁶. There are about twenty pivotal American documents described in this chapter. Even though their practical impact in quantifiable data may seem debatable (the number of outgoing American students has been around 3% for some time), the researches show that prestigious universities involve internationalization in their missions and strategic documentation. Moreover, internationalization of higher education institutions has been nurtured by numerous scholars who have developed theories and have done many researches (Klasek, Knight, Green, Schoenberg, Mestenhauser, Harari, Paige, etc.)

According to the eminent European internationalists van der Wende (1997) and de Witt (2007), internationalization played only a minor role in the higher education on the European

⁶ American Council of Education, Council of International Education Exchange, National Association of State Universities and grant Colelges, National Association of Foreign Student Advisers, American Association of State Colleges and Unviersties, Institute of Internationa Education, and joined with Association of International Education Administrators.

continent until the 90's. The interest was stirred up only after the collapse of USSR – the collapse of forced separation of “Eastern Europe” and in connection to the integration processes. Internationalization in Europe has been tightly connected to the Bologna Process aiming at the harmonization of the higher education and creation of a common higher education area (EHEA) and more recently of common frameworks of qualifications and concern with quality assurance. The process is also perceived as imperative to competitiveness of universities and their alumni at the global markets, and eventually has been connected to the quality assurance in the EHEA. Internationalization thus takes up two objectives: European cooperation and international competitiveness. (The split of the rationales can be documented in recent evaluation methodologies (EUA, 2007) which involve both internationalization oriented overseas and harmonization within the Bologna Process.) Strategies to reach both objectives involve predominantly student and staff mobility, foreign language proficiency and international research activities.

The Bologna Process has become a priority in 1999 in the Czech Republic marked with a great growth of student mobility. Higher education institutions also adapted the module system gradually (Ministry of Education, 2002) and started to use ECTS credits, developed double degrees, co-tutelles, etc. In connection to the European integration, the Czech written scholarship has started to mention the common European values, and implementation of the European dimension in the curriculum (Walterová, Ježková, 1999, Rýdl, 1997) in connection to the transformation of the former transmissive curriculum in direction to principles of humanism and constructivism (fostered by e.g. Kotásek, Skalková, Vašutová, Kučerová, Walterová, Rýdl, Kasíková, Valenta, Hausenblas, Košťálová). International diversity has been part of textbooks for multi/inter-cultural education (Varianty, Šišková, etc.) and global education about the interdependence of the world (Pike and Selby, Horká, Varianty) all targeted at primary and secondary education. According to the accessible literature, theories of internationalization of Czech higher education have not been developed yet.

Among the Czech strategic papers for higher education stands out the current *Long-Term Policy Paper for Higher Education 2006-2010 (Dlouhodobý záměr vzdělávací a vědecké, výzkumné, vývojové, umělecké a další tvůrčí činnosti pro oblast VŠ na roky 2006-2010)*, where internationalization is one of the three priorities. The major strategies of developing it are: a) implementation of ECTS credits, b) increase of students study abroad to 50% and incoming international students from “suitable” countries, c) foreign language education, d) programs in foreign languages and double degree, e) cooperation with selected countries.

I have already foreshadowed several approaches to internationalization of higher education. The first, called Internationalization as Europeanization is dealt in (2.2.1). It is based on harmonization of structure and mobility. A critical stand to that takes the second concept of Internationalization at Home (2.2.2) developed at the University of Malmo. The objective is to reach the 98% of students who do not go abroad and maximizes the usage of already existing intercultural diversity (Nilsson, 2000).

Another possible approach to internationalization is to add-on new courses and materials to the curriculum (2.3.3). It is usually individual faculty who decide to use this approach to enrich their classes. On the other hand, the system-wide approach (2.2.4) sees internationalization as transformation of the whole institution (Harari, 1993, Klasek, 1992, Ellingboe, 1999, Mestenhauser, 1998). This concept is construed on the following: internationalization must become the priority of the institutions vision and thus be part of the strategic planning of the institution; all staff and students need to be engaged; the curriculum must be transformed; administrators of international relations offices must provide a comprehensive service to students and staff in their mobility activities, research, and development; change needs affect the infrastructure and culture of the organization as well as internationalization of research and institutions' outreach and service to the community must happen; and finally, internationalization as institutional transformation must be supported by the leadership.

The following section explains the role of leadership in internationalization and in institutional change. I deal with the concept of change and how to achieve a change towards internationalization. The key concepts are systems perspective (Senge, 1980) and the learning organization (Fullan, 1998), which have been successfully used also in major ACE project (Hill, Green, Peter, 1998, 2000, 2004, 2005) to transform universities. Drawing on literature review on systemic guidelines, the institution, among other, in order to do that the institution must undergo changes from hierarchical management to more participative one where stakeholders are engaged in the change, implement some form of strategic planning, develop (new) managerial skills with the leadership. Academics need to be encouraged to think and implement internationalization through incentives, time, and further education (intercultural communication, foreign language support, assistance in writing international project proposals, etc.). International relations offices (ideally at the university not faculty level) need to take up the responsibility of full administration of exchanges, counseling and integration of international students and scholars, internationally friendly climate (together with "after-school" activities), as well as support conditions that will enable full-engagement of university staff in internationalization.

The last chapter (3) of the literature review describes the similarities and differences of the two fields of knowledge of multicultural and international education. Administratively, these two were localized in different units at the institutions and one focused on “domestic” diversity and the other on a “foreign” diversity. Recently they have been enriching each other in their rationalization and have found a common ground in intercultural diversity concept (intercultural communication, intercultural psychology), inclusiveness or reasoning over power relations. International education has been associated with peacemaking and political aims (like integration of the EU), and more recently with the ability to compete on global scale. The aim to become competitive goes against the cooperative principle of international education and falsely narrows down the outcomes of internationalization. Researches, mostly from the field of multicultural education, document the positive benefits of intercultural diversity of students body at higher education institutions on their outcomes, on their team skills and students’ inter-personal and personal development, on the whole institution (e.g. campus climate), as well as on society through higher engagement of students and faculty in civic society building, democracy and support of the concept of inclusion.

The literature review leads to the chapter on Methodology (4) describes the selected qualitative methodology. The research framework based on two meta-conceptions: systems-perspective and organizational change helped to form the following research major research question. The framework includes six components: curriculum, (international) students and faculty, research and networking, leadership, culture of the institution, outreach and services to society.

The main research question is: What place does internationalization take up at the selected institution from perspective of academic staff and leadership?

Research sub-questions are as follows:

1. How does academic staff understand internationalization?
2. What is (not) their rationale for internationalization?
3. What are (not) the components of internationalization?
4. How is (not) the leadership engaged in the process of internationalization?
5. What factors are (not) supporting the change of the institution?

These questions are answered with the help of qualitative methodology – a case study. Data will be assembled through interviews, questionnaires, analysis of documentation.

In the last chapter (5) on the discussion of research findings, I discuss the research findings and draft out recommendations.

1.7 Brief definition of terms:

1.7.1 International education and internationalization

To begin the discussion of definitions, I begin with a statement by Harari, one of the intellectual leaders, who states: “whatever our definition might be, it is clear that acquiring global awareness and an understanding of the diversity of cultures and societies on our planet has to be considered an integral part of education” (Harari, 1992, p. 53 In Ellingboe, p.45) So, let us start with that

There are a great number of definitions that distinguish the present status of affairs in international education from the process of internationalization that seeks to fill the gap between what is known and what needs to be known. Most of these definitions are based on individual understanding of what these concepts mean: they range from programs of European cooperation to programs of adding international content to the curriculum of a single institution, to a system-wide perspective on internationalization of a whole institution.

In order to write about *international education* and *internationalization* it is necessary to briefly simply define what these two terms mean before laying out the complex picture of development and complexity of the scholarship in both Europe and US. The most comprehensive definition of international education would go as follows:

International education is an interdisciplinary field of knowledge that has its own components, perspectives, theories, models, organizational structures and approaches that are connected to international activities and the processes of schools.

International education is often described as an interdisciplinary and multi-dimensional study for it covers many topics: cultural differences in learning styles, in leadership, influence of culture on cognition, intercultural communication, intercultural sensitivity, international diversity of student body and climate of school, interdependence of the world, research cooperation, emic and etic perspective, ethnocentrism, minority-majority relations, inclusion, cultural dimensions, culture shock, orientation and re/entry programs, quality assurance and many other.

While definitions vary in the precise language used, international education is generally taken to include: a) knowledge of other world regions, cultures, and global/international issues; b) skills in communicating in languages other than English, working in global or cross-cultural environments, and using information from different sources around the world; and c) values of respect and concern for other cultures and peoples.

That interpretation is based on Knight's most commonly quoted definition both in U.S. and Europe: "Internationalization at the national/sector/institutional levels is defined as the process of integrating an international, intercultural, or global dimension into the purpose, function, or delivery of post-secondary education." (Knight, 2003, p. 2)

Review of programs from a dozen U.S. universities and their stated goals suggests that most include one or more of the following international goals: knowledge of other cultures, multiple perspectives, equity, intercultural competence, and cross-cultural adjustment, appreciation of cultural diversity and open-mindedness, and critical learning skills. Skills may also include technology skills, civic engagement, language skills, and self-esteem regarding own culture, moving beyond ethnocentrism to empathy, intercultural etiquette, and knowledge of human rights.

International education can be also defined in terms of curricular theories. From his point of view the most commonly accepted definition in the American scholarship is the one propagated by the editors of the Journal of Studies in International Education where International education is defined in its other meaning - as a practiced curriculum (International education is seen as the intentional preparation of students to be contributing citizens, productive workers, and competent leaders in the interconnected world of the 21st century.) Recent projects⁷ of the American Council on Education (ACE, 2007, p.10) focused on international education learning outcomes of graduates and identified learning goals concerned with knowledge, skills and attitudes, as follows:

Knowledge:

- Understand his/her culture in global/comparative context as one of many
- Knowledge of global issues, processes, trends, and systems and their interconnectedness
- Knowledge of other cultures (beliefs, values, perspectives, practices, etc) and how they affect personal, national and international relations

Skills:

- Application of knowledge, cultural frames, alternative perspectives to think critically and solve problems
- Communication skills across cultures that are useful to practical need of people to connect with people in other language communities and cultures
- Command of other languages and cultures to extend his/her access to information, experiences, and understanding
- Intercultural sensitivity to other view of the world

⁷ "Lessons Learned in Assessing International Learning" and "Global Learning for All Project" (2006)

Attitudes

- Appreciation of other cultures (languages, art, religion, philosophy, and culture)
- Acceptance of cultural difference and tolerance of cultural ambiguity
- An ongoing willingness to seek out international and intercultural opportunities.

To compare⁸ that with European views, according to the Dutch researcher, Van der Wende (1997) internationalized curriculum should satisfy the following eight outcomes:

1. Increased knowledge of international aspects of the subject area
2. Enhanced understanding and ability to communicate with people from other countries
3. Improved foreign language proficiency
4. Enhanced labor market opportunities and acquisition of qualifications for the global performance of these internationalized professions
5. Introduction of new expertise and methods by visiting international students and faculty
6. International development programs for faculty
7. Innovations in taken-for-granted practices (new approaches to student learning)
8. Social and intercultural integration of student groups with different nationalities.

Although international education does not have its own curricular theory, it has to work within the many definitions that are available for the curricular theories. The above-described internationalized curricula definitely differ in the complexity of the curriculum design. This is a major problem because these theories of the curriculum depend on the theoretical or even ideological position of the authors who created them, including such names as Dewey, Rogers, and others.

One American source that has become a standard text about the curriculum, explains these different schools best. It describes four major schools of thought – all of them based on different interpretations of learning theories, each different in assumptions about the role of the teachers, learners, subjects, methods, outcomes, and methods of assessment. Even though this work by McNeil (1990) does not address solely higher education, it might be useful to explain these four schools of thought that have influenced international education: 1) the humanistic

⁸ ACE (2006) defines learning outcomes in more details than van der Wende. On the other hand, she perceives curriculum in a more comprehensive meaning (including development of faculty and integration of visiting students and scholars, learning styles and instruction). American document stresses the understanding of global interdependence and what it is a culture; whereas, van der Wende's knowledge is more discipline-based.

curriculum, 2) the social constructionist curriculum, 3) the technological curriculum, and 4) the academic curriculum.

First influential curricular perspective is humanistic which places the individual at the center and focuses on his/her personal and social development rather than transfer of data. It is a well known and has been widely used in Czech scholarship (conf. Walterová et al. 2004) and therefore is not necessary to explain it here in more detail.

Secondly, topics such as empowerment are widely developed by critical theorists and social reconstructionists who bring the second perspective based on assumptions that knowledge is biased and must be deconstructed in order to be made viable to all, especially the oppressed groups (women, ethnic minorities, migrants, etc.). Multicultural critical perspective is also useful in intercultural learning when the encountering nations have historical “baggage” between them to deal with. The constructivist perspective (Tonucci, 1991, Spilková 2004) on curriculum in general counts with already existing knowledge (pre-concepts) and works with them in the process of learning. This perspective is well described in Grecmanová, Novotný (2000). However, the postmodern and critical approaches pointing to the dangers of dogmatism have been rather marginalized in the Czech discourse (Varianty, 2004, 2005). Still, the notion of ideology, the interlink between knowledge and politics, totalitarianism, the refecation of absolutist/universalistic view of human knowledge and of the spurious certainties of “the traditional” play an important role in internationalization.⁹

Thirdly, technological curriculum focuses on the effectiveness of programs, methods, and materials in the achievement of specified ends (following the work of Skinner, 1968). Computer-assisted instruction, personalized system of instruction, programmed materials, tutors following scripts for teaching specific skills, criterion-references tests are all examples of applied technology. (For more see Mc Neil, 1999, p. 63-67)

The fourth and final perspective is associated with traditional academic discipline-based education and its goal to improve the knowledge through contextual study of disciplines and to teach them how to think critically.

International education combines all four approaches via an integrative perspective. Firstly, international education programs have accepted some principles and assumptions from the humanistic school of thought associated principally with Maslow (1968), Rogers (1961), such as the emphasis on learning process as opposed to learning product (content), the idea of self-disclosure practiced in some cross-cultural training programs and intercultural personal

⁹ Kelly (2004) writes that posmodern thinking is only now penetrating the educational thinking and it is important to offer positive directions for forms of educational planning and practice instead of „deschooling“ (p. 22). (for more see Kelly (2004) - available to the Czech reader).

development theories. (e.g. student-centered teaching styles, integration of international students, emphasis on competencies rather than knowledge in Chap. 2, pp.90 bellow)

Secondly, international education agrees that knowledge is culture-bound and that some element of deconstruction is needed in order to make it internationally inclusive. (conf. e.g. concept of Ethnocentrism, Intercultural Sensitivity Development Model, diversity of learning styles, “Rethinking” the curriculum, *ibid.*)

Thirdly, many international programs depend on new technology (soft and hard). International education makes use of computers, cameras, the internet, software allowing for distance learning or leapfrog cooperation, and many other communication innovations (conf. use of internet, emails, teleconference, multimedia, Intercultural Sensitivity Inventory, *ibid.*).

Fourthly, international education also sees the development of cognitive skills, including critical thinking as central to itself, and considers disciplinary knowledge as one of the essential keys to profession. Still, it is critical of its reliance on deductive, contextual and reductionists methods and maintains that most of us have interdisciplinary global, multidimensional and intercultural jobs. Consequently, our skills are derived only partly from our academic education. Lastly, international education is based on the assumption that international knowledge cannot be linearly added (by adding a few spices) but depends on the adoption to the already existing culture-bound knowledge (see concepts of critical thinking, creative thinking, interdisciplinarity, internationalization of courses, *ibid.*).

Pertinent to the variable nature of the curriculum¹⁰ is also the level of analysis about the curriculum. In the British publication (McCormick and Murphey, 2000) the authors suggest three most common levels of analysis: first, specified curriculum; second, enacted curriculum; and third, experienced curriculum. The specified curriculum is what universities and professors say in official bulletins and syllabi that they accomplish for their students. The enacted curriculum is what they actually do. The authors, who have studied the actual behavior of teachers, suggest that there is a gap between what we say we do in the classroom, and what we actually do. They explain the gap by suggesting that teaching is an exceptionally difficult job, that the classroom requires immediate attention to what is going on, that the situation in the classroom is often unpredictable, and that immediate attention is needed to these conditions that may require many “shortcuts” and attention to the short-term duration of a class participation rather than attention to long-term learning (McIntire, 2000, in McCormick and

¹⁰ The most often cited British source of knowledge about the curriculum is the *Routledge International Companion to Education* (Moon, Brown, Ben-Peretz, 2000) published each ten years. Its chapter dealing with the curriculum defines it as “the external manifestation of an underlying conceptual system about a) the nature and structure of subject matter that is being taught, b) pupils/students’s conception (sometimes preconceptions or misconceptions) of the subject matter, and c) mechanism of cognitive change, i.e. learning and development.” (citing Strauss, 1997, pp. 28-50)

Murphey, 2000, p. 83 – 109). Finally, the experienced curriculum is what the student's experience, and about what the teachers have no control over. Internationalized curriculum must take all three of these levels of analysis into account, and the variable of "culture" that makes the discussion of the curriculum from an international perspective especially complex and difficult.¹¹

As indicated, international education utilizes learning concepts, strategies, and concepts from a variety of sources, including other cultures, and searches for those most suitable and culturally fitting for its goals. The knowledge of international education is then a perfect example of Gibbon's (1994, 2000) Mode 2 production of knowledge for it is a constant composite of mixing, evaluation, adjusting, using, integrating, selecting, rejecting and combining several knowledge systems from several disciplines and even cultures (Brislin and Lonner, 1975 in Mestenhauser, 2000, p. 3).

Consequently, the knowledge base of international education comes also from a number of disciplines apart from education: social psychology (stereotypes, uncertainty reduction, leadership, contact theory), cross-cultural psychology and intercultural communication (e.g. intercultural trainings), cognitive psychology (cultural boundness of cognition), anthropology (Hofstede's and Kluckhohn's cultural dimensions), management and theories of organization, international relations (adjustment, interdependence) and cultural diplomacy (negotiations, conflict resolutions) and others.

International education is much broader than the concept of internationalized curricula even when talking about the higher education context. Mestenhauser (2002a) expressed it very concisely:

"international education is a program of change aiming to make international education a super-ordinate field of knowledge, inquiry and application, which is interdisciplinary, multi-dimensional and multi-cultural, and to institutionalize this field throughout the structure and functions of the entire institution, including its governance and outreach" (Mestenhauser, 2002a, p.5).

Historically institutional internationalization did not take root until after World War II when it addressed on one hand the growing interrelatedness of peoples around the world and on the other hand the growing ignorance about it. Since then, it came to involve more than curriculum creation, but also developing linkages, partnerships, and collaborative research arrangements with institutions in other countries, fostering connections among faculty, student

¹¹ In my case study, I will analyze only the first level of the curriculum (because the curriculum is not the focal point of the research but only one of six components of internationalization and because of the limited data sources); however, all three levels are included in literature review. I hope that my work will inspire future scholars to analyze the other two levels of curriculum in connection to internationalization.

and scholar exchange, and international development activities. In other words, internationalization is not just integrating international/global/intercultural perspective into teaching, research, and service functions of an institution (conf. Knight, 1999, van der Wende 2003, de Wit, 2007), it is a transformational change that has transformed higher educational institutions into “real” transnational organizations.

Ellingboe (1999) looks at international education in those terms and draws primarily from experiences of a several American and European higher education institutions. Her also commonly cited definition reflects the comprehensive approach, which will be taken up and advocated for also in this study:

“**Internationalization** is the ongoing, multidimensional process of organizational change that guides institutions in making internal changes in order to respond and adapt to increasingly diverse and globally shaped external, environmental factors outside the campus gates.”

(Ellingboe, 1999, p.33)

Overall, the process involves stakeholders, components and concepts that are to be implemented through certain well-understood strategies. According to Mestenhauser (2002a), there are traditionally recognized seven components of international education. These are learning domains in which international education is done, namely: international studies, area studies, foreign languages, and international dimension of academic disciplines, educational exchanges of students and scholars, development assistance and university agreements, and policies and administration of international education. (Mestenhauser, 2002a, p. 3).

These components will be used in my study as a basis for research, but I adopted the categories slightly to make them researchable in the Czech conditions as follows:

- **Curriculum;**
- **Research and networking;**
- **Involvement and mobility of (international) faculty and students;**
- **Administration of internationalization;**
- **Leadership** of the institution (strategic planning, human resources, et al.);
- **Structure and culture of the institution;**
- **Outreach and service to the society.**

In connection to internationalization, some higher educational institutions began claiming that they are already excellent institutions on the grounds that education is universal as the etymology of the word “university” suggests. According to Scott (2002) however, this is a myth because higher education has been historically defined by national governments which

makes universities basically national institutions with a major mission of protecting national traditions. This can be easily proved by comparing higher education institution across cultures and finding out how much they differ. If we agree that higher education institutions do have a national character, some to greater or lesser degree according to the level of centralization, government style, history, culture, totalitarian government, etc., then international education will mean for them a program of change. The consequence is that universities differ greatly in the ways in which they introduce international education into their national systems. It may thus be useful to focus on the internationalization of education, separately in the USA and in Europe in the following chapter.

1.7.2 Definition of Other Used Terms

Multicultural education is used as a comprehensive term that is part of the discourse on multiculturalism and includes various approaches (liberal, pluralistic, critical) that have developed through the history after the civil rights movement in U.S.A. The term in Czech would be translated as “multikulturní výchova or interkulturní vzdělávání”, the latter has been lately advocated for more because of its etymological interpretation of the Latin prefix “inter”, which especially in the German and Czech scholarship is deemed to represent the mutual relationships and influence of groups much better. In my thesis, I stay with the old term multicultural education, because in U.S.A. the term remains to be used in today’s critical multiculturalism discourse, and thus evidently includes the dimension of interrelatedness, which it is accused of not to have in Europe.

Intercultural diversity is term that includes both domestic multicultural (ethnic) diversity and international (state, nation) diversity. It usually allows an individual to have both identities or develop and change his/her identity. From this perspective, **intercultural education/learning** is a bridge between intercultural and international education (Van der Wende, 2000).

Curriculum is more than the complete portfolio of required and elective courses, the variety of disciplines, and the breadth and depth of program offered by an institution; it concerns what Walterová, Průcha, Mareš (1995) call the process of education and its content (“průběh studia a jeho obsah”) with its purposes, procedures, evaluations. In this study it has its “hidden”, “enacted” and “experienced” form which is considered in a broader cultural and societal context. (See also definitions above McCormick and Murphey, 2000 and approaches to curriculum examined in wider context by McNeil, 1999).

Globalization refers to changes in the economic, social, political and cultural environments brought e.g. by global competition, the integration of markets, increasingly

dense communication network, information and money flows and mobility (conf. Van der Wende, 2003).

University is a complex higher education organization that is formally authorized to offer and confer advanced degrees in a number of academic disciplines or fields of study. It can be described by OECD classification as ISCED 5A level and ISCED 6. In some countries universities are higher degree granting institutions as opposed to colleges, which are more comprehensive. Universities in the Czech Republic are non-profit organizations that have usually an ascribed a higher status than other higher education institutions.

Higher education is a descriptor used to include all postsecondary and tertiary institutions (in Czech: vyšší odborné školy, vysoké školy univerzitního i neuniverzitního typu). The International Association of Universities distinguishes between universities and other institutions of higher education. Universities can be also classified according to the degree provided and according to the character (see e.g. Carnegie classification)

International education is an interdisciplinary field of knowledge that has its own components, perspectives, theories, models, organizational structures and approaches that are connected to international activities, processes of schools.

Internationalization is an ongoing, system-wide process of change to respond to and adapt to an increasingly diverse, globally focused, ever-changing external environment. In this thesis the process concern higher education institutions.

Organizational change is the process of transforming some dimension within an organization into something new and different; it may involve change agents and a strategic plan and is part of organizational development

Strategic planning is an internationally reflective process used to guide stakeholders in thinking about the purpose of their organization and reaching their goals including evaluation.

Cross-cultural psychology is a scientific study of human behavior and mental process, including both their variability and invariance, under diverse cultural conditions." (Ho & Wu, 2001, p. 4). According to Segall, Dasen, Berry, & Poortinga (2005) **intercultural psychology** deals with cultural securities and is rather applied in intercultural trainings and intercultural communication where as cross-cultural psychology makes comparisons of cultures, many times long-term comparisons and generalizations. (E.g. Hofstede's dimensions of cultures). (In Czech conf. "Interkulturní psychologie" from Průcha, 2005, Šulová and Morgensternová 2007.)

Intercultural communication (also frequently referred to as **cross-cultural communication**) is a field of study that looks at how people from differing cultural backgrounds endeavor to communicate. (Conf. DeVries, Mikk, 2007).

Intercultural sensitivity is usually associated with Developmental Model of Intercultural Sensitivity developed by Milton Bennett and means to have intercultural competencies that will allow one to orientate him/herself in today's diversified society (for more see Šulová, Morgensternová, 2007, p. 9)

Stakeholder a member of organization, or a party who affects, or can be affected by, an organization's actions

Organizational culture is based on norms and values, behaviors, and thinking that create the specific common culture. (Conf. Galpin, 1996, p.1).

Climate of school. Definitions of this vary according to the complexity. It usually includes relationships and atmosphere and is perceived as less comprehensive than culture. (conf. more comprehensive definition including parents, curriculum and services provided, organizational structure, community by Čáp, Mareš, 2001, pp. 581.) Armstrong (2002) suggests that the difference can be defined as climate of organization being dependent on how people perceive their culture (p.204).

Leadership is differentiated from management (which is structure for and process of planning, co-coordinating and directing activities of people). Leadership is a process guiding others in a certain direction in a pursuit of a vision and goals, implementing them and evaluating them (Pol, 2006b, p.21).

“Internacionální výchova” is education of pupils aimed at learning knowledge about other cultures in order to enable pupils to understand these cultures and comprehend that human dignity and rights are shared by everyone. (“je vzdělávání a výchova zacílená na to, aby u žáků vytvářela poznatky o jiných kulturách, aby jim umožňovala těmto kulturám rozumět a chápat, že lidská důstojnost a práve se vztahují na všechny lidi” (Průcha, 2001, p. 97)

“Mezinárodní pedagogika” is defined by Walterová (19993, p. 123) as “a) a synonym to comparative education as a defining term for research activities aimed as learning about other countries; and b) in a broader sense also includes real-life international activities (international projects, expertise, consulting, cooperation of schools etc.)¹².

¹² She lists studies and books described as mezinárodní pedagogika (international education). Her list of kinds of studie is rather of a comparative character and does not include international activities- as the author declares it is based on topics and of studies included in International Encyclopedia of Comparative education by Husén, T . Postelthwaite, T .N.,1985.

Borderless education – is being used more and more lately, and usually refers to physical mobility of students, which is usually assumed to be part of a broader international education. (Conf. Knight 2003c, p. 2)

Cross-border/ transnational education – refers to international e-learning type of education, double degrees and cotuteles. It is usually assumed to be part of a broader international education. (conf. Knight, 2003c, p.2)

2 Survey of literature

The subject of this research study is exceptionally complex because it deals with the entire world, with the more than two hundred nations that comprise this world, and also with “education” which is also a complex field that deals with pedagogy, learning theories, teaching, knowledge and knowledge production and utilization, and with changes in the educational systems in order to bridge the gap between what people know and what they should know. Therefore, I conducted extensive review of the literature about international education from domestic and international sources (mostly U.S. and European) in order to seek help with definitions and theoretical framework that will anchor the methodology of my research and limit the study to a manageable scope that deals only with higher education.

In order to set a frame of reference for this chapter, I first provide a historical review of international education and the intellectual tradition from which it comes. Because the field of international education was developed as both a field of research and practice in the United States, I then describe the American literature that helped define the field. One feature of it is that the universities were not able to influence the development of a national policy, which eventually fell on a group of academic and professional national associations that carried the agenda. I deal with their agenda in the next section of this chapter in which I describe the role of various study groups, commissions and task forces that were designed to affect the national policy by publishing strategic papers. This is a unique feature of the American educational system that is highly decentralized and lacks the kind of national direction that we see in most countries having strong ministries of education. Next I repeat the survey of literature in Europe noting on the existing scholarship in the Czech Republic, and describe similar documents that were put together to influence both national policies of individual states and policy of the European Union (including the Czech Republic).

2.1 Historical Background and Policies of internationalization

2.1.1 International education in the U.S.

The historical antecedents of international education have not been fully established. In reality we do not have a comprehensive historiography of international education anywhere, be it in the USA, Europe, Japan, Pacific Countries, or Central and Eastern Europe. According to Mestenhauser, depending on the frame of reference, its beginnings can go back to the Middle Ages when wandering scholars traveled freely from university to university. For comparison, European authors: Welsch and Denman (1997) go much farther back in history and offer a historical account of the internationalization of education, tracing its emergence through developments of eastern and western education from Confucius's belief that "he could teach all, including those in neighboring countries" and the Sophists of the 5th century Greece, who argued that education could occur in any location. One could also think of Czech forerunners of international education like J.A. Komenský and other famous educators known for their application of international knowledge in their education approaches. However, it is misleading to trace it to antiquity because "modern" concepts of international education with their theoretical background developed only recently, partly during the Cold War, and especially after the collapse of the Soviet Union. Mestenhauser (1998) distinguishes three distinct phases can be traced only since 1940's (pp. 10)

2.1.2 The four phases of international education

2.1.2.1 The First Phase

The first phase he called "euphoria" that lasted roughly from the passage of the Fulbright legislation in 1946 to the Vietnam War and the oil crisis in 1960's and 1970's. Foundations and governments supported international education liberally, faculty traveled abroad and research and publications abounded in US. The components of the field were defined and still exist today: international relations, foreign languages, internationalization of liberal arts and professional education, foreign student, study abroad, faculty exchanges, development contracts, university-to-university exchange agreements, administration of international programs, research, policy (Mestenhauser, Ellingboe, 1998). According to Mestenhauser (1998), little institutional memory exists about the following publications, which should be regarded as true classics: Amir, 1969, Dubois, 1964, Education and World Affairs, 1964, 1965, 1967, Coombs, 1964 Ford Foundation, 1960 etc.)

2.1.2.2 The Second Phase

The second phase, which can be termed as “darkening clouds”, began with the International Education Act 1966, a fiasco that was passed by Congress but has never been funded and that became a bad omen for subsequent efforts to resuscitate interest in international education. Although the term “international education” has existed since the end of the World War I, its comprehensiveness was coined by the drafters of the International Education Act of 1966 in which a variety of fragmented disciplines and programs were lumped together under “international education”. The term was defined by outsiders who put all players, regardless of their varied interests, together on the same field (Mestenhauser, 1998, p. 10).

International education as a system was born, but it was a system whose parts were largely disintegrated and fragmented. The “partners” brought uneven conceptual strengths and intellectual resource to each other. They represented primarily scholars of international relations and Area Studies and various foreign language groups. Non-curricular programs were subsumed under categories of foreign students, study abroad, scholar exchanges, and later enhanced to include development projects, collaborative arrangements and cross-border curricular programs. For many years, they preferred it this way, on the ground that separately they could better raise funds for their discrete causes. For these reasons, comprehensive definitions of international education are difficult to formulate (Mestenhauser, 1998, p. 10) as shown in preceding section on Definition of Terms. Unfortunately, this International Education Act, apart from its shortcomings, although passed by Congress, was never funded and thus lapsed.

The initial euphoria created false expectations of large and permanent resources and the subsequent failure to fund this act devastated the international programs of universities, which expected federal funding to replace grants from foundations. According to Mestenhauser (1998) the most significant failure was that the universities did not manage to “mainstream” international education into “hard item” regular academic programs and sustained programs through unbudgeted “soft” funding and grants (p.11). The failure to provide hard funds was also caused by one of the international education’s paradigms: international relations theory, which meant that universities provided international affairs specialists. International education became associated with international relations which were “the function of Washington and a few specialists associated with foreign policy International education happened to be an add-on to the established academic programs.

2.1.2.3 The Third Phase

The third phase began in early 1980's when Reagan administration proposed enormous funding cuts to federal international programs, particularly to Fulbright program. By that time, private foundations have ceased to fund international education, so that the Fulbright, Title IV of the National Defense Education Act¹³ and the Agency for International Development (AID) became the only defining funding agencies.

2.1.2.4 Fourth Phase

The break of totalitarian governments together with massive globalization processes have marked the contemporary phase which has been marked by a heavy call for international education after September 11. At one hand, international education was now subsumed under a new paradigm, connected to globalization, of international competitiveness (NAFSA, 2007) and university education began to compete with a number of for-profit training agencies, which sprung up everywhere. Unfortunately, the universities were unenthusiastic and too slow to embrace the new agenda that was left to various national professional and academic societies who became international education advocates and began calling for the end of parochialism and the opening of the Ivory Tower to the changing world.

At the same time September 11 made all Americans pause and question whether they understood the outside world, which happened to be at the same time that still so much was interconnected with them. Globalization, too, can be seen as the cause that has obliterated the distinction between being foreign and domestic concerns. International education has regained its rationale of democratic values and understanding as is evident from the resolution passed by the US Senate calling for an International Education Policy (2000), and from thirteen states that have recognized international education as being essential for the states' future.

The corresponding domestic program of multi-cultural education that was created in the 1960's on a parallel but separate track is beginning to discover a common interest with international education under the heavy calls for the benefits of campus diversity. This study will address the similarities and differences in another section.

I will now turn to the unique form of literature about international education, the various strategic papers produced by various organizations and alliances that have shaped the education policy of higher education institutions in the last 50 years or so.

¹³ National Defense Education Act was a reaction to launch of Sputnik in 1957. The act contained ten titles to improve the schooling. Title IV created national Defense Fellowships for university students, Title VI provided support for modern foreign language teaching. For more see Erick I. Lindman, *The Federal Government and Public Schools*. Washington, D.C.: American President's Committee on Education, 1958.

2.1.3 Strategic Papers

The failure of the International Education Act (1966), which replaced individual universities as carriers of the international education agenda, moved several prominent educational, academic and professional associations to decide that the US needed a national policy. Soon a number of sophisticated position papers were added to the list of literature on which this part of the literature review is based. Although these papers are not exactly research, they are based on factual data and thus a legitimate source of knowledge about international education. They will be considered next.

One of the first reports was published in 1965 by Education and World Affairs 1965 entitled *The University Looks Abroad*. It focused on the involvement, commitment, coordination and leadership direction of international education as primary responsibility of universities themselves. It described different administrative structures that nevertheless lead to the same goals of internationalization, ranging from Michigan State University's highly structured and greatly staffed central office to Stanford's prestigious coordinating committees of faculty members involved in international studies and programs, "Education and World" 1965, p. 26). This report, even though 34 years old, considered coordinating its international activities in two ways as an institution-wide approach and an individual approach. If the internationalization of an institution is to be meaningful, the report clearly identified institutional leadership as being required to develop adequate long-range planning and assessment and reassessment of the institutions' goals and objectives (p. 25 in Ellingboe, p. 13). In the following years, hundreds of books and articles were written on internationalization of campuses. The interest in a system-wide approach seems to be still topical.

The world has changed and education has been reacting to different needs. Arguments in favor of internationalization have developed and gained strength in U.S. especially since the end of the Cold War that signaled the new globalizing trends, namely international dimensions of careers, global communication networks and influx of people from other cultures, nations, and continents. Many institutions have been proactive in responding to these factors in order to prepare their students to be global citizens and future leaders in a vastly changing world affected by international communications among people and international relations among states (nations), and international organizations. Some institutions have not responded at all to the many global challenges surrounding them leaving their curricular portfolios and institutional priorities, student bodies and faculty knowledge bases rather ethnocentric, insular and isolated from the changes occurring outside the ivory tower.

Some of the most urgent and conceptually most sophisticated position papers have been dated after 1989 era and are the work of some of the most prominent educational associations

that have been involved in higher education discussions about internationalization. They include the following: NAFSA, (National Association of Foreign Student Advisers, founded in 1948), the American Association of State Colleges and Universities (AASCU), the American Council Education (ACE), the Association of American Colleges and Universities (AACU), the American Association of Community Colleges (AACC), the Council of graduates Schools (CGS). IIE (Institute of International Education, 1919), CIEE (The Council on International Educational Exchange, 1947), and the National Association of State Universities and Grant Colleges (NASULGC).

These U.S. national organizations have warned higher education leaders about the dangers of parochialism, geographic illiteracy, and multicultural ignorance, and singularly focused disciplines in task force reports and annual reports. Space does not permit to discuss these documents in great detail (for a more comprehensive review see Appendix I).

- 1) The President's Commission on Foreign Languages and International Studies Report: *Strength Through Wisdom – A Critique of U.S. Capability* (1979).
- 2) The Association of American Colleges' Report *Widening the Circle: the Humanities in American Life: A Report of the Wingspread Conference on the Humanities and Higher Education* (1981);
- 3) U.S. Department of Education and the National Commission on Excellence in Education's *A Nation at Risk the Imperative for Educational Reform* (1983);
- 4) The Association of American Colleges' *Report on Integrity in the College Curriculum* (1985 and 1990 editions);
- 5) The Council on International Education Exchange's (CIEE's) *Educating for Global Competence* (1987);
- 6) *The National Task Force Report* produced by the Association of the International Educators NAFSA), CIEE and the IIE (1990);
- 7) The Association of American Colleges' report to the Nationals Assembly on Foreign Language and International Studies entitled *Toward Education with a Global Perspective* (1990);
- 8) The American Council on Education (ACE): *Educating Americans for a World in Flux: Ten Ground Rules for Internationalizing Higher education* (1995);
- 9) Association of International Education Administrators' (AIEA's) report entitled *Guidelines for International Education at U.S. Colleges and Universities* (1995);
- 10) The American Council on Education and the Commission on International Education: *Educating for Global Competence: America's Passport to the Future* (1998);
- 11) AACU's *Globalizing Knowledge: Connecting International and Intercultural Studies* (1999);
- 12) NAFSA and the Alliance for International Educational and Cultural Exchanges issue a call *Toward an International Education Policy for the United States* (2000);
- 13) President Clinton issues *Executive Memorandum on International Education* (2000);
- 14) *Beyond September 11: A Comprehensive National Policy on International Education* (2002) by ACE;
- 15) AACU's *Making Diversity Work on Campus: A Research-Based Perspective, 2005*;
- 16) *College Learning for the New Global Century*, AACU, 2005;

- 17) NAFSA's *An International Education Policy For U.S. Leadership, Competitiveness and Security*(2006); and *To American Public: International Education is Key to Preparing Next Generation* (2006);
- 18) *At Home in the World: Bridging the Gap Between Internationalization and Multicultural Education*, (ACE, 2007);
- 19) *A Call to Leadership* (2007) published by the National Association of State Universities and Land Grant Colleges.

Strength Through Wisdom – A Critique of U.S. Capability (1979) stresses language competence, papers *A Nation at Risk the Imperative for Educational Reform* (1983) and *Educating for Global Competence* (1987) call for understanding and adapting to the changing world. In 1995 several organizations (ACE, CIEE, NAFSA, AASCU, AAC) have joined with the Association of International Education Administrators (AIEA) and published famous document *Educating Americans for a World in Flux: Ten Ground Rules for Internationalizing Higher Education* with specific guidelines for internationalization. They include (pp.7-8 In Ellingboe, p. 15): 1. Stating goals for internationalization (building links with other disciplines and colleges); 2. Rebuilding the core curriculum (more international in content, issues, cultures, and disciplines); 3. Making international activities part of the faculty reward structure (including institutional incentives to hire new faculty members with international experience and to reward faculty with international experience during salary, promotion, and tenure review); and 4. Reviewing programs and majors.

President Clinton issued *Executive Memorandum on International Education* (2000) which is further elaborated *Beyond September 11: A Comprehensive National Policy on International Education* (ACE, 2002). Internationalists and multiculturalists were brought down to one round table for *At Home in the World: Bridging the Gap Between Internationalization and Multicultural Education* (ACE, 2007). *A Call to Leadership* (2007) published by NASULGC stands out because it addressed the presidents and leadership of higher education institutions. It advocates internationalization not as an additive to the “must-do list”, but as “one significant act that can transform and enliven our institutions” (NASULGC, 2004, p. v). The paper empowers presidents and provides them with strategies how to “articulate, advocate and act” (p. v).

All reports are persuasive wake-up calls for international and sometimes also multicultural education. They all urge educators, leaders, policy makers, and others to take expedient action in order to change the situation. The first report from the Cold War era emphasizes the competence in foreign languages and international awareness (one may say alertness) and the most recent papers view internationalization as a system-wide change of schooling at the tertiary level.

It is hard to assess the impact of the above listed strategic papers because they have been prescriptive in some sense, but mostly did not include strategies as to how schools could implement the aims of internationalization and could continue to developing them. Most of the papers lacked the long-term dimension of internationalization and introduced internationalization as a reform that can be achieved without needing continuing attention. There are so many papers that, in order to make transition from ideas in paper to ideas in practice, and to secure the development of the reform in specific institutions, a very experienced internationalist is needed. The papers were rather general (little bits of history, politics, of sociological comments on the changing world, didactics of higher education, etc.) and not discipline-specific or faculty-oriented. However, higher education is intended as a preparation for specific occupation and thus needs to treat internationalization in a specific way. Therefore it has been always up to the individual HEI how much they have included internationalization in their visions and how well they have operationalized that in their strategic planning in all institutional unit and also how well they have assess their progress and redefined their goals. These strategic papers are for the above-mentioned reasons not cited very often in the scholarship.

NAFSA 1998 convened a session with the presidents of these higher education associations to discuss efforts to internationalize various institutions types. All of the aforementioned groups were present at this discussion. The presidents' attitudes were very committed to internationalizing higher education. However, they did not reveal strategies or tactics how to further the effort, all of them relayed examples of various components of internationalization (curriculum, study abroad) that have been strengthened as a result of discussion among their member. They acknowledged internationalization still was not a priority everywhere, though their associations have discussed it with their membership at annual meetings.

Still, there is reason to believe that they have had some impact on the institutional level. All the above-mentioned organizations have a long history and tradition in shaping higher education in U.S. For example since 1990 when AAU was established (originally involving 15 universities), its aim was to share policies and best practices among the leadership of the universities. These influences can be documented especially because the higher education system in U.S. is otherwise much decentralized (Ripková, 2006) and the government has never been in the position to dictate the role of higher education institutions and shape the outcomes of teaching in higher education unlike in the Czech Republic.

This proves how hard it is to make a comprehensive change in the higher education, which has been shaped by a centuries-old tradition. When thinking about ways of

internationalization the higher education it is necessary to understand: the theory of change, possible barriers and resistance factors to the change and that is not possible without having a comprehensive picture of the institution. The realization of goals and policies set by strategic papers in practice will be discussed in detail in chapter on Discussion of Findings in connection to the case study.¹⁴

2.1.4 Background to internationalization in Europe

According to the review of literature, it seems that unlikely to USA, internationalization had not been dominated the education policy or research on the European continent until very recently. In the following section, I would like to develop this argument and show what forms and rationales internationalization takes up in Europe, in comparison to U.S.

One of the most prominent European scholars in the field, Van der Wende (1997) in her *National Policies for Internationalization of Higher Education in Europe* gives an account that internationalization had played only a minor role in governmental policies in higher education. In search for an answer as to why this was the case, she reviewed a great amount of strategic documents from individual European countries and came up with a list of major influential issues of higher education in Europe, where internationalization does not appear. Her list of main issues in European higher education over the last few decades goes as follows:

- Early 1960's the relationship between education investment and economic growth;
- Late 1960's expansion, institutional diversification and equality of opportunity;
- Late 60's and 70's: student centered approaches in curricula and teaching methods
- From the mid 1970's /early 1980's employment problems of graduates relationship with labor market
- Since the 1980's: governance and management of higher education, combined with evaluation and quality control (p. 430)

In the same breath, she adds (citing Teichler) that "We are in a stage of reorientation of major issues and we are not yet aware about the next major focus of higher education policy as well as higher education research. I tend to predict that we might consider internationalization of higher education as the next theme which gives rise to a new focus of both higher education policy and higher education research" (Teichler In Van der Wende 1997, p. 16).

This quote seems to support the suggestions that internationalization is a very recent, or in some sense even a prospective issue of higher education in Europe. At the same time, however, Western European governments undertook activities in the field of international cooperation and exchanges with the view to decolonization, and in the case of Eastern

¹⁴ For American discussion of barriers of bringing strategic papers to practice see "Missing in Action: Leadership in International Education" (Mestenhauser, 2000 appendix)

European countries with the view to cooperation of communist countries before that. (see on national policies below). Later the European integration process introduced the various parts Europe mobility and exchanges programmes, and most recently, some other aspects of the Bologna Process like the quality assurance and concept of competitiveness in knowledge society and in globalized market-economy.

According to Dutch and Welmann (1997, In Van der Wende, 2005, not numbered) higher education became implicitly internationalized the periods before and after the second world war, through, for example: a) the mass movement of refugees and migrants; b) the growing dominance of North American scholarship; c) the use of higher education as means of international influence (as a feature of both colonial and Cold War period) and integration; d) the move from elite to mass higher education.

That means that internationalization of some form has been around a long time. It had the form of cooperation among schools, educators traveling abroad, universities or comparative approaches to education and research of individual scholars¹⁵ or international organizations (e.g. World Bank, OECD, UNESCO, IEA, BIE, etc.). Crowther (2000) says that those who took interest in international matters in higher education in 60's and 70's were rather language studies. The only programs involving study abroad were language degrees at that time (p. 36). International at that time usually meant "languages" and was the domain of "specialists" and perceived as not relevant for others.

In the 80's, the emergence of increase awareness of the importance of an international dimension in higher education was stimulated by EC initiatives such as ERASMUS. This program focused mainly on the mobility and it is important to remember that it was essentially a bottom-up approach where enterprising individuals set up international cooperation partnerships and got financial support from Brussels. According to Crowther (2000) although, the scope and scale of activities grew, it remained in many cases marginal to higher education institutions' policies (p. 36).

Still, the introduction of SOCRATES in 1996 clearly marked the EU's wish to make internationalization more central to the agenda of higher education institutions and an element of their and nation's strategy. Internationalization appeared more and more in discourse in late 90's in connection to the so-called Bologna Declaration, which encouraged structural reforms to achieve better compatibility between systems. The process towards internationalization is characterized with political endeavors as well as specifically focused research and theory since then (Van der Wende, 1997b, p. 10).

¹⁵ e.g. Drtina, Velinský, Přihoda, Singule, Sýkora

According to Van der Wende (1997b, p. 17) “it is extremely important to note that if one accepts to narrowing down of the concept of internationalization to that of academic mobility and cooperation, then an extensive and very specific bibliography turns out to be available”. Huisman (2007) adds that if only for the fact that many consider mobility of staff and students to be the activity that represents internationalization best, there is a lot of research (p. 4). In addition, mobility has a considerable tradition across the globe, lending itself “easily” to investigate. In addition, the support from national and supranational policies (ERASMUS, SOCRATES) has helped to bring mobility in the spotlight. Research has focused on fact-finding, the evaluation of national mobility programs , the evaluation of supranational mobility programs and the student experience .

Van der Wende sees (2005) on of the main reasons why internationalization was not a strategic goal of policy papers in the way internationalization has been conceptualized and perceived on the European continent. For in the case of European strategic paper, unlikely to the U.S. definition of internationalization, internationalization refers rather to the international cooperation, student mobility and exchange or creation of supra-national programs.

An important shift in rationales and paradigm has been occurring in the last several years. From mainly cultural and educational rationales, internationalization is increasingly motivated by economic rationales and motives (Kalvermark and Van der Wende, 1997). These may be related to short-term economic benefits (e.g. institutional income from fees), or long-term interests (e.g. establishing trade relationships). This trend is linked to a paradigm shift from cooperation to competitions, which can at present be observed in Europe and European strategic documents (Van der Wende, 1999). It seems that the cultural enrichment and educational improvement or catching-up has been saturated and a new competitive rationale reacting to the haunting globalization has replaced declarations of common European cultural heritage and understanding. After having demarcated the borders of who belongs on the European continent (e.g. higher education area), internationalization serves as a means to rival the rest of the world (conf. Campbell & Van der Wende, 2000, p. 9).

2.1.4.1 National Policies before the Bologna Process

Before the Bologna Process, many European countries had national policies of some kind of internationalization. Internationalization could have been mentioned in higher education bills or plans, but in general, the implementation was realized through separate policy documents, according to budget lines and often through special agencies. National policies have started to formulate their policy ideas on internationalization only after 1994. According to Van der Wende (1997), no information on procedures for regular monitoring and evaluation of internationalization could be defined in the national documentation before 1997.

Internationalization was not subject to governmental evaluation, and it was the responsibility of institutions whether or not they internationalized themselves, as well as how and to what extent. Van der Wende (1997) pointed out that since it was only in few aspects weakly integrated into the mainstream higher education policy of the country, it had not been considered as a serious indicator for educational performance or quality criterion before the Bologna Process begun. E.g. the strong movement toward prioritization of internationalization in the Czech policy documents can be seen even later, only since 2005.

Van der Wende managed to support her argument of fragmentation and scarcity of the strategic documents and research at the European continent before the 90's by providing a very thorough review of national (European) policy documents in her comprehensive study called *National Policies on Internationalisation in Europe* (1997).

E.g. Germany in the Framework Act on Higher Education from the return of the 90's stated that institutions of higher education shall promote international and, in particular, European cooperation in the higher education sector and the exchanges of students and staff between Germany and foreign institutions; they shall take specific needs of foreign students into account (Schnitzer and Korte, 1995 p. 2 In Van der Wende 1997, p. 21). Similarly, France had reflected already before the Bologna Process priorities of student exchanges (in particular in Europe and other "industrialized" countries, guaranteeing recognition of diplomas, double-degree and co-supervised PhD studies (Van der Wende, 1997, p. 21).

Sweden, Finland and Netherlands had within Europe a relatively long tradition of including some internationalization in their national policies. Netherlands stimulated specific programs since 1988 by the government. Finland since 1996 stresses the role of ICT in lowering barriers to international interaction. Sweden had a firmly installed budget bill by parliament for establishing links with Nordic, European and especially developing countries (ibid).

On the other hand, Van der Wende (1997) argued that Central and Eastern European (CEE) countries have been fundamentally different in their perspective on internationalization. Their motive for internationalization has moved from political to economic one since 1989. According to her (1997), the re-establishment of contact with foreign academe was of prime importance. The international cooperation initiatives that were set up had the purpose of assistance with educational reform in general. In particular the EU-funded Tempus program had its specific aim, being constituent of wider goal of assisting the CEE countries in their transition to democratic countries. Before that, the international cooperation was far more limited in scale and concerned primarily other CEE countries, the former USSR and various developing countries (p. 200).

Van der Wende (1997) openly wrote that internationalization of CEE countries in the 90's meant "standardization in terms of bringing curricula in line with Western standards. This does not imply that an international dimension is integrated in the curriculum itself, although it may often be, especially in such areas as law..." (p. 206) Internationalisation is not merely aim to itself, but an important resource in the development of higher education of CEE countries after 1989 (Lajos, 1996, in Van der Wende 1997, p. 207).

She further added: "Before changes in 1989, the limited degree of international cooperation of CEE countries was based mainly on political and cultural motives, and only to a very modest extent on educational or economic rationales. In, Particular, of course, the then Soviet policy of cooperation with CEE countries and developing countries was politically and partly culturally based. The current basic concept can be defined as a wish to rejoin the European educational community and closely related to joining European Union" (p. 215).

With regard to the Czech scholarship, it seems that there was a strongly felt interest in rejoining the international higher education community after years of relative isolation by sharing international experience in teaching and research. To name few scholars: Walterová, Rýdl, Kotásek, Kasíková, Pol, and others have fostered international scholarship.

Overall, looking at the rationalization, internationalization was meant to "connect" national (European) educational systems and in the case of new member states also improve the quality by restructuralization. The rationale for internationalization was in connection to European integration after 1989 much more political and economic (on the part of CEE countries) than educational and cultural; though there is substantial growth to be seen in the educational and economic, this is an era of Europe as a global competitor, lately usually voiced in connection to the Lisbon strategy.

Apart from the different rationale of Europe-based internationalization from the reiterated American, "mission" internationalization of understanding the world. It seems that it should be seriously considered if one should rather use the term "Europeanization" instead of the term "internationalization" in the European policy context of Bologna Process, at least until recent opening up to the world, as suggested above. The comparison of European to American rationalization of the concept will be dealt in further detail in Chapter 3.

2.1.4.2 The European policy

As suggested above, by posing the question whether internationalization should not be called Europeanization, the concept of internationalization has been viewed mostly in a much narrower sense in European policy. As Van der Wende (1997) writes, the European scholarship has been concerned with mobility rather than with internationalization as a form of

institutional change or theoretical concepts and wider higher education policy notions (p. 17). It was already late 90's that Van der Wende called for a more comprehensive definition of internationalization (relying on a well known Canadian scholar Knight) and criticized the fact that "internationalization is an aspect of higher education policy that is completely marginal and insignificant, or that it is only very recent" (p. 15). Van der Wende advocated for internationalization as a "systemic, sustained effort aims at making higher education more responsive to the requirements and challenges related to the globalization of societies, economy, and labor market." (p. 15). Her call seemed to have been unanswered for a long time in Europe.

A couple of years later, Van der Wende and Barlban (1999) issued another call for internationalization as institutional-wide strategic development. That year, in her report to ENQUA on *Internationalization of Quality Assurance*, she complained that internationalization was not assessed systematically because it has been viewed as a marginal activity (p. 5). Nevertheless, European strategic papers published in connection to Bologna Process did not relate to her comprehensive approach only until recently. Also the disconnection between wake-up calls (as the one from Van der Wende) and practical implementation at some schools has been great until some of Bologna Declaration have been enforced by the government (see Czech Act 2001 and amendments).

It seems that the introduction of governmental financial incentives based on more comprehensive quality measures seems to press harder on higher education institutions to bring policy papers more seriously (conf. Chap. 5, Discussion of Findings). This idea supports also Van der Wende (1997), according to her, the linkage of state policies to professional association (respectively. to schools themselves) as well as the presence of other influential stakeholders makes higher education institutions to be much more responsive to internationalization in the USA. Such connections and responsibilities of universities toward non-university stakeholders might be also reasons why U.S. universities are more interested in taking implementation of strategic paper more seriously (conf. de Wit, 2002).

With recent developments, one can see that European strategic papers very slowly perceive the need of transgressing its Union borders (e.g. Van der Wende, 2000, EUA's *Institutional Evaluation Program Guidelines*, (2007) and talk about transnational education (in a trans-atlantic sense) and globalization (Amsterdam, International Conference, 2002). This is happening in connection to improving the quality of European universities aiming at their graduates' ability to compete in the open (global) market. Actually, the harmonization process and restructuralization of the higher education into Bachelor, Master, and Doctoral Programs (according to the so called "Dublin Descriptors") also evoked a discussion over the importance

of “internationalizing” the quality assurance, i.e. on intensifying co-operation within Europe on standards and joint testing. Overall, it seems that the questions of quality replaced the harmonization and collaboration topics of the 90’s. As the quality assurance measures are being internationalized/Europeanized, the concept of internationalization is also being subject to quality assurance (Van der Wende & Campbell, 2000).

Lately, the relationship between internationalization and quality improvement has been increasingly discussed. The growing comprehensive tendency of quality assurance in higher education has raised the question over the contribution of internationalization to quality of higher education. After several initiatives from EAIE, ACA (for complete list and dates see Van der Wende, 2000, p. 6), it has become clear that even though internationalization and quality may be linked on the conceptual level, the combination of both has been difficult. First of all, because internationalization has not been monitored only until recently in Europe (unlike the U.S.A.); secondly, internationalization process (e.g. the increased mobility) has had only marginal effects on the quality debates (Van der Wende, 2000, pp. 6-8). In addition, occurring internationalization of quality assurance did not automatically lead to an increased focus on quality assurance of the international dimension in higher education itself.

2.1.4.3 The impact of the Bologna Process

Overall, the Bologna Process has had a major impact on the policies of internationalization in the EU as well as in the Czech Republic as it was above forewhadowed. In the last few years, deregulatory frameworks, especially degree structures, have been adopted and common European quality measures have become the nightmare of many higher education institutions. Above all, it seems that the mobility programs have been the main strategy of the internationalization since the 90’s (Šťastná, 2007, p. 2). Czech national strategic papers (see details below) have relied heavily upon the Bologna Process and recently also adapted the vocabulary of global competitiveness (e.g. stressing the proficiency in foreign language skills, preferably English).

The shift of the paradigm from internationalization as harmonization (through three levels of higher education system) has been connected with the quality assurance and the ability to compete globally. Still the idea of harmonization is being retaken by the preparation of European Qualification Framework. Internationalization’s rationale has evidently shifted from cooperation to competition, which at the present can be observed in Europe. Van der Wende (1999) described how the increasing economic rationales for internationalization

connected to Lisbon goals have been shaping and challenging the way internationalization has been manifested in Europe.

For example, internationalization exemplified by SOCRATES program shifts toward a commercially driven focus on “competition,” accentuated by pressures for international free trade exemplified by GATS. The shift in rationale is also connected to the general concept of globalization (Knight, 2000), liberalization of trade principles and forced market orientation of higher education institutions, deregulations policies in favor of more institutional autonomy, and stronger market influences, etc.(Van der Wende, 1999).

The emergence of international activities in higher education in the 80’s created new situations and needs within institutions. Someone had to find international partners, negotiate with them, apply for funding, and administer the exchanges. It was a new profession and no one had been trained for it. In many case the initiatives were taken by individual faculty members and not necessarily linked to any of their institutions’ priorities. Internationalization was thus very sporadic and unsystematic, in many cases a marginal activity. Recent initiatives such as the Bologna Declaration have encouraged structural reforms. Dismantling of the technical barriers to international access stimulates international cooperation and competition. Both exert a strong pressure for cultural and organization change within institutions of higher education (Crowther, 2000, p.37).

Let us turn now to the review of the main common European strategic papers, which will themselves show the mentioned development of the concept since the late 90’s, i.e. the time Van der Wende describes as the shift in prioritization of internationalization on the European continent at the policy level.

2.1.5 European and Czech strategic Papers

The following list of strategic papers¹⁶ demonstrates the main issues that internationalization in European continent has been tackling and the development as well as shifting of the importance of some topics throughout the time.

- 1) *White Paper on Education and Training. Teaching and Learning. Toward the Learning Society.* Published by the European Commission (1995);
- 2) Council of Europe and UNESCO develop the so-called *Lisbon Convention* (1997);
- 3) *Sorbonne Declaration* is signed by Germany, France, Italy and UK in 1998;
- 4) *Bologna Declaration* signed by 29 countries in 1999 and following communiqué in Prague (2001), Berlin (2003) and Bergen (2005);

¹⁶ For the complete see Appendix I.

- 5) *Salamanca Convention: The Bologna Process and the European Higher Education Area. The Message of Salamanca* (EUA, 2001);
- 6) *International Initiatives and Trends in Quality Assurance for European Higher Education* (European Network for Quality Assurance in Higher Education, 2000);
- 7) *International Dimension of the European Research Area* (EC, 2000);
- 8) *Graz Declaration: Strong Universities for a Strong Europe* published by EUA in 2003;
- 9) *EURASHE's Policy Statement on the Bologna Process - Towards Berlin 2003* (2003);
- 10) *Lisbon Declaration Europe's Universities beyond 2010: Diversity with a common purpose* (EUA, 2007);
- 11) *The Role of Universities in Europe of Knowledge* (EC, 2003);
- 12) *Internationalizing Higher Education: European Responses to the global perspectives* EAIE,EAIR, Amsterdam, 2005;
- 13) *Standards and Guidelines for Quality Assurance in the European Higher Education Area* (European Association for Quality Assurance in Higher Education, Helsinki, 2005);
- 14) *Guidelines for Quality Evaluation* by EUA, 2007;
- 15) *Národní program rozvoje vzdělávání v České Republice –(so called White Paper)2001* (Trans. National policy paper on education in the Czech Republic published by Ministry of Education)
- 16) *Strategie Rozvoje terciálního vzdělávání 2000-2005 (1999)* (Trans. Strategy paper on the development of higher education)
- 17) *Národní politika výzkumu a vývoje na léta 2004-2008* (2003) (Trans. National policy paper on research and innovation during 2004-2008)
- 18) *Koncepce reformy vysokého školství* (2004) a její *Aktualizace* (2005) (Trans. Conception On Reforming the higher education in the Czech Republic and Actualization of the Conception)
- 19) *Dlouhodobý záměr vzdělávací a vědecké, výzkumné, vývojové, umělecké a další tvůrčí činnosti pro oblast vysokých škol na období 2006-2010* (2005) (Trans. Long-term Policy of the Ministry of Education on 2006-2010)

2.1.5.1 European Strategic Papers

White Paper on Education and Training (EC, 1995) was a European strategic document and called for acquisition of new knowledge not only through ICT but also through mobility (especially ERASMUS). The *Lisbon Convention* (1997) was developed by EC and UNESCO (1997) to facilitate access to higher education in another country. Education was part of strategy of economic growth. The *Sorbone Declaration* (1998) and a year later the *Bologna Declaration* was to create European Higher Education Area. Since then European ministers have met every two years. Prague communiqué (2001) called among other for promotion of EHEA; Berlin (2003) set deadlines for adoption of degree structure and recognition of degrees. Bergen (2005) aimed at implementing guidelines for quality and was followed by paper from ENQUA (2005) elaborating on the research methods.

Communiqué in London (2007) was important for it included also discussion over cooperation with non-EU countries. The fact that the topic of opening up to the world was part of the London Communiqué confirms the tendency of other strategic papers and calls from European scholars dealing with internationalization to view internationalization within global

rather than continental borders¹⁷. (for more details on the Bologna Process papers see Appendix I)

There are also strategic papers published by academic association that have shaped the above-mentioned ministerial agreements. One of them is the *Salamanca Convention: the Bologna Process and the European Higher Education Area* produced by EUA (European University Association) in 2001. It is a strategic policy paper envisioning the future of the role of university asking, among other things, for coordination of quality assurance and enhancement of student mobility in connection to the Bologna Declaration.

Also the *Graz Declaration: Strong Universities for a Strong Europe* (2003) is a major EUA policy document seeking to provide a long term vision for European universities “refocusing the Bologna Process to midway 2010“ by stressing the improvement of quality and development of framework for quality assurance and furthering mobility and social dimension as well as inter-institutional cooperation. EURASHE’s *Policy Statement on the Bologna Process - Towards Berlin 2003* (2003) is EURASHE’s statement on the need of the creation of networking structures between higher education institutions.

In 2000, Carolyn Campbell and Marijk Van der Wende published *International Initiatives and Trends in Quality Assurance for European by Higher Education* a report for the European Network for Quality Assurance in Higher Education (ENQUA). It strongly advocates for internationalization as a means to enhancement of quality of higher education and tries to provide a contextual framework of quality assurance in internationalization because, as the authors argued, internationalization was not fully covered by quality assurance procedures. At the same time, the authors acknowledged that international mobility has shifted from being an activity of an elite and range of international activities has increased (p. 5-6). Overall, the paper can be seen as a call for a quality assurance in internationalization, which is shifting its paradigm from cooperation to competition, but it does not provide a more detailed idea of what the quality assurance should look like¹⁸. A similar trend can be seen in the European Commission’s paper *International Dimension for European research Area* (2000). The underlying idea of the document is to make the European research competitive on the global scale.

Standards and Guidelines for Quality Assurance in the European Higher Education Area (2005) published by the same association announced the introduction of quality assurance procedure: internal and external cyclical evaluation of institutions within EHEA as

¹⁷ For more details see www.dfes.gov.uk/londondbologna/index.cfm?fuseaction=docs.list.

¹⁸ OECD publication from European Hans de Witt and Canadian Jane Knight (1999) for OECD (*Developing an Institutional Self-Portrait Using the Internationalization Quality Review Process Guidelines*) expressed more thorough understanding of the system-wide approach to internationalization.

well as other standards like teaching, learning resources etc. One of the proposed standards is also that each school should set up its policy and procedures of internal system-wide evaluation. Unfortunately, internationalization in the paper is restricted to the employment of international evaluation agencies (i.e. foreign institutions and for-profit organizations). Overall, internationalization is present only as an effort of pushing higher education institutions to Europeanization of quality assurance.¹⁹

The Role of Universities in Europe of Knowledge (2003) published by the European Commission, provides among other a comparison of European and American universities in number of graduate students etc. European Universities, according to the paper, face major challenges: 1) increased demand for higher education, 2) internationalization, 3) cooperation with industry, and 4) reorganization of knowledge. As to internationalization, it is seen as one of the current challenges to European universities, which do not attract as many international students as those in the U.S. The paper also criticized the so called “brain drain” from Europe to U.S. European universities. One of the suggested possible ways to tackle the problem is to improve the excellence in European research area.

The above-described double perspective of the European Union towards internationalization was eloquently and openly described by Peter Scott in 2005 in his *Internationalizing Higher Education: European Responses to the Global Perspectives* published by EAIE, EAIR (Kehm & De Wit, 2005, p. 51). He wrote that internationalization has two dimensions: a) Europeanization, in the form of Bologna Process and Lisbon process and the development of EHEA; and b) globalization connected to other areas, for example the growing market with academic services, global student mobility and the effort to create global research universities. These processes then include the different combination of European cooperation and international competitiveness! This topic was a major issue of a EU-funded fifth Framework Program project: Higher Education Institutions’ Responses to Internationalisation, Europeanization and Globalization (TSER-HEIGLO). Findings of this project have been reported Van der Wende (2007).

Lisbon Declaration Europe’s Universities beyond 2010: Diversity with a Common Purpose (EUA, 2007) includes among its main theses is the vision of a university in the Europe of knowledge, the “internationalization of the European Higher Education Area” as the

¹⁹ Other documents on quality assurance published by EUA are: *Developing Joint Masters Programmes for Europe, Results of the EUA Joint Master Project*. (2004). *Guidelines and Quality Enhancement in European Joint Master Programmes*. EMNEM / *European Master New Evaluation Methodology* (2005). *Quality Culture in European Universities: A Bottom-up Approach. Report on the Three Rounds of the Quality Culture Project 2002-2006* (2006). *Embedding Quality Culture in higher education – A selection of paper from 1st European Forum for Quality Assurance* (2007). *Creativity in Higher Education – Report on the EUA Creativity Project 2006-2007* (2007). To be downloaded from: www.eua.be/index.php?i=128

international cooperation and exchange at the European level and urges national governments to support internationalization process through flexible funding tools (together with adaptation of immigrant laws and student mobility) and to ensure that institutions implement long-term international strategies. Nevertheless, the document in general shifted the harmonization process from visible and criticized unifying tendencies to a rather trendy²⁰ support of diversity of higher education in Europe.

In 2007 after some years of research, European debate and legislation reforms²¹ over the quality of higher education institutions in connection to the harmonization process, EUA published *Institutional Evaluation Program Guidelines*, which includes both systematic internal and external evaluation framework. The paper proves the double perspective on internationalization, and separately treats “internationalization” and “Europeanization”, i.e. the Bologna Process. (for details see Appendix) This EUA’s evaluation seems to combine the European narrowly defined internationalization (meaning cooperation and harmonization within EU) and internationalization in the broader global sense concerning some of the issues like curricula infusion or organizational change stressed in the American discourse in quality assurance strategic papers. The two are not yet connected in the strategic paper under one heading or in one chapter though (conf. Scott, 2005 above).

Still, the evaluation framework internationalisation does not include only the mobility and cooperation (or competition) but is slowly approaching the institution-wide perspective. Therefore, internationalization newly permeates the curriculum, teaching, learning, and the strategic planning of the institution. Still, there are areas which are not yet included in the framework, such as organization structures and communication systems, leadership and human resource management, staff, resource allocation, research, strategic planning and evaluation, and so on. It is presently a key framework for self-evaluation of universities in Europe.

Overall, most European strategic papers focus on networking and cooperation within the European area, later comes along on an interest in the quality assurance and development of quality measuring tools. The process can be divided into two parts. According to Lavdas, Papadakis, Gidarikou (2006, p. 136) the first phase is aiming at the comparability and

²⁰ For examples of articles urging for diversified higher education see international journal Higher Education Management and Policy 2000 – 2007.

²¹ Recommendation of the European Parliament and of the Council of 15 February 2006 on the further European Cooperation in quality assurance in higher education (Official Journal L 64 of 04.03.2006); Communication from the Commission of 10 January 2003/ Investing efficiently in education and training: an imperative for Europe (COM(2002)779 final/ Not published in the Official Journal); Communication from the Commission of 20 April 2005 / Mobilising the brainpower of Europe: enabling universities to make their full contribution to the Lisbon Strategy (COM (2005)152 final –not published in the official Journal); Council Recommendation (EC) No 561/98 of 24 Sep. 1998 on European cooperation in quality assurance in higher education (Official Journal L 64 of 04.03.2006). available at:www.europa.eu/scadplus/leg/en/cha/c11067.htm

compatibility of the higher education systems, the second one is aiming at achieving globally competitive European economy..

European policy development does not follow the conceptual development of U.S. policies pronounced in strategic materials. First of all, the strong wake-up call for internationalization is connected to the integration of Europe and since 1999 of the European Union. Rather, internationalization is driven by a political rationale and in the CEE countries (as Van der Wende writes) by “catching up” with the scholarship in other than post socialist countries. This phase can be described as the first Bologna Process phase. The Impact of the phase can be explicitly measured in codification of its main objectives in the national legislation. The implementation of aims pronounced in communiqués is periodically assessed by the reports published (e.g. *Trends* by EUA), so the impact of the agreements of ministers is publicly reflected.

More recent papers seem to be overwhelmed with endeavors of connecting the universities on the “old continent” in order to be competitive globally in connection to the Lisbon goals. Also EUA’s strategic paper *Institutional Evaluation Program Guidelines*, (2007) or one of the latest seminar of EUA in Lausanne²² seem to characterize the shift in the concept of “traditional Europeanization” rather to internationalization in a wider (sometimes global) sense which can be seen as redirection away from “integration and harmonization” to internationalization in the American sense. Together with other mentioned initiatives of EUA (Seminar in Lausanne 2006) or INCA assessment of intercultural sensitivity included in Erasmus Program) and Strategic papers like *The Role of Universities in the Europe of Knowledge*, introduction of Erasmus Mundus (2004) program with non-EU countries they symbolize a shift from the first phase of the Bologna Process, i.e. internationalization of ourselves within the European borders. Scholarship produced by individual European scholars seems to be even more open to global or systematic perspectives (Knight and de Witt, 2002, Van der Wende 2006, Mettinger, 2006; Frans van Vught, 2006)

The European policy development is different from the American one and no similar issues such as: a) bridging the gap between international and multicultural, b) urging for the development of “global competence” that fosters improvement of relations with all regions of the world; c) or a strong advocacy for a system-wide transformation through leadership, can be traced in the European papers.

²² (Arthur Mettinger, van Vught, Van Wende at Leadership Seminar The Challenge of Implementation: The World out there. 2006)

2.1.5.2 Czech strategic papers:

The above-mentioned strategic papers have had definitely an explicit and implicit impact on the Czech policy of higher education in: a) new legislation and b) governmental strategic papers, such as the Conception on Reforming Higher Education and Long-Term Visions of higher education and research, c) institutional strategic documents.

The main legislative arrangements linked to the Bologna Process²³ are the 1998 Act on Higher Education Institutions and its amendments (especially those in force since 2001 and 2006). The legislation created legal framework, which clearly identifies and corresponds with the Bologna scheme of three cycles: bachelor's, master's and doctoral programs (Act 2001). The 2005 amendment of the Act on Higher Education (1998) introduced a possibility of joint degree programs, which are can be carried out in cooperation with a foreign higher education institution. A year later, are the Diploma Supplements to be issued free of charge to all graduates. ECTS²⁴ is not stipulated in legislation, although the award of credits and definition are mentioned in the 2001 Amendment²⁵.

The implementation of the Bologna Process has become an important part of the strategy formulation of the Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports and respective higher education institutions. This principle is concretely expressed in the Long Term Plans and the Bologna Process is also part of the National Policy on Education in the Czech Republic (the so-called White Paper, 2001).

The first listed Czech national strategy paper called the *White Paper* (2001) concerns all stages of education system and is based on Law num. 111/1998 on Higher Education and strategic paper *Czech Education and Europe* (*České vzdělání a Evropa*, 1999). It is concerned with the improvement of financial, organizational, material and legislative conditions. Rather than internationalization, European value orientation (conf. Walterová, Rýdl below), or multicultural education is prioritized at primary and secondary level. The paper is a key step in transformation of the schooling rationale as such. Students were no more the passive listeners but active participants. As far as higher education, it was to be synchronized with European systems and re-structuralized according to Bologna Process and graduates were to be employable at the global markets.

The strategic paper on higher education *The Development Strategy of Tertiary Education for 2000-2005* was originally prepared in 1999 by Ministry of Education but

²³ Preparation for the entering the EU were strategic papers: *České vzdělání a Evropa* based on concepts of life-long learning and where "european dimension", multicultural education and foreign language proficiency were included in section on primary education as a prerequisite for entering the EU (Čerych et al., 1999)

²⁴ According to the Eurydice Report *Focus on the Structure of Higher Education in Europe 2006/2007: National Trends in the Bologna Process* (EURYDICE, 2007), a survey showed that all public higher education institutions in the Czech Republic have introduced the ECTS credit system.

²⁵ For more on the legislation development see Šťastná, 2007.

negotiated with the Czech Council of Universities (Rada vysokých škol) only in 2001 and was quite soon replaced by the next strategic paper called the *Conception on Reforming Higher Education in the Czech Republic* (2004). It focuses on restructuralization of the study programs into modules in accordance with the Bologna Process. Of a great concern is teacher's education at Colleges of Education (pedagogické fakulty). The concept of internationalization in this strategic paper covers mostly the postgraduate studies through the enhancement of student mobility and foreign language skills.

National Research and Development Policy was formulated in (2000) and developed into *National Research Program I* (2004-2009) where international cooperation in research and development was one of its three cross-section program priorities (Šebková, 2006, p. 42). It proposed the idea that research and development in the Czech Republic need to react to globalizing tendencies. Cooperation within the European area is one the possibilities how to react to globalization. The set priority is to use all the potentialities of the European programs and fulfill the Lisbon strategic goals (see above). As far as the cooperation with non-EU members is concerned, the paper says "cooperation will be supported with all states with which traditional relations have been developed for mutual benefits" (p. 8). The paper did not set any concrete guidelines on internationalization, but discusses internationalization as an added value (p.8). That is especially in connection to evaluation of institutions, projects and individual researchers.

Ministry of Education published *A Conception on Reforming the higher education in the Czech Republic* in 2004 and then periodically subsequent Actualization of the Conception. The Conception (2004) is based on materials published by European Union's *Towards Europe of Knowledge*²⁶ and Bologna Process policy papers and keynote address of the government 2002, which binds the government to finish "the reform of higher education as an essential for sustainable development of the the Czech Republic" (p. 6) and on *Law 130/2002 On Support of Research and Development From Public Budget*. The Conception provides an analysis of thence situation (structure, disciplines, funding etc.) of the higher education in the the Czech Republic. Among priorities of the reform are among other the following objectives:

1) Measuring the quality of the universities, which includes "leadership, internationalization, care of students, cooperation with the region, students' and faculty's opinion on the taught curriculum, profile of graduates, quality of services etc." (p. 29);

2) Enhancement of student and faculty mobility;

²⁶

see http://ec.europa.eu/education/doc/other/orient/orie_en.html

3) Equity in chances by restructuring the system and broadening it to postsecondary institutions.

The paper does not provide much detail to how the above-mentioned priorities should be implemented.

The Actualization of the Conception (2005) brings new details in the ways of funding of universities. For example it includes the need to bring international student to Czech universities among recommendations on the human resource development, It is students who pay themselves from India, Thailand and former SSSR; secondly provide scholarships to talented international Ph.D. students, and young international faculty; and foster interracial cooperation on research and innovation. However, a separate section named "Internationalization" is understood only in terms of harmonization of the system with Europe and participation on student mobility programs.

Subsequently to the Conceptions of Policy Reforms were also developed the *Long-term Plans* setting out the goals for certain periods of time. By that the Ministry of Education publishes an official statement concerning its vision that should guide higher education institutions draw their mission statements.

The Long-term Plan of the Ministry of Education 2006-2010 (2005) is more strategic than the *Conception*, which is rather tactic (Ježek, 2005, p. 27) and sheds more light on the role of the university in the society of knowledge and on the quality dimension. It is a very important strategic paper that is based on EU documents, OECD reports and SWOT analysis of Ministry of Education. The Czech Ministry has documented its priorities here, listed practical implications, and revealed that higher education institutions will be evaluated and thus funded according to international European standards. It is a very important paper as far as internationalization and therefore needs to be tackled in more details.

This document is the key to planning, implementation, and administration of internationalization process of higher education in the Czech Republic before the issue of promised White Paper on Higher education (to be published at the end of 2008). It binds higher education institutions to draw annually strategic papers for their institutions. It is promising in the sense that future scholarship and research will react to how Ministry of Education's views of internationalization.

The Paper sets out three priorities, namely: internationalization, quality and excellence of academic processes, quality and culture of academic life. Internationalization is closely related to the Bologna Process and is based on the assumption that opening the university will help competitiveness of future graduates. Among the key guidelines concerning internationalization is:

- 1) The use of ECTS credit system; and
- 2) Enhancement of student mobility (from today's 6% all student should be given the chance to study abroad for at least one year *assuming that 50% of students will study abroad*, the number of international students should be enhanced to 10%);
- 3) 30% of Ph.D. studies should be taught in foreign language; and
- 4) Overall improvement of foreign language skills, all "younger faculty" should be able to teach and communicate in one foreign language (preferably English). (2005, p.4)

It is important to mention that the strategies of internationalization are seen in the support of much greater student mobility. The current numbers of Czech students going to study abroad are low in comparison to other European states. They have increased since 1998 from 1, 0 % to 1, 8 % in 2004. Still there are countries like Luxemburg has 56%, Slovakia 8,2%, Belgium 2,6%, IE 15%, etc.²⁷ The goals are to reach that 50% of students will study abroad at least once before graduation, the number of international students should be enhanced to 10%. How much these numbers are realistic is questionable.

Mechanisms to implement these guidelines include the following: foreign language training, curriculum taught in foreign languages, cooperation with international institutions, mobility and double degree, use of ECTS, employment of young international scholars and possibility of international professional careers. (For more details see Appendix 1.3)

Moreover, the international dimension is also seen as part of quality indicators. For example, foreign language skills of faculty and administration should play a role in evaluation of their work. The interest level of international faculty in working at Czech universities will be also viewed as an indicator of the quality of the institution, similar to what current materials of European Union proposed concerning the university assessment (EUA, 2007²⁸). The assessment of the dimension of internationalization will "enable to find and support strong elements of institutions and its department, which will then develop into the top quality and will enable competitiveness at the European level" (Aula, 04/05, p. 87) The Ministry of Education will use European standards of ENQUA, EUA, EURA and ESIB for measuring the international dimension²⁹.

²⁷ Also numbers of international students are not very high in comparison to other countries. In ISCED 5 there were 2,7% of international students at Ph.D. level in Czech HEIs (mostly human and social sciences and medicine). This seems pretty good in comparison to other eastern European countries like Slovakia with 0,7% or Hungary 1,7 in graduate studies and 5,1% in Ph.D. studies. On the other hand, Austria with 12,5% and 15,7% and 5,1% and 17,4% in UK are much more open to attracting international students (for more details see Key Data on Higher Education in Europe, EURYDICE, 2007)

²⁸ *Guidelines for Quality Evaluation*, EUA 2007

²⁹ the Czech Republic is member of the International Network for Quality Assurance Agencies in Higher Education since 1996 and Network for Central and Eastern European Quality Assurance Agencies in Higher Education since 2001.

A special paragraph is devoted to the education of future teachers (Přípravné vzdělávání pedagogických pracovníků), whereas no other specific discipline of faculty is mentioned or described. The Ministry of Education perceives the need to start any reform with the training of future teachers, because they will prepare future students for universities and thus possible future young scholars and in the course of some 10 years potential untenured professors. However, the only comment related to international (or multicultural) dimension is connected to the need to have multilingual competencies in foreign languages. In discordance to the previous passage and with the set priority of internationalization of the university, the training of future teachers is to develop the following: a positive relationship of pupils to natural sciences and technical disciplines and to broaden the ICT skills in information literacy. It seems that university with its priority of international dimensions does not need to prepare its prospective students for the implementation of said international dimensions.

It is also important to mention that the paper tackles the problem of equal chances of “socially disadvantaged” students under section called “Culture of University Life”, saying:

“The Ministry of Education will, in accordance with international and national documents, see that measures are taken to secure students equal chances in entering and completing their studies. It especially concerns the support of equalizing the education chances of student from high-risk socially and culturally excluded groups, such as physically handicapped and socio-culturally handicapped people” The Ministry of Education will also take into account “cultural events, edifying events and seminars and also partnerships among students and building the sense of coherence to the institution, culture of coherence and solidarity.” (p. 94).

How the Ministry of Education plans to take into account these statements is not described. Also the connection between international and intercultural diversity (see below Internationalization at Home) is not mentioned.

Even though the paper is of a strategic nature, the varied quality of different sections reveals incongruence and inconsistency in the importance in implementation of the concept. The paper includes constructive ideas, like counseling, however nothing is said of what form this counseling should take, who should do the counseling and what skill such counselor should have (apart from speaking English) if he or she should deal with also with equity issues and internationalization.

Overall, the paper is groundbreaking in introducing the term and the concept of internationalization to the Czech system of education. It conforms to the European tendency to view internationalization especially as a matter of mobility – hoping that half of students will have studied abroad in 2010. It does not tackle the service functions or the climate of a

university as a precondition of enlargements of student and scholar mobility. Sections concerning the internationalization of research are very superficial and underdeveloped. Research is internationalized only through strategies of cooperation, networking and international research teams. The need of internationalization of the curriculum is not included at all and internationalization is not mentioned in connection to the service function for the society. Internationalization is not introduced as an institutional change involving faculty, administrators, leadership, students and other school stakeholders. Also the recent concept of Internationalization at Home (as described below) has not probably been taken into account by the authors at all. The paper is still the key to universities when drawing their visions because there is very few scholarship as discussed below that could help them understand internationalization in a more comprehensible way. (Conf. Discussion of Findings for details on the knowledge and usage of the paper by leadership and staff).

2.1.5.3 Notes on scholarship in the Czech Republic

It is obvious that tracking a complex discourse as the international one in the Czech context is not a simple task. As the reader will see below, there is a great deficit in the Czech scholarship in comparison with the U.S.A., the rest of Europe and Asia. The discussion on American scholarship concerned the impact of the strategic papers on the practice. It is hard to do the same for the Czech Republic. There are European and OECD reports that aim to reflect the real life situation. Mostly, they are rather positive as far as the data of student and scholar mobility are concerned. At the same time, the reports criticize that internationalization is not even a part of individual higher education institutions' long-term visions and that it is hardly considered in the organizational structure and culture or leadership performance (OECD, 2006). A research (that would go beyond simple statistics) reflecting what priority is given to internationalization in reality and what place internationalization in institutions takes up is needed. I hope that my research will be found helpful for similar future efforts.

Unlike the U.S.A., the number of strategic papers has stirred up neither the amount of research nor the amount of theoretical concepts needed for change. The number of produced scholarly materials is very small after 17 years of democracy and almost a dozen years of the Czech Republic holding EU membership. It is clear that scholarship regarding diversity in higher education the Czech Republic is lacking its breadth and depth for obvious reasons: because the country was virtually and physically closed down and because diversity has not become a matter of popular discussion³⁰. Overall, the Czech scholarship includes three

³⁰ Some reports that criticized the lack of multicultural aspects in Czech textbooks are: Čaněk, 1996; Frank, 2000; Pavlát, 1998; Hodnocení, 2000; Laubeová 2000 (for more details see Laubeová, 2007).

approaches or forms that could be included or at least connected to the term *internationalization*:

International dimension is subsumed as part of multi/intercultural education. (For review of literature on multicultural education see Chap. 3 on Bridging the Gap.)

Global education is one of the innovative curricular amendments officially introduced with the new National Curriculum Framework. (see more also in Chap 3).

International dimensions can be also identified with European integration process that is reflected in the curriculum under the heading of “European dimension.” European dimension is defined by Walterová, Ježková (1999) as: a) a principle that is pervasive throughout the education system supporting understanding of more complex European issues and perspectives of education, opening up horizons of global and intercultural understanding, and b) a process of cultivation of relationship to Europe by understanding its qualities through education. It is based on knowledge and skills acquisition. (p. 26). This is Europeanism – (evropanství) – defined as common cultural heritage of European civilization by Mezihorák (2001, pp. 9)³¹.

Education for the European dimension³² is part of larger transformation movement of the curriculum of primary and secondary schools as well as higher education institutions, i.e. the move from transmissive to more skill and value oriented curriculum (represented by Kučerová, Kotásek, Walterová, Skalková et al.) and may be seen in the broader context of what van der Wende (2000) controversially called “catching up” with the rest of Europe. The value orientation of education aims at Europeanism (evropanství), which is defined as the “awareness of belonging to a supra-national, European society of social-cultural character of civilization that possesses its own markings and properties different from other civilizations, and specific ideational orientation, cultural values and life styles” (Walterová, Ježková, 2000, p. 26). Searching for common European values and identity is seen the only possibility to counter consumerism spread by globalization. According to Walterová et al. (2002) European values are based on: rationality, freedom, humanism and human rights protection (p. 167) and encompass: humanism, freedom, morality, responsibility, critical thinking and creativity, ethics and prevention of racism and xenophobia, esthetic values, respect of nature and culture. (p. 169)

Walterová (2002) for example provides examples of how European values are integrated into programs of primary schools and later in cross-curricular topics in the national

³¹ For more on „europeanship“ F.V. Krejčí in O češství a evropanství common culture, morals, solidarity in contrast to other continents osnabruck, 1993, p. 12. or Machonin, P. on political Europeanization in Česká společnost a sociologické poznání. ISV, 2005 p. 153.

³² Conf. Field, John. *European dimensions: education, training and the European Union*. London; Philadelphia, Jessica Kingsley Publishers, 1998. 215 pp.

curricular framework. These values include: interpersonal relations, communication, cooperation and help, respect for diversity and attitudes, equity, tolerance, responsibility, freedom, democratic values, respecting other socio-cultural groups, human rights, and appreciation of the European civilization. She is an advocate of the so-called humanization process, which includes leaning about values, working with values, learning values by values, supporting desired values, experiencing values and creating new values. Walterová advocates for more discussion on value/driven curriculum and integration of ethics education into schooling.

Rýdl (1997) calls for a “European curriculum“, which should include materials about all-European issues (i.e. issues common to the whole continent). These issues cover conflicts, languages, arts, culture, nature and environment, economic, international, and interethnic relations. These should not be nationally specified and made obligatory, but form part of the strategic frameworks³³. Major issues of European curriculum proposed by Rýdl (1997) include: multiculturalism and internationality, communication and social skills, economic and professional competencies, ICT competencies, ecological responsibility, historical and political relations, multi-perceptivity. Openness to future and democratic values (p. 20). Unfortunately, there has been no follow up discussion of similar curricular transformation relevant to higher education.

As far as the scholarship concerning the higher education level, there is a Guide for international students published by Skuhrová, Šebková and Záruba (2005) where Internationalization of Higher Education takes up short chapter (pp. 27-33). This chapter summarizes existing mobility programs and possible exchange agreements. It provides interesting quantitative data on the development of students mobility. In 1998/1999 there were 879 outgoing students and 243 incoming students. In 2003/2004 there were 3589 outgoing and 1400 incoming students (29). The document also provides similar data concerning individual higher education institutions. Overall, the book describes the Czech higher education system with its structure to those who are unfamiliar with it.

Some understanding of internationalization can be also gained from the OECD Country Report (2006). The relevant section (pp. 91-96) describes the Bologna process in Czech policy and in higher education institution practice (namely mobility of students and teachers and harmonization of EHEA). The Report provides details on existing exchange and cooperation programs. Unfortunately, the authors do not take up a system-wide perspective and do not comment on other components of internationalization process.

³³

Rámcové vzdělávací programy in Czech

There have been several articles on international education published in the AULA (the journal of higher education). The published research is concerned primarily with student and teacher mobility. An example of an interesting study is on Mobility of Students through SOCRATES/ERASMUS program (2004) by Nováček³⁴.

The author evaluates the benefits and effects of students studying abroad, using their reflections recorded in final reports on their stay. From students' accounts, it is clear that students value their stays highly (76%) and rank the benefits with the highest mark 5). Nováček also point out problems that students encountered such as lack of information, lack of counseling, lack of networking and lack of personnel dealing with students' mobility. His suggestions have remained unanswered (AULA, February, 2007).

Similarly, Kohoutek, Roskovec and Šturzová (2005 special edition) in an article called *Module for Evaluation of Quality in Higher Education Institutions* proposed guidelines for evaluation of higher education institutions. Among other recommendations, the authors stressed the importance of international dimension in the quality of the institution. The indicators for that are: participation in international conferences and international mobility of researchers and international dimension of the vision. They suggest the importance of organizational structures needed to enable mobility; however, the role of international relations office of internationalization of the whole institution is not included.

As far as the mobility of students is concerned, the authors intentionally do not set any standards related to reaching the Ministry of Education's 2005 goal of 10% mobility in the student body. According to a personal conversation with Roskovec (March, 2008) quantitative data lead to simplification of understanding internationalization.

Other examples of evidence of the existence international dimension are several articles and commentaries published in the same periodical connected to the Long-term vision of the Ministry of Education and also in connection to Bologna-Bergen Declaration³⁵ on how important it is to develop international mobility of students and teachers. Finally, International education is mentioned in an article written by the American Ambassador in Prague which stresses the importance of international exchange of students and scholars and new possibilities behind future visa free entrance to U.S.A. (Aula, 01/2006, pp. 45-46).

The reader of AULA could also learn about what it is transnational education, internationalization and international education through several texts. Transnational education (02/2004, p. 7) was explained as education practiced through double or joint degrees. Authors

³⁴ Mobility studentů v rámci programu Sokrates/Erasmus (analytická studie, libor Nováček, roč. 12, 03/2004. (In 2001/2002 travelled through Ersamus/Sokrates 1,1% of Czech higher education students, i.e. 2533 and 732 foreign students to ČR, p. 74)

³⁵ www.bologna.msmt.cz/files/KomunikeBerlin.pdf

provide a list of such institutions in the Czech Republic with none of them is a public “traditional” university.³⁶

Overall, it seems after the pronouncement of the Long-term Vision of the Czech Ministry of Education on higher education (2005), the Czech discourse still awaits deeper research of the actual situation and wider discussion that will call attention to internationalization not only in term of mobility but introduce international education in more complex way. Strategic papers like *A Call for Leadership* (2005), *Ten Ground Rules for Internationalizing the University* (1998), *Bridging the Gap between Internationalization and Multiculturalism* (2007), which are supported by wide scholarship in USA, are still awaited in the Czech Republic both in research as well as at the policy level.

Importantly, the concept of internationalization is now strongly articulated in political pronouncements and governmental strategic papers, it needs to become part of academic scholarship and developed in research that is more complex. Above all, it needs to be acknowledged as an already(!) existing field of knowledge. Only then it can shape the desired national education policy, and not the opposite, which is commonly seen nowadays.

2.2 Approaches to Internationalization

There are several approaches to internationalization represented by the scholarship, research and the strategic papers. Within the U.S., internationalization has been defined by some as making campuses more internationally-oriented (Pickert and Turlington, 1992, Harari,1989, and Knight, 1997 in Ellingboe, 1998). Others discuss the process of integrating international education into the entire institution, especially the curriculum (Klasek, 1992, Mestenhauser, 19980 in Ellingboe). Some stress the dimension of national security and economy within the internationalizing process (Groening and Willey, 1990 In Ellingboe, 1999).

In order to understand the complexity of the American and European discourse, it is helpful to categorize the various approaches used by individual institutions and described by the strategic papers. I developed these categories from the limited resources available to me, so they may be incomplete, oversimplified, or lack nuances expressed by the authors I cite. Moreover, these approaches may not exclude each other, as will be reported below, but overlap and sometimes even coexist for obvious reasons mentioned below. Yet they all reflect what is happening in international education:

- 1) Internalization as Europeanization

³⁶ Masaryk University has joined the list since then.

- 2) Internationalization at Home
- 3) Internationalization as infusion or add-on approach
- 4) Internationalization in a system-wide perspective.

A more recent approach to internationalization that is trying to bridge the gap between internationalization and multiculturalism will be given a special consideration and discussed in a separate following chapter. This is because there is a substantial overlap of the concepts as well as differences between the two existing fields that need to be explained in more details. A more detailed clarification of the two concepts seems rational also because the existing Czech “multicultural discourse” actually covers also “foreign diversity” without relying on solid argumentation for doing that.

2.2.1 Internationalization as Europeanization

This approach is based on the Bologna Process and sees internationalization especially as harmonization of EHEA, in the international cooperation of higher education institutions in Europe and as above all the exchange or mobility of students and scholars. The fact that internationalization on the European continent mostly takes the mentioned form is supported by the global survey of internationalization done in 2003 by IAU together with UNESCO, AUCC in cooperation with Van der Wende and edited by Jane Knight. It clearly states that the major issues of internationalization at the European continent are: the Bologna Process, joint programs, and quality assurance (Knight, 2003 IAU, p. 23). In addition, the most popular strategy of implementing the Bologna Process has been the mobility, though the other two strategies might be overruling the practice in the near future (ibid.).

2.2.1.1 Mobility

In Europe, the question of how to become internationalized has been overshadowed by the assumption that the mobility of students under exchange programs is the only, or at least the best, way to internationalize the curriculum (Nilsson, 2000).

According to Ulrich Teichler (1996), this is the traditional British way of ‘internationalization through import’, but also dubbed rather derogatorily, ‘internationalization by osmosis’ (Martin, 2000 in Caruana, 2004). This limited approach may be instrumental in engendering the feelings of uncertainty, insecurity and confusion felt by international students embarking upon academic careers in the UK (as highlighted by Wu, 2002 In Caruana and Hanstock, 2002, p. 3) because no account whatsoever is taken of cultural variations in conceptions of pedagogy. As Wu puts it, international students negotiate the path between two

poles of pedagogy as represented by, on the one hand, 'filling the pot' and on the other, 'lighting the fire' (ibid).

Since international exchanges appear to be the centerpiece of the internalization of universities, at least as far as focus on the number of outgoing students is concerned, they should be treated systematically. Waechter (2000) even wrote that internationalization in Europe was regarded as an equivalent for mobility (p. 5).

In her article on internationalization, Štastná³⁷ (2007) also describes the impact of the TEMPUS and ERASMUS programs as the major strategies of internationalization of Czech higher education. According to her, the major benefits of the programs are, among others, the enrichment of the students who come back from study abroad, and returning teachers who use more student-centered techniques in their classes. Among the unsolved problems she sees is the recognition of the studies abroad into the student's credit calculation (p. 7-9). The benefits of the presence of "foreign" students seem to stay unrecognized not only in the practice (separation of international into special classes, summers schools etc.) as well as in the existing strategic materials and by some policy makers (personal conversation with Štastná, 27.3. 2008). Štastná seems to make an assumption that benefits accrue from individual students and faculty to the whole, but there seems to be no research evidence that these connections in reality occur. Overall, mobility seems to be the driving force of internationalization in Europe as well as in CR.

2.2.1.2 Administration and other services

There are several areas that need to be developed in order for a school to have successful study abroad and international exchange program. Study abroad, international exchanges and incoming international students and scholars are mostly administered by an office usually called international relations office.

International relations offices serve/help/manage other stakeholders to be internationalized, administer these programs, and administrators engage the institution in planning, scheduling, evaluation³⁸, publicity and communication with students and staff. According to Aitches and Hoemeker (1998), this should be ideally done in partnership with academic units that usually determine (goals, program types, allocations academic credits, content of agreements and budgets (p. 82).

³⁷ Expert on internationalization at the Czech Ministry of Education

³⁸ E.g. University of Malmo supports intentionally students to do research of internationalization in their Master and Doctoral thesis to produce feedback for the International Affairs Office. For more see <http://www.mah.se/upload/GF/internationalit/IaH%20structures%20and%20work%20areas%202006.pdf>

International relations offices above all perform services for incoming and outgoing mobility of students and scholars. In order to understand the complexity of tasks that international offices perform (or should perform to maximize the outcomes), I have completed the following list of agenda items connected strictly to mobility issues. It is based on review of services performed by several American and European Universities³⁹ and is also used as a part of the comprehensive questionnaire for International Relations Office where also the following Internationalization at Home concept –that is developed in the following chapter- is included (Nilsson, 2000, Waechter, 2000, Otten, 2000, see pp. 88-89 below). The list of services is divided into: outgoing mobility, and incoming mobility of students and staff.

A) Students, scholars, and other staff's outgoing mobility:

- Information on cultural differences (e.g. handbooks, seminars on orientation in particular cultures/states)
- Pre-departure seminars for intercultural sensitivity development, intercultural communication⁴⁰, intercultural team work, anti-bias education, culture shock prevention, foreign language proficiency
- Further education of staff (in the above mentioned), plus special focus on language proficiency, in ICT technologies for networking and teaching
- Cooperation with departments on preparation of students to understand the intellectual tradition of the destination and the culture in order to have pre-departure intercultural comparison of the subject to maximize the outcomes of the study
- Counseling before departure: right choice of the destination, institution, money coverage of the stay, length, application process, choice of accommodation, health and other risk consideration
- Information: travel preparation, means of travel, visa, insurance, money, banking, accompanying family members issues, international law, health, etc. (especially for non European destinations)
- Emergency counseling (crisis management, sexual harassment issues, etc.)
- Information for parents of students
- Re-entry counseling, seminars, reverse cultural-shock
- After-departure advising (integration of gained knowledge, career counseling, new possibilities of study abroad)
- After-departure Staff advising (possibilities of continuing the contacts and networking, cooperation with the library for transfer of books and materials, helping with after-departure agenda and administration)
- Integration back to the department, motivation for instant publications, sharing and using the international experience in teaching, research and strategic planning, administration of the department and whole institution)

B) For incoming international students, scholars and staff:

- Orientation seminars and counseling
- Information on insurance, accommodation, free time, family members (schools for children), banking, health, activities organized by the institution (choirs, sports, etc.)
- Personality counseling (family, partner issues, inter-colleagues, etc.)

³⁹ University of Minnesota, University of Northern Virginia, University of Oxford, University of Malmo.

⁴⁰ For a concrete example of intercultural communication course or in case of interest in participating one see Malmo university <http://webzone.imer.mah.se/projects/ICCO6>

- Intercultural counseling and advising (culture shock cultural adjustment)
 - Seminars of intercultural communication, cultural differences and specific information
 - Czech language classes and advising, at no cost for the international students
 - Managing agenda with visas, information on immigration and refugee possibilities, contacts of NGOS, relevant government bodies
 - Information of earning extra money
- Cooperation with International Relations office of the students' home institution

Administration of internationalization at an institution is definitely tied to competencies and responsibilities for internationalization process. Major universities often appoint central officers known as directors/deans/provosts/vice presidents from academic departments to take overall administrative responsibility for these exchange programs. Their effectiveness depends on how closely they are located to the center of decision-making, what kind of budget they have, how long they remain in these positions before returning to their academic departments, and what kind of institutional ethos prevails. Their quality and quantity depends many times on individuals either who are committed to the idea and have connections or who have networking activities abroad and are committed, skilled, or motivated to set them up. Entry of exchanges into the various locations is restricted because the structure of universities is predominantly vertical and the academic homes are protected by traditions that make them "closed systems" (conf. Mestenhauser, 2000).

Administrators of international offices work usually under the dean/director/provosts/vice-presidents. They need to be part of the institutional process of formulating vision (or policy statements) and determine educational goals both for individual students and for the institutions. Ideally, directors of international offices should prepare and disseminate widely suitable materials associated with international study programs that should include specific information about the dynamics and processes involved in the study abroad programs.

Once an institution makes commitment to foreign study and exchange programs it needs to develop processes that integrate these study programs into existing curriculum the students are pursuing. Increased participation in study abroad programs is more likely to occur where students see study abroad programs as a basic option within their course of study for their major. As long as study abroad programs appear as something extra, only those relatively few students who have the time and money for such "luxury" will participate (Aitches and Hoemeker In Klasek, 1998, p. 81) Furthermore, when study abroad programs are not part of the academic culture, students find out about them by chance, often too late to fit them into their degree plans.

As important as an institutional commitment is, in reality that very often does not translate into action at the college or departmental level, where the real curricular formulation takes place. Departments and their curriculum committees, and department chairs are the primary decision makers in this domain. These groups determine which curricular options will be supported, which will appear in the catalog and which will become part of brochures for prospective students. These decision makers also determine the structure of the credit system and where and how study abroad programs will fit. These decisions in turn establish what credits will be transferred, how experiences of students will be integrated into curriculum and how well they will be used in courses as a source of enrichment for other students. The integration of study abroad in the curriculum is a challenge in terms of planning, supervision, complementarity, relevance and assessment of study abroad. There are two approaches that can achieve such integration: a) joint degrees when the home and host institutions have common curriculum and assessment, and b) looser arrangements based on credit recognition. Both solutions are easier to be done in Europe because of the existence of ECTS credits system.

Integration will not be immediate. A long-term commitment to study abroad programs requires long-term planning. An essential part of this process is the establishment of review and evaluation procedures for overseas study and international exchanges. Evaluations should be made by students, administrators and the faculty and criteria should exist for appropriate academic, financial and structural review prior to signing of exchange agreements. There are five categories of agreements⁴¹ that foster exchanges:

- 1) Student exchange only. These exchanges are commonly bilateral, provide either short-term, non-degree students, and are usually funded by such programs as United States Information Agency, D.A.A.D., Fulbright Commission, ERASMUS, etc.
- 2) Faculty exchange for the purpose of teaching such as Fulbright program, ERASMUS or direct contracting with an individual;
- 3) Student and faculty exchanges. These kind of agreements are most common and frequently include opportunities for research collaboration;
- 4) Joint research and joint degrees. Linkages that have been formalized among faculty and departments and depend on external funding;
- 5) Agreements signed by ministries (“cultural agreements”).

Knight (2003), in the world survey of internationalization, points out that Europe is overwhelmed with the Bologna Process. The most popular strategy is the mobility of students

⁴¹ for more see *Guidelines for Establishing a Formal Linkage with and Overseas Institutions* in Klasek, 1998, pp. 115

and scholars. As a centerpiece, study abroad programs, student, and scholar exchanges should be treated systematically. International relations offices that usually administer the agenda should be also concerned with planning and evaluation, with involvement of the whole institution, dissemination of information, cooperation with academic units on integrating study abroad into curriculum, etc. Another important question is whether the mobility programs are not accessible only to a certain social strata or to particular (well-off) regions⁴². The popularized rationalization of internationalization – global competence – seems to divert student mobility away from the concept of equal opportunities as well as from the global understanding rationale, which may be reflected in the way student and scholar mobility is perceived. This issue is partly tackled by the following approach.

2.2.2 Internationalization at Home

Despite educational exchanges of students were and still in many places are the centerpiece of internationalization, student mobility has not reached its target of a 10% study abroad rate and according to Waechter (2000), there is no hope of ever more substantial results in the future. Teichler and others (2003) provided research evidence that the official European programs will not attract more than the 10% despite large sums of money supporting these programs and despite infrastructure and harmonization of EHEA. Therefore the issues was raised what to do for the remaining 90%. If they could not go into the international world, could the world come to their homes – or is it already there?

2.2.2.1 Origins and Rationale of the Concept

Waechter (2000) defines Internationalization at Home simply as “any internationally related activity with the exception of outbound students and staff mobility” (p. 6). The concept of Internationalization at Home originated at the University of Malmo. The idea behind it was to use the great domestic intercultural diversity (one fourth of the city of Malmo is made up of immigrants) in order to give the non-mobile majority of students a better understanding of people from different countries and cultures, increase their knowledge and respect for other human beings and create the global society in multicultural context (Nilsson, 1999).

A Steering Group was proposed at the EAIE annual conference in Maastricht 1999 to develop the concept and in 2000 published an influential position paper called

⁴² conf. Callan, Hilary (ed). *International education: towards a critical perspective*. European Association for International Education, 2000 for more discussion on participation.

Internationalization at Home which is in line with the reforms brought by SOCRATES, which seem to have had an impact on the modus operandi of universities especially in the northern European countries (Waechter, 2000, p. 9). One of the few examples of Czech universities that have taken the concept into consideration is Masaryk University in their Long-Term Strategy of Internationalization (conf. MU, 2004).

After almost 20 years of student mobility experience within Europe, with political and financial support of EU-sponsored programs such as ERASMUS, TEMPUS, and SOCRATES, most universities have still not reached the stated goal of 10% mobility. For example, Czech strategic papers prioritize mobility and call for 50% student mobility⁴³. Still the actual number of current outgoing students according to EURYDICE is not higher than 2%. *Internationalization at Home* acknowledges that the mobility programs reach only a tiny number of students that higher expectations are not realistic and expansion would be exceptionally costly. Therefore, the efforts of internationalization should be targeted to the institutions to enhance the curriculum and their human resources instead.

Relying on exchange programs to document the institution's international character is deceptive. Providing statistics about enrollment of high numbers of international students in itself does not constitute an internationalized university. Still, as Roskovec (2008) argued this is the reason why institutions are likely to adopt quantitative evaluation of their international dimension. Going below the surface of quantitative data shows a different picture. Many times international students arrive at the school, but stay only for a short period of time (not even a semester); worse yet, they do not attend regular classes with "domestic" students, but are placed in special courses, for which they pay and therefore do not serve as enrichment to the school, but as a material source of income for the institution. Sometimes there are exchanges of students who come for the whole semester, but because the individual department that has accepted them does not provide courses (sometimes even one) in foreign languages, the international students depend on individual consultations with faculty who speak their mother tongue. Such students then become a burden on the faculty who may be initially committed but whom, without support and financial motivation for time spent with them become lukewarm to how their international students prosper. Internationalization at Home draws attention to question of how to maximalize the outcomes of studies abroad.

2.2.2.2 Characteristics

Internationalization at Home has additional features that are similar to the comprehensive perspective and structural change as the American comprehensive system-

⁴³ *The Long-term Policy of the Ministry of Education 2006-2010* (Ministry of Education, 2005).

wide approach of internationalization (represented e.g. by Klasek, Harari Mestenhauser, Ellingboe, et al. discussed in the next sections). According to the director of International Affairs Office at Malmo University, Bergknut (2006), there are thirteen identified areas that taken together should cover the whole university and also reach out to the community and to partners (for details see Appendix).

Before elaborating on the main components, it must be noted that this second overarching concept calls for a greater integration of the already existing intercultural (domestically inclusive) diversity, bringing it closer to the recent trends of bridging the gap between multicultural and international education discussed in chapter 3. As was already mentioned, the concept reacts to the mobility strategy, which has not yielded desired outcomes. The concept is based on the following particular premise: the maximum of intercultural learning opportunities should be provided via existing intercultural diversity (whether international or multicultural).

Internationalization at Home considers cultural diversity as a general resource and potential enrichment. A survey among German students has shown that even if a considerable number of international students are enrolled, more than 60% of the German students have no or hardly any contact with a foreign student (Bargel 1998).⁴⁴ According to Otten (2000) intercultural learning at home through encounters with international students aims to create personal sensitivity for one's own cultural background and initiate the development of positive attitudes towards other cultures, and behavioral skills to act efficiently and adequately in an intercultural education.

Internationalization at Home is based on the diversity enrichment rationale. It shifts the focus of mobility to sharing and dissemination of multicultural and international experience. In other words, if international students are not part of the classes, they cannot interact with other students and do not enrich the discussion, cooperative work of students or even the faculty (or even the international office coordinators) with their ideas, their skills, their ways of thinking, their experience and knowledge.

Otten (2000) argued that intercultural learning, although a process of individual development, cannot be left to the initiative of individuals (p. 19). Rather, it should be inherent in the educational institutions – a valuing approach to cultural differences should be guiding curriculum development, teaching and all other social and organizational activities. It seems important that informal group activities, open social climate and possibilities of individual contacts parallel the formal academic setting. To put it briefly: the institution needs

⁴⁴ At the same time the degree and the intensity of social contacts with foreign students correlates with home student's own previous experiences abroad and involvement in student associations and other engagement in civic society.

those guest researchers and exchange students as much as it needs the “local” immigrant students as resources (not burdens) in the classroom.

Waechter (2000) concurs that the non-service attitude of so many continental European universities has become outdated (p. 11). It will increasingly become an important obstacle in efforts to attract foreign students. The growth and increased professionalism of international relations offices in European universities can only be a first step in this direction. To leave the task of service provision entirely to these units will likely result in a ghettoization of the students and sabotage the efficiency and effectiveness of these administration units. It is time to integrate these administrative units with the top leadership and the academic staff. As Nilsson (2000) put it in his guidelines: “Give international offices new roles: not only administrating student exchanges and/or recruiting paying international students but also being the initiator, stimulator and facilitator of international education.” (p. 26).

2.2.2.3 Internationalization of Curriculum as Centerpiece

The centerpiece of Internationalization at Home is the curriculum, concerning both the content and the way it is taught. The teaching should be sensitive to different cultural styles of learning and teaching. This sensitivity is essential whether the subject is human sciences or mathematics. According to Hofstede (1986), there are several intercultural problems that may arise: different meaning of the relative social position of lecturer and students, patterns of their interaction, relevance of curriculum content, and different ways of thinking and perceiving. Intercultural learning is both continuous effort and educational outcome of Internationalization at Home.

Nilsson (2000) also argues that the introduction of international and intercultural elements into the curriculum influences the content (and even goals) of university education over a longer period of time and that it reaches a larger number of students, thus being more effective than student mobility. He writes: “It is my firm conviction that an internationalized curriculum will strongly encourage our students to study abroad”. (p. 21).

Nilsson defines internationalized curriculum by reaching two objectives: cognitive objectives (foreign languages, knowledge of other countries and international issues), and attitude-related objectives (e.g. broadmindedness, understanding and respect for other people and their cultures, values and ways of living). Both objectives aim at developing interculturally competent students. (Internationalization of the curriculum will be dealt in more detail in the subchapter on internationalization as a system-wide perspective below).

Teaching an international curriculum requires specific knowledge and skills and places extra demands on the lecturer. However, even more important, it asks for a specific attitude in lecturer. One cannot expect a lecturer to implement an internationalized curriculum when he or she does not her/himself adhere to the principles that underlie the objectives of such a curriculum. This has important implications. It raises the question of what is required to provide lecturers with content conducive to teaching effectively in the international classroom. Which factors have positive influences on this context and what are possible negative influences. Which instruments can support the process and overcome, or at least reduce, problems and obstacles. According to Teekens (2000), unfortunately the role and position of the faculty in that regard stays largely unexplored (p. 31).

2.2.2.4 Involvement of the Faculty

According to Teekens (2000), assuming that further internationalization will take place and that increased cultural diversity will become an important feature of future academic life, the lecturers will need to master skill, which they cannot be expected to possess on the basis on their general national academic background. Exploring this question has led to the idea of drawing a profile of the “ideal” lecturer. Teekens defines the “ideal” (internationalized) lecturer in six clusters:

- 1) He/she pays attention to the quality because only if he or she feels secure in her discipline than is able to look at things in a different way;
- 2) Has a good command of the language of instruction, other than the mother tongue and is aware that languages are culture-bound;
- 3) Takes care to increase cultural awareness;
- 4) Understands and respects other cultures, making adjustments for cultural differences, avoids stereotypes);
- 5) Acknowledges that various teaching and learning styles have conditioned people in different traditions of education (e.g. not every student is silent because he/she has nothing to say);
- 6) Pays attention to the fact that job qualifications, the recognition of diplomas and possible periods of probation are differently organized and valued in different countries.

Internationalization at Home addresses two additional points. First, it draws attention to the underutilization of international and multicultural student body; Shoorman (1999) in her study found out that international students are underutilized as educational resources.

Secondly, it draws attention to inadequate integration of the study abroad experience into the existing curriculum at the home university, namely, the question: what to do with knowledge and experience the students gained abroad.

Van der Wende (2000, p. 10) declares that over 40% of students who studied abroad in ERASMUS program expect that the completion of their studies will be delayed by 50-100% of the time they spend aboard due to the incomplete recognition of the curriculum (see also Maiworm et al., 1993).

Sometimes departments or students are unprepared and do not have a clear idea what they can gain in the foreign institutions. If they do not know what the institutions teach they may be surprised when their students come back with credits from different courses than those defined traditionally at the primary institution. It can also happen that the department or school is very interested in providing its students with the international experience and sets up a requirement that students have to experience a study abroad. Yet it does not recognize that it should make a coordinated effort in networking and thus does not provide enough places abroad for all students some of whom may have to contend themselves with internships in international companies that may be of dubious educational value.

Internationalization at Home also offers a pragmatic alternative of desired intercultural experience. Instead of too costly student mobility programs, the concept is based on the assumption that it is better to bring foreign lectures to students at home. This way the diversity enrichment reaches more than one student and is much less costly. International faculty may be also enriching for other staff and administration (curriculum revisions, strategic planning, etc.) if they are integrated well in the host institutions. Moreover, very often it is not necessary to bring the lectures from abroad because the “intercultural diversity” is already “at home” and is not only made use of enough.

Ebersole (1999) found that experience abroad enhanced the social and self-awareness of participants, which in turn led to increased global content of classroom teaching. Nilsson (1999) suggested in his guidelines for Internationalization at Home: “the recognition of the central role of the teacher. Further training, seminars on intercultural issues, allocation of time and resources for faculty exchange are some of the means to be used” (p. 24). Apart from continuing education, Nilsson (1999) also suggests staffing with person’s from the international community. None of the suggested can be done without faculty engagement in the idea of internationalization. As Mestenhauser rightly points out, the key to internationalization is not only conceptual but also perceptual. This means that faculty does not know the international dimension and do not want to know it. In that case internationalization will hardly take place.

In summary, Internationalization at Home is a concept that constitutes the foundation for the international work at the university. Its ambition is that all our students shall get an international and intercultural dimension during their studies, i.e. broadmindedness, maturity, understanding and respect for other people and their cultures etc. By starting the process “at home” the scholars also hope to encourage the domestic students to spend a part of their study time at a foreign partner university.

Internationalization at Home is a model of an open university: open to changes, open to the demands of the new labor market, open to new pedagogical methods, and open to the use of knowledge that cuts across subject boundaries. The university shall reflect diversity and the needs of modern society. Internationalization at Home is a strategy that accommodates all these needs and facilitates opportunities for everybody to get involved in the internationalization process.⁴⁵

Internationalization at Home is quite recent concept and as such it not only challenges the European concept of internationalization, but also faces its own challenge of how to connect all parts to reach the 90% occasional shoppers without relaying on “shortcuts” (e.g. relying of local immigrants may not yield desired outcomes for they may not know their own country, etc). Still, it seems to be an outstanding effort in the right direction.

As Mestenhauser puts it in his reflection over Internationalization at Home:

“The laissez-faire system of higher education of the past fifty years was like a supermarket appealing to 10% of takers. More can be accomplished only if all parts of the field pull together and initiate major conceptual, administrative and curricular changes. Such changes call for exceptional educational leadership that does not appear to have emerged in top positions in higher education. This is regrettably so despite urgent messages that we are facing unprecedented changes so dramatic that only drastic adjustments can save higher education from becoming irrelevant to the complex world.” (Mestenhauser, keynote speech NUFFIC, 2006).

Because the Internationalization at Home concept seems to be a realistic and viable approach to setting priorities of internationalization strategies at present, I will to their efforts targeted at the internationalization of the institution, its curriculum and ways it can make better use of international students and scholars further within the following chapter on system-wide approach to internationalization.

⁴⁵ Web page University of Malmo: http://www.mah.se/templates/Page_____15526.aspx

2.2.3 Infusion approach to curriculum

“The heart of the internationalization of an institution is and will always remain its curriculum, as the acquisition of knowledge, gaining analytical skills, and the conduct of research, is what a university is primarily all about” (Harari, 1989, p. 3, In Ellingboe, 1999, p.65). Curriculum is the reason students enroll in the higher educational institutions. Curriculum is a very important component and a player of internationalization. ACE (1996) reported that 89% of institutions reported a change in curriculum and 52% change in multicultural diversity requirements in the last preceding ten years.

The infusion or add-on approach are terms that are used interchangeably. It is another general tendency in internationalization that is concerned usually with content which should be added to the existing curriculum or structures and has its adherents both in U.S. as well as in Europe. It is defined in general terms of “infusing an international dimension”, “adding international content”, “developing an international skill” or “enriching the curriculum”. Infusion may mean some intergration of the knowledge with the already existing concepts, on the other hand, adding-on is a simple juxtaposition. Infusion can range from a adding a single topic, to developing a new course to the existing curriculum or it can be a more sophisticated integration of skills into the existing structure.

This is very similar to what Pike and Selby (Czech trans, 1999,2000) already brought to the Czech primary schools context in their book on Global Education: “infusion of knowledge, skills and attitudes of global education to all traditional subjects” (p. 18). This method seems to have influenced the creation of the National Curricular Framework (Rámcové vzdělávací programy), where 6 topics (among other also global education) were added to the “traditional” curriculum. These topics are called “crosscurricular”; because there has been disagreement how to integrate them into the traditional curriculum and because the concept of “cross-curricularity” is just developing in the Czech scholarship (Valenta, 2008), these topics were provided a separate chapter. In other words: the Czech primary and secondary scholarship is familiar with the concept of adding and infusing into the mainstream.

Infusion approach seems to have its advantages. First of all, it is a simple and understandable way especially if the concept of internationalization is “new” to teachers/scholars. It is useful for those who seek short answers and or to faculty who do not possess power and competencies to “redefine” the field as such. Adding a course, i.e. enriching a curriculum – may be the first pioneering step in a more complex transformation of the curriculum and also the institution too. As described in chapter on Organizational change, change needs to be continuous. It also needs to be pervasive and such pervasiveness will

allow the change to width and depth. Change involves faculty being change agents who must know how to do that. Moreover, they need to want to do that and this requires what internationalists call a “cognitive shift” (conf. Menstehuaser, 1998). Infusion approach leaves this issues unexplored.

According Valenta (2008) adding a course is a way of transforming primary and secondary curriculum⁴⁶ in direction to more personality development. The learner will learn to see the regular courses in new perspectives, eventhough the rest of his/her classes will stay the same. At the same time, opponents of the approach are correct when pointing out that there is no evidence that students will actually connect the knowledge from the separate course with the rest of the curriculum (Valenta, 2008). It seems that infusion can serve well as a pioneering, intial step, which will develop to a more comprehensive change. Similarly the six “added” topics will permeate the Czech curriculum. May be, the added topics will become the core of the currilum and the traditional subject will in turn become “applied fields of knowledge” (Valenta, 2008). As internationalization is just being introduced into the Czech higher education scholarhip (unlike to the fifty-year experience of international education in U.S.), it may learn from the mistakes, but it may not skip the development phases. Phrases like “something is better than nothing” should not lule us into sleep, still they seem tru in the view of short history of internationalization in the Czech Republic. (for more on Czech cultural context see chap. On Discussion of Findings).

As far as the European scholarship is concerned, most European scholarship supports the integration of European/intercultural/global dimension (Van der Wende, 1997). European dimension as an “add on” of certain topics is also present in Czech strategic papers and by some scholars (Walterová, Rýdl already discussed above) in the context of primary and secondary level schooling in reaction to the unification process of EU. Some European scholars (de Wit, Van der Wende) view internationalization under the influence of non-European authors in a more broader sense. Instead of calling for the “European” dimension they argue for a “global” dimension. For example Van der Wende (1997) finds the global perspective to internationalization in Europe very useful, uses it in her work and suggests others use the up-to-now most influential definition of internationalization prepared by Candian scholar Jane Knight, which is based on the infusion approach. Her definition is:

“Internationalisation at the national/sector/institutional levels is defined as the process of integrating an international, intercultural, or global dimension into the purpose, function, or delivery of post/secondary education “ (Knight, 2003, p. 2)

⁴⁶ The transformation of curriculum at the tertiary level is rarely discussed, though there is an active group of scholars in the College of Drama (DAMU), which advocates the so called psychosomatic curriculum, which stresses personality development

Wende's addition of "global" and "intercultural" is intended to broaden the scope of internationalization to include a global focus. Retained is "the process of integrating", which Knight explains as a "process of infusing or embedding the international and intercultural dimensions into policies and programs (p. 3). However, how such process of "infusion" is to be occurring and what she exactly means by "intercultural dimensions" is not discussed.

The main problem with the add-on or infusion approach is that it is silent about how much of the international content should be added, what constitute an "international content" and how that content is to be integrated with the "traditional" curriculum, especially if the "new" content is at variance with the "old" one. The higher education institutions like to take up the Knight's definition and interpret the infusion the way they want it. It may be also done according to the convenience of each individual instructor depending on how much the individual used international scholarship in his/her research. In other words, it ends up addressing only individual courses.

Recently the Bush Foundation approved a grant for internationalization of the courses at American Universities that defined an international dimension to mean 30% of international content. Individual HEI encourage their faculty members to utilize this infusion approach as a way of dealing with internationalization. Moreover, most US universities have a general curricular policy associated with the "generals and liberal" education requirements, according to which one or two courses of an overall bachelor's degree program must be taken in "approved" international courses.

The infusion approach is popular especially among individual faculty who tried to make their teaching and research more international, usually after they have experienced some stays abroad. According to Mestenhauser (1998) it can be found in most American institutions of higher education when a number of courses are enriched with international content of some kind (p. 17). John J. Cogan (1998) describes a practical way of introducing new material into his courses by infusion. By infusion he means

"Integration of examples of research and scholarly work into assigned courses. These include the assigned readings, the illustrations I use in my class lectures, my experiences from working in other nations, and the use of course assignments. To each course I teach, I bring my work in the area of international education, both in the United States and abroad, over the past 28 years." (Cogan In Mestenhauser & Ellingboe, 1998 p. 106).

Prof. Cogan teaches at the University of Minnesota which is known for its high degree of internationalization (Ellingboe, 1997). Cogan thus may make a great use of already existing and established diversity of cultural backgrounds of students. The university's vision of rethinking the course syllabi, readings and assignments so that they "allow for and encourage

students and faculty to think beyond national borders” may have implications for content as well as for intellectual competencies. In his example the sandwiching of international materials and case studies combined with the presence of high number of international students and overall internationally friendly climate may actually lead to the development of intercultural comparative skills.

Internationalization as infusion is based on an assumption that if sufficient number of courses are enriched with international content of some kind, the cumulative effect will be impressive international education, all the while preserving the self-regulating system of student choice. (Mestenhauser, 1998 p. 17).

No known study has tested these assumptions, but Ross (2004) cannot find any research evidence that shows that these “bits and pieces” of knowledge are easily connected in the minds of students. Related to this was a publication of the American Forum for Global Education (1987) that produced a collection of 360 syllabi from courses that claim to have been internationalized by grants from Title VI program, a US Government program. The results of this examination reveal some serious flaws in the assumptions about the infusion model. Some faculty did not change existing courses, but introduced entirely new ones. Others “sandwiched” some international content into the existing courses, but accorded the infused part few contact hours and simply juxtaposed the sandwiched material into the course without any integration. According to Mestenhauser (1998) the infusion did not alter the traditional disciplinary content, which continued to dominate (p.17).

Ellingboe’s thorough research (1999) of international dimensions in five liberal art colleges reveals similar findings. She recommends revision of curriculum by all faculties (p. 459). Should the curriculum be internationalized, all faculties must be engaged in discussion and in workshops over what it means to internationalize the curriculum, so that the effort does not end up with an infused elective. There is much disagreement in the literature concerning what constitutes an internationalized portfolio of course offerings (Ellingboe, 1998, Mestenhauser & Ellingboe, 1998) in large public research universities; internationalization of the curriculum takes the following (add-on) approaches.

The first approach reshapes disciplines through the infusion and integration of international perspectives to give all majors an all-encompassing international flavor by creating an international capstone course that could be taken during their senior year.

The second approach adds onto the lower division curriculum by requiring an internationalized course as part of the general and liberal studies requirements for a baccalaureate degree. Many international cross-cultural or comparative courses are found in

the lower division general liberal arts courses at the introductory level (i.e. Introduction to Comparative Literature, World Politics, World Religions, etc.)

A third approach offers special one-credit electives in international education topics and encourages all students to take some (regardless of college of enrollment); these could be country- or region-specific courses, cross-cultural skill workshops, or global current issues classes⁴⁷.

This approach seems to be the most feasible in the Czech higher education institutions at this moment. Humanities and Liberal Arts colleges especially have an enormous potential for utilization of their knowledge in area studies for the benefit of more students than those who major in these studies. This approach does not involve deep interdisciplinary cooperation or major transformation of the curriculum. The courses are actually already out there and it only requires to offer them to students across the departments. Even that may cause some resistance similar to the one described by Johnston and Edlestein (1993) in some U.S. schools of business administration: "Some faculty members in more traditional fields regard these explicitly international or global fields as lacking in rigor or prone to ideological bias; they may argue that students should gain their understanding within the rigorous framework and using the conceptual tools of the traditional disciplines." (p. 15).

A fourth approach creates international minors (variously known as "collateral fields" or "second majors") in several disciplines (education, business, journalism, economics, communication, agriculture, engineering) and focuses on the international aspects of knowledge within the specified discipline.

A fifth approach is approving an international education free-standing minor and allowing students from the entire university system to build their minor using courses offered through the university including the special international electives (for more see Ellingboe, 1998).

According to Tonking and Edwards (1981), increasing the numbers of quality international programs on campus and infusing the entire curriculum with a sense of the international perspective are important: so the numbers of courses and programs can better reflect the realities of an increasingly interconnected world (In Ellingboe, 1998, p. 96).

Groenings and Wiley (1990 In Ellingboe, 1999) in their often-cited book *Group Portrait: Internationalizing the disciplines* which is devoted to discussing disciplinary approaches, integrate international perspectives in seven disciplines. They discuss the

⁴⁷ This third approach is the one taken by the University of Minnesota's College of Education and Human Development. Nine to thirteen special one-month, one-credit internationalized courses have been offered by the College since 1994. These courses are very intensive and are compressed into a shorter period of time than the traditional semester, e.g. even into a long weekend or at times when the regular school calendar is on vacations.

necessity for individual disciplines to find their own ways of teaching global perspective. Their text provides numerous examples of just how to do that for seven liberal arts disciplines: geography, philosophy, political science, psychology, sociology, history, and journalism. They also enumerates three ways to achieve exposure for internationalization of the “traditional” disciplines: through core courses, area studies, and intradisciplinarity (within a discipline) and interdisciplinarity (between two and more disciplines). The latter two are not purely add-on techniques and will be described later in System-wide Approach.

Overall, most scholars agree that the curriculum is a crucial component of internationalization, from whatever approach one may choose to use. Apart from simple adding a course or two there are scholars who call for a more comprehensive revision of curriculum. Just adding courses or certain contentual dimension may lead to simple juxtaposition and not integration. Theorizing and realizing a transformation of the curriculum means to entail other areas of the institution and involve stakeholders in the change and moreover to deal with the cultural context of the curriculum. There are many scholars who advocate for such major transformation: especially from the so called system-wide approach to internationalization and less strongly from advocates of Internationalization at Home approach.

2.2.4 System-wide Approach

The system-wide approach is based on the “general systems theory” developed in the 50s and recovered by the school/organization change theories (e.g. Fullan, Senge, see more in sec. on Culture and Leadership) at the end of the 20th ct. The latest system thinking perspective sees both the system and its parts in interaction with the entire context in which they operate. This means that researcher should know well both the parts and the system and the processes how they interact in the environment. (In the Czech Republic this approach was developed in educational sciences especially by Bližkovský, 1997).

Criticism directed toward the add-on and the mobility approach is based on systems thinking on the ground that it encourages fragmentation, discourages integration and creates disconnection with the rest of the system. Mestenhauser (2002) writes:

“Students favor study abroad but do not participate; they intend to take foreign languages, but few learn them. Universities have lofty mission statements but do not implement them; they have cooperative partnership with foreign universities that do not function well. Faculty insist they are “doing” international education but do not conceptualize and document what they accomplish. Universities claim they are internationalized, but the evidence shows a different picture.” (Mestenhauser, 2002, p.5)

Mestenhauser (2002) argues further that a systemic approach requires a certain additional competence of cognitive shifting on part of faculty, staff, and students similar to what linguists call “code shifting” needed in study of foreign languages, if internationalization of the whole institution is to be achieved. Internationalization thus challenges the whole institution and paradigm of schooling which is the reason why it is difficult to explain and when explained and understood, to implement.

2.2.4.1 Curriculum transformation

Mestenhauser (1998) and others urge for a systemic change towards all levels and warn against the infusion model if the rest of the institution is not internationalized. Similarly, Banks (1993) has been equally critical of the infusion model in multicultural education and has even suggested that it marginalized the entire scheme of human relations. The idea that a little internationalization is better than nothing – at least it is a good start – is dangerous and misleading to students, who may believe two courses are all they need to be globally competent. The add-on approach represents probably the most common approach in practice because the transformational approach is more demanding it works to change faculty in fundamental ways in how they think about the world and their place in it (Odgers and Giroux, 2007, p. 8).

Several curricular recommendations in the literature consider content of the curriculum, other are directed to individual faculty; some strategies are directed toward groups of stakeholders or committees, others argue for systemic change towards all levels like Mestenhauser (1998). He argues that most international courses are dominated by an academic approach, which asks learners to study *about* something by observing it as outsiders rather than as actors involved. Most international curricular programs do not challenge the nature of the curriculum or paradigms on which it is based. He adds: “rather, the only problem with the curriculum is that it does not have a sufficient amount of international content... the knowledge is content-based, randomly selected, and drawn from the mainstream-defining disciplines. Cultural considerations challenge the presumption of the universality of knowledge and are, therefore, unlikely to be taken into account by the mainstream.” (p. 21)

The above-cited quotation of a representative of the system-wide approach indicates the complexity and difficulty in capturing the process of internationalization of the curriculum. As mentioned already in the introductory chapter, McCormick and Murphey (2000) describe three levels of curriculum analysis and all must be considered in the process of internationalization. The literature review on curriculum transformation shows that the scholarship is extremely complex and diversified. Still, most internationalists place the

curriculum at the centre of any attempt to internationalize higher education and thus needs to be dealt with in greater detail.

The conceptualization of an internationalized curriculum is reflected in the literature. According to the literature review, the common denominator of the system-wide approach to transformation of curriculum is the importance of culture. Some, as already discussed under Internationalization at Home, focus on individual courses, their content, but also culturally-diverse teaching methods and incorporate international and multicultural dimension in order to “prepare students for performing professionally, socially, emotionally in an international and multicultural context” (Nilsson, 2000, p. 21).

There have been several attempts to define the competences needed in order to perform in international and intercultural world (see ACE, 2007 in the Introduction Chapter). The competence-approach has been criticized and added by many (as already discussed in chap. On Add-on approach). For example, Teekens and Otten (2000) point out that intercultural learning can be done only in an intercultural environment (based on the well-known Gordon Allport’s Contact hypothesis). As Bennett (1993) and others have argued the contact between individuals coming from different cultures does not necessarily lead to culture learning. Leask (2001) adds further that internationalization of the curriculum must concern both academic and administrative practices (Leask in Odgers and Giroux, 2006, p.10).

Opposite to the “competence-as-skill”-approach stands also Mestenhauser’s model (1998) of internationalized curriculum that promotes the development of intellectual competencies, such as meta-cognitive skills, later developed also by Paige (2003) and Yershova, DeJeagere, and Mestenhauser (2000). This model is transformative in that it attempts to create new consciousness on campuses is referred to as an “internationalized mindset”. It recognizes the significance of cultural variables and understands education as a cultural phenomenon that uses interdisciplinary thinking to understand the interdependence of the world (Odgers, and Giroux, 2006, p. 9). Lastly, the “rethinking” of the whole curriculum with the view to ethnocentrism and major mindshift has its place in the transformational theories too.

All approaches need to be included in the literature review and will be developed below. They do not exclude each other for they lead to a common goal; only stress different ways of transformation processes. For the purpose of better orientation in the argumentation over internationalization process and in order to give the chapter a simple structure, let me define three levels of the curriculum:

- **The degree program**

- **The discipline**
- **The course**

These levels of course are interwoven with each other, complement each other and cannot be separated from each other.

From the literature review, it is evident that authors (Henson and Myerson, 1995, Harari 1989, Mestenhauser, 2000, Ellingboe 1998, etc.) advocating for system-wide approach define the curriculum as a subset of other components of an internationalized campus. It means that talking about internationalization of the curriculum cannot be done in separation from other components, namely faculty, students, leadership, mobility, other staff, research, culture of the institution and service to the society. This is an important unique perspective that advocates of this approach bring.

For example, Harari (1989) warns campuses about thinking that they have indeed internationalized themselves if they have many international students on campus or have dozens of study programs. Also as shown in sec. on Internationalization at Home, the concern with the number of study abroad does not make the student body internationalized. Those two elements on their own do not make an institution international, and it is difficult to tell if they are integrated in the core of the campus. Similarly, offering some courses on Asia, Latin America, Africa, Europe, and other areas of the world might help, but that does not often make it so either. (E.g. Asia Society's study (1976) of hundreds of area studies textbooks has shown how biased and incorrect the contents of the textbooks are) – discussed in sec. on Add-on Approach. Harari (1989) believes that providing a clear, institution-wide positive statement toward international learning is one of the obligatory steps to internationalization.

It seems, overall, that American authors on internationalization are more inclined to view the purpose of internationalization to be more than to add a course here and there on international education or international relations, area studies, nor student or staff mobility (van der Wende, 1997) and address complex interdisciplinary issues. It is a systemic process that involves all stakeholders, as a reaction to what is happening outside academia, to prepare students for future. Still, the way of how it should be internationalized in practice is vividly and endlessly discussed. Some scholars define how internationalization affects specific disciplines, some rather define general outcomes (ACE 2007), and others call for the development of intellectual skills rather (Mestenhauser 2004).

The core concepts of all perspectives include: **culture and cognition, emic and etic perspective and ethnocentrism of curriculum**. All will be described below.

2.2.4.1.1 Internationalization of degree programs

As Mestenhauser (2000) points out, the question posed in an analysis of offered programs should not be phrased as “Do you have international programs? Or do you have international joint degrees?” The question to be asked is: “Do you educate your students to face the future challenges of the Twenty first century?” (p. 23). That means that internationalization of degree programs tackles the vision of the institutions.

Harari and Reiff (1993) attempted to answer the question in an article with an intriguing article: “Half Way There”. They proposed that it took fifty years (i.e. the age of modern international education in U.S. - as described in the beginning of this chapter) to get to the half internationalization. Perhaps, if international education will be taken as an adjunct to everything else it will take another 50 years before the education of graduates will reflect the today is changing and increasingly intercultural society. However, the future will be of course constantly changing, so that teachers need to prepare students not only in current the subject matter, but also to live in a constantly changing environment.

According to the Association of American Colleges’ report (1990) entitled *Integrity in the College Curriculum*, the minimal requirements for general education include one objective concerning international and multicultural experiences and eight other liberal arts objectives. However, as AAC states: “The problem with the American college curriculum is not that it has failed to offer up knowledge; the problem is that it offers too much knowledge with too little attention to how that knowledge has been created and how many styles of inquiry have led to its creation” (AAC, 1990, p. 1). The AAC’s (1990) recommendation concerning international and multicultural experiences is described as a way of “broadening horizons” and providing students with access to the “diversity of cultures and experiences that define U.S. society in a contemporary world”(pp. 5-10 In Ellingboe, 1999, p. 273).

Internationalization of the programs concerns the whole institutional curricular reform. The process of internationalization of programs depends on the visioning process of the institution and the aims it sets concerning graduates and their role in the society. In practice, that entails the redefinition of the graduation requirements and setting up new degrees related to international/intercultural knowledge⁴⁸. According to Sheng (2008) in order to function globally all students should be familiarized with issues regarding human rights, environmental issues, globalization, social justice or minority issues (p. 70). While that may be popularly perceived as the domain of the area studies, these should not be marginal even for the rest of

⁴⁸ According to Carnegie Foundation for Advancement of Teaching (1987) the percentage of colleges including global issues in 1970’s rose from 4.5 to 14.6. By 1990, 53 percent of four-year colleges universities required their students to take one or more classe in Western civilizations and 46 required classes in world civilizations and 20 a courses on race, ethnicity adn cross-cultural content.

the institution. Overall, the answer to what is/is not taught and why it is/is not taught is the major challenge.

The following three examples try to resolve what the internationalization of the programs means. The third view seems to be most comprehensive. Among those who rather propose specific outcomes as proofs of internationalization of the curricula is Van de Wende (1997), who in her doctoral dissertation found eight outcomes of internationalized curricula (tacking about the infusion and more comprehensive approach). These outcomes include the following:

- 1) increased knowledge of the international aspects of the subject area;
- 2) enhanced understanding and ability to communicate with people from other countries;
- 3) improved foreign language proficiency;
- 4) enhanced labor market opportunities/better qualifications for internationalized professions;
- 5) introduction of new expertise and methods by visiting international faculty and students;
- 6) international development programs for faculty;
- 7) innovations taken-for-granted practices (new approaches to student learning)
- 8) social and intercultural integration of student groups with the different nationalities.

(Van de Wende, 1997, p. 79 In Ellingboe, 1998, p. 64)

Humphrey Tonkin and Jane Edwards (1981) discuss three methods for teaching that faculty members may wish to try to broaden graduates' worldviews. These include:

- 1) Integrating a fundamental understanding of key elements of global and national interdependence through major disciplines;
- 2) Gaining a deeper knowledge and understanding of at least one culture seen through history, language, literature, philosophy, economics, and politics: and
- 3) Encouraging second language competence as a basis for the fuller comprehension of the other cultures.

Since the rather minimalist approach of Tonkin and Edward (1981) to what an internationalized program should look like, OECD in 1996 has developed a typology of internationalized curriculum. Their typology is not aimed to show what internationalization of degree programs should look like, but a description of the various kinds of curricula. I found this typology to best fit for the level of degree programs and useful as listing of different

kinds of programs that are usually perceived as already internationalized that is why I use it also in my research framework (for full version see Chap. Five)

1. Curricula with international content (e.g. International Education, International relations)
2. Curricula that add a comparative dimension to traditional content (e.g. International Comparative Education)
3. Career-oriented curricula—(e.g. International Business Administration)
4. Curricula in foreign languages or linguistics which explicitly address cross-cultural communication issues and provide training in intercultural skills (e.g. Spanish, French)
5. Interdisciplinary area student programs such as area or regional studies (Asian studies)
6. Curricula leading to internationally recognized professions
7. Curricula leading to joint or double degrees
8. Curricula whose parts are offered at off-shore institutions by local faculty
9. Special curricula designed exclusively for foreign students

Shan (2008) in his case study on the internationalization of the curriculum of Saskatchewan university used this typology and it allowed him to go deeper in the analysis than guidelines for the add-on approach. Even though being a typology of study programs, the description involves analysis of disciplines and courses too. He concludes with the recommendations resulting from the program analysis which are very thorough and involve other components of the institution too – concur with the systems perspective.

First of all, he stresses the importance of interdisciplinary cooperation among departments and other colleges on the definition of what internationalized programs should be. Secondly, the university should use of the resources and expertise from the existing faculty (e.g. from area studies) to design some internationalized courses or interdisciplinary programs. Thirdly, establishing an international studies and learning center would be a good way to help students and faculty members to improve their international or intercultural knowledge and skills. It would probably be best to create such a center through a collaborative effort among different university colleges and departments. Collaborative teams of specialists in similar fields could work to create courses and programs of study with an international orientation or focus, for instance, Chinese Studies or Asian Studies.

Fourthly, faculty members play a central role in the design and delivery of the internationalized curricula. One of the most direct and efficient ways of internationalizing the campus would be to recruit faculty from abroad, especially those faculty from different cultural and ethnic backgrounds. Employment of foreign professors could engage students critically with the plurality of the sources of knowledge with perspectives from many cultures, and, it would also allow the University to enrich the academic network in the international sector.

Fifthly, universities are responsible not only for the knowledge and epistemologies from different countries but also to build an atmosphere for their students in which difference is valued and diversity is respected. In addition, leadership and administrators need to set goals and policy for implementation of internationalized curricula and provide space for sharing experience and workshops to help faculty internationalize their courses both in terms of content and pedagogy.

Shan concludes that the process cannot solely rely on the efforts of certain offices, departments, or passionate professors. This process needs the involvement of all the stakeholders in the University: students, faculty, and administrators. The university needs to make a concerted effort to examine both the ideological and the practical orientations of the curriculum as crucial aspects of internationalization of the university (pp.68-72).

The review of the literature shows that the degree program level of the curriculum in comparison to the discipline level has more flexibility to include such requirements as second and third language proficiency, interdisciplinary courses, integration of international students, studies abroad, intercultural communication trainings, etc. In case the internationalization of the disciplines itself is not occurring then the program may offer an elective or require to pass foreign language courses; nevertheless, that cannot be defined as internationalized curriculum (at least from the system-wide perspective).

Such superficial internationalization can be especially true for area studies programs, which are perceived a priori as internationalized for their geographically distant focus, but a deeper insight reveals intolerant parochialism, ethnocentrism, disinterest in international learning, the use of just one perspective and many others.⁴⁹ Therefore, to internationalize a program actually means to institutionalize a change that has been implemented by the disciplinary departments first. Only if the department has sought to internationalize its discipline, can one answer the question of what the graduate should gain when studying the discipline and what his/her role will be in the society. The following section will review the literature that tries to answer the question of what all it means to internationalize the discipline.

2.2.4.1.2 Internationalization of Disciplines

According to the system-wide perspective, internationalization of a discipline does not happen by adding a couple of courses or topics on the developing world or by introducing a theory or two developed abroad. In other words, a discipline (e.g. educational science) is not internationalized if we add e.g. the project-based teaching instruction to the existing course on didactics, though it may help its internationalization. What does it take to internationalize a

⁴⁹ Conf. Said's renowned book (1978) on parochial view of oriental studies.

discipline then? There is no simple one-sentence answer to that, on contrary the answer to that question is extremely complex and draws on multidisciplinary theories.

Let me start by listing four major conditions to internationalization of a curriculum development by Mestenhauser and published in Czech journal *Teorie vědy* (2002) directed towards the faculty. In case the reader is a faculty who seeks a “drive through” answer, he or she may follow the four steps.

- 1) Scholars need to acknowledge that they do not know something that already exists elsewhere (awareness that a gap exists that needs to be filled.)
- 2) The knowledge is somewhere and they need to have the skills to find it and “import” it.
- 3) They need to build an infrastructure to absorb the new knowledge.
- 4) They need to use the new knowledge: to adjust it to the already existing knowledge and to produce new knowledge.

His guidelines are concerned with concepts dealing with culture and cognition. Most theories that will be mentioned below are well known in higher education scholarship also in the Czech context. Let me contextualize them for the purpose of internationalization processes with the help of internationalists Mestenhauser (1998, 1999, 2000) Ellingboe, (1998) Paige (1999) and to make implications for internationalization.

The first concept is called the “knowledge gap” and describes a gap between what the scholars know and what they need to know. These gaps may not be obvious to insiders because they consider their own knowledge universal. To complicate things, the “scarce knowledge” concept may play its role. It is knowledge, held consciously or unconsciously, about lack of knowledge. It occurs when the established practices are no longer able to resolve problems without the integration of new knowledge. In globalizing situations, scarce knowledge makes one feel uncertain and insecure about what one has just discovered one does not know and how much more there is to know that one does not even know exists (von Krogh et al, 1996). Skills needed to handle scarce knowledge include sophisticated communication abilities, diagnostic skills, abilities of cognitive alteration and self-perception.

According to Mestenhauser (2000) academics whose curricular concept is dominated by the content of the subject matter perceive the gap in international knowledge to be only facts and data about other countries and their languages, when the greatest gap is cognitive, communication and relational competencies such as thinking about complexity, paradoxes, uncertainty, changes, value orientations, sharing, cooperating, relating, and integrating. (p. 16). This comment seems especially relevant for area studies academics that constantly search for new knowledge of other countries to lessen the information gaps between societies. The easiest

way of internationalizing the curriculum is to redesign reading lists, library resources, and other teaching materials. Still, one tends to forget that only information will not yield a deep understanding. The proof of this is that currently offered programs offer minimum or no courses developing communication, cooperation and other above-mentioned relevant cognitive skills.

Another concept has been suggested by sociologists of knowledge (Gibbons et al., 1994) who were critical of the traditional, positivist mode of knowledge production, which they call “Mode A,” characterized as “digging the well deeper and deeper”. This mode has not produced major breakthroughs in the humanities and social sciences. This led them to suggest a new theory of knowledge production, “Mode B,” in which knowledge is produced from already existing knowledge and its bits and pieces by combining and recombining them, arranging and re-arranging them, and configuring them – all in the process of application to human problems. Such knowledge production requires first the acknowledgement of existing knowledge, the ability to find the knowledge and the intellectual skills of comparative, creative, divergent type of thinking - multidimensional modes of thinking.

In addition, learning psychologists tell us that people tend to organize the way they think, and that they process new knowledge in relationship to existing frames of reference. Knowledge can thus be recovered only in the same frame in which it was deposited and encoded. While most people are concerned with the access to international knowledge, the opposite barrier is also a concern, namely the exclusion of significant areas of knowledge, due to the inability to develop new frames of reference regarding how to deal with an enormous knowledge explosion. This has a tremendous consequence for the firstly-named condition above.

If people do not know of a certain phenomena or that some information exists, than they tend to assume that it does not exist at all because they do not know it. At the same time, unless they have a multivaried frame of references, they cannot absorb the knowledge even if they discover it. This has very concrete consequences for the curriculum: students going abroad are asked to study things that fit into the existing program, into the existing frame of reference. Many opportunities of enrichment are missed and the student may not gain a global perspective. It has also concrete consequences for the whole institution and its quality.

2.2.4.1.3 Curriculum and culture

The controversy about the “social construction of knowledge” has created turmoil in most social sciences. For international educator, the debate is just beginning in connection to

national boundaries. An increasing amount of evidence indicates that the concept of culture must be confronted by anybody interested in internationalization and it is a major concept of internationalization of curriculum.

This is natural because virtually everything in our country and other peoples' countries are determined by the "culture". However, culture is not only music, arts, drama and literature (the culture with capital "C") but also a much broader concept that includes, cognition, reasoning, thinking, values, behavior and attitudes and perceptions. In this meaning, culture⁵⁰ (with a small "c") seems to be the most misunderstood concept, and because it is misunderstood, becomes a major barrier to internationalization. Culture is also a very complex concept because it operates on several levels of abstraction and several levels of analysis.

The perspective of cross-cultural psychology has proved useful when mapping the ways in which specific cultural groups make sense of what goes on around them and how change and development in their understanding may occur. Hofstede's conceptualization of culture seems to be from the anthropological definition of "shared meanings" and is still being used in the latest researches (Smith, Bond, Kagtcibasi, 2006). He defined culture as "the collective programming of the mind that distinguished the members of one group or category of people from another". (Hofstede, 2001 p. 9). According to Mestenhauser (2000), the most agreed upon definition of culture (based on Hofstede) that is used in international education is that it is a system of shared values and a cognitive map that helps people make sense of their environment (p.7).

Some scholars of international education distinguish at least six levels of cross-cultural learning. 1) learning about the culture; 2) learning in the culture; 3) learning in a culture-bound educational system; 4) learning a discipline as a sub-culture; 5) transferring knowledge to both host and home country, and 6) re-learning own culture (Mestenhauser, 2000, p. 7). Each of these levels may result in different kinds of learning that is not always taken into account by practitioners, teachers, or researchers. It should be stressed that the curriculum provides only one of these levels, and that these levels may be different for "domestic" students and for "international students" if the course encourages attendance of both groups.

If disciplines are to internationalize themselves, they need to question their applicability in the international context (and not just provide a few marginalized separate courses), it is crucial to understand how culture affects disciplines. (Without that, comparisons to international scholarship or cooperation with scholars abroad this would be very difficult.)

50

There is not enough space to discuss the complexity of definitions of culture. For review of transdisciplinary definitions see Pol et al. 2007, anthropologic theories see Soukup, 2004. As for internationalist perspective Kluckholm and Kroeber offered one of the most comprehensive and generally accepted definition with the following characteristic: Culture is shared, passed on and shapes behavior and perception. (In Adler, 1997, p. 15), which corresponds with the definitions in the text.

Mestenhauser (2000) adds that training in one discipline without the knowledge of the cultural context amounts to an incomplete education (p. 9). Even though there is no common understanding of how many cultural perspectives should be included in an internationalized discipline in general, internationalists seem to agree on the importance of including more than the European and North American continent and the knowledge of interdependence. According to Robertson (1992) even the regional or area studies that appear to be truly international, actually “shrink” the world into one place without understanding their place in the connection to the rest of the world.

2.2.4.1.4 Emic and Etic perspective

A concept that is relevant especially for area studies is the emic/etic perspective. Linguists and anthropologists have coined a related concept called “etic thinking”, which means looking at others/culture as if from the outside looking in, and observing what is seen from ones pre-existing frames of reference and categories (Headland, Pike and Harris). The terms were originally employed by the anthropologist Pike (1954) when he studied linguistic concepts of phonemics and phonetics. Later Pike suggested that emic and etic could designate different viewpoints for the study of behavior, noting that from an etic perspective one describes behavior from outside, and from an emic perspective one studies behavior from inside. Berry (1969) advocated the ethnographic (emic) methods when the researcher is working in the alien culture and needs to gain local points of view in an effort to attain the emic knowledge. Then he went on to propose a step of operational zing both perspectives that he calls “derived etic”, which combines both perspectives.(In Segal, Dasen, Berry, Poortinga, 1999, p. 40). By bringing together, the researchers own emic and the alien culture emic, the researcher might emerge with the “derived etic.” This process is illustrated in Appendix 1.7.

The difficulty is that, without special training and experience, the etic perspective is the default entry point to another culture. According to Mestenhauser and Paige (2000) thinking in etic terms (transferring theories and concepts, and their meanings, from one culture to another) is far more common. The emic thinking is not part of the normal program of higher education. It involves deep knowledge of the other culture, searching for frames of reference that exist in the other culture, understanding categories of parts of the other culture, and overcoming ethnocentrism. Gaining an emic perspective is very demanding task, still cross-cultural psychology, perhaps reacting to the history of serious misapplications of IQ tests, seems to have taken up that task. It needs to be emphasized that both perspectives are needed, and that either alone produces a different knowledge of other cultures.

Overall, culture is a major variable that influences not only how people from other cultures behave, communicate etc, but also how they organize their knowledge and how knowledge is organized in various disciplines⁵¹. Every academic discipline has its method of thinking about itself. These methods are called intellectual skills or competencies, and usually include critical or creative thinking (Mestenhauser, 1998, p. 25). However, there are many more such intellectual skills, and some of them are not even known at this time because they may emerge in the future. According to Mestenhauser, several of the cognitive skills cannot be taught by the traditional approach to the curriculum. As Einstein was reputed to have said, “major problems cannot be solved by the same paradigms that created them.” (ibid.)

For example, Gergen (1994) suggested that some new cognitive skills are emerging that have not been known before, and that others are yet to be discovered. Among the emerging ones, he suggested a capacity for conceptual alteration, a corresponding capacity of rapid changes in self-perception, a conceptual ability for self-perception, a capacity to operate contrary to the established system, and a capacity to envision alternatives autonomously (Mestenhauser, 1998, p. 26). These and other intellectual competencies are to be considered instead of searching for easy solutions to the question which subject matter should be “infused” into the curricula to become internationalized.

In a nutshell, to effect change, one needs to begin with recognition that the present system is inadequate to future needs. Before any curricular change can be implemented, two things must happen and ways must be found: to describe various cognitive systems both emically and etically, and to render them intelligible to mainstream academic disciplines.

2.2.4.1.5 Ethnocentrism of the curriculum

The worldview of people depends on a given culture they are part of. It is the crucial element to understanding international education because it is its antecedent, namely ethnocentrism. When thinking about the cognitive structures and how they affect the curriculum, it is necessary to take into account ethnocentrism, which is a common human condition. According to Atkins (2007, p. 9, based on Gagliardi, 1995, p. 2) education is mostly mono-cultural, reflecting the history and beliefs of a given society. This is a very important thesis for internal education.

Cooper (2007) argues that there has been a tendency in the last 200 years in European universities to view the rest of the world from a strictly ethnocentric perspective (p. 528).

⁵¹ E.g. John J. Cogan for example compares the differences of how the course of global education is taught in Wales and in U.S. where much more stress is put on the content rather than the process as in Wales. (In Mestenhauser & Ellingboes, 1998)

Other evidence follows, Paige and Martin (1996, p. 46) state that “human beings are usually ethnocentric” and Bennett (1996, p. 21) concurs, “intercultural sensitivity is not natural.” Brislin and Yoshida (1994, p. 10) summarize that ethnocentrism originates from the way socialization into a culture simplifies children’s learning into dichotomous relationships of “good / proper” and “bad / wrong.”

Ultimately, ones methods of learning, validity of knowledge, respect of truth, and constructs of reality are passed on and taught to younger members of the culture, perpetuating cognitive systems in the form of what Bourdieu (1986) calls “cultural capital.” As Paige (unpublished concept paper) indicates, culture’s role is to both facilitate and hinder thinking. It facilitates it because it provides the mental frames for thinking; it hinders it because it limits the scope and extent of it thus creating the proverbial “thinking inside the box” syndrome. The role that culture plays is essential to understand when considering how it influences thinking (Mestenhauser, 2002b, p. 5).

The concept of cultural capital fits well with what is known from cultural psychologists. Osgood (1977) and Triandis (1972)⁵² determined that culture operates at both “objective” and “subjective” levels. This distinction is often illustrated with the former being the tip of an iceberg that we can see (while the submerged part remains unseen) and the latter being the much larger yet unrecognized mass. “Objective elements of culture are the visible, tangible elements of culture. Subjective elements of culture are invisible, intangible elements of a group of people and include such things as values, attitudes, and norms of behavior – things that are generally kept in the mind,” (Cushner & Landis, 1996, p. 186, In Mestenhauser & Paige, 1999, p. 515). Many of these are internalized by large numbers because of people experiencing culture subconsciously.

Mestenhauser calls attention to the “intellectual traditions and cultural paradigms”⁵³ (Mestenhauser, 2002a, p. 6) which affect what we know about others and about ourselves as the major barrier to internationalization. International educators face a difficult task when they call for a critical review of the field because, in challenging existing educational practices, they question cherished intellectual traditions very similarly to the efforts of critical multiculturalists (see at the end of section on curriculum).

Mestenhauser and Ellingboe (1996) have identified numerous cultural, administrative and social psychological barriers to internationalization, most of which stem, as indicated above, from ethnocentrism, including academic ethnocentrism. “Academic ethnocentrism is a cultural blinder that limits what we see and how we interpret it” (Mestenhauser, 2002a, p. 7).

⁵² In Mestenhauser & Paige (1999, pp. 500-517)

⁵³ Mestenhauser comments how humanistic tradition and renaissance scholars and the consequences of fragmentation of disciplines and curricular tradition (see Mestenhauser, 2002a, p. 10-11).

Ethnocentrism is a universal human condition which is inherited by primary socialization⁵⁴ and its consequences include the neglect of knowledge produced abroad and distorted view of ourselves in comparison with other. This makes it difficult to diagnose potential gaps, to critically evaluate the knowledge we produce and to assess the reason why we are not aware of what others know (Ibid, p. 7). Thus, it may happen that we are not aware that we are not aware of other perspectives.

This section begun with four conditions targeted at scholars and teachers that are needed for internationalization of a discipline. I find it useful to end with guidelines, which put the above-mentioned concepts in direct relation to the curriculum (I use them also as additional research framework for internationalization of the curriculum). An internationalized discipline will have the following characteristics:

- 1) Integrative dimension: the field incorporates knowledge from diverse settings, cultures, and languages into the curriculum and integrates (i.e. translates, synthesizes and connects) knowledge produced within the field as well as outside any given national boundary in order to produce new knowledge (conf. Gibbons, 1994).
- 2) Intercultural dimension: the field reflects a profound understanding of culture and cultural variables including the intellectual tradition or influence of possible totalitarian government; studies how they influence educational policy, practice and scholarly inquiry or institutional life. These are especially important to larger issues of democracy, inclusion and human rights (conf. Ting-Toomey, 1994,)
- 3) Interdisciplinary⁵⁵ dimension: the field draws on the knowledge found within other disciplines to construct new and more holistic ways of understanding and has more complex intellectual tools to identify factors that make the discipline culture bound (conf. Littlejohn, 1996,). Interdisciplinary is not, however, a juxtaposition of two or more disciplines. According to Valenta (2008), many teachers think that they are doing it. It is actually very difficult, very similarly to intercultural communication, both emic and etic perspective (for more on cross-curricular theories see Klein, 1999).
- 4) Comparative dimension: the field demonstrates the ability to compare and contrast education in diverse cultural contexts using emic entry points for better understanding of a phenomenon (see emic v. etic perspective above)
- 5) Transfer of knowledge technology dimension. Knowledge from one setting can be applied to another in a manner that respects both origins of the idea and the setting into which

⁵⁴ For more details see Brislin, Cushner, Cherric, and Yong (1986, pp. 304-323) give a detailed description of the development of cognitive ethnocentrism and the basis of cultural differences.

⁵⁵ In 1961 UNESCO commission led by Piaget came up with an influential document of classification of interdisciplinary cooperation (UNESCO, 1961). Julie Klein draws on that document in her often cited book on *Interdisciplinarity*, 1999.

it is being transferred, this should not be a simple borrowing, but knowledge should create new knowledge (conf. how to make indigenous psychology in Smith, Kagitcibasi, Bound, 2006)

6) Contextual dimension: Scholars analyze the context, identify salient historical, political, economic, socio-cultural and other factors associated with educational theory, research and especially practice (conf. Hall, 1983)

7) Global dimension: scholars in the field are aware how global trends influence educational practice and seek to use knowledge of world-wide economic, political, socio-cultural trends in the development of educational programs. (Adopted from Mestenhauser & Paige, 1999, pp. 504-505).

These all combine into what Mestenhauser and Paige refer to as an international mindset. In an internationalized field of study, these perspectives find expression in the education that graduate students receive, the research they conduct and the policies that administrators develop and implement. Internationally minded scholars do not ignore daily problems but are driven by higher-level tasks, such as maintenance and defense of democracy and freedoms, human rights, peace, justice, an international/intercultural cooperation and understanding.

Internationalization of a discipline or a field of knowledge is not limited to acquisition of information from abroad or even the flow of ideas and persons across national boundaries. Rather, it is about what one does with it and how one constructs new knowledge – and both is culture-bound.

2.2.4.1.6 Internationalization of individual courses

The answer of internationalizing individual courses is not any simpler and swirls around culture as well. According to the literature review, some authors like to define the transformation by listing desirable educational outcomes (see ACE, 2006). Most of them stress the development of intercultural sensitivity skills, and intercultural communication skills apart from having the knowledge of other cultures. Other scholars like Mestenhauser, like to define the outcomes rather in ways how the content of instruction is related to the cognitive skills that the content is supposed to produce. These cognitive competencies may or may not be produced by additional intercultural trainings and courses or by the general liberal education tradition. Other theories support the development of relevant teaching methods rather than focus on the content. There has been no research, which the approaches yield better outcomes, therefore all should be considered seriously.

A recent ACE (2007) project focused on learning outcomes of international education and produced a list of them (see p. 18 above). For some, their list may be very compendious,

for others, the list may be too limiting and hard to follow due to the different characters of individual disciplines. Both perspectives are legitimate. Still, the ACE's effort remains up-to-now unique and helpful. It is clear that in order to produce the above-mentioned outcomes with students, the curriculum must undergo a transformative process. The creation of the new knowledge is along with the transmission of knowledge the primary responsibility of the academic community. The challenge of curriculum is to make sure that at all levels it reflects the best and current thinking in all knowledge domains. Curriculum therefore concerns the content of knowledge and the way knowledge is created.

The ACE's list (2007) serves to demonstrate the diverse range of competencies that goes beyond the desired strictly cognitive skills of graduates to include the attitudinal and intercultural dimensions of the learning process, for example, value diversity of language and culture. It must be noted though that from an institutional perspective, this approach may lack cohesion. There might be only certain groups of faculty involved in the international teaching and their courses may come to constitute separate domains. They may act as distinct clans, relatively isolated from other faculty who may regard internationalization as irrelevant to their discipline. Thus, the international dimension remains a 'fragmented and parallel concept' (IAU, 2002 in Van der Wende, 2000).

Believing that adding one or two courses or one or two books within the courses does not make the curriculum internationalized, it is necessary to look deeper into the argumentation of conceptualization of internationalization of the courses than just listing the needed competencies of students. Several curricular recommendations in the literature consider content and are directed to individual faculty. The scholarship on this topic is much scarcer in relation to the curriculum of higher education institutions than to primary and secondary level. The literature review reveals that there are several major competencies analyzed in connection to culture by international educators.

2.2.4.1.7 Intercultural competencies

While there is a very extensive body of literature about intercultural competencies, Czech interest in them has been slow, late and minimal (Nový & Schroll, 2005; Morgensternová & Šulová, 2007). All Czech authors draw on existing international definitions. The first reference to intercultural competencies in Czech literature can be found in Schroll and Nový (2005) who simply commented that there is little consensus on what intercultural competence really means, even though most large companies like to require them in hiring people for new positions. These authors defined an interculturally competent person as one who is open to other people and their thought, who has interest in them, who is able to

gain trust of others, who reacts sensitively to emotions and thoughts of others, who expresses respect and positive evaluation and who is not judgmental. Such person is also reflective, self-confident, and able to take initiative without dominating others, who is calm in frustrating and confusing situations and is cognitively and personally flexible. It is understood, that such a person must also be technically and professionally competent. (Keally, Ruben 1983 in Schroll and Nový, 2005, p. 71).

Generally speaking, intercultural sensitivity skills (often called intercultural sophistication or intercultural communication skills) are defined usually as the ability to create new categories and role flexibility and/or intercultural communication skills. The skills gained from intercultural communication⁵⁶ are communication skills, personality development, such as flexibility, adjustability and self-reflection (Mestenhauser, 2002a). The most often used instrument to measure this skill, is the Intercultural Development Inventory (IDI), which is based on Bennett's (1993) Developmental Model of Intercultural Sensitivity (conf. also in Morgensternová and Šulová, 2007, pp. 20-40)

The model "describes a learner's subjective experience of cultural difference" (Bennett, 1993, p. 22, Atkinson, 2007, p.15), which is called "intercultural sensitivity" and relates to one of six different orientations on a continuum from ethnocentrism to ethno-relativism, as follows: people experience difference ethnocentrically if they are in Denial, Defense, or Minimization, but if they are oriented toward Acceptance, Adaptation, or Integration, they will experience difference with an ethno-relative worldview. Each stage is carefully defined, and the instrument has been cross-culturally standardized.

In relation to globalization, one can also meet terms as "global competence", which is defined as "the ability of faculty, staff and students not only to contribute to knowledge but also comprehend, analyze and evaluate its meaning in the context of an increasingly globalized world" (NUSOLGC, 2004, p. 2). Alternatively, Hanvey (1979) identified it as 1) perspective consciousness, 2) a state of the planet awareness, 3) cultural awareness, 3) knowledge of global dynamic, and 4) an awareness of human choices.

Harris and Morgan (1996 In Ellingboe, 1998, p. 51) call for another global competence, "global leadership", which is necessary for employee's and management's successful performance in this rapidly changing global environment. Global leadership competence includes cross-cultural communication, cultural sensitivity, acculturation, handling culture's influences on management, effective intercultural performance, division of responsibility and ability to work in teams of complex multicultural environment. Only

⁵⁶ Intercultural communication has experienced growth over the last 30 years and is based on theories that come from communication theory, social and cognitive and development psychology, cultural anthropology, and ethics, resource management, and cross-cultural counseling.

organizations that apply these concepts and practices will become globally effective and efficient. (Harris, Moran, 1996, in Ellingboe, 1999, p. 51).

Mestenhauser (Mestenhauser, 2002a) reminds that quick-fix short-term training programs commonly organized by corporations on global competencies or intercultural training or intercultural communication training adequately prepare employees for global encounters. Institutionalization of international education means that it should be absorbed in the existing curriculum rather than by creating new projects and programs. Mestenhauser writes about “rethinking” the curriculum to reflect the international dimension. He (In Teekens ed., 2007) criticizes the tendency to identify common “global competencies” which can be extrapolated from disciplines and even are confused with personality structures like “flexibility”. Overall, global competencies do not address the key intellectual competencies: critical, creative, systems, comparative, integrative and meta/thinking, self-regulation and yet unknown cognitive competencies of higher order that he argues for. Mestenhauser writes:

Teachers, think they - and their students - practice these intellectual skills because they analyze, compare, problem-solve, make decisions, explain, and understand things and events regularly, but on an automatic auto-pilot which is conceptually possible only for lower level of intellectual functioning (Marzano, 2001). “The intellectual skills I write about here are thinking skills of higher order that require more conscious control over our thinking. Consequently we are expecting our students to acquire new knowledge and skills that we ourselves may not have, and when we do, do not know how to teach them well. For the most part universities practice what I call the “supermarket model” in which we say that we have some “good enough” or “better than nothing” international stuff in the curriculum that is on the shelves of our catalogues for students to place in their shopping carts and accept their own responsibility for consuming the right things and for learning and integrating that which we as educators may not know how to do.” (Mestenhauser, 2002b, p. 15)

2.2.4.1.8 Cognitive skills

As Mestenhauser (2002b) above suggested, while the intercultural competencies are essential, they are not sufficient because they are limited to intercultural communication and intercultural training based on limited conceptual foundation. Therefore, other major cognitive skills, such as critical thinking should be part of any discipline. At the same time, it is impossible to expect critical thinkers to recognize their own biases without understanding their culture and the way it influences cognition. Cross-cultural communication competencies would help us gain these skills, but they may not address the criteria for evaluation of knowledge from other cultural sources, the complex system of inferences needed to process

simultaneously knowledge from at least two cultures, and the deeply engrained system of categorizing knowledge that people have imbedded in their brains. Without special training and practice, these categories persist and cause errors of judgment when they are projected into other cultures that may organize knowledge differently (McCarty, 1999 In Mestenhauser, 2002b, p. 9).

Corporations and other agencies often prefer specialized separate training programs conducted on a piecemeal basis, but they are very expensive and not often very effective because they focus on behavior rather than on concepts from which behavior stems. It seems much wiser for universities to advocate for useful intellectual skills, like critical thinking, comparative thinking⁵⁷, creative thinking, systems thinking and others to be include in academic programs throughout the whole curriculum.

Thinking critically⁵⁸ means to satisfy three conditions: first, critical thinkers should possess good habits of mind (*dispositions* in the sense of Ennis, 1987, and Halpern, 1996). These habits are not the critical thinking itself, but its pre-requisites: fair-mindedness, honesty, respect for others, recognition of own biases, active search for others' views especially those that may be diametrically opposed to our own, and care for others (Abhishaker 1997 In Mestenhauser, 2002b, pp. 60-65). Second, critical thinkers should have adequate intellectual preparation through knowledge and information; and third, they should be focused appropriately on the subject, should define its critical terms appropriately, and should establish credibility of sources, should analyze claims fully, contextualize issues appropriately, and apply relevant criteria for evaluation of claims. On the face of it there does not seem to be much difference between critical thinking and intercultural communication competence mentioned above. However, the conceptual foundation of critical thinking is based distinctly on western philosophy of informal logic that does not take into account other cultural assumptions, for example Confucian culture, which is why they are complementary.

According to the Gardin's (1998) comprehensive research of American higher education institutions, students are not taught critical thinking. Even though faculty claimed that developing effective thinking (including critical) was their primary educational purpose,

⁵⁷ "Comparative thinking is a conscious and deliberate mental operation of relating views and perspectives on familiar things to the unfamiliar. It is at once a method of explanation, a method of persuasion, and understanding of one quality by another. Thus it is a conceptual tool for discovering assumptions, clarifying observation habits, and discovering new ideas". (Mestenhauser, 2002b, p. 65). It occurs when "we make decisions about something new in our experiences drawing a parallel to something 'old'" (Sternberg, 1977, p. 353 In *ibid*).

⁵⁸ critical thinking is often confused with a personality variable of being able to criticize individuals. It is an abstract term referring to individuals' ability to decide for them, without outside influence, what they believe (Ennis, 1996 in Mestenhauser, 2002b). It includes responsibility to search for and examine all evidence, including that which may be discordant with one's own views, and to make sure that all perspectives have been taken into account. (conf. Grecmanová, Novotný, Urbanovská, 2000).

most of the 4,000 reviewed course goals were related to discipline context rather than developing intellectual skills. "Yet, 30 years of research show us that most of our students hold epistemological assumptions that prevent them from understanding and, therefore, engaging in critical thinking."⁵⁹ The development of the relevant cognitive skills is thus really important.

Mestenhauser argues that performance of this skill requires a measure of individualistic value orientation because it is essentially a system of individual responsibility. Communism was diametrically opposed to individual orientation, and thus distorted peoples' abilities to think critically (Mestenhauser, 1998). Professional societies were defined more in terms of group identity than individual accomplishments. Resolutions and manifestos that call on somebody else to take action are common activities that hinder the development and proliferation of critical thinking.

The way people understand critical thinking may differ very much in the U.S. and the Czech Republic⁶⁰. One of the very few published definitions of critical thinking in Czech scholarship is actually very similar to the above-mentioned understanding. This definition proposed by Grecmanová, Novotný and Urbanovská (2000) draws heavily on the international authors, as the does the Czech organization called Kritické myšlení o.p.s. (trans. as critical thinking). Other authors like Walterová (2002) point to the importance of critical thinking as one of the major characteristics of European system of values (p. 167), without, however, explaining it in more detail. There has been no research documenting critical thinking of students in the enacted curriculum of higher education in CR so far.

Also comparative thinking needs more clarification. The comparative education approach has been discussed as a way to teach international education through studies of another country's educational, business, agricultural, communication, or political systems (McAdams, 1993, Larny, 1983, 1987 In Ellingboe, 1999, p. 68). The point of entry into another culture is always with the etic perspective (Headland, Pike, Harris, 1990). This method allows cross-cultural comparisons, but such comparisons produce a different kind of knowledge than emic perspective. By tradition we employ in cross-cultural comparative research almost exclusively the etic approach without being cautioned that we learn about others differently from how they see themselves. At the same time, most of the research

⁵⁹ "In a study of 155 class sessions at four different institutions, questioning of students comprised 0.2 percent to 9.2 percent of class time." Gardin's *Why We Must Change: The Research Evidence*. Thought & Action, Spring, 1998.

Excerpted by Doug Madden. Retrieved from: http://www.hi.is/~joner/eaps/wh_gardr.htm

⁶⁰ For my research, I had to pay special attention to questions about critical thinking because I found in the pretesting that interviewees automatically answered that they develop critical thinking with their students without being able to explain what they really mean by "thinking critically".

remains within a single domain and does not respond to the interdependence of disciplines (Mestenhauser, 1998, p. 26).

A comparative approach is central to understanding the way people think about foreign influences, about their relationship to them, about when and how to search for them, about what to accept and reject, and about what might be useful if adapted and how to undertake such adaptation. It involves not just a simple transfer of knowledge from one country to another, but the use of that knowledge to produce new knowledge (Gibbons, 1994 in Mestenhauser, 2002b, p. 6). Its significance goes beyond interactions in intercultural settings. It is essential in carrying out research and many universities structure separate courses on intercultural research methods.

Through the lens of internationalization, the dividing line between the national and the global or regional is not a simple extension of the previous thinking, but a gigantic step into something, which is qualitatively different from the national perspective. By employing various methods of thinking and various levels of analysis, we are, in effect, facilitating a major cognitive shift from national to international thinking in which a person confronts the world of other cultures by also confronting one's own (Mestenhauser, 1995, p. 10). In this, it is necessary to employ both emic and etic perspectives.

The purpose of internationalization of higher education is to create attitudes and insights among student that will lead them to see the world from a multiple perspective. For internationalization is the integration of multiple perspectives and multidimensional components. "Integration means connectedness of the multiple ways of looking and thinking about a subject, even if it may appear that various parts have no relation to each other." (Mestenhauser, 1995, p.21 In Ellingboe, 1999, p. 115). Promoting interdisciplinary cooperation⁶¹ among disciplines and disciplinary perspectives is a challenge to organizational change. Unfortunately, the scholarship on interdisciplinary cooperation in higher education is quite limited in the Czech Republic.

In addition to the general cognitive skills, Mestenhauser (2002b) identifies future learning needs of students that relate to potential curricular transformation. He suggests that future graduate study needs to include:

- more depth and more subject matters (which are needed to produce new knowledge),
- mandatory foreign language study,
- changing old and dysfunctional traditions,

⁶¹ For recent definitions of interdisciplinarity, transdisciplinarity, crossdisciplinarity, mutlidisciplinaritz, pluridisciplinarity see Klein, 1990.

- unlearning some things, e.g. ethnocentric biases,
- expanding knowledge beyond borders,
- acquiring new cognitive skills, especially second order skills,
- doing all of this continually through self-directed effort,
- learning how to adjust new knowledge to previous knowledge,
- learning cooperative communication skills in a global context,
- learning multiple ways of cognition, and
- learning leadership skills applicable to global setting.

All these new demands on students means placing new demands on faculty. Unless the faculty practices interdisciplinary cooperation in their research, they cannot expect that from their students. Only if faculty is aware of their ethnocentrism, can they lead the students to explore multiple ways of knowing, cross-cultural research methodologies or intercultural sensitivity. The central role of faculty in redesign of the curricula has been asserted, the ways to motivate, support, develop faculty will be discussed later in section on Faculty.

2.2.4.1.9 Teaching and learning strategies

Caruna and Hanstock (2003) write that learning, teaching and assessment based on a Western version of knowledge values only western ways of knowing and learning (not numbered). Culture is strongly related to teaching and learning strategies. MacKinnon and Manathunga (2003 pp. 131, In Caruna and Hanstock, 2003, not numbered) point out that if students are unable to grasp the aims and objectives, and are unable to position their cultural relevance within this process then both they, but more importantly the faculty, fail to develop intercultural communication skills and responsive assessment. Caruna and Hanstock (2003) add that this implies a crucial point in developing inclusive learning, teaching and assessment strategies: the need for teaching staff to develop new skills, knowledge, attitudes and values. Within an environment where the approach to internationalization is not holistic a perceived conflict between the aims of internationalization and those of the subject curriculum may encourage legitimate dissent, expressed in such views as: “We have no space for this kind of thing in our program. How will my students be good engineers, dentists, teachers without 60 hours in my subject? Those are subjects that should be dealt with elsewhere and not here.” (Caruna and Hanstock, 2003, not numbered).

Several universities, in an effort to pre-empt such scenarios, have developed a framework for faculty and administration development to provide clarification of what internationalization of curriculum including teaching and learning styles means. (Faculty development will be dealt with below in the section on Faculty.)

Furthermore, international students may find themselves fundamentally disadvantaged by learning, teaching and assessment methods and strategies based exclusively on the western (or other) model. Biggs (1997) exploring teachers' orientations when encountering culturally diverse groups has proposed a model of three levels or orientations.

At level 1 teachers are aware of different learning behaviors among different cultural groups. However, when difficulties arise in learning activities the teacher attributes the problem to student deficit, possibly culturally induced. Biggs refers to this phenomenon as 'conceptual colonialism' whereby the concepts of one's own culture are imposed on another, as if they were universal. At the second level of abstraction, the teacher respects and values cultural differences, accepts learning behavior, tries to encourage expression of beliefs, values and world views, tries to design appropriate learning activities and attempts to use a teaching style which corresponds to the observed learning style. However, to respond to all different styles is time-consuming and teaching techniques result in too little attention to learning outcomes involving intellectual and social development. At the third level of orientation, the focus is firmly on cognitive outcomes and cultural similarities, the teacher assumes that universal principles apply across cultures, for example cognitive skills have to be engaged to carry out an academic task. Thus the teacher seeks to engage cognitive processes that are common to all students, thereby transcending cultural differences (Biggs, 1997 In Caruna and Hanstock, 2003, not numbered).

This focus on cognitive processes suggests an approach that differentiates between different levels of development of intercultural sensitivity and the teaching methods and learning activities that support them. International awareness may be achieved through teaching strategies that foster an understanding that knowledge and curriculum do not emerge from a single cultural base. Students need to be given clearly articulated 'space' for the inclusion of their cultural diversity. But it is equally important that in discussion students are encouraged to critically reflect on their assumptions and beliefs (Edwards et al, 2003, pp. 183-190).

Some writers referred to the pedagogy of internationalized curriculum as the teaching and learning strategies that make curriculum more engaging and relevant for students from cultures different from that of the university itself (Jones, 1998; Rizvi, 1999; Ryan, 2000; Ryan and Hellmundt, 2003). Other writers argued that the pedagogy should seek to make use of the input of both foreign and domestic students to provide an added international and intercultural value to all the students in the class (Back *et al.*, 1996; Bell, 2004; Mestenhauser, 1998; Teekens, 2000). Both perspectives require the specific knowledge, skills, and attitude of the lecturers in order to successfully deliver the internationalized curriculum. This point is

articulated by Teekens (2000): "...it is the lecturer who is the core player in the process. It is her or his teaching that ultimately determines the results in the international classroom" (p.30).

There have been quite a few scholars and teachers, within the field of multiculturalism⁶² and international education that have incorporated and developed pedagogical models centered around the diverse learning styles of college students.

Frew (2005) recommended some strategies that the lecturers could implement to assist the international students in class, for instance, to get familiar with some specific cultures and different communication styles; to speak clearly and at a reasonable pace, avoiding inaccessible vocabulary and culturally specific words; to make good use of non-verbal communication strategies such as visual aids, gestures, and eye contacts; to design low-anxiety-provoking "structured" small group activities (p.28 In Shan, 2008, p. 26).

Haigh (2002) mentioned the use of the internet, emails, teleconferencing, multimedia, and foreign magazines to encourage the communications between domestic and foreign students, and the explorations of the different views. He also indicated that "the flexible styles of student-constructed, student-centered learning leave greater scope for pluralism than conventional didactic instruction" (p.58 In Shan, 2008, p. 26). Electronic communication with team partners, teleconferencing and e-mail may bring groups of students and professionals at the home institution in contact with those in other countries, providing discussion and feedback. Reflection on the process may reinforce the abstract views of diversity formed through international awareness (Edwards et al, 2003 pp. 185-190).

Finally, the immersion of students in global settings through study abroad and international work placements develops international expertise and consolidates international literacy. International competence can be developed by cross-cultural interaction. A teaching strategy that includes experiential and problem-based learning can be used to engage local and international students. Teaching methods can include aspects such as foreign language studies at universities abroad, work placements abroad and other study abroad options, perhaps with all students spending a semester at a university in another country and learning in a foreign language (Edwards et al, 2003 in Caruna and Hanstock, 2003 not numbered). Appropriate teaching and learning strategies need to be also accompanied by proper assessment mechanism⁶³.

It may be argued that such teaching, learning and assessment strategies have currency beyond the confines of internationalization (very similarly to inclusive education) reflecting

⁶² see M. Adams, 1992; Schmeck 1988; Tobias, 1990; Mosston & Ashworth, 2002; or see Inclusive Teaching Strategies at <http://depts.washington.edu/cidrweb/inclusive/diversify.html> for more on teaching styles
⁶³ for examples of culturally inclusive assessment at <http://www.olt.qut.edu.au/udf/worldmarks/>

the generic principles of good practice in higher education. For Biggs (2003 In Caruna and Hanstock, 2003, not numbered) good teaching practice is inclusive and ‘needs to make new concessions to presumed cultural differences’.

2.2.4.1.10 Rethinking the curriculum

Coincidentally, we can find some parallel thinking about the curriculum transformation from another mega-educational goals, the multicultural education about which more will be said later. “Rethinking” is the crucial dictum of critical theory and of the social transformation approach, which suggests that the goal of transforming the curriculum is to foster equity and justice and to give students the tools to work actively and critically towards social transformation (Sheng, 2008, p. 19).

Jackson (1968) and Freire (1970) were originally calling attention to well-known concepts of today’s critical multiculturalism: “hidden curriculum” and “pedagogic oppression”. Other authors refer to cultural hegemony in education with various terms, such as Ehrensals’s (2001) “pedagogic authority.” These concepts have slowly penetrated education disciplines, but are mainly confined to academic disciplines that encompass postcolonial and postmodern theory. Post-colonialism challenges educators to “re-think” the production, representation, and circulation of knowledge so that these do not remain the monopoly and privilege of one group.

The question of hegemony of powerful over less powerful states is also handled by internationalist Shoorman (1997) and the idea that student mobility should not be limited only to those students who come from the “right” countries was already talked about in the Internationalization at Home concept. The reflection on how totalitarianism affects higher education curriculum remains to be undertaken.

Rethinking the curricular concepts among others means asking how subjective cultural values translate into what is being taught (i.e. again the concept of ethnocentrism.) Peggy McIntosh, a critical pedagogue, originally developed a model that attempted to describe the process by which women begun to be included in the curriculum. Numerous writers have modified and supplemented her theory and oriented it towards issues of race, science and diversity in general (Fausto-Sterling 1992, Schuster and Van Dyne, 1985).

Mildred and Smith (In Turner et al. 2002, p. 501) adopted her model to reflect stages of inclusiveness in the college curriculum, where the transformation goes beyond adding books to course syllabi. Even though the model concerns examples of minority issues, their model as they themselves proposed goes further than “to question the validity of what is taught by those who are introducing new perspectives because they just do not see things

differently but may also have knowledge that counter what is taught” (p. 502). Their rationale for the curriculum transformation relates actually to the overwhelming challenge of colleges as they recognize that educating students to live in demographically diverse society and in a complex, interdependent world.

Of course it is not only the multiculturalists who devote their research to these shifts in knowledge production, dissemination and utilization. Numerous authors apart from the above mentioned Gibbons, such as Schwartz and Ogilvy (1979) have suggested that major changes represent nothing less than a paradigm shift in our views of knowledge can be traced.

Their research has been motivated in part by the seminal work of Kuhn (1970) which showed how science, as a social endeavor, follows a path marked not by an even continuity of small steps, but by great leaps forward interspersed with plateaus⁶⁴. Our understanding of the nature of disciplinary knowledge has undergone many paradigm shifts in this century (Schwartz and Ogilvy, 1979). These shifts concern “a super-thinking system of thought that dominates an entire historical era”. They are related to multiple perspectives and reflect movement from simple to complex, from mechanical to holographic, from linear causality to mutual and complex causality, from hierarchy to heterarchy, from the possibility of objectivity to the probability of a single perceptivity (conf. Mestenhauser, 1996, pp. 18-19). Paradigm shifts have very concrete implications. For example the shift from quantitative methodology towards qualitative, or the shift from teacher/center pedagogy towards child-centered pedagogy, etc.

As regards internationalization, it is mostly presented as an “added-value” to school’s outcomes either in the form of research (conf. The Long Term Policy for Development and Research), as student study abroad experiences added to the existing graduate programs, or simply by adding a single reading assignment. Internationalization can bear its fruits only if it is incorporated into the whole reasoning system as a natural part. In other words: a new shift of perspectives from national to international is needed. The question is how such shift should look.

Higher education institutions are overwhelmed (motivated or pushed from outside) to become globally competitive institutions. Anything that is “international” is believed to give the institutions a competitive advantage. However, it is very difficult to maintain successful collaborative ventures and educational exchanges. First of all, collaboration cannot be established on competitive motivation. Secondly, collaborative establishments require a shift

⁶⁴ For more see Hutcheon P. D. Popper and Kuhn on the Evolution of Science. Brock Review vol. 4, No 1ú2, p. 28-37. Retrieved from: <http://www.humanists.net/pdhutcheon/Papers%20and%20Presentations/Popper%20and%20Kuhn%20on%20the%20Evolution%20of%20Science.htm>

in knowledge production. Scholars tend to feel that the cooperation in these ventures is uneven and that they make larger contributions and do not trust their partners. According to Mestenhauser (2000) the experience shows that academics do not have the diagnostic skills and concepts of how these efforts work, what problems they have, how to assess failure or success, and how to develop a face-saving exit strategy. Consequently, the sharing of knowledge is uneven, pragmatic, selective, reductionist, limited to narrow specializations, and involving only a very few scholars (p. 41).

The concept of collaboration seems to be very problematic especially in countries with high uncertainty-avoidance indexes. Unless scholars learn and practice team collaboration and interdisciplinary (or inter-departmental) collaboration, they cannot practice international collaboration. Fortunately, there are sufficient numbers of internationally sophisticated people who understand that the very nature is changing and the concept of national interest and balance of power is outdated (George, 1994, Keohane et al, 1993, Mestenhauser 2000). The alternative is to articulate another paradigm that is interdependence, a conflict resolution concept based on higher level of abstraction in which all lower levels of interest are taken into account (Mestenhauser, 2000). This concept is not a simple opposition to the idea of competitiveness, it is actually very demanding both morally and skillfully.

The shift from national to international includes shifting ways of knowledge production as well as of perspectives. Let us come back in more detail to McIntosh's theory which combines such shift with the cultural perspective, away from ethnocentrism and cultural hegemony. The theory is targeted at the activity of an individual, and is applicable for all three defined levels of curriculum. I find her theory both empowering and in the right place in international education (for more on common grounds see below).

Even though this theory originated in the realm of critical pedagogy, namely in the feminist theory, I find it applicable also to the internationalization purposes largely because McIntosh's transformation of the curriculum is very thorough and concerns more than the content of the traditional disciplines, which is not the only facet that is being reevaluated. A fundamental review of underlying assumptions, epistemologies, areas of interest and methodologies in connection to culture and given intellectual tradition. (Garcia & Smith, In Turner et al, 2002).

There are five stages that underscore curricular transformation according to her (p.506):

Phase 1.- Much of the curriculum in higher education continues to be shaped by the prevailing perspective of academic scholarship, which emerged out of the Eurocentric. In this phase, the absence of diversity is not viewed in terms of exclusion, but rather from the

standpoint that the prevailing perspectives represent an objective approach to some subject matters that is universally valid. Mestenhauser (2008) calls it a “conceptual and perceptual” issue: people are not aware of other perspectives and at the same time don’t want to know about it.

Phase 2. - The second phase involves efforts to diversify the curriculum by trying to focus on those who might be added to the picture because they have been previously excluded. This is done on a voluntary, individual basis depending on individual decision of what is good enough to be included.

Phase 3.- In the third phase, people begin to ask why the other perspectives have not been included and raise questions about what is behind the “traditional” perspective, what is “the traditional” research paradigm, why is the discipline defined in particular terms and why it includes particular topics, books, grounding/helping disciplines.

Phase 4.- The next phase of the curriculum development begins with questions about other perspectives. The curriculum is being reorganized to use multiple perspectives in creation of knowledge. For example, in many areas of social science, the prominence of quantitative methodologies comes to be seriously questioned, including concepts that tradition created, such as the theories of intelligence, human behavior etc. based on limited segments of a population.

Phase 5.- This phase reflects the rethinking of disciplines, of areas of study, methodologies and pedagogies that have resulted from the ferment just described. Such curriculum will encourage complex critical thinking, the capacity to think in terms of multiple perspectives, and the ability to solve problems in a far more complex environment. “It is far more exciting and far reaching than simply adding and stirring a few new voices to the standard” (Mildered & Smith, 2002 In Turner et al, 2002, p. 506).

If academia is to be the intellectual leader of its society, it should reflect the trends in knowledge production and organize the curriculum to reflect that shift. There are multiple rationales advocating for such shift in teaching students which include not only the just described shift in the knowledge production, but also the need for awareness and inclusion of multiplicity of perspectives needed in the globalized/multicultural world. The shift must be reflected in students’ outcomes and above all mental skills

The internationalization of curriculum is its revision connected primarily to culture. Apart from content, it also has an impact on teaching methods. In accordance with the inclusive rationale it “shifts the methodology from the lecture format where the teachers is all knowing and the subject matter is as True and Objective, to balancing the content (product learning) with process learning, to minimizing competition and maximizing cooperation, to

inclusion of student cognitive development, to mutual enrichment of students, and to participation where a space for a variety of learning styles is made” (Astin, 1989 In Garcia, Smith, In Turner et al. 2002, p. 507).

In such environment international students as well as other culturally diverse students are not isolated in special departments or even specially designed courses just for them (e.g. summer school for international students), but are intentionally made part of the teaching and learning process in order to help the transformation of the curricula.

The curricular transformation will remain fragmented and compartmentalized unless the process of internationalization permeates the whole institution with its culture and stakeholders. If that is the goal of internationalization, the institution needs to employ the systems approach because the add-on method cannot accomplish that goal.

2.2.4.2 More components of system-wide internationalization

Scholars who have been studying educational reform suggest that failures are common, and that they are primarily caused by inability to take the complexity of change into account (Fullan, 1991 In Mestenhauser, 1998, p. 21). International education is a very complex field that has a very broad interdisciplinary and intercultural foundation is trying to change another complex system – higher education.

There are many studies of international dimensions and many theoretical concepts of components of internationalization. Here is an overview of the major scholarship on components of internationalization from a system-wide perspective. It covers European authors as well as American and Canadian ones. It covers individual case studies as well as evaluation programs published by EUA and OECD.

In her literature review, Ellingboe (1999) enumerated several components that are most frequently cited in the international literature. These components vary in depth of commitment, and breadth. They are:

- International major or minor in the curriculum
- World language and area studies courses
- Presence of international students, faculty and scholars
- International work-study, research programs, internships and service-learning opportunities, and
- International teaching, research, and consulting opportunities for faculty including travel grants and fellowships (Ellingboe, 1999, p. 62).

There are differences in components and also strategies among American and European scholarship. U.S. strategies are directed to global and intercultural awareness in

response to cultural parochialism, whereas, in Europe, the accent is more on the extension of academic performance. In making further comparisons, Ellingboe cites European scholar de Witt: “the U.S. focuses more on globalization of the curriculum, on area studies and foreign language study, while the European ways encourage international networking and exchanges. Interestingly, the U.S. views study abroad advising and foreign student counseling as separate entities, whereas in Europe they are related parts of mobility.” (de Witt, 1995, p. 50 In Ellingboe, 1999, p. 77).

One of the first comprehensive lists of internationalization of a college was provided by well-known American scholar Maurice Harari. His comprehensive guidelines (1983, 1989, 1992) for institutional change focus on curriculum and campus ethos and have been often cited. His conceptual framework includes:

- 1) infusing disciplines with international perspectives as integrated throughout the entire curriculum;
- 2) using comparative educational approaches;
- 3) discussing international issues in course and through interdisciplinary studies;
- 4) recommending students to take area studies courses on various world regions’ geographic, historic, political, and economic systems;
- 5) offering international majors and international minors within several colleges as option for students at undergraduate and graduate levels;
- 6) weaving an intercultural communication theoretical or practical element within courses;
- 7) making international development topics part of various majors;
- 8) strengthening the role of foreign languages as an integral part of internationalizing the undergraduate education;
- 9) creating internationalized curricula and programs in pre/professional studies and the professional schools;
- 10) fostering faculty and staff development and research in international arena;
- 11) creating institutional linkages and global networking of scholars;
- 12) involving U.S. students who have studied abroad and international students in the international enrichment of the curriculum and campus; and
- 13) Involving students and faculty in internships, research projects, and other opportunities in internationally-oriented businesses and agencies at home and abroad.

To compare with contemporary EU scholarship: according to EUA’s *Institutional Evaluation Program Guidelines* (2007), there are six basic components of internationalization:

- 1) mission,
- 2) institutional infrastructure,
- 3) student and staff mobility,
- 4) student’s international experience used in the classroom,
- 5) internationalization of the curriculum,
- 6) research links and networks (shortened).

EUA’s guidelines are not complete in comparison to the following listing, for they do not include a very important component of internationalization, namely leadership. Ellingboe(1999) on the other hand, recognizes its importance and names it in the first place of her list. Her major components used in her case study of five Liberal Art College in U.S. are:

- 1) college leadership,
- 2) faculty involvement in international activities,
- 3) an internationalized curriculum,
- 4) international study opportunities for students,
- 5) integration of international students and scholars, and
- 6) internationalized co-curricular units and campus activities.

There are many lists of component of institutional internationalization of higher education. An influential Canadian scholar Knight (1997, In Ellingboe,1999, p. 55) includes several more components. She provides more detailed look at the curriculum and enumerate sub-points that make up an internationalized curriculum:

- 1) Foreign languages,
- 2) Infusion of disciplinary courses with international content,
- 3) An international major or minor,
- 4) Study abroad opportunities,
- 5) International students and scholars,
- 6) Faculty exchange and mobility programs,
- 7) International development technical assistance program,
- 8) Institutional linkages, global networking, and cooperation partner,
- 9) Area studies courses and programs,
- 10) Cross-cultural training,
- 11) Extra curricular activities and institutional services.

Later, Jane Knight and Hans de Wit (1999) in their *Quality and Internationalization in Higher Education Report* for OECD declaring explicitly to provide a system-wide approach named the following more general and less curriculum-focused strategies:

- 1) Academic programs,
- 2) Research and scholarly collaboration,,
- 3) External relations and services,
- 4) Extracurricular activities,
- 5) Governance,
- 6) Operations,
- 7) Support services,
- 8) Human resource development.

ACE's *Mapping Internationalization on U.S. Campuses* edited by Siaya & Hayward (2003) is a major American report that looks at the current state of internationalization of undergraduate education at American colleges in comparison with post data. Authors use the term as internationalization as "incorporation of an international/intercultural dimension in teaching, research and service" (conf. definition of Knight, 2003). In their evaluation they include and focus primarily on the following components:

- 1) Students' study abroad and attitudes to internationalization,
- 2) Faculty experiences and attitudes,
- 3) Institutional polices and practices (institutional commitment, course requirements, finances, extracurricular activities).

I have tried to cover all possible components in my literature review. At the same time, I have placed them in the relationship to the research of internationalization of higher education institution in the Czech context and my research objectives. I have regrouped them and made a list of seven general components which is based my theoretical framework: on the system-wide⁶⁵ perspective to internationalization and (developed below) theories of organizational change – that is together the internationalization as an institutional change:

- **Curriculum;**
- **Research and networking;**
- **Involvement and mobility of (international) faculty and students;**
- **Administration of internationalization;**
- **Leadership** of the institution (strategic planning, human resources, et al.);
- **Culture of the institution;**
- **Outreach and service to the society.**

The following sections will deal with components other than the curriculum which have not been addressed in the paper.

2.2.4.3 Culture of an institution

Already mentioned American scholar, Harari, one of the pioneering authors of internationalization, dean emeritus of international education at California State University, Long Beach, believes that what comprises a truly international college campus is a composite of conditions contributing toward a positive institutional attitude – an “ethos”. To have such “ethos”, an institution would a) have a faculty with commitment to internationalize its course offerings; b) foster the presence of an institution-wide positive attitude toward better understanding of other cultures and societies; c) promote genuine interest in interacting with other cultures and societies; and d) have a genuine desire to understand the major issues confronting the human and ecological survival of the planet earth (Harari, 1992, p.75 In Ellingboe, 1999, p. 35). In his definition of internationalization, Harari does not stress the knowledge of foreign languages nor the number of foreign students on the campus; he sees internationalization as a pervasive process to change the shared culture, what he also calls the ethos of the institution.

⁶⁵ Systems thinking allows for more and more components to be detected and added into the system. It may thus happen that list will be adjusted after having completed the research or updated by prospective scholarship reviews.

In other words the character of a higher education institution is heavily shaped by the influence of the culture. Therefore, it is important to review scholarship on what a culture of an institution is how it relates to national culture.

2.2.4.3.1 Definition of institutional culture

Let me start with defining a culture first. According to Hofstede culture is “the collective programming of the mind that distinguishes member of one group or category of people from another” (Hofstede, 2001). Cultural characteristics are not static especially in the era of globalization and in case of political transformations. Still, there are some differences between groups of people and clusters of these groups and at the moment there is probably no better term to distinguish between than to use Hofstede’s „cultures“ in the geographically-political sense, which shares common history and to a certain culture in sense of intercultural psychology.

There can be little doubt that the single work that was a ground-breaking contribution to organization theory and most influenced the development of research in cross-cultural psychology has been the seminal study that was carried out by Geert Hofstede during 60’s and early 70’s. He found that there were 4 dimensions that differ among cultures: 1) individualism/collectivism, 2) power/distance, 3) uncertainty/avoidance, and 4) career success/quality of life. Later, Hofstede and his colleagues identified a fifth dimension, the Confucian dynamism. Hofstede’s theory of categorization of cultures can be criticized for its two-dimensional or dualistic thinking. Such perspective simplifies the notion of culture to have and have-nots. An optimal characterization of culture is more sophisticated and scholars rightly point out that, for example, the power/distance dimension is also shaped by gender, family, and bonds between colleagues in the workplace. Intercultural or cross-cultural psychology is searching for new categorization of cultures and clusters of cultures with the view to immigration and globalization, the scholarship is still overwhelmingly using Hofstede’s definitions of nations⁶⁶.

Hofstede came with a very important finding, namely that national culture explained more of the differences than professional role, age, gender, or race. That means that organizational macro-culture is a very strong variable and specificity of organizational culture is made up rather by everyday practices than organization specific-shared values. The influence of culture on employee’s behavior, values etc. as well as on employer’s human

⁶⁶ Hofstede’s pioneering research of different cultural orientations has inspired hundreds of scholars around the world who replicated his research. Other researchers have tried to improve his definition of nations by defining the nation in a more complex: eco-politico-socio-economic contexts (Smith, 2004); by adding psychological determinants (Gelfand et al. 2004) or developmental perspective (Flanagan, 2000).

resource management are evident (Hofstede and Hofstede, 1999). Similarly, Smith, Kagitcibasi, Bond (2006) declare that “institutions that arise within nations are a reflection of the fundamental ecological context with which they have had to contend - with the national culture (p. 53). The influence of cultural differences on organizations has been widely augmented and researched (conf. Adler, 1999).

In the Czech Republic, it was Kolman (2001) and Světlík (2003) who picked up Hofstede’s research and tried to identify characteristics of the Czech culture⁶⁷ (Hofstede’s research did not include the Czech Republic among its 66 researched nationalities). Unfortunately, there has been no cross-cultural research connected to organizations in the Czech Republic.

At this moment, there is a relatively wide Czech-written scholarship on culture in the schools⁶⁸. A comprehensive review of theoretical perspectives and research on culture, authored by Pol, Hloušková, Novotný, Zounek (eds.) 2006; climate (Čáp, Mareš, 2001, Helus, 2007); culture from a wider perspective (Walterová, 2001); a short article on organizational culture change models (Hloušková In Pol, 2007b); works on culture of organizations in general (Armstrong, 2002), managerial perspectives (Cejtmar and Dědina, 2005; Slaměník and Výrost (1998), culture development (Eger, 2002,) leadership, and quality of primary schools or companies (Eger, 2004, Eger & Jakubíková, 2000⁶⁹, Nezvalová et al. 1999), and structural systems, (Prášilová). One of the leading authors of school culture is Pol, who sees culture as a means of enabling change in the organization (Pol, 2007). The problem is that, of the above-mentioned authors, none connects culture to the process of internationalization (cited research deals with culture and improvement of individual learning, self-image, cooperation with parents, etc.). And none explicitly deals specifically with higher education. Perhaps in higher education scholarship, one can find some ideas on leadership in the evaluation of tertiary education system in the Czech Republic in relationship to knowledge society and equity (Matějí, Straková ed., 2005) and on academic climate in Vašutová (2007).

The macro-cultural perspective is especially crucial if the school is changing under supra-national or global pressures and where the policy borrowings are taking place in different (e.g. in Hofstede’s differentiation of cultures) cultural contexts. National cultures

⁶⁷ Reflections of the whole Czech society from various disciplines has been done by Rabušicová & Rabušic, Kolman, Kučerová, Patočka, Čapek, Masaryk, Drabinová and for one reference commentary on cultural dimensions of leadership see Pol, 2007, p. 55.

⁶⁸ Overall, since 1980’s theories and research on education have adopted the term organizational culture[□] for the description of culture of a school. (Pol et al., 2005 p. 21) Still, the specific character of schools should not be overseen (aims, evaluation, outreasech, stakeholders, etc.) (for more see Pol, 2007, pp. 14-21).

⁶⁹ Eger and Jakubíková (2000) and Kulhavý (1990) include in their methodology of analyzing a school culture different aspect of it: a) material manifestations of culture (e.g. architecture, clothing, etc.) and b) non-material manifestations of culture (curricula, behavior, mythology, etc.); they do not make the connection of these to the national or ethnic cultural patterns, nor to Hofstede’s classification of cultures.

differ primarily in terms of shared set of values whereas organizational cultures differ more in terms of shared practices. Thus, members of different organizations within the same nation may share values but work for organizations that have evolved different ways of implementing those values in practice (Hofstede, Ohavy, and Sanders, 1990).

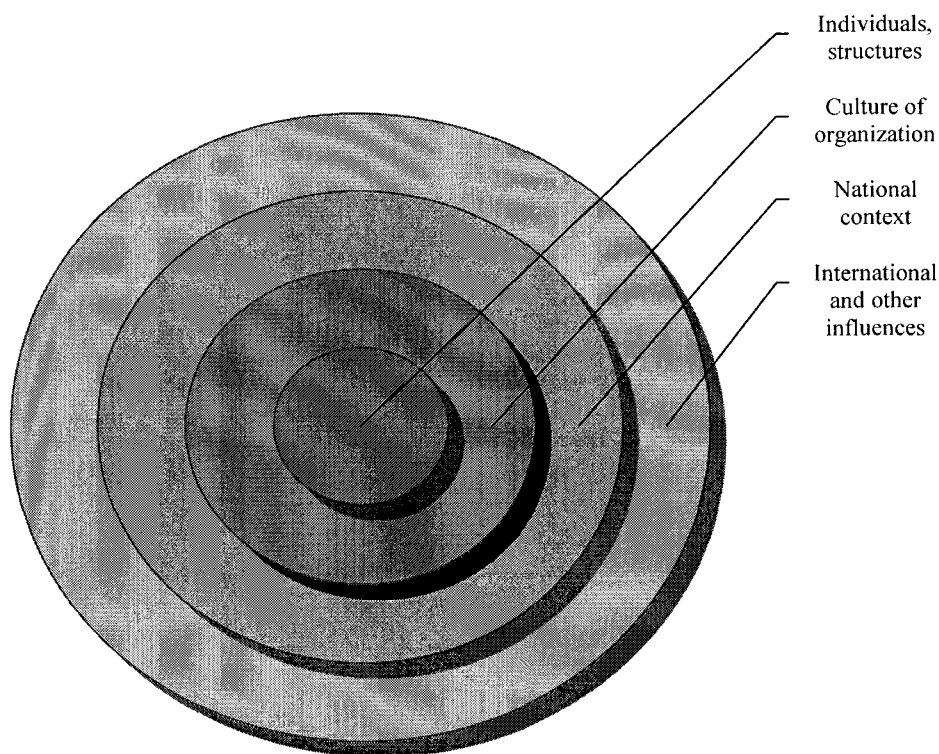
Higher education institutions seen from an integrative perspective might be independent and socially-integrated community (structuralist approach) and have its symbolic interactions (symbolic approach, Geertz, Ricoeur) and have dimensions of direction, demographic and dynamics (Ellingboe 1999) or institutional, organizational and community dimension (Pol, 2007) and not isolated from the national macro-culture (environmentalist and interculturalists) or from the global culture (transculturalists).

One of the most comprehensive definitions of organizational culture is Galpin's (1996) which is based on Hofstede's definition of culture. Culture of higher education institution could then comprehend: the collective programming of the mind, shared values and responsibilities, rules and policies, goals and measurement, customs and norms, training, ceremonies and events, management behavior, rewards and recognition, communications, physical environment, and organizational structures. From Galpin's perspective, in order to understand higher education institution it is essential to look at its complex organizational culture as a means of change (In Ellingboe, 1999, p. 108)

The culture of a school, especially in connection to internationalization, must be viewed in a more global context. If organizational culture includes the outside context, it is defined by the environmentalist perspectives⁷⁰. The school then has its "micro-culture" of an organization which is influenced by inter-national "macro-culture". The organizational nature it is manifested by values, attitudes, beliefs, myths, rituals, performance, artifact, and a myriad of other ways (Harris and Moran, 1996. p. 82). If the macro-cultures are different (e.g. U.S. versus Czech), subsequently the micro-cultures of organizations differ.

The model of organization culture that takes into the consideration the international dimension, expressed in visual form, could look like this:

⁷⁰ For paradigms of school reaction to outside society see Paul Mahieu in Pol et al, 2006 pp.145-156. Note E.J.: Author of this thesis does not conform to Mahieu's idea that what schools in cultural mixed areas- what he calls "black schools" are not influenced by what Mahieau calls ""its" public", meaning probably majority, but by a ""third" party", which he does not define.



2.2.4.3.2 Culture and institutional change

However, such visualization lacks the most essential factor – change over time, which is hard to visualize. Organizational culture is both a product and a process (Pol et al, 2006, Pol 2007). As a process, culture shapes and is shaped by the ongoing interactions of people on and off campus. As a product, culture reflects interaction among historic traditions, structure, and behavior of current students, faculty, and staff (Kuh and Whitt, 1988, p. Iv. In Ellingboe, 1999). Culture includes patterns of beliefs, practices, norms, and assumptions that shape behaviors of individuals or groups within the university per se and provide a frame of reference within which to interpret events and action on and off campus⁷¹.

The current scholarship concentrates on the change of school culture, either external influences (e.g. EU, globalization, education policy borrowing, political changes, etc.) or from inside. As Harris and Moran (1996, p. 2) point out that organizations create a culture to be renewed and restructured and continuously alter it. The empowering notion that institutions can influence their organizational culture is widely accepted in current scholarship on higher education as a learning organization (conf. Fullan, 1998).

⁷¹ A cultural audit, a complex analysis of a culture of organization may include one or all of these: 1) interviewing key informants, 2) observing participants, 3) concluding autobiographical interview, and 4) analyzing documents, (Kuh and Shuh, p. Vii in Ellingboe, 1999, p. 212). For other methodologies of school culture analysis see also Eger & Jakubiková, 2000.

Above all, organizational culture seems to be the key variable to the way institutions approach changes. Individual institutional culture creates its own process of change. According to the mentioned ACE Report (Green, Peter & Hill, 2001) on the transformation process in 26 U.S. higher education institutions:

“[T]he change at each institutions were clearly influenced by deeply embedded patterns of behavior, expectations, values, and beliefs about how that institutions functions. For example, strong faculty authority, leadership, and decision making characterized by some institutions while others dictated collective ways of perceiving, acting, and believing, successful change strategies could not be simply imported, change leaders had to craft strategies to fit their culture.” (p. 29). Culture is thus a key to in current theories of learning organization theories.

Green, Hill & Peter (2003) observed that the process of a campus-wide transformation was influenced by the embedded patterns of behavior, expectations, values, beliefs about how the institution functions. As Lewin puts it: "it is necessary to understand the school culture before we want to change it" (Lewin, 1974 In Eger & Jakubíková, 2000, p. 13). Institutional culture plays an important role, for it dictates collective ways of perceiving, acting and believing. Successful strategies cannot be simply imported nor done by a single person. "The most progress is made only if institutions modify their cultures." (ibid, p. 29).

The answer to why the change process is so hard is that the culture is very human, very intricate. Internationalization cannot be driven into a school through coercive means; some campuses may not have any signs of readiness for accepting an international curriculum. Others may have some progressive signs or encouragements factor, but carry with them several resistance factors, pockets of resistance, and deeper pockets of multiple layers of resistance embedded in the cultural differences in organizational aspects. Even very concrete innovations like the change from summative to formative evaluation might be possible only on condition of “reculturalization”⁷² of shared/individual modes thinking or the “mindshift” (Mestenhauser, 1998)⁷³. Hloušková (In Pol, 2007) describes the change of school culture as a substantial and permanent changes in behavior, acting, norms values and school climate that are different from the original condition. Pol (2007) describes that change needs to be filtered through institutional, organizational and community dimension.

⁷² (Hargreaves, 1994 in Pol, p.117)

⁷³ or “the big mind change” (Cleveland, 1993 In Ellingboe, 1999 p. 115) or “reculturalization” of ways of thinking” (Hargreaves, 1994 In Pol et al., 2006, p. 117), “changing ones way of thinking, functioning and things they believe in” in Czech literature in connection to educators at primary schools” or “the redefinition of values and their raison d’etre”. (Thurler, 1991 In Pol, 2006 p. 117).

Further, Argyris (1978, in Mestenhauser, 1998) suggests, individuals are not the only ones who learn. Although they learn differently, institutions such as schools, universities, ministries learn too. These institutions are dominated by past institutional memory but often fail to use higher levels of problem solving that require questioning the nature of the institution itself. Argyris (1979, in Mestenhauser, 1998) calls this the “double loop” thinking about organizational structure. Past institutional memory may play more important role when its memory is a “long” one, i.e. when the tradition of the university is very old. Thus, this cognitive aspect of culture of an organization may be more important with “old” universities than with the newly established one. According to Kasíková, its long memory of the university may become a hindrance to flexibility and transformation of the university (Kasíková, personal conversation 2008).

Lastly, organizations are not simply a sum total of individuals; each individual brings his or her characteristics into the group, and teams up with others in increasingly larger circles of sub-groups that need to be taken into account. Some modern leadership theories in fact do just this. Those who fail to grasp the nuances of specific cultures of an organization risk taking a simplistic or mechanistic approach that may not lead to the desired goal. Therefore, it is important to take into consideration the formal design of the institution which includes the structure of the units, power relationships, hierarchy of management.

According to Ellingboe (1999) schools can be captured and interpreted only from both the cultural perspective and organization-as-a-system perspective (Senge, 1990). For example an extensive research conducted by EUA as part of its Quality Culture Project (2002-2006) identified as two distinct factors of an organizational culture, “cultural” (shared values, beliefs, expectation and commitment towards quality), and “structural and managerial” (defined by processes that enhance quality and coordinate individual efforts⁷⁴). Still both are two sides of one coin of culture of an organization. The first can be measured through hard measure like: structures and tools, and the other through soft: commitment, communication, etc.

The structural component includes leadership, structure of units, roles of stakeholders (administration, teaching, research), hierarchy or power structure, and relations among stakeholders, teacher-student relationships (Bacík, 1995). A school may have also informal means of leadership, and this is especially true for universities (Prášilová, 2005), where professoriate may be actually more influential on the life of the school than the executive leadership. A more detailed review of literature on Institutional Change is provided in Appendix 1.6.

⁷⁴ Similarly the distinction to lifeworld and systemworld by Habermas 1987 in Pol, 2007 p. 24.

Overall, culture is extremely complex and at the same time a very important player in internationalization. At this moment, there is no scholarship on school culture that reflect the state of internationalization in Czech higher education institutions. As Pol (2008, personal correspondence) rightly points out: higher education institutions are very different from primary institutions. Moreover, the culture of Czech higher institutions is specific from the rest of the world. Specific international “internationalization of culture” scholarship was not accessible to me and the Czech scholarship needs to be more developed in order to draw specific framework for research of higher education culture in connection to internationalization. Considering my research questions, I will reflect the findings of Hofstede’s cultural dimensions on findings of the particular institutions and comment briefly on individual parts of the institutional culture as defined by Galpin above and lastly on role of culture in institutional change towards internationalization. The following section will concern the major players who make up the “culture” of the institution⁷⁵, namely: faculty, students, international administrators and the leadership.

2.2.4.4 Faculty

Faculty members play a pivotal role in integrating international components into their courses, in interdisciplinary perspectives on curriculum, and in the above mentioned change of the institutional culture. It is therefore important to focus on the need for expanding the international competence among faculty. Still, the national cultures of institutions as well as their disciplinary cultures are contexts that faculty are challenged to become aware of and change.

Although many faculty have some language or international experience, they have not focused on that (Carter, In Klasek, 1992, p. 43). This group of faculty needs to be motivated to develop an interest in internationalization. Faculty typically understand their discipline or field and teach it the way they were taught. Transformations of consciousness do not, therefore, come about easily (Mindstone 1996 in Odgers and Giroux, 2006, p. 10). This kind of shift is not easy, though changes are indeed possible if they are result of ongoing, well-planned and executed effort supported by motivation.

The efforts of others who are engaged in international initiatives usually extends beyond departmental responsibilities and contractual obligations. These contributions of faculty are rarely recognized or rewarded. Many faculty may also limit their involvement in

⁷⁵ As Pol (1999) suggests for primary schools, it would be most for future research useful to take into consideration more stakeholders: parents, local authority administrators, perhaps business people, politicians and other.

internationalization because they are engaged in other scholarly activities deemed more beneficial for tenure, promotion or money. Rarely do academic discipline-based departments identify international competence as a criterion for selection of a new senior level faculty position. The message given to faculty is that international competence is not related to professional development and is outside basic reward structures. This seems contradictory to newly proposed institutional assessments by the Czech government evaluation framework (2007) where faculty members' international research is made advantageous and will be able to secure greater amount of grants to the institution in the future. Also internal evaluation of individual faculty and departments needs to recognize who takes part in internationalization in the budget distribution and human resource policies.

According to Ellingboe(1999), there are faculty concerns and challenges throughout the American literature regarding internationalization (which may be relevant also for the Czech context), particularly those involving junior faculty who are not yet tenured and may not believe they have the full support of their department chairs (and dean) if they do go abroad. There are legitimate fears that going abroad for teaching or research may harm their chances for promotion and tenure. There are also concerns of interdisciplinary nature. Most new faculty with recently earned Ph.D.s were trained in one discipline, and they may not have the interdisciplinary training. Departments listing new positions should be encouraged to include interdisciplinary preparation of the applicants.

Carter (1992) writes that the discipline-based focus of American higher education has often precluded an international focus. Most academic departments in the natural and social sciences do not include an international perspective in their major degree candidates. Some disciplines-based major or minor degree programs offer elective courses on internationally related courses, but students rarely select them; they seldom receive academic advising that places an importance on international topics (p. 40-45). Even those faculty who have an academic background in international areas have little opportunity to incorporate that focus in their discipline-focus teaching.

2.2.4.4.1 Faculty development

The learning organization theory already mentioned in the culture of the institution, in connection to faculty, it takes on a more concrete form. Of particular importance is the identification of faculty development opportunities which do not require extensive findings, i.e. workshops, colloquia, and opportunities to collaborate with visiting international scholars. The former may include workshops and seminars for improvement of foreign language proficiency, support for writing international grant proposals, intercultural communication

workshops, pre-travel and re-entry training, and utilization of international scholars as resources for faculty international initiatives. International students and scholars represent underutilized resource on most academic departments (see: Internationalization at Home concept).

The earlier discussion on the nature of internationalized curriculum incorporated integration of the intercultural and international dimension into curriculum and instruction. Paige (1993, 1996), and Paige and Martin (1996) discuss the implications for the faculty responsible for the design, planning and delivery of this kind of learning. Paige (1996) provides a comprehensive set of trainer's competencies that cover the knowledge, skills, and program design and execution for anyone leading a group of learner through an intercultural learning program. He maintains that, because of the challenges involved in intercultural learning, the faculty must be skilled in dealing with what comes up in the process of lesson. Paige (2004) describes thirty-five instruments used in intercultural training. Also already mentioned M.J. Bennett's DMIS can be used both to assess learners intercultural sensitivity and to help the teacher design appropriate programs to their developmental stage. Other researchers from outside the field provide useful perspective related to transformative adult learning are Mezirov (2000) and Cranton (2000).

In his thesis, Atkins (2006) describes the progress and outcomes of three-year seminar - year project to internationalize the campus. During that time, the University of Minnesota's Center for Teaching and Learning Services (CTL) selected faculty members from a pool of applicants to be recipients of smaller grants that would help create internationalized courses for undergraduate students. Each year, roughly twelve award winners formed an interdisciplinary cohort by agreeing to participate in five group workshops during the fall semester, followed by individual consultation and a final presentation of their new course in the spring semester. As outcomes, the workshops aimed to produce faculty members with internationalized mindsets, course designs, and syllabi, as well the skills necessary to facilitate the development of internationalized students. However, realizing the vision of an internationalized university is an enormous task, and observations of these workshop cohorts indicated that the model for internationalizing faculty and their curriculum was not a simple, one-size-fits-all program, nor was it a short-term process. One of the major findings was that the faculty learning styles and teaching styles differ greater than previously thought, especially according to gender and field of expertise.

Atkins (2006) recommendations for the future internationalization of the curriculum can be summarized followingly. The process is bound to be slow, complex, and difficult. Perhaps the best strategy is to design programs and approaches that cater to the interests and

learning styles of their participants. Anticipating that not everyone will be fully satisfied, their questions, obstacles, and resistances can be best taken on with a service-oriented approach by a staff that is more skilled and trained at working with different learning styles. Other attempts to internationalize curriculum is to anticipate the types of learners the faculty will be working with, the resistances they will be working against, and take the necessary steps to help support them through their learning process. Short-term programs, although enjoyable and even fascinating, by their very nature simply can not provide the sustained level of support needed to ensure each learner's "transformation" into a more internationalized way of teaching (p. 44).

There are often also options for faculty's development outside the institution. For example, the Council on International Educational Exchange first offered a series of Faculty Development seminars which have provided for a thematic focus on topics of international interest. Other similar opportunities are being offered by the European Association for International Education (EAIE). For an examples of practical hands-on workshops on internationalization process for administrators and faculty see NAFSA, the Association of the International Educator, the Association of International Education Administrators or see McKellin, 1996 (In Ellingboe, 1998 p.67).

With a bit of creativity and encouragement, faculty could either develop their own programs or explore the multitudes of opportunities that exist outside⁷⁶. Several universities took the development and engagement of faculty in internationalization very seriously and designed faculty development programs. I would like to mention three examples that Czech universities interested in internationalization could gain inspiration from.

A flexible model for faculty curriculum redesign that facilitates faculty efforts to integrate newly developed intercultural perspectives into a redesign curriculum can be found in McGill university. The workshops for faculty were intended to redesign their curriculum and instructional approaches (Odgers and Giroux, 2006). This approach is interdisciplinary and consistent with the integrative, comparative and interdisciplinary thinking proposed in the internationalizing curriculum section above by Mestenhauser (1998).

Another example of the faculty development program can be found at the Malaspina university. It places the intercultural competence at the centre of its design. The first three-hour session was designed to appeal to a large audience by focusing on how teachers could better understand cultural behavior of their multicultural student body, and introduced what they named the "Three pillars of internationalization: me, my teaching, my curriculum" (Odgers

⁷⁶ Drama and Personality Development courses at DAMU could be connected to internationalization through issues of tolerance, communication skills, and self assessment skills. Centre of Managerial Skills in Research and Science (Centrum manažerských dovedností ve vědě a výzkumu) has launched a series of workshops for faculty of the University of Pardubice.

and Giroux, 2006, p. 14). After that a three day retreat on internationalization of their curriculum with and IDI consultation followed. The first two days (The Intercultural Self and the Curriculum, and Teaching Practices) focused on the development of intercultural competence through the integration of activities that helped participants better understand the potential areas of redesign for course curriculum they wanted to internationalize. The third day followed by a two week interval to allow faculty to reflect on integration of the principles explored during the first two days in their teaching. During the third day these design were presented and faculty received constructive peer feedback on each design. The final stage of the development initiative occurred six months following the last day when faculty participated in a focus group to discuss the results of their participation in the year-long development initiative. According to Odgers and Giroux (2006), every member found their approach to teaching had been impacted by the thought process, and the shift in teaching practices also changed the process of learning and classroom dynamics. Reputedly, all participants also agreed on the importance of continuity to meet to share and some shared their increased desire to travel abroad (p. 17).

The University of South Australia on the other hand, has assumed the infusion approach to internationalization of the curriculum, using its Graduate Qualities as a framework for curriculum development. A team-based approach to curriculum development for international teaching has been adopted, which in itself provides clarification of what internationalization means in different subjects within a discipline. A model of staff development based on small group self reflective dialogue about cross-cultural pedagogy, involving subject specialists, learning advisers and staff development consultants all working together at school level, is deployed as an integral part of the internationalization strategy (Leask, 1999 in Caruana and Hanstock, not dated). The model embraces Alderson's (1996) notion of academic staff development for internationalization as: "a journey which at each stage requires exploration and negotiation of understandings, re-examining of currently held beliefs, reflection on current practice, gathering and learning information from a variety of sources, and opportunities for social construction of knowledge." (Caruana & Hanstock, not numbered).

Such collaborative strategies ensure that international perspectives permeate teaching methodology, the content of subjects and the structure and organization of courses. Programs ensure cultural inclusion and curricula develop multicultural awareness and cross-cultural communication skills, whilst achieving the specific knowledge and skills appropriate to the discipline (Leask, 1999 in Caruana and Hanstock, not dated).

Czech scholarship on faculty development in connection to internationalization is very scarce (Vašutová, 2008 personal conversation). The law from 1983 which codified the obligation of further development of university faculty was abolished in 1989 and scholarship since then has been scarce. One gains the impression that faculty development is regarded as individual responsibility of each member of the faculty, and that it is not of concern of a system wide developmental planning. Recently, Vašutová (2007) has introduced the general Lindquist's model of further development of the faculty. She (2008, personal conversation) argues that the very limited existing development of academic staff concerne Ph.D. students who are to be prepared for their teaching at the higher education institutions. Formal development of senior staff is even more scarce.

2.2.4.4.2 Faculty involvement

There seems to be an unused potential also in inter-departmental enrichment. For example, departments of psychology which often provide intercultural competence trainings for private sector or students. These may well be utilized for the whole institution and faculty. The knowledge and potential of the area studies departments should not be confined only to the departmental students but be used for interdepartmental research and teaching or in faculty workshops.

The existence of grants and internal resources to fund faculty research and professional development are tangible determinants of the degree to which faculty involvement in international education will occur. If there is a lack of institutional or departmental support, faculty are not likely to engage in international collaborative research or to participate in international conferences. While many institutions take advantage of technological communication networks to facilitate interaction, often faculty members do not have individual access or skill to participate.

Faculty members may not perceive that their research, teaching or service efforts are directly related to tenure and promotion or to advancement. Still strategies directed to increasing participation in internationalization initiatives are critical factor in increasing the international competence of students. According to Carter (in Klasek, 1992, p. 44) there three major strategic leading to faculty involvement, among which faculty development plays a crucial role:

- 1) expansions of faculty development opportunities for gaining international competence;
- 2) support for faculty research on international topics and with international partners, which includes the provision of faculty access to communication technologies and resources to facilitate international networking;

- 3) re-examination of personal policies related to hiring, tenure and promotion as they relate to recognition and reward systems for faculty competence and qualifications in international education (p. 44).

Backman (1984) conducted a study of several academic institutions' internationalization initiatives. He concluded that there are several key programs that contributed to the development of the faculty.

Programs were able to:

- 1) provide annual funds to support overseas travel for faculty to present papers at international conferences,
- 2) provide additional time for faculty to develop international course curricula,
- 3) establish faculty exchange programs at the departmental level to provide overseas experience,
- 4) provide regularly scheduled workshops, colloquia and seminars to stimulate international research interests,
- 5) place more emphasis on faculty participation in Fulbright and other similar programs, and,
- 6) involve faculty in design and implementation of study abroad and other international education programs.

The best and easiest way to implement the above mentioned strategies is to hand down the competencies and responsibilities to the international relations office (ideally at the university level). As Mestenhauser (2000b) pointed out in his article *Dual Functions of International Education Professionals*, apart from their administrative work, they should also take up the educational role. At this moment, the universities do not produce any graduates of international education, which means that today's administrators are the only ones who actually know something about internationalization of higher education institutions. They should not resist development and education themselves in order to coordinate the internationalization of curriculum and involvement of faculty. (For more see sec. On International Relations Office).

2.2.4.5 Research

Other great source of faculty development is research. Research is an important part of the quality of the whole institution and need to be tackled separately. International research is

above all other components tightly connected to rationalization of internationalization: to be internationally competitive.

Mestenhauser (2007) argues that the paradigm of global competitiveness is misleading and dangerous because it reinforces prejudice and conflict, and neglects opportunities for cooperation within the global system. The rationale that is reiterated in the EU and in Czech strategic materials: to be competitive in the global market economy and knowledge-based society is actually pushing internationalization away from the approach of bridging the gap between internationalization and multicultural education (proposed by American strategic papers but also European scholars⁷⁷ like Van der Wende and Hans de Witt, 1995) and perhaps away from the original rationale for internationalization: better international understanding and peacemaking (for more see Rationales for Internationalization in Chap. 3)

Research has been made a priority in educational policy in the Czech and European strategic papers (see Sec. on EU and Czech strategic papers above, and National Reference Framework of Excellence to be introduced in 2008) primarily in connection to the Lisbon Declaration⁷⁸. Still, it seems that internationalization of research is more discussed than practiced.

In the context of the Trends IV study it is clear that just over a third of the sixty-two university sample had actually developed institutional research strategy. Other reasons for concerns are obvious through more global comparisons. Apart from wide difference in funding between EU and USA (1,8% v. 2,8% of GDP), there are other differences. For example the average age of the researcher greatly differs. In the Czech Republic, the average age is between fifty to sixty years, with a relatively large number of researchers aged over seventy. Additionally, the number of European students pursuing a Ph.D. in the U.S.A. is twice the number of American students studying in Europe, and more than 50% of European students stay in U.S.A. after their studies (for more see Křenek, Chvojka, Brábníková, 2003).

While American colleagues argue that their travel money has been limited, their European counterparts cannot complain about the lack of opportunities and funding at least for their EU research and travel costs. It seems that the low numbers of participating faculty in international research (with outcomes of international publications) is rather about what has been already described above as the “cognitive shift” (Mestenhauser, 1998, Cooper, 2007).

⁷⁷ conf. Van der Wende, Marijk C. Internationalisation policies: about new trends and contrasting paradigms.. IN: Higher Education Policy, v. 14, no. 3, p. 249-259, 2001.

⁷⁸ e.g. *Towards a European Research Area*, 2000, *A Mobility Strategy for the European Research Area*, 2001, *More Research for Europe, Towards 3% of GDP*, 2002, *The European Research Area: Providing New Momentum, Strengthening-Reorienting-Opening up New Perspectives*, 2002.

2.2.4.5.1 Programs for international research

International cooperation within Europe has been strongly supported with financial injectives since 1984. C.R. entered the fifth round of EU Framework Program ten years later and several Centers of Excellence have been created since then⁷⁹.

Many programs funding international research are explicitly concerned with dual function: promotion of research and promotion of cultural encounters, cultural diplomacy or human rights (Fulbright, DAAD, the British Council, CEDA, and many European programs in the 90s). There are also many agencies supporting international research that range from national internationalization agencies (such as the British Council, DAAD, NUFFIC, etc.), to governments (ministries responsible for higher education), but particularly supranational stakeholders and stakeholder organizations, such as the European Commission (commissioning research, but also supporting research on internationalization through its already mentioned Framework Programs), the International Association of Universities (IAU), the Organization of Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD), the Academic Cooperation Association (ACA), the European Association for International Education (EAIE) and the European Association of Universities (EUA).

For sure, there is nothing wrong with an interest of and support from such organizations. On the contrary, quite often they are able to commission and support research that otherwise would not be possible given limited resources of researchers themselves. But it is appropriate to comment that to some extent those commissioning research guide and steer research on internationalization in certain directions especially if only one or two are actually fund the research in the particular institution. That limitation happens not so much by interfering in the research activities and the research process itself, but in particular by up front deciding on the topics to be researched, by (often) detailing the research questions, and possibly methodological approaches. For sure, commissioning agencies put pressure on researchers to carry out research projects within limited timeframes. Such characteristics increase the policy-relevance of the research carried out, but it does not necessarily follow that the most interesting research (from an academic perspective of creating new knowledge) is being carried out.

2.2.4.5.2 Character of international research

Overall, all international research activities are characterized by the “sharing” of new knowledge. International sharing could be considered analogical to interdisciplinary sharing,

⁷⁹ see list of existing international research centers in the Czech Republic In Křenek, Chvojka, Brábníková, 2003, Current operational programs and Education for competetivness and Research and Development.

where knowledge from different disciplines is shared in order to create new knowledge. Interdisciplinary research (and also teaching) does not mean that parts of the research are done separately without any connection to each other (sometimes the individuals may not even know what the others work on) and then put together by the coordinator in juxtaposition, but a creation of new knowledge through sharing.⁸⁰ Similarly, one could also make a distinction of the level of international cooperation. In this case the phenomenon is complicated by the existence of more cultures, i.e. how to translate and integrate concepts from one culture to another in one discipline. For technical sciences the concepts may not be so culture-bound as for the social sciences were simple “borrowing” may be very problematic (conf. Steiner-Khamski, 2005).

According to Mestenhauser (2000a) the academic disciplines that deny the significance of cultural factors are equally ethnocentric as are individuals who deny intercultural differences among people. Even though some scholars (Leavitt, 1988 In Mestenhauser, 2000a) have gone so far as to claim that cultures have become irrelevant because convergence is an unstoppable trend of globalization, the daily experience of researchers proves that cultural background does play a significant role in the process of international cooperation: both in the process of cooperation, in perspectives on the issues and in issue itself. As Mestenhauser eloquently points out:

“Culture is both a vehicle for expansion of knowledge but also a prison... On one hand we need major infusion of new knowledge and on the other we begin invaded by many foreign influences that we fear to lose our identities. What we need is cross-cultural diagnostic tools and concepts that will help evaluate critically newly infused knowledge and assess the degree of its “fit” with the native culture” (p. 10).

It flows from such reasoning that much more research on international research is needed. Through the lens of internationalization, the dividing line between national and global or regional is not a simple extension of the previous thinking, but a gigantic step into something which is qualitatively and quantitatively different from the national perspective. Each time we add another culture or country into the equation, we raise the level of analysis that in turn should facilitate the cognitive shift from national to international thinking in which a person confronts the world of other cultures by also confronting one’s own (Mestenhauser, 1995, p. 10). To do that, the researcher needs to acknowledge the cultural boundness of

80

The distinction between transdisciplinary, interdisciplinary, multi-disciplinary, cross-disciplinary, pluridisciplinary and uni-disciplinary was done already in the 70’s by Piaget in his pioneering work and recently elaborated by Klein (1996). The extent of sharing in interdisciplinary cooperation varies according to the relationships of disciplines.

his/her knowledge, intercultural skills and other cognitive skills described in the section on Curriculum.

Promoting intercultural and interdisciplinary cooperation is also a major challenge to the ways institutions of higher education are organized. For internationalization is the integration of multiple perspectives and multidimensional components. "Integration means connectedness of the multiple ways of looking and thinking about a subject, even if it may appear that various parts have no relation to each other." (Mestenhauser, 1995, p.21 In Ellingboe, 1999, p. 115). (An integrative approach is highly recommended also by a group of Czech authors in their research on "school culture" Pol et al., 2007, p. 16) Thus internationalization as a process of change involves a corresponding organizational change to replace the present fragmented system of almost sovereign academic departments.

2.2.4.6 Involvement of Students

Significant literature on student-development suggests that students should be involved meaningfully in the planning, participating and evaluating portions of campus life. This will probably counter the traditional hierarchical model and the beliefs of some faculty in the Czech Republic unless they join the student senate. At an involving institution, the institutional culture and all the leadership, faculty and administrators sense an ownership among all institutional participants. According to Kuh and Schuh (1991, p. 18 in Ellingboe, p. 218) some of the more visible cultural influences on student involvement are: institutional history, traditions, language, heroes and symbolic actions. Culture of an involving college consists of five categories of varying degree of strength:

- 1) a clear coherent mission and philosophy
- 2) campus environment with human scale attributes that use their location to their advantage
- 3) campus cultures that value student involvement
- 4) policies and practices consistent with the institution's mission and student characteristics
- 5) institutional agents who acknowledge the contribution of learning outside the classroom

(Kuh, Schuh, 1991, p. 11 In Ellingboe, p. 218)

Involvement of students in all campus operations should include internationalization process too. Apart from being involved in decision making around the internationalization process, universities should consider the extent to which the student body represents a wide spectrum of the society. The Czech tertiary educational institutions are still very selective (for arguments and statistics see Matějů, Straková, 2005) and the student body is still very homogenous. Matějů and Straková (2005) argue for more social diversity, but the same should be argued for multicultural and international diversity, which may or may not go hand in hand

with the above mentioned social diversity. The culturally diverse students body is one of the principles of Internationalization at Home. Diversity within student body does not involve only student mobility (which may be “fulfilled” by the ERASMUS short term mobility program) but also admission of culturally diverse students in a broader sense.

2.2.4.6.1 International diversity

Planning of study abroad programs may reflect political interests or interests of decision makers. Aitches and Hoemaker (In Klasek, 1998, p. 82) argue for developing geographical diversity. They are critical of American programs that focus on “Western Europe“. A very similar criticism can be applied to European programs that are limited to mobility within the continent or with US. Van der Wende and de Witt (1999) also argue for a broadening of Europeanization to global awareness (p. 12). For example, if an institution enrolls a high number of international students and provides special courses for them, it is necessary to ask if these students have globally diverse backgrounds or if they represent only middle class white Americans (Europeans), who can afford to pay for courses designed especially for them and who are interested in living in a particularly interesting city rather than working on cooperative research projects with domestic students.

Aitches and Hoemaker (In Klasek, 1998) suggest further that institutions should direct international efforts toward as many areas of the globe as feasible and as appropriate for the institutions goal. Broadening geographical scope of mobility entails one very important factor, which is broadening diversity of students and scholars: “...study abroad students have usually come from white, affluent families.” (p. 84). This may not be true for the Czech context, but we do not have sufficient research of sociological stratification of students participating in study abroad programs or of international students coming to study in Czech universities. Still, there is a great concern that study abroad programs are not “equal opportunity” programs. A product of equal chances politics. This is especially evident when we compare the number of students coming from more affluents or less affluent parts of the world.

Broadening diversity is very much connected to rationales one has for internationalization. Namely, if one’s rationale for internationalization is global competitiveness in research of graduates in the global economy market, than their focal point might be the US; if they are more foresighted, then the focus may be China, India or Russia. In other words, such narrow focus may not result in internationalization of the institution, and may not lead in the end to more international cooperation, but to international competitiveness (discussed above).

Participation in study abroad programs by students from less affluent countries, or minority students may be a special challenge for the institution that can be ameliorated by establishing mechanisms for increasing access, broadening participation and facilitating integration of such students. As Kulham (in Klasek, 1998) rightly points, too often domestic affirmative action programs and international programs do not work cooperatively with each other in U.S. (p. 29). Widening intercultural and international diversity requires closer contact with minority staff, leaders of minority organizations, in the case of the Czech Republic especially nongovernmental organizations, and elimination of financial, cultural and social and cultural barriers.

2.2.4.6.2 Learning together

Visiting students encounter the host culture very intensively in discipline/learning, i.e. in classes. Disciplines reflect the way culture thinks about organization of the knowledge and its part, the methodologies, the topics discussed etc. The names of subjects or disciplines may be the same, but what is taught and learned may be different (Mestenhauser, 2000, p. 7). The culture-learning is reciprocal and involves also the domestic students and the teacher. Relying on the existence of internationally mixed teams/groups is not enough. In order to support such learning, Mestenhauser suggests following guidelines:

- 1) decrease mutual isolation, make them “insiders” instead of “outsiders”
- 2) increase contacts – communication
- 3) participants in classrooms and campus life
- 4) domestic and foreign students learn to think retrospectively
- 5) domestic and foreign students learn meta-skills
- 6) learn to synthesize new ideas in conflict with “old”
- 7) sustain knowledge and production
- 8) domestic students are foreign students when abroad
- 9) heterogenization: recipes for creativity (Mestenhauser, 2004 key note speech)

Overall, the concepts non-formal, implicit or experiential learning are very important part of internationalization. Impressive pieces of research indicate that international students regard nonformal (incidental) learning as more important than learning from fields of study (Lee et al., 1981 in Mestenhauser, 1998 p.29). Lundy Dobbert (1998 in Mestenhauser and Ellingboe, 1998) argues that it is impossible to infuse some knowledge about other cultures to the curriculum. She estimated that a culture has 1,440 variables and it is so complex that it difficult is if not impossible for individual students, even those majoring in it, to fully understand a culture. She suggests that students should not be expected to learn about cultures, but to live “multiculturalism as normal human experience” on the campus (p. 61).

It seems reasonable that the institutions make a better use of already culturally diverse campus especially if one considers the idea of a desired way of learning about cultures through normal human experience. This statement seems applicable also to the Czech environment, where it seems that international students and scholars are rather isolated (international students many times do not attend regular classes with the rest of the students but have special courses designed for them or do not attend classes taught primarily in Czech at all and are left with consultation of particular faculty speaking foreign languages). In this case the proposal to learn about the cultural diversity from a human contact is to be seriously considered especially with the view to the rationales of Internationalization at Home (see chap. Above). Integrating all campus personnel means including visiting scholars and international students as resourceful guest speakers or panelists in courses in which they have some expertise or are able to offer a cultural comparison⁸¹.

2.2.4.7 Administration of internationalization

Institutions which promote study abroad programs have an obligation to provide information and advising services regarding study abroad opportunities to all students. Overseas study is too complex and expensive to be left to students experimentation so that they can begin functioning immediately on arrival and be assured of smooth re-entry. Kulman (in Klasek, 1992 p. 25) proposes basic international service, which include:

- 1) pre-arrival information and assistance,
- 2) orientation activities designed to introduce the new environment, technical requirements and support services,
- 3) ongoing advisory services with respect to personal counseling, adjustment issues, academic support, emergency issues, preparations for departure and return,
- 4) advocacy and intervention in resolution of student's problems,
- 5) development of programs to enhance interaction between student communities,
- 6) enhancement of sensitivities to cultural differences,
- 7) provision of services to meet international students and scholar needs, and
- 8) opportunities for in-depth understanding of the host and home countries and cultures.

International offices need to keep in mind that those that affect domestic students also affect international students and scholars, e.g. health care, insurance or sexual health, domestic violence, racism, harassment, violations of academic and institutional policy and family relations. In addition, the lives of international students and scholars are deeply affected by international and national political and economic shifts. Re-entry of international students and scholars to their home countries after extensive stay abroad has been the subject of much study

⁸¹ One can experience that the above described theory is viable to be put into practice for example at the University of Minnesota

and research that indicates that returning students often face “reverse culture shock” that is different in kind and often more intensive. The responsibility of the institution to prepare international students and scholars for their return home and reintegration into the culture and professional life has been taken seriously in U.S. (Kulham, in Klasek, 1992, p. 35.) Institutions should assist domestic students with identifying employment opportunities in the home country and re-entry seminars that explore the emotional and social implications of returning home. Students require practical information on how to conclude their affairs in the country and ship their belongings home. Finally, they must be offered ways in which they can stay in touch with the institutions, faculty, alumni clubs and own profession. This advice is best transmitted in a combination of workshops, written material and personal advising sessions.⁸²

Overall, ensuring a positive and productive stay is an institutional responsibility and it is no longer possible that all services are provided by a single office. For example, the University Office of International Programs at the University of Pennsylvania consists of three divisions. The Office of Education Abroad Programs is involved in planning new education abroad programs; it works closely with academic units to screen new program proposals and with students to interest them in integrating study abroad experiences; furthermore, it strives to counsel students on how to make that experience possible financially, logistically and academically.

The second division is the Office of International Student and Scholars, which is responsible for services and programs that aid students from other countries, handles immigration matters, admission processes, visa, liaison with sponsors, and cross-cultural activities of nationality and local civic clubs.

The third division is the office of International Cooperative Programs that supports and coordinates international activities undertaken by faculty: research units, teaching departments, exchanges, organizers of international events and programs on campus and internationalizing faculty through interaction with their foreign counterparts and through establishment of cooperative program with international institutions. This office also promotes the development of global perspectives on curriculum, disseminates information regarding international education, and services to the staff and community.

⁸² for more see *Returning Home: Adjusting to life after study abroad* Thomas J 1992 The Fulbright Commission, London; *Re-Entry. A Guide to Returning Home* Canadian International Development Agency 1979; *Going Home: a workbook: A Guide to Professional Integration* Denney M. 1986 NAFSA; *Nervous Conditions* Dangarembga T 1988 The Women's Press, London; *Cross Cultural Re-entry: An Annotated Bibliography* Austin CN 1983 Abilene Christian University, Abilene; *International Student Re-entry: A Selected Annotated Bibliography* Chinn L 1992 NAFSA, Washington; Pusch and Lowerenthal's (1988) *Helping them Home*, M. Denny's (1986) *A workbook for Reentry and Professional Intergration*. On the subject see http://thetask.org/students/Info/parents_debrief-reentry.htm

As described above, the international office performs several major functions: it administers the study abroad and all international engagements, provides information, counsels students and scholars, it plays its role in leadership and strategic planning of internationalization of the whole institution and lastly prepares programs for educating the stakeholders (for more details see Appendix 1.5).

In other to educate students and faculty and other staff, international offices need to develop the theories of international education. Mestenhauser's description of the U.S. context, namely that "a mere mention of a "theory" causes them to faint" (2000b, p. 4) is, unfortunately for the profession, also relevant for the Czech Republic, and the knowledge of theoretical concepts among the international office directors, employers or vice-deans for international relations is rather rare (see Chapter 5). International offices must stop talking about themselves as "just administering the existing agreements", and start to take responsibility for the internationalization of faculty, curricula, research as well as counseling and planning.

International education officers need to make a substantial contribution to solving intercultural and international problems occurring at the institutions. For that, they need literature, theory and research. The existing knowledge is fragmented in disciplines, isolated by those who have the "right" to produce educational science in departments of educational science or colleges. International relations officers need to become international education professionals who combine theory and practice and educate others about the place of intercultural relations, intercultural communication, and internationalization of curriculum, international cooperation and intercultural learning occurring at the institution.

According to Mestenhauser (2000, p. 5), knowledge of international educators should be based on observing people from their own and other countries and cultures doing the following:

- interacting with each other in multiple ways,
- attempting to make sense out of their cross-cultural stay,
- understanding some things and misunderstanding others,
- seeking advice related to the educational systems and ways of thinking implicit in them,
- expressing puzzlement and often hostility with educational practices,
- seeking or failing to seek advice about cross-cultural living and learning,
- questioning aspects of orientation programs,
- facing life in the classroom,
- taking examinations, often in foreign languages,
- changing perspective as result of stay abroad, and

- comparing constantly their experiences with home countries (p. 5).

International education professionals should not be just suppliers of knowledge to others; they should be equal partners to other educators and develop practical ways of teaching the knowledge to the faculty and students (e.g. Malaspina University above).⁸³

Finally, funding is a crucial factor for bringing visions to practice. The issue of who has the competence to allocate money and how it is done are crucial. It has already been said that faculty do not seem to be encouraged to engage in internationalization by financial incentives (more on the issues will be discussed in the section on Leadership). In unending times of extremely tight budgets, international office administrators may feel discouraged about efforts to raise funds from usual sources or to secure financial support from institutions for study abroad programs.

There are several internal funding options: scholarships, programs based on exchanges of students, providing income from academic credits for work experience abroad (e.g. done at Masaryk University), cooperation with foundations supporting study abroad programs, cooperation with the Ministries on promotion of so called cultural agreements, partnerships with business community or international organizations, partnerships with K-12 sector, and, of course, foundations and official educational programs such as the Fulbright, British Council, Alliance Francaise, Deutcher Akademisher Exchange Fund, etc. Funding sources may include: oversees students fees, student related grants (TEMPUS, ERASMUS), project grants (e.g. ESPRI, COME), consultancy oversees (WB, companies, governments, NGOs), continuing education program oversees, research projects, technology transfer – licensing to overseas companies, franchising courses to colleges in other countries, etc. Institutions can provide international students as well as returnees as guest speakers. Such arrangements may give college-level students the chance to talk about home or about international experience, but it also introduces to K-12 students the idea of studying abroad.

An extensive review of the complexity of services provided by the international relations office in relationship to the mobility of student and scholars was already reviewed in the chapter *On Internationalization as Europeanization*. For a comprehensive table of extensive review of web pages of American and European universities, namely their offices of international relations and the above written theoretical concepts, see Appendix 1.5. Believing that university's major function in addition to teaching and research is also community service,

⁸³ For more see <http://www.yorku.ca/yorkint/global/conference/canada/papers/Odgers-Giroux.ppt#256,1,Internationalizing Faculty: A Three-Pillared Approach to Transforming Curriculum Design and Instruction>

then internationalization of the institution needs to be done in order to reach out to both the local and international community.

2.2.4.8 University's Outreach and service to society

Public service overall has untapped potential to aid university in their quest for international education (Flournoy in Klasek, 1992, p. 90). If this is true for American universities, it is even more so for Czech higher education. Public service is a part of the missions of all land-grant American universities; however, in the Czech Republic it seems to be "a rather underdeveloped role of the university" (OECD, 2006, p. 104, Kasíková, 2008, personal conversation). The AIEA Guidelines (2007) specify public service to be among the major components of the internationalization of a college.

Higher education outreach to the society is connected to several general trends. It is connected to the trend towards the Triple-Helix Model of University, to the Mode 2 of production knowledge (namely, a production of knowledge from multiple sources), and it is connected to change from elite education to mass education. It is also connected to evaluation and accountability of schools⁸⁴, fundraising from multiple sources and many other current trends. Integration of public service in the mission of the institution on behalf of internationalization may not only a worthy mission of public institutions, but its performance earns these institutions public trust that is also needed to gain funding. Above all, the institution's reaching out is connected to the change from elite education to mass education where the role of university is defined in close cooperation with the community.

The concept of public service is not as evident in Czech strategic materials. For example, in methodology for measuring quality of institutions of higher education (Hodnocení kvality vysokých škol) prepared by Centre for Higher Education Studies in Prague (2006) the university's outreach in a form of a public service is not taken into account. Also Škopová (2007, p. 45) identifies outreach of university only in cooperation with the business sphere.⁸⁵ Unlike EFQM Model of Excellence⁸⁶ prepared by TRIS project team in Belgium, which includes among its indicators also service to the public and internationalization is included as one sub-indicator. Czech policy and evaluation methodology may tremendously change with the White Book on Higher Education to be published at the end of 2008.

In reality, public service is usually reversed. Instead of the institutions of higher education seeking to provide it, the community (e.g. NGOs and community organizations)

⁸⁴ Conf. Prášilová 2006, Vašátková, 2006, Walterová 2001.

⁸⁵ She bases her arguments on theoretical concepts of Gibbons' Mode Two production of knowledge and Ezkowitz and Leydersdorff's Triple Helix model of university.

⁸⁶ See Kohoutek in Aula, special number, 2006, p. 13

usually initiates ideas that it wishes the universities to accept. Yet universities seem to be resistant to take up these ideas, such as organizing courses or undertaking research projects even if they have advantageous fiscal terms. Often, scholarship on international issues may be developed by non-university bodies that will be created to compete with the universities for the same funds – often for profit. At the same time there are faculty who serve (many times for free) as consultants or interpreters to minorities, immigrants dealing with foreign police offices or those seeking jobs, etc. These individual efforts often stay unnoticed (and of course unrewarded) by the leadership of the faculty.

Universities cannot keep themselves to themselves. There are many advocates of universities collaboration with the industry or business. These calls do not resonate with colleges like liberal arts or the human science oriented institutions. These colleges may not be able provide research relevant to the business sector; still there is no reason why these institutions should not provide services to the community – being “too business-like” is not for them. Many do that (usually in the form of individual faculty or departmental activities), many still do not. Some at least consider what their prospective graduates could do for the community.

Within the topic of internationalization, the human-sciences institutions with area studies can play a great role in their communities. There might be dozens of ideas how the college can reach out within the issue of internationalization. Aitches and Hoeneker (In Klasek, 1998) provide many ideas how the colleges can use its international programs to reach out to the community.

For example, Ohio State University has a program that involves international students in volunteer activities in the community, a Fulbright enrichment program, a Peaceful World seminar, course for public school teachers on Teaching Strategies for Cross-cultural and International Understanding, summer workshops, three day practicum of international students home stay with teachers, area studies briefings for state legislators and local government officials and business people, alliance of foreign language teachers of academic and high school background, series of radio shows focusing on international issues, seminars in public libraries etc. (In Klasek, 1992, pp. 94-96).

The first step in a successful public service/outreach program is a need to identify the community needs through an assessment tool, then to identify resources of students, scholars, departments and other cooperating agencies, and finally to conceptualize these programs so they would make sense to prospective audiences. The existing human resources for that may include staff with international expertise, international students, returned students and scholars, area studies faculty. The institutions may offer their library materials, access to

international computer networks, information about exchange programs, or set up international research relevant to business or NGOs, cultural institutions.

Once the needs are assessed and the programs are conceptualized, these opportunities need to be widely disseminated. The outcome is always a gain for the institutions in terms of their community connections and the public attention, which it receives. Public service is not a matter of sitting and waiting for someone to wander into the institution looking for somebody or something. It involves active promotion of the university's international resources, outreach to the community and invitation for partnership. In reality, international public service activities can be carried out with little budget. If the institution has assessed its resources well and identified other partner organizations with whom it can collaborate, it can mount an extensive outreach effort with few fiscal resources. Local media, newspapers, television and radio stations also make powerful allies.

The playing and learning field for collaboration in developing international competences for the private sector are endless. Major multi-national corporations are having severe problems in working with intercultural teams in a globalized economy. Elite academic institutions seem to have difficulty reorienting themselves to deal with these many opportunities in the private sector. Only individual faculty is clever enough to use their academic background as a label of quality in consulting and lecturing in business sector. Their individual efforts are not driven by forging collaboration between private and academic sector or by supporting institution building for higher education, but by pragmatic higher financial motivation through moonlighting, which is tolerated but not supported by the leadership.

At the same time, coordinated collaboration with the private sector could raise funding for the whole university. As has been indicated, there are many potential areas of common collaboration. It also stands to be repeated that other sectors of public and private life will eventually discover sources of knowledge they need, and it may then be too late for the public universities to discover that they have "missed the boat" and lost to more flexible organizations that saw their chances – often of profits.

Flournoy (1992) says that "international public service has the capacity to assist universities in becoming what Senge calls "learning organizations", to see themselves as connected to the world and to make their thinking open to the influence of their various constituencies" (In Klasek, p. 105).

2.2.5 Leadership and Institutional Change

In order to internationalize higher education, it is necessary to turn to learn from the literature on leadership and institution change and at the same time to keep in mind that the

concept of internationalization is not a simple extension of previous thinking, but a gigantic step into something, which is qualitatively as quantitatively different from the national perspective. By employing various methods of thinking and various level of analysis, we are, in effect facilitating a cognitive shift from national to international thinking in which a person confronts the world of other cultures by also confronting one's own." (Mestenhauser, 1995, p. 10 In Ellingboe, 1999, p. 115). Calls for change may confront a great resistance or outright opposition if the present culture (as defined above) differs from the new ideas of change (Pol, 2006, p. 125).

The need for change is imminent because the global society is undergoing the most unprecedented changes that affect all of education, especially higher education. Institutions that do not respond to these changes will not survive, at least not in the present format. As Clark Kerr (1990) indicated in his seminal work, about organizational change, he notes: "higher education has been in retreat in its attention to the international dimension of the past two decades. This trend needs to be reversed. The nation and the world are moving in opposite directions from higher education." (Ellingboe, 1998, p. 115).

The following sections will focus on the role of leadership in the internationalization process and lastly on several systemic guidelines on institutional change. For the literature review (both organizational theories applied to higher education institutions, on systems theories of organizations on what a "change" please, see the Appendix 1.6). Above all, I would like to stress, that the theoretical framework for both: leadership and institutional guidelines is from transformational leadership theories and systems perspective. For Leadership I apply especially the Senge and Fullan argumentation and for systemic guidelines for organizational change, the leading concept is from Green, Eckel and Hill (2006) who include Senge and Fullan in their framework. With the scarceness of the Czech scholarship on higher education institutional change and leadership role in the change process, I found the following scholarship (Senge, Fullan) relevant for many of these concepts from a similar perspective are tackled by Pol (2007) in his new book *School in Changes (Škola v proměnách)*, which is, however, targeted at the primary education level. Still, the great need for further research on leadership and organizational change in Czech higher education must be acknowledged.

2.2.5.1 Institutional change

Institutional change involves people in all academic and administrative units working to produce comprehensive change within the system the ability to maintain awareness of global political, economic, social and cultural environments inside as well as outside academia. The internationalization process is a change of the entire institution, if one

subscribes to the systems perspective in which change in any part creates changes in the whole. It is one of a number of processes that the organization needs to adopt in order to be responsive to the changing society and in order to become a learning organization (for more on the concept of learning organization see Appendix 1.6)

I have described the transformation of the programs, disciplines, courses and how it cannot be done without the mid-shift of faculty, their further education in intercultural sensitivity as well as without the integration of international students into the classes and outward-looking culture of the institution. To understand strategic directions for launching an internationalization plan or analyzing the organization's internationalization as a process, it is important to review literature on organizational change at the higher educational level, especially if there is no Czech literature on the internationalization from the perspective of organizational change of higher education institutions.

The general agreement that the world is changing rapidly and the rules of the game have changed significantly from those of only a decade ago yields no consensus on the implications of those realities for higher education. What does it take institutions to stand up to and ride the waves of change rather than wading in the tides, digging in their heels and hoping to remain upright as successive wave crashes over their heads? Unfortunately, changes do not ride on the waves so that we cannot run away from them, nor do they hit us on the head with advance notice. Social and cultural changes are subtle, unnoticed, uneven, and most likely unexpected. To assist the internationalization process then means that we have to have some assistance with the process of the transformation of an institutions and assistance for individuals on how to recognize changes and how to deal with them.

Transformation is not about hastiness but changes may happen one at time, because in a democratic society change is incremental as opposed to revolutionary, as was the case during the Communist era. Universities change very slowly depending on their institutional culture for the change involves a way of thinking, organizing, teaching, and researching, not just restructuring (conf. Pol, 2007). They may lose to for-profit consulting companies that have sprang up everywhere at the expense of universities (Mestenhauser and Ellingboe, 2005, p. 38).

Knowledge about change is complex and may be contradictory. Above all, it is also a cultural variable. Change may require that we abandon some traditional ways of thinking, in case of internationalization; it is ethnocentrism and inward looking. This issue has been already tackled in the preceding chap. on Culture and Curriculum. A considerable impact on change, however, seems to have the leaders, at any level of the institution.

The major role of leaders in change support an extensive ACE's project on transformation of higher education in U.S. Green, Peter, Hill (2003) list four main factors that shape successful course of change. Three of them are focused on leadership:

- 1) Transformation of institutions has to have propitious external environments and internal conditions;
- 2) "Change leaders" must display engagement in change and come up with approaches that facilitate change (trust, value, change, climate, etc.);
- 3) Leaders help people develop new ways of thinking and understand that change requires change in structures, practices, policies and culture;
- 4) Leadership pays attention to the change and listens to and learns from the stakeholders (p. 18).

Similarly, Ellingboe's findings from her 5-college case study of internationalization support the importance of leadership for transformation of a higher education institution to occur (Ellingboe, 1999).

In sum, the review of literature (see more in Appendix 1.6) on organizational change reveals that change must involve all stakeholders and curriculum, it must affect the structure, must be filtered through the cultural screen of the organization, its be supported by finances, above all it must concern the leadership and staff (of a learning organization)⁸⁷. Agreeing with Ellingboe and Mestenhauser (2005): "when leaders create an intercultural learning environment, there is a noticeable change on the whole campus" (p. 42). In order to prepare for the research framework and gain in-depth theoretical understanding it is necessary to look some relevant issues connected to the last mentioned component, namely leadership.

2.2.5.2 Leadership role in internationalization

According to Ellingboe and Mestenhauser (2005, p.39) many international educators and scholars take leadership for granted and do not pay much attention to its conceptual foundations and its cultural contextualization. The success of the internationalization process, however, does not depend on a few projects or limited number of mobility programs, but on its institutionalization and mainstreaming, which is a function of leadership on which we need more research.

Management theories have already influenced international education, as judged by terms as "marketing", "strategic change". However, there is still to be researched how these theories function in the context of higher education and in different cultural settings (Ellingboe and Mestenhauser, 2005, p. 38). There are major differences in goals, products, governance, priorities, how work is valued between business and schools; moreover, there are major

⁸⁷ Similarly, Pol (2008): a change must be filtered through institutional, organizational and community screen.

differences in management styles among cultures. Only very few studies deal with culture specific and general understanding of leadership concepts. According to S. Mignot-Gerard's analysis of management scholarship (2003, p. 81), the literature on university leadership is either too vague or too personal.

In order to apply the knowledge to internationalization, we must combine knowledge about change and about the context in which leadership functions. Of the more than 10,000 studies of leadership⁸⁸ published only in U.S., most of them are written from a management perspective. Ellingboe and Mestenhauser (2005) argue that even recent literature transformational theory on leadership neglects the role of culture as an operating system and treat culture mostly as if there are some foreign people involved in the work of groups.

Because the change towards internationalization was defined as system-wide than localized, leadership scholarship needs to be systems-oriented as well. Most leadership theories are too static and management-oriented for that, and only several of them can be applied for purposes of internationalization. Leadership is differentiated from management, as leaders seize opportunities, while managers avert threats. In short, leadership is about getting people abandon their old habits and achieve new things, and therefore about change – about inspiring, helping and sometimes supporting to bring about change in people.⁸⁹ According to Pol citing Senge: “leaders are those who lead by having acquired new skills, new knowledge and new understanding of things” (Senge, 1990, p. 15, In Pol 2007, p. 29). This definition seems to fit well what today's leadership of quite specific institutions: of higher education institutions.

2.2.5.3 Leadership in higher education institution of internationalization

Higher education institutions are different from other organizations but also from primary school leadership in that they are specific and so is their leadership. The ability of leaders to inspire people to work on change is important, as is a clear articulation of what the institution's mission and priorities are. The leaders include the rector (president), vice rectors, deans, vice deans, department chairs, and (informally) faculty.

The dean has an integral role in providing leadership in internationalization of the institution (Merryfield, Jarchow, and Pickert, 1997 in Ellingboe, 1999, p. 230). In connection to creating an international community within the college, the dean must approach that task from

⁸⁸ Ellingboe and Mestenhauser (2005, p. 41) list several leadership theories: trait approach, skills approach, style approach, contingency theory, path-goal theory, leader-member exchange theory, transformational leadership.

⁸⁹ For more on the distinction between leadership v. management see http://changingminds.org/disciplines/leadership/articles/manager_leader.htm or conf. Pol (2008, p. 37)

several avenues: ultimately, the college climate must help the faculty and students develop intercultural competence and the ability to think globally within the community (Merryfield et al, 1997, p. 210). The dean's task of creating a global community becomes easier if the institution's mission focuses on the international roles. One must look at the college mission, faculty development efforts, faculty exchanges, incoming and outgoing scholars and other opportunities to learn about world culture outside of the classroom including student teaching opportunities in other countries and international study programs. The dean has a responsibility to assist faculty in keeping up with the many international challenges that affect their own disciplines, encouraging brown-bag seminars on international topics, providing opportunities for faculty exchanges, and creating other incentives for a sharing climate for faculty interaction with their peers.

In addition, the dean and vice deans can further the internationalization agenda by joining higher education associations and international education consortia to further their own campus efforts. Some of these consortia focus on student study abroad and international faculty development; assistance in developing more international ethos more international research or teaching projects, etc.

The dean often wears many more hats and oversees work of vice-deans (usually for student affairs, academic/research and development, international relations). He/she may interact with unit directors and students service staff, attend central administration meetings with other deans, the rector, faculty, senate, counsel, advise and meet with students and faculty, oversee residential life, services, safety, community service, campus programs, international student services, multicultural affairs, and others. The relationship between the dean and vice deans and department directors has consequences on how institutional vision is implemented in practice.

The amount of responsibilities and competencies connected to different positions of the leadership varies from institution to institution. Henson, Noel, Gillard-Byers, and Ingle (1990) are four international educators who used many measures to analyze universities in their study. Their framework pulls out various measures factors and especially leadership and administrative efforts in internationalization. They developed a list of indicators of support and commitment of the institutional leadership for internationalization. The list serves as a good framework of general strategies that help to promote internationalization. It includes: oral presentation; institutional strategies, statements in catalogues, brochures, publications, deans council, annual reviews; importance of faculty incentives and rewards; importance of strategic plan for internationalization; a senior position directly responsible for internationalization;

funding; institutional policies; board of regents; faculty senate; tenure and promotion codes. (Henson et al., 1990 Ellingboe, 1990, p. 162).

Henson et al. (1990) in their research also developed a questionnaire of priorities for deans and higher positions, which helps to illustrate personal efforts of the leadership of the institution towards internationalization. In accordance with Ellingboe, I find the list very practical and easy to understand from analyzing the role of the leadership in internationalization of the institution. The leadership is to indicate of which priority level they perceive different components and strategies of internationalization. The listing includes: international activities, foreign language study, international content in the curriculum, area studies programs, study abroad programs or internships abroad, recruitment and training of international students, financial support for faculty educational exchanges, international activities required for promotion and tenure, supporting research emphasizing international topics, cooperative relationships or linkages with institutions in other countries, supporting participation in development assistance with projects and activities, supporting efforts to internationalize internal units within the college, providing faculty development activities, assisting private sector in international awareness, and providing educational resources for various international activities (see Chap. On Methodology for more details).

According to the literature review, the dean plays an important role in internationalization, for he or she may employ strategies that either support internationalization or not. Another position mentioned in higher education literature as playing an important part in campus/university leadership is the department chair. According to Kinnick (1994 in Ellingboe 1999, p. 237) the department chairpersons play key roles in formulating vision for their departments, speaking on behalf of their own faculty in college meetings. The role of the department chair seems to be even more important in organizational culture which is not interdisciplinary and interconnected, which is not characterized with collegiality and collaboration. If the department chairs compete with each other over resources, it may negatively impact the process of change.

Department chairs supervise department operations, prepare budgets and long-range planning documents, and participate with other chairs in college-wide planning. According to Kinnick (1994 in Ellingboe, 1999, p. 238), the chair person, similarly to the dean, may embrace a combination of a number of roles: be a faculty-oriented leader (recruiting, evaluating faculty, enhancing their morale and professional development), a manager (budgeting, maintaining equipment), academic leader (long-term direction, curriculum development), disciplinary (teaching, research in his or her field) and externally-oriented (being aware of trends and needs of the society and represent the college).

All the above mentioned are part of the leadership of higher education institutions and need to be considered as possible leaders of change.

2.2.5.4 Effects of Culture on Leadership

Although we have already discussed the importance of culture which which needs to be studied with reference other cultures as well as our own, we have not yet touched upon another aspect of cultural knowledge, one that affects the performance and the form of leadership.

One of the first researchers to take into account the effects of culture on leadership was (as already mentioned) Hofstede. He (1980) found that working styles differed according the following cultural dimensions: individualism versus collectivism, small versus great power distance, weak versus strong uncertainty avoidance and also quality of life and confusion dynamism.

In addition, the Canadian scholar, Adler (1997) has helped leaders to reflect on themselves and understand their ways of thinking and behavior depending on their culture. She explains why it may be much more difficult for some leaders to adopt leadership models from other cultures grounding her arguments on McGregor's Theory of X and Y managerial styles⁹⁰. If the way managers communicate respect and trust depends on their cultural background, consequently, to lead and implement systemic organizational change will be more difficult for some leaders than for others. Also, Andre Laurent (1983), a highly acclaimed professional at INSEAD (a leading international management school in France) studied philosophies and behaviors of managers in "Western" Europe, Japan and China and found distinct patterns of managerial styles

These theories show that the conceptualizations of effects of culture on leadership are important. Because these conceptualizations are not Czech-specific, they, however, do not help much with answering the question: which theories are relevant for the Czech higher education leadership.

The following section is based on extensive review of leadership literature. The issues that are to be tackled were selected as most frequently and most importantly dealt with issues for higher education leadership in connection to internationalization and change of learning organizations. They are based on a transformational leadership and systems perspective. I assume that the following issues will be relevant for the Czech higher education context as other Czech sholars also ground their arguments on them (Pol, Hloušková, Rabušicová, Prášilová, Eger, Walterová, Matějů, Straková and others) and they are considered in recommendations of OECD Country Report (2006). Since there has not been research that

⁹⁰ For more on McGregor's theory see http://www.menai.ac.uk/read/cd_roms/beta_mp_eng/macgregor_x_y.htm, or conf. Bacík & Kalous, 1998.

would define culture-specificness of higher education leadership, I will try to comment on the theories from relevant cross-cultural psychology findings. It seems that only after reflecting on the outcomes of my case study, may it be possible to develop some better-fit recommendations and more specific analysis.

2.2.5.5 Involving leadership

It was already argued that the structure of higher education decision making has been changing and the reality is reflected in management literature, which tends to be more participative in general. According to Ellingboe (1999), involvement of all stakeholders is crucial for internationalization process.

It is necessary to draw on the existing the Czech literature, to which I will turn next. However, U.S. sources should not be discounted, as the scholarship has great breadth and may be inspirational; the great influence on Czech-written scholarship should also not be underestimated.

Miňhová et al (1994), Pitra (1998), Bacík, Kalous, and Svoboda (1998)⁹¹ argue that the participative form of leadership should be included among the many guidelines of successful leadership. Bacík, Kalous, Svoboda (1998) share with the reader in an already mentioned book that they think highly of the shared decision-making practiced by “alternative schooling”⁹². They conclude that the traditional leadership paradigm as well as the role and performance of a leader need to be revised for a successful change process in the Czech Republic. Pol (2008) argues for “distributed leadership” (p. 73).

The above-mentioned scholarship has concerned mostly the primary and secondary education level; there has been no comprehensive analysis of the current situation in higher education leadership. With the view of political changes in the Czech Republic after 1989, the model of university organization and management shifted towards decentralization and participation. Matějů and Straková (2005) comment on the current higher education structure still being very hierarchical and OECD Report 2006 calls for more participatory decision making for example through external advisory boards, etc. The White Book on Higher Education (to be published in 2008) counts on more participatory leadership.

⁹¹ They characterize the “socialist education systems in terms of centralization, bureaucracy, unification, ideological monism, sovietization, and economization as contrasted with the democratic society in which the principles of schooling and management are: democratization, inclusion of staff in decision making, diversification of schooling, content pluralism, stress on national tradition and de-economization (p. 159).

⁹² However, they would not go as far as critical pedagogy to include (“empower”) students in decision making and as an inspiration for leaders give an example of Total Quality guidelines.

Overall, the review of international literature on leadership is also predominantly participatory or involving⁹³. According to Kuh and Schuh (1991), American scholars who have been dealing with student engagement in decision making in higher education, an “involving institution” gives all the leadership, faculty and administrators sense of an ownership of the entire system (see the section on Students). Higher education institutions may feel that they are “involving” enough if they have a Senate with electives from the student body. Involving institutions encourage constant interaction between local and management levels – i.e. students, faculty, departmental heads, and leadership.

Similarly, Senge’s (1990) idea of participative vision building in learning organizations is based on the image of “local control” – according to which healthy conditions and growth of organization depend on countless local decision making processes that continually respond to changes. (For more on Senge’s systems thinking and theory of learning organization see Appendix 1.) If the organization’s vision is imposed on members of the organization, it will at best result in compliance not commitment. If there is an ongoing “envisioning” process, local and organizational visions will continually interact with and enrich one another. The combination of mission, vision, and values creates the common identity that can connect thousands of people in large and complex organizations such as universities. A problem arises, however, when local decisions are not made within the systems paradigm but by particularistic, short-term oriented and individualistic orientation or are based on inadequate or incomplete knowledge.

Fullan, a world-wide authority on school reform, tried to transfer Senge’s ideas to the school setting in his book *What’s Worth Fighting For in Your School* (1992). It describes action guidelines for principals committed to building learning organizations at primary schools:

1. Understand the Culture of the School;
2. Value your teacher: promote their professional growth;
3. Extend what you value;
4. Express what you value;
5. Promote collaboration; not cooperation;
6. Make menus not mandates;
7. Use bureaucratic means to facilitate, not to constrain;
8. Connect with wider environment. (summarized by the author.)

In order not to result in an anarchy, decentralized action and decision making must be based on constant learning: new knowledge, new skills, new perspectives (Senge, 1990).

⁹³ The two terms are used interchangeably in the literature. Involving leadership may focus more on sharing.

2.2.5.5.1 Leadership skills and strategies⁹⁴

There is a very extensive body of research about the “personal traits” on which successful leadership is supposed to be based (such as persistence, hard work, trustworthiness, flexibility, etc.)⁹⁵. In fact, the leadership concept was originally based on this theory several decades ago. In connection to internationalization change, the flexibility - ability to learn and understand things from multiple perspectives - above all leadership qualities must be considered.

According to Fullan’s involving theory (1993), personal purpose is a route to organizational change. When personal purpose is present in numbers, it presents a vehicle for change. The vehicles for building greater change capacity are: personal vision building, inquiry, mastery, and foundation (p. 12 in Ellingboe, 1999, p. 113). “Personal mastery” is Senge’s term (1990) and places enormous demands on an organization’s leadership resources. The manager has to adapt a new role for a manager as researcher and designer. They need to understand the organization as a system and internal as well as external forces driving the change. It is up to them to see the long-term issues in wide breadth. The essence of the discipline of shared vision then lies in bringing individual visions into harmony with larger vision. One of the chief tasks of the leaders as both local and organization level is day-to-day recognizing and prioritizing for the goal of common identity of a constantly learning organization.

Similarly, Green, Hill, and Peter (2003) in their ACE Project on Leadership and Institutional Change found that the transformation of 26 colleges and universities in U.S.A relied on the commitment and involvement of all stakeholders in the decision-making. At the same time, they found that such model is an ideal because of current the existence of formal and informal hierarchical structure in higher education institutions. They recommend using that knowledge of the (informal) hierarchy and identifying advocates with power in key areas. The burning issue for one group does not always have to be the burning issue for another. Thus, to gain commitment and involvement of different individuals, leaders need to develop

⁹⁴ Matějů and Straková (2005) describe the Czech (tertiary education) leadership as “the non-professional management“ which makes institutions of higher education to be ineffective in articulating programs of change. Unprofessional university management may also hamper the staff’s efforts and commitment to raise the university’s ranking. According to them, the persons in the leadership roles should not be just people excelling in a narrow discipline and research, but have the ability to foresee future and implement vision and reflect on success and failures of individual parts of the vision. (pp. 67)

⁹⁵ GLOBE project found substantial worldwide consensus for effective leader traits: charismatic, seen as trustworthy, dynamic, motive-arousing and intelligent rejecting those seen as uncooperative, egocentric and irritable. Galpin (1996) provides six general attributes for leading a change: creativity, team orientation, listening skills, accountability and appreciation. Galpin also includes that leaders to become change agents must raise awareness, develop a desire to change, acquire new skills, apply the skills, receive feedback and form new habits. (Conf. Dědina, Cejtmar, 2005,p. 348)

strategies to communicate a common message to different stakeholders in ways meaningful to each group and not to introduce those at peak times in the semester. They have to frame a positive change agenda, which is essential for better future than just a different future. The change needs to be supported by some “dedicated, passionate, powerful advocates” (p. 26).

Another useful strategy for higher education institutions was communicated by Vassalo (1996) in his seven-point strategy for transforming today’s organizations while minimizing the resistance (In Ellingboe, p.115). He places a great deal of importance on the role of the leader in changing behavior of all stakeholders and their behaviors. His guidelines strive for empowerment and at the same time utilize the power of communicating strategies of the leader. His guidelines are as follows:

- 1) Using persuasive communication strategies emphasizing a shift in values and behavior;
- 2) Empowering employees through increased involvement in various organizational processes;
- 3) Acting in a way that will motivate individuals to reach new levels of excellence;
- 4) Role modeling to set positive and inspirational examples through the actions of managers and leader;
- 5) Creating desired behavioral change by offering desirable rewards;
- 6) Reinforcing desired behavioral change by offering desirable rewards; and
- 7) Influencing and controlling behavior at strategic point without creating increased resistance.

Involving all stakeholders is not an easy task. Offering of desirable rewards might be one of possible ways to overcome resistance (In Ellingboe, 1999, p. 115). The question of motivation is a very important and complex one⁹⁶. Motivation as a psychological concept that can be based on a number of motivation theories (e.g. Maslow’s theory, Motivation theory of meritocracy, McClelland’ theory of success, etc.)⁹⁷. Overall, literature agrees that motivation should be positive. The complicating factor is that most motivation theories address motivation to work more efficiently and ignore the possibility that in a knowledge-driven society motivation to learn may be quite different. More research on this topic is needed, including culture-specific research in the Czech Republic.

An incentive is a reward that is offered to either an individual or an institution for a behavioral change in favor of the direction desired by the incentive-offering agency or individual. Incentives may be also seen as outcomes of evaluation processes conducted by government or in case of universities, by accreditation agencies. Unfortunately, these

⁹⁶ Especially management literature includes great spectrum of incentives: material, moral appreciation, and development opportunities, social care, family care and many other advantages. Motivation programs of organizations are well described in Czech literature (conf. Stýblo, 1992, Růžička, J., 1992. Provazník, V, Komárková, 1996, Výrost, J. Slaměník, 1998.)

⁹⁷ For more details see Dědina, J. Cejthmar, V. Management a organizace chování, Grada, 2005.

evaluation processes often do not play the role of positive motivation but may actually dishearten faculty.

Quantifiable data on international mobility and individual publications are being introduced as part of that external evaluation system in the Czech Republic. Some may see quality assurance measures⁹⁸ as a way for government officials express the “hate” component of the love-hate relationship that exists between the governments and universities. Nevertheless, it seems that quality assurance measures are good for shaking up universities and could become the beginning of a transformation effort. What it is good for is that it makes academics take their teaching and research more seriously and that may expose various conceptual and structural weaknesses of the system (e.g. the cost-effectiveness of distance education etc.). Still, universities are full of intelligent people who quickly understand any new system and play it to their advantage. Motivating individuals as such must be done in a positive way.

The difficulty with change is that it affects various individuals, groups and institutions differently. Some may benefit more than others and some may be negatively affected. Those who perceive that they benefit more from the reform may be willing to accept changes, whereas those who see that they may be negatively affected, may feel threatened and oppose changes. The tension between these groups may play an important role in implementing internationalization (for more see Discussion on Research Findings).

Vergheze (2004, p. 31) makes an interesting point towards the specific university culture. The change in the context of the university may take place only when members of the dominant group are convinced that they will benefit. In a university, the “professoriate” is the strongest group exerting influence on all academic matters. Therefore, if introducing change in the university, an incentive package to the professoriate must be carefully considered. Varghese suggests that institutional changes in university may be more easily accepted if the incentive system is designed in such a way that it favors the professoriate more than others. The higher the expectations of the dominant groups of changes, the higher incentives to accept them must be (ibid.).

Lastly, the institutional motivation mechanism needs to relate to personal rationalization of internationalization. Motivation is very much influenced with the culture of the organization and by the national and even supranational (European) culture. It might be difficult to expect the motivational rationale for internationalization to be based on the

⁹⁸ Are indicators that quantify academic performance usually used to justify performance and need for additional funding. This has certain implications: first, authority and power over university affairs is separated from disciplinary competence, second, the university administrators have gained influence at the expense of disciplinary communities. Resistance to these changes at the institutional level has been considerable and the question of retaining academic freedom even in case of poor pay has been fiercely discussed.

principle of merit, firstly, if the rationale for internationalization in Europe concerns primarily the ability to compete (de Wit, 2002, Van der Wende, 1997), secondly if the culture of the organization has favored hierarchically layered and individually oriented reward structure, and thirdly, if the surrounding societal culture does not favor meritocratic values and is based on high power distance. Leaders will have to reflect all of these in their incentive packages. When developing motivation policy leaders need to seriously consider the current rationale for internationalization and the fact they need to address all constituents of the institutions.

Matějů and Straková (2005) also Green, Hill, and Peter (2003) are convinced that new skills are required for both routine management and management of change and that these skills must be supported (e.g. further development of staff, new research proposals, new infrastructure, new funding). The skills needed for the change may vary according to the character of the desired change and according to the culture and level of personal mastery of the faculty. However, transformation of an institution is not only about doing things differently, but also about thinking differently. Therefore, leaders must provide new opportunities to foster new thinking and create time, space for people to come together and explore the shortcomings of status quo, and develop new ideas.

Drawing on Senge's system perspective "when placed in the same system, people, however different, tend to produce similar results" (1990, p.42), the following strategies help according to Green, Hill and Peter (2003) people create new "mental models" on campus: 1) conversational engagement with outsiders and new ideas, 2) cross-departmental teams, 3) seminal documents and public presentations (p. 22). Without such shift of mind, the insurmountable basic problems remain as conflict between the status quo and change.

In connection to internationalization a strong advocate for a "mind shift" is Mestenhauser (1998, 2000, 2005 etc.). People's views of reality are influenced by conscious and unconscious social constructions associated with culture, language, history, class, and gender experience and general experiences. All constituents of a university from the rectors, to deans, faculty, international directors and students, have their own identities. All stakeholders' realities either include the international challenge or do not stretch behind the national or local perspective.

Based on a 5-college case study, Ellingboe (1999) confirms that "mind-shift" is among the three major challenges that hinder decision makers in making organizational change towards internationalization. The first challenge involves recognizing that the world we live in is becoming increasingly international in our communication networks, careers choices, and interpersonal interactions. The second challenge asks educators to get beyond the boundaries of discipline and campus, state, nations. Going beyond borders requires a cognitive shift and a

redefinition of our usual way of thinking. The third challenge asks administrators to totally redirect their energies toward the full integration of international perspectives within the curriculum and all units within a higher education institution if it is to be an excellent environment of learning, teaching and sharing. This be done according to Ellingboe through strategic planning (p. 100).

Strategic (or sometimes developmental) planning is defined as a formal process designed to help organization identify and maintain an optimal alignment of most important elements of its environment (Ellingboe, 1999, p. 101). Strategic planning relates to international education on several levels. Firstly, strategic planning is a process that involves inquiring about the role of organization in the society, which serves as the basis for creating a vision in relation to the future. Anticipating the future is a cross-cultural variable; the environment is global; and knowledge of other countries is essential to define the “environment” in which the organization must operate. Evaluation of progress finally also requires intellectual skills of critical thinking (cross-culturally) and corresponding ability of self-reflection.

Strategic planning and leadership have become a common phrase and practice in universities that have introduced a reform measures. While the overwhelming reason for strategic planning is that it can help an organization survive by better aligning the institution with its most critical environment, it can also help the institution to prosper (for more see Rowley, Lujan and Dolence, 1997, p. 13). Even with stagnating or declining funding, many universities have become successful in accommodating larger numbers of students and programs. The consultative process and implementing of the strategic plan have become a common practice. Consequently, many universities have succeeded in mobilizing resources and reducing their reliance on public funds.

As far as the systems perspective (Senge, Fullan) on strategic planning there are several characteristics that need to stressed. It involves possibly all stakeholders (Senge calls the process “visioning”). The level of commitment of members towards the vision influences greatly the way vision will be implemented. The character of the vision - whether it is self-interest-driven or common-good motivated - can be a resistance factor even if the above were fulfilled (For more on strategic planning Appendix see 1.6).

Leadership has been the key word in the section above. Numerous guidelines for transformational change at campuses place leadership at the top. For example, Green, Hill and Peter (2003) prove that leadership is the key to successful accomplishing of transformational change at campuses.

2.2.6 Systemic guidelines for institutional change

There are many guidelines that for making a change within organizations, but each author takes a different view at the university. DiSarli (2002) stresses the change in management of the institution, Bland and Ruffin (1992) point to the importance of productive research institutions, Taylor (2006) points to flexibility, interdisciplinarity, effective management and coordination, Kotter stresses the behavioral and emotional part of engagement in the change⁹⁹, Fullan (1998), in his book *Change Forces*, gives a dozen guidelines from various authors who have been leading smaller or bigger reforms at schools at various levels. Cox and de Frees (1991), in their report on work in ten schools participating in restructuring program, emphasize that there is no single recipe for change.

The following research framework on institutional change includes guidelines from several already mentioned authors: Senge, 1990; Fullan, 1998; Ellingboe, 1999, Green, Hill and Peter 2003. All of which are set up on the systems perspective.

Green, Hill and Peter (2003) tried to compare multiple layers of evidence of change (with connections and synergy among them) in the above-mentioned ACE project. They collected evidence of the following indicators of transformational change of campuses: Structures, policies, practices. These guidelines stand out among other because they have been put together after a long-term project on transformation of dozens of U.S. campuses.

- 1) Changes to the curriculum mean the alteration of the central principles of the curriculum. It influences those who are responsible for delivering the curricular goals and may alter them.
- 2) Changes in pedagogy alters the traditional way of lectures, discussion sessions and seminars by adopting alternative teaching methods such as collaborative work, web-based learning, service learning, distant/international learning, learning communities etc.
- 3) Changes in student learning outcomes should mean improvements in student learning. Working on the changes in students' portfolios means decisions and efforts in course contents, pedagogy, curriculum, structure and other aspects.
- 4) Changes in policies are allied to the goals of the university and articulated values. Key policies must be modified to support the transformation initiatives. Changes may include: information technology, annual evaluation, hiring, promotion, program reviews, faculty development, and travel.
- 5) Changes in budget priorities means moving beyond the rhetoric of change and implementing new financial decisions (reallocation of money or finding new sources). Changes in aims should be reflected in budget priorities so that new ideas do not wither for lack of resources.
- 6) New organizational structure means creating new units to do new work of change agenda. Overall examples may include centers for teaching excellence, department of technology or international offices, which coordinate campus-wide efforts of change.

⁹⁹ Czech reader can use translation of John P. Kotter *The Heart of Change* (2003), which concentrates on behavior and thinking of people inside an organization. Kotter's eight guidelines for organizational change include: 1. support the sense of need for a change; 2. create a leadership team; 3. formulate the right vision; 4. communicate the vision and engage people in it; 5. eliminate barriers and support a heart-shift; 6. create opportunities for quick successes; 7. be strong; 8. support up-to-date changes.

- 7) New decision-making structures in order to develop new solutions, new decision-making patterns that support creative ideas and course of action. These changes also concern leadership role, new ways of thinking, new skills, new relationships and values. As already mentioned in connection with leadership, all these explicit evidences must be qualitative, sometimes underlying and largely attitudinal and cultural shifts. Only then can an institution undergoes more than a surface change. (Such evidence of successful change may go beyond the markers of change commonly used by accrediting teams, board of trustees of prescribed assessments (conf. MoE, 2007; EUA, 2007).
- 8) Changes in interactions. Institutions can only generate new ideas if they manage to connect people from different units who previously did not work together. (conf. interdisciplinary above in chap. On Faculty). New interaction in a more general sense involve not only interaction among disciplines but also other stakeholders (e.g. new student-faculty research, participation of all stakeholders in decision making, faculty led service learning experiences, new encounters with community, public decisions makers etc.) in productive partnerships.
- 9) Changes in the institutions self-image reflect new language to describe themselves in the context of their change initiatives. Reflection of the self-image may also require questioning whether self-image is identical with the image that the external public has of the institution. It may also include revising ways the image is being created. For example, universities with long history of prominent institutions may indulge in a self-compliant image of a prominent institution whose image has been created by sometimes century old traditions, which may hinder the institution to seek new ways of creating a self-image in the era of ICT, or hinder its community outreach.
- 10) Changes in rationales for old justifications for inactions do not fit new realities. An institutions needs to be willing to take a fresh look at its situation and demonstrate that in shifts in institutional beliefs, norms and culture.

Fullan is one of the few scholars who addressed the institutional change of a specific type of higher education institutions, i.e. of colleges of education. As my research considers also human science oriented college and his guidelines are simple, involve also curriculum, and empower faculty and students and above all stress the learning dimension of the institution. I would like to include them in this review. His guidelines will serve also as inspiration for the processual dimension for my systemic guidelines below. According to Fullan¹⁰⁰ (1998), if these future-teacher-training institutions want to produce teachers who are change agents, the faculty themselves have to:

- 1) Commit to continuous improvement to producing teachers who are agents of education and social improvement,
- 2) Commit to continuous improvement through program innovation and evaluation,
- 3) Value and practice exemplary teaching,
- 4) Engage in constant inquiry,
- 5) Model and develop life-long learning among staff and students,
- 6) Model and develop collaboration among staff and students.,

¹⁰⁰ Eventhough Senge is one of the greatest inspirational sources for Fullan, Senge (1992) himself describes slightly different prerequisites to building learning organizations (i.e. not schools or colleges in particular). His conceptualization of organizational change focuses on leadership and employers being the agents of change and corresponds with the idea of learning organization proposed also above by Fullan: 1) Personal matery (proficiency and commitment to lifelong learning) Mental models (thinking open to others); 2) Bulding shared vision; 3) Team learning and team skills; 4) Local control, not traditional hierarchical.

- 7) Be respected and engaged as vital part of the university as a whole,
- 8) Form partnerships with schools and other agencies,
- 9) Be visible and valued internationally in a way that contributes locally and globally, and
- 10) Work collaboratively to build regional, national, and international networks.

A more comprehensive listing of institutional guidelines, which manages to include more components of the institution than Fullan, provides Ellingboe (1999). She proposes the following simple general guidelines of institutional change:

- 1) Leader's vision
- 2) Strategic planning
- 3) Financial component
- 4) Program element
- 5) Personnel
- 6) Evaluation

For the purpose of the research framework and in order to finish the literature review on system-wide perspective, I would like to suggest a set of guidelines that combines both: the components of internationalization together with the proposed guidelines for institutional change. In one part of the table, I will identify components of internationalization within the guidelines for system-wide institutional change (combining Ellingboe 1999, Fullan, 1998 with Green, Hill, Eckel, 2003) which will be placed on the other side of the table. Following that, I will identify major process that need to accomplished in order to bring about institutional change. Lastly, I will place these processes together with components of internationalization.

The literature review of the system-wide approach components of internationalization included: **1. curriculum; 2. culture of the institution; 3. faculty and students involvement; 4. networking and research; 5. administration of internationalization; 6.outreach and service to the society; 7. leadership.**

Components	Guidelines for organizational change
Curriculum, faculty, administrators*	Change curriculum, instruction and learning outcomes
Culture, structure, leadership, administrators, mobility, research	New policies, program component, values New HR policies including staff development Allocate new finances
Leadership, administrators Leadership, faculty, students, administrators	New infrastructure, decision making and evaluations New leadership role, strategic planning
Leadership, faculty Faculty, students, administrators Students, outreach and service	New ways of thinking, new skills, New interactions, involvement of students and community
Culture, outreach and service	Change of rationale, vision, culture and self/image

The identified process of change includes: engaging, team/personal/institutional learning, developing, collaborating, involving, shifting, outreaching, visioning, planning, and others. In order to internationalize an institution of higher education, it seems important to combine the components of internationalization with the processes of change. I formulate the guidelines for internationalization in a way so that they express the processual dimension of components of internationalization. In order to internationalize the institution of higher education:

- 1) the curriculum needs to be transformed
- 2) culture must shift to involving and intercultural diversity valuing
- 3) faculty must be learning and developing and collaborating
- 4) students must become engaged and mobile
- 5) administrators of internationalization must become responsible, competent and educating
- 6) research and service of institution must outreach to (international) community
- 7) leadership must become involving, learning, sharing and financing.

Theoretically, if all the above-mentioned criteria are well and successfully managed, then the change should be inevitable. Unfortunately, events and circumstances exert a powerful influence on the course of the change agenda and its likelihood of success. Sometimes when the environment exerts too much pressure or no pressure, or even pressure in different direction, the change may be slowed or threatened. Sometimes when there is a sudden steep cut in funding or if the environment is too stressful, the movement of change may be interrupted. In the chapter on Discussion of Findings, I will elaborate on possible and existing resistance factors. For now, let us turn to the further exploration and more profound understanding of internationalization and its background and rationalization; namely, in its relationship to discourse on multiculturalism.

3 Understanding Internationalization through multicultural education

3.1 Ways to look at international and multicultural education

One of the difficulties facing international education is that it has certain similarities with competing educational mega-goals, especially multicultural education and liberal and general education. The most relevant for this study is multicultural education, to which this separate section is devoted.

Multicultural education is generally understood as “domestic diversity” while international education addresses global diversity. In the US, the thinking still appears to be dominated by this dichotomy – domestic vs. foreign so that multicultural and international education have been viewed separately administered by two (mostly competing) departments and fields of study called multicultural education and international education.

There appear to be at least four different perspectives on how these two fields and the theoretical concepts on which they are based interact with each other. First, they can be seen as two separate bodies unrelated to each other. A second option is to see multiculturalism as an umbrella that subsumes international education and its various components, such as: global, development, human rights and democratic education. The third perspective is to see all these educations in their own bubbles at times interacting with each other but at other times operating completely separately. The last perspective is to envision multicultural and international education as two overlapping fields that have common sub-fields such as intercultural communication, intercultural psychology, human rights and social justice education. It is seen as an emerging trend in scholarship and at the policy level¹⁰¹. This solution makes sense if for no other reason, that the line between “domestic” and “international” disappears. A more comprehensive discussion of multicultural education is included here, based on the fourth, overlapping and cooperative perspective, for several reasons.

¹⁰¹ Key publications: AACU (2005) *Making Diversity Work on Campus: A Research-Based Perspective* (2005[□]), ACE, (2007) *At Home in the World: Bridging the Gap between Internationalization and Multicultural Education*. AACU. In addition, in European policy papers, to name a few: *Rediscovering Higher Education in Europe* (AEU 2004) and *Transnational Education and the New Economy: Delivery and Quality* (2001, AEU), *Guidelines for Quality Evaluation* (EAU, 2007), Also in vision statements are being influenced of University of Minnesota (2006); University of Malmo; Malaspina University (2007). Similar tendency can be seen also in research and intercultural theories Shoorman (1997), Ellingboe (1999), Highbee, Lundell, Arendale (2005), Paige, (2004), Bruch, Jehangir, Lundell, Highbee, Miksch, (2005), Nilsson (2000) or in bottom-up steered projects (Global Initiatives program, AAC&U , 2005).

First, there is an emerging trend in connecting these two fields not only because globalization cuts across them but also because the equity and pragmatic issues require attention to both fields in the Czech discourse. In other words, the minorities living in the Czech Republic also need to be educated internationally and should not be left behind on both grounds.

Secondly, the Czech discourse appears to be overlapping. On the one hand it focuses overwhelmingly on Europeanization but it is produced “officially” as part of the frame of reference of multicultural discourse, which then includes in also international students, immigrants, refugees etc. – groups that are traditionally regarded as being part of the international education domain in the US, Canada, and Europe. It is important to make clear the differences and commonalities in the discourses before beginning the interview process with the university staff and document analysis.

Thirdly, after extensive readings and considerations of these two fields, I reached the conclusion that the two fields can enrich each other, especially in rationales and should not be working against each other in terms of funding or place within scholarship. This section of the literature review chapter was based on a personal understanding of the overlapping character of the two discourses, which I gathered from personal conversations with Brenda Ellingboe and Josef A. Mestenhauser, and after which I searched for research evidence regarding their relationship. Only later did I find that efforts of bridging the gap between these two fields are emerging in both the US policy and practice as well as in the European debate about Internationalization at Home. Through U.S. policy makers and with the help of Josef A. Mestenhauser and his meta-knowledge of both fields, was I able to elaborate my arguments in favor of closer accommodations between them.

3.1.1 Why to engage in bridging the gap

Historically, the two fields have been competing with each other over funding and conceptual priorities. They are based on two different perspectives: one is looking at diversity within the borders and one is looking at diversity coming from outside the borders. The events of September 11 together with globalization of the planet demonstrated that the two must go hand in hand. It is no longer possible to be overwhelmed only with internal multiculturalism in today’s world. The two fields share some elements, even though in several cases research dealing with very similar or identical issues (see below) was put under the heading of only one or the other category. In reality, they share the same interest in cultural diversity, and grounded by concepts of the same academic disciplines.

For example, Shoorman (1997) defined internationalization so that it suggests inclusion of multicultural education. Among other features, international education was for her a hegemonic educational process that occurs in an international context of knowledge and practice where societies are viewed as subsystems of a larger, inclusive world. She calls for education that is not confined to tokenism. Second, it moves beyond teacher-dominated instructional practice and takes the role of students as active contributors to their learning, whether international or domestic. Third, the goals of internationalization entail a social vision which values democracy and equality on a global scale, seeing all nations and people as member of the same global system (Shoorman, in Ellingboe, 1999, p. 37).

In the European scholarship, one can also see the search for an intercultural bridge. Van der Wende reviewed literature on internationalization and concluded that there has been not enough theoretical bridging in the European context of the two fields. Morey (2000, p. 25 in Van der Wende, 2007 unnumbered) identified the European “multicultural” tradition in education, and argued that, whereas it has previously focused on “diversity within a nation state,” there is a need to develop what she terms “global/international education” which prepares students for the realities of an interdependent world. She argues that this can be achieved by “transforming multicultural education to include an international focus.

In order to draw the basic picture of their frames of reference and major issues before getting into more detailed explanations, please see table of comparison of both fields prepared by Mestenhauser (2008) in Appendix 1.8. The table shows that there are many differences in scope, goals, and economics. However, at the same time, both fields share their very broad, systems oriented focus and interdisciplinary foundations. They also allow synergy of their subdisciplines, values, conceptual frames of reference, learning outcomes, pedagogical practices - which share a common characteristic: are in a minority status in most societies. Let us explore the differences and commonalities further from perspectives of other scholars.

3.2 Differences of international and multicultural education

Noronha (1992) described the uneasy relationship of the two fields concisely: “International education and multicultural education have much in common and much to contribute to the broadening of diversity at its widest sense on campus...both areas have commitment to understanding and teaching about cultural interaction, change, adaptation, and both deal with curricular transformation and extracurricular learning, community building, and supportive environment for retention and graduation. Ironically, while they work on being culturally sensitive to differences, these fields often do not recognize the significance of the

other nor do they appreciate each other's differences". (Noronha, 1992, p. 58 in Ellingboe, 1999, p. 86).

According to ACE (2007), the major differences are that multicultural education is concerned largely with domestic diversities, while internationalization focuses on knowledge of cultures outside U.S., on relationships between nation-states, and on global trends and systems. Overall, while international education focuses primarily on the international exchange of ideas and people and pays attention mostly to non-U.S. cultures and educating students for the global marketplace; multicultural education concerns itself with issues of privilege, dominance and status regarding race, ethnicity, class and culture within our own backyard (Noronha, 1992). The focus of multicultural education is on ethnic differences within national boundaries and gets its impetus from the issues of exclusion/inclusion and disadvantaged populations (Noronha, 1992). Its social psychology is also determined by search for remedies of past discrimination and injustices.

While multicultural education developed from the need for higher education institutions to address the past neglect and exclusion, as well as the growing presence and significance of cultural diversity within the US, internationalization sprang from the need for higher education institutions to address the ignorance of other people and cultures, and interrelatedness with these peoples (ACE, 2007). It is not surprising that, given their divergent histories and their different niches within the academic world, the motivations of faculty working in these areas have frequently differed.

Speaking generally, internationalization has appealed to those with commitment to global vision, intercultural understanding, and making the world a better place. In contrast, many multicultural educators are driven by a desire to reshape the society, right historical wrongs, and give a voice to the underprivileged. Still, many major internationalists (Shoorman, Mestenhauser, Paige, Brenda, Noronha, Nilsson, Wende, de Wit, etc.) look at the international education also from the majority-minority perspective stressing the need of opening the Ivory Tower to the outside world, i.e. inclusion of non-traditional (international) scholarship and perspectives in the "canon". Both fields thus share some of the critical pedagogy approach.

Mestenhauser describes the gap of international and multicultural education also in terms of their goals. Multicultural education poses questions of how to organize programs designed to insure integration of minorities. They should ideally be of three types: to provide immediate services to the minority to help them overcome problems and provide conditions leading to success and effectiveness and access to facilities and employment, to educate the entire educational system to receive and properly treat minorities, and finally to create

academic programs that study conditions of prejudice, and the nature of various disabilities and handicaps.

Internationalists then ask how educational systems should provide specialized services for international visitors to help them deal with problems resulting from intercultural encounters and educational systems. The same kind of services and training programs should be available to people in other spheres of life, e.g. business people, diplomats, etc. These educational programs should be developed for people in the educational system in order to insure the “international ethos” There should also be academic programs that study the field of international education as a field of knowledge. Finally that knowledge should be infused into the rest of the educational system to insure sustainability and students themselves should be educated to sustainability so that they will renew their knowledge by themselves on continual basis. (Mestenhauser, 2008 personal notes).

As far as the structural background of multicultural and international education, both agendas are overseen by separate divisions on campuses in U.S., report to different deans, carry with them separate bodies of research, portfolios and advocates. Although they may not intend to compete against each other, the dynamics of higher educational institutions often put them against each other. The structures in place at many institutions hinder the advancement of both areas as well as their collaboration (ACE, 2007).

There is also a disconnect between non-academic/co-curricular and the academic/curricular aspects. Students are usually required to take a course either on multicultural diversity or on non-Western cultures. Leadership of various initiatives is often fragmented and resides in individual or departmental levels. In addition, in case of internationalization, faculty is more likely to be dispersed across a much wider range of programs and units (such as areas studies, foreign languages, etc.) Accordingly, establishing a discussion to get internationalization and multicultural education pulling in the same direction may require a very large table (ACE, 2007).

There is one additional – and major – difference between these two fields in the U.S. Multicultural education is legislated by national laws that have specific mandates for compliance, funding to support both the administration and compliance, and penalties for violations. There is no such legal basis for international education that remains legislated only with respect to the immigration laws and whatever provisions may be adopted by individual institutions in their mission statements and binding decisions of their governing boards.

3.3 Mutual flashpoints

When considering the common ground and diverging objectives between internationalization and multicultural education, one should not ignore the reality of tensions between the two areas that do exist and the way they have reproach each other.

Multiculturalists tend to perceive internationalists as elitist and interested in an esoteric agenda. Scholarly criticism of internationalization includes its alleged elitist nature, its separation from the mainstream of the educational process and its lack of concern and interest in domestic issues. Some, especially critical multiculturalists accuse international educators of oversimplification and of being “essentialists” who fail to appreciate cultural nuances.

According to Cornwell and Stoddard (2002), most multicultural educators are people of color (or else drawn from the margins of academe), whereas internationalization has been the study of “the other” by white Americans operating within the mainstream of the academia in such historically well established disciplines as languages, history, political science and sociology. Inevitably, the contrasting backgrounds have shaped their thinking. Therefore, also most international educators do not know about domestic poverty even when they work in development in other countries. Moreover, multiculturalists, who tend to be oriented to postmodern critical and social justice based theories, may accuse internationalists of engaging in global diversity work because it is easier to educate students about deep and uncongenial differences that exist beyond one’s own backyard than it is to delve into questions of privilege and lasting injustice at home. (Grant & Stoddard, 1999).

Internationalization is thus often perceived as lacking a social justice drive (Cortes 2002, in ACE, 2007). Many multiculturalists accuse international educators of ignorance of social problems at home and avoiding difficult questions, especially those related to race and ethnicity. In focusing on the global, internationalization is viewed by some as a form of a “foreign escapism”, “in which the long ago and far away became safe substitute for the temporally and physically near at hand” (Cortes 20002, in ACE 2007).

More sources of tension stem from the perception that internationalization is overly Western and Eurocentric, evidenced by the choices students make when learning foreign languages and choosing study abroad destinations. These multiculturalists usually draw on postcolonial studies as a conscious attempt to break free of Eurocentric worldview, to de-center Europe from discourse, culture, knowledge, and values. These reproaches were not pronounced in the discourse about internationalization in Europe initially, but the new emphasis on Europeanization they emerged on the scene and gained some importance.

Not surprisingly, given the negative connotations (the destruction of indigenous cultures, deepening inequalities) often associated with globalization, internationalization is viewed with suspicion by many multicultural educators. Many current rationales for internationalization are tied to the notion of globalization. Some theorists equate globalization with the homogenizing export of Western, or even American, economic and political institutions, science, technology, and norms, practices, and values that come with them (Cornwell and Stoddard 1999, in ACE).

However, according to internationalists, international education does include all these issues because they are real, thus may be – and should be – studied carefully and analyzed for both positive as well as negative trends (Conf. Ellingboe, 1999). According to Cornwell and Stoddard (2002), at the heart of the disconnect between internationalization and multicultural education lies in the mindset of some educators in the uniqueness of the American experience well understood in the literature as “American exceptionalism” that has cognitive consequences. US citizens conduct their lives unchallenged by realities of alternative perspective in belief that the nation was created out of a unique destiny. Hence, scholars do not examine issues from other peoples and cultures perspectives because from this point of view, there are no commensurate societies or histories. In other words, the “exceptional” cannot be compared with anything.

The multiculturalism is often challenged on the ground that it is dominated by the U.S.-centric approach because it generally continues to exist only within a black/white discourse, in which the meaning of race and racism are largely understood through the experience of African Americans. Although attention to other populations of color is increasing, the experiences and needs of these populations of color are understood by those of the black population and by the relationship between blacks and whites (Lei & Grant, 2002 in ACE 2007). Those who bring non-U.S. perspectives on issues of race, power, oppression, gender, social justice and approach them in a global context are still very few.

Internationalists may reproach multicultural education of placing priorities on “domestic” issues and showing no interest in international affairs or do not know about poverty and inequalities elsewhere. (Mestenhauser, 2008) Or in case of minority issues, they limit their interest only to people from the countries of their own ancestry and believe that they represent these countries or the entire continents. Some internationalists tend to perceive multiculturalists as professional victims, exclusionary, and theoretically soft (Noronha, 1992, p. 52, BE, 1998, p. 85 and in ACE, 2007 p. 22).

3.4 Factors helping to bridge the gap

The impact of globalization gives integration of marginalized groups a new drive. Globalization, technology, global warming and migration patterns are factors that need to be considered for someone to have a full understanding of contemporary issues. Domestic or local matters, which may appear to be distinct from these larger global matters, are intimately interwoven with them. Issues pertaining to power, privilege, and discrimination are global phenomena. Therefore, multicultural education becomes enriched when it consciously incorporates global perspectives into the examination of local multiculturalism.

Similarly international education benefits when it includes consideration of racial, ethnic, religious, linguistic, and other kinds of diversity as critical elements of global and local experience. If a school or a whole school system wishes to remain competitive in the information-based society (which is one of the declared primary reasons for internationalization in the EU and the Czech Republic), then it has to place a high priority on ensuring that people of racial and ethnic diversity attend college, are successful in obtaining higher education, and are prepared to enter the global arena. Educators need to be proactive in attracting students from diverse backgrounds. Multicultural education was developed with these goals in mind. If lessons learned through several decades of multicultural education could be intentionally applied to international fields of study, it follows that more students from underrepresented populations would be drawn in. In turn, these students would graduate with the knowledge, skills, and attitudes that would enable them to enter in higher numbers the international work.

Conversely, internationalization strengthens instruction and student learning by enabling students to undertake complex thinking and analysis. Such teaching requires a higher level of abstraction and leads students to a more complex analysis. It helps students to progress beyond the particular subject matter and to understand how thesis ideas may be applied to other subjects and contexts. Multicultural courses tend to look only at issue of race, gender, etc. that are manifested within the U.S. Those who teach in the international area are familiar with comparable situations in other parts of the worlds (ACE, 2007).

Foreign students and domestic minorities should be integrated in the majority culture. Once they try and succeed, they benefit exponentially. Otherwise, there is tendency on their part to feel that they are not accepted or respected and tend to isolate themselves in their own groups, nationality clubs and specialized centers. Mestenhauser (personal correspondence, 2008) deems that in the absence of bridges, minorities tend to be bigger losers because conditions of globalization affect them more than the majority. Thus, minority students should

be also educated internationally. When they continue to stay isolated, they tend to reinforce hurts, anger, resentments.

The European perspective on inclusion of culturally diverse students is strongly advocated by the concept of Internationalization at Home (above). The objective of the University of Malmo is to prepare competent professional but also active citizens. The university has its action plan for widening participation at the institution to include both international students and domestic multicultural diversity. The rationale of the school is based on intercultural diversity enrichment and globally oriented competencies.

The two kinds of studies compete but also complement each other conceptually and methodologically and contribute to improved instruction and student learning. Moreover, in the process of embracing themes that unite multicultural educational and internationalization, schools can address many of the social problems that confront the educational intuitions. Issues of equity, social justice, democracy, access to information and their international and domestic manifestations may stir up questions that go to such basic academic values as free speech, freedom of movement scholars and students against paradigm of isolation.

3.4.1 Common grounds

Multicultural education as well as international education alludes to diversity. Van der Wende calls for the intersection of international and multicultural in the “intercultural” diversity (2007). According to Turner (1993), it can comport with either of them in many areas or it can be viewed by same as identical. At the same time, Ellingboe (1999) rightly points out that “intercultural diversity”¹⁰² is a today’s buzzword and many scholars rightly condemn it for its oversimplification. Ellingboe rightly reproaches it of being “woefully inadequate”, suffering of overuse and misunderstanding (p. 85).

Still, for many scholars intercultural diversity has become one of the overarching concepts which extends over the borders of several disciplines (psychology, anthropology, philosophy, sociology, history and geography) and also cuts across several educational fields, such as multicultural, international, as well as global and human rights education. Multicultural education and international education rely on common (recently established) disciplines: intercultural communication and cross-cultural psychology. Both fields use the term of intercultural diversity in their research (for more see Appendix II).

¹⁰² See list of definitions of culture In Kucerova, 2002. Průcha’s Intercultural Psychology (2004) defines culture with Berry’s et al. (2002) cross-cultural (rather behavioral) definition: “products of past behavior and as regulatives of future behavior. Thus, people are creator of culture and at the same time they are influenced by it”(p. 46). Editors of School Culture (Kultura školy, 2007) draw their definition on Hofstede.

Intercultural diversity is also taken up by practitioners when they put international and multicultural diverse student body into one sack for pragmatic reasons, such as when U.S.¹⁰³ institutions used to include international students in their statistics on minorities or diversity. Similarly, institutions may conflate the recruitment of international students and faculty with the achievement of domestic diversity goals and vice versa. (ACE, 2007).

At the same time issues over who belongs where (meaning to which of the categories) exacerbate tensions between international and multicultural education. For example, the great waves of refugees have blurred the agenda. Many minorities are actually recent (international) refugees. There is also a blurring between the categories of African Americans (who have settled in U.S. a long time ago) and recent immigrants from Africa, who may or may not stay there. Then the category of intercultural diverse student body is pragmatically taken up.

3.4.2 Czech scholarship on cultural diversity in the Czech Republic

Facing multicultural reality in the Czech Republic means something different from in US. The second generation of Asian immigrants is already perceived as Asian Americans, meaning Americans described as Asian and “covered” within multicultural education whereas immigrants holding their foreign passports are lumped up into international education. Interestingly enough, scholarship on multicultural education in the Czech Republic usually combines ethnic diversity¹⁰⁴ within the county and international diversity caused by migration or other intentions of stay.

Šisková (1998) includes Roma but also Arabs and Japanese in her textbook. Varianty (2002) includes stories of international students in the Czech Republic, MŠMT, (2005), Průcha (2000)¹⁰⁵ includes immigrants, as do Cilková, Schoenerová (2007) or Gulová (2004). That means that scholarship of two traditionally separated fields in U.S. (as described above) is combined under multicultural discourse in the Czech Republic. This has not been based on the knowledge of international education discourse because the literature appears to be identified just with multicultural education.

¹⁰³ In the Czech Republic it is not possible to trace the number of ethnic minority students except for unofficial numbers. Interestingly, College of education at Masaryk University has offered programs targeted at Roma students.

¹⁰⁴ Theory of Education (Teorie výchovy) 2005 provides untypical categorization of ethnic groups: 1. rural ethnic groups (Hispanic population in USA ...are integrated into the system of capitalistic production and consumption. 2. original people living traditional unindustrial way of life. 3. ethnonationalistic nations, 4. groups in plural societies like Keni.” (p. 68,69). Please, conf. authors’ perspective and their cited bibliography.

¹⁰⁵ Let me cite pregnant Laubeova’s commentary on Průcha’s book: “...uses unacceptably essentialist discourse when defining races, racism, culture and multicultural education....The author’s hidden and probably unintentional racism can be traced through his uncommented exposure to research ‘proving’ lower IQ of Afro-Americans in US...devotes more space to the racist theories of the 60’s...than to critical theories from the 90s denouncing this kind of racist and racialist science.” (Laubeova, 2007, p. 101).

The distinction of domestic versus foreign is in the Czech Republic different also because of the legal concept of “national minority” which does not exist in U.S. In the Czech Republic “national minorities” are people who: a) live permanently in the Czech Republic and have Czech citizenship, b) share ethnic, cultural and language different for the majority, c) commonly want to be declared as national minority in order to keep their own identity, and d) have long-term, solid, and permanent relationship to Czech society.¹⁰⁶ From the above-mentioned characterization, it is clear that those who do not have Czech citizenship are not national minority (e.g. overwhelmingly Vietnamese, Mongolian, Americans, etc.). In Czech multicultural education,¹⁰⁷ they are mostly considered rightly as cultural rather than ethnic minorities.

International education perspectives on diversity are subsumed under the European programs such as SOCRATES, ERASMUS, CEEPUS and others connected to the Bologna Process. Other programs include the Fulbright foundation, training agencies and foundations – which promote student and teacher exchanges and scholar mobility. The diversity represented by these programs does not count with “ethnic minorities”. It must be noted again that this attitude is fostered through practice rather than through theory and theory-based research. The international dimension and European dimension appearing in the Czech strategic papers does not allow for what they call “foreign” cultures to be overarching ethnic minorities¹⁰⁸.

In summary, multicultural and international education stands on the notion of diversity of individuals and groups. Diversity is one of the principle notions that drive both fields. Their objective is a greater concern for diversity, domestic and global. Still the diversity of individuals and groups must somehow be defined, demarcated and characterized, captured and researched. The thriving concept of intercultural diversity that tries to bridge the gap between them needs to be better developed.

¹⁰⁶ Koncepce přístupu vlády k otázkám národnostních menšin v České republice (1994).

¹⁰⁷ There is a trend in Czech multicultural discourse since influential Varianty (2002) to use “intercultural education” rather than multicultural education saying that intercultural education is to relate to the inter-relationships between the groups rather than letting them stand along each other as in multicultural education (personal conversation with col. of authors of Varinaty 2002, Pelikán (personal conversation 2008), Poláčeková (personal conversation 2008). Their position is influenced by German written literature which makes this distinction between inter-cultural and multi-cultural education based on the Latin prefixes. In the context of U.S. multiculturalism are these approaches invalid except for the pluralist multiculturalism. Most often used term in the U.S. stays multiculturalism which reflects the interrelatedness of groups. In order to not make more confusions in intercultural vs. multicultural, I stay with the term multicultural education, taking up personal position of critical multiculturalism.

¹⁰⁸ Interestingly, the word “international education” cannot be found as a key word in National Library for Education, however, it can be found in National library where it concerns especially French, German, or English written literature connected to Bologna or UNESCO’s, World Bank’s documents

3.4.2.1 Shared learning outcomes

In the era, in which demonstrating student learning outcome is paramount concern, the question of what outcomes internationalization and multicultural education share seem a good start. Learning outcomes are usually: knowledge, skills, and attitudes, and habits of mind that students take with them from the learning

There are authors who have shown how having an international mindset and declaring internationalization as a goal for a campus may actually bridge the conceptual gap between domestic multiculturalism and internationalization (Mestenhauser, 1998, Paige, 1993, Nilsson, 2000, Noronha, 1992, Bennett and Bennett, 1994, Ellingboe, 1998, AACU, 2007, Cornwell and Stoddard, 1999, Knight 1997, 2003, Knight 1997, Van der Wende 2003). An important step forward has been taken by ACE, which has been steering discussion towards finding common grounds. In 2006 ACE organized a roundtable where internationalists 2006 in cooperation with a team of multiculturalists led by J.A.Banks¹⁰⁹, they came up with the shared learning outcomes (ACE, 2007)¹¹⁰ (discussed in Sec on Curriculum above)¹¹¹.

According to Kevin Hovland,¹¹² international education and diversity education represent pathways to similar learning goals: intercultural awareness, the ability to imagine and understand multiple perspectives, the willingness to engage with real-world problems, and the belief that individuals are responsible for advancing social justice.

Strong calls for the benefits of intercultural diversity on learning outcomes can be heard also from Europe, namely from the Internationalization at Home initiative discussed above. Similarly, Van der Wende, who is not primarily connected with the University of Malmo initiative, recently wrote about internationalization of teaching and learning in connection with intercultural diversity (2007, not numbered). Grounding her argument in extensive literature review, she accounted five manifestations of internationalization of teaching and learning common with multicultural education:

1. inclusive teaching
2. course content to prepare for functioning in international and multicultural context
3. intercultural communication
4. interaction
5. intercultural sensitivity development.

¹⁰⁹ See more in *Democracy and Diversity: Principles and Concepts for Educating Citizens in a Global Age* (Banks, J.A. et al, 2005)

¹¹⁰ Based on already mentioned "Lessons Learned in Assessing International Learning" (2006) and "Global Learning for All Project" (2006)

¹¹¹ Another major initiative is *American Commitment: Diversity, Democracy, and Liberal Learning* - designed to place the knowledge on diversity in relation to democratic aspirations and into the global framework.

¹¹² director of Global initiatives and Office of Diversity, Equity and Global Initiatives at AAC&U

Van der Wende draws on American scholarship which brings together international and intercultural dimensions in the concept of cross-cultural communication (namely: Edwards, 1997), intercultural sensitivity development, (Bennett, Hammer, Wiseman and Paige, 2003) and also on Canadian Knight (2003a, 2004) who advocated for inclusion of international and intercultural diversity in her well-known definition of internationalization already from 1994.

As Olson, Rhodi, Schoenberg (2007) in their ACE paper sum up, the two share learning outcomes and even more than that: “Just as U.S. multicultural education was designed to promote respect for the different subcultures of the United States in order to recognize the positive values of difference, so we need knowledge of the histories and beliefs of the global societies with whom we interact, in war or peace. Without such knowledge, it is difficult to empathize with the societies we are acting with or upon, and it makes it difficult for citizens of the United States to have informed opinions about the justice or injustice of our nation’s actions.” (p.5)

3.5 Rationalization

The two fields also some of more abstract and general rationales. It must be noted that rationalization for multicultural and international education seems to context-bound and differs between U.S. and EU, so I will call the reader’s attention to that in the text.

3.5.1 Rationales for multicultural education

Multicultural education followed political and social movements and represents a great variety of attitudinal positions since the 1960’s (conf. J. Banks & C.A. McGee Bank, 2004). Even though scholarship in multicultural diversity in higher education is very wide and diverse in the U.S., the rationales of multiculturalists are interdisciplinary and differ according to the attitudes one holds within multiculturalism (see Appendix 1.9 for historical review).

The following arguments dominate the literature:

- **It enriches the educational experience (students’ learning outcomes and the learning process),**
- **It promotes personal growth (interpersonal skills, cognitive skills, psychological gains),**

- **It promotes organizational performance and improves organizational climate,**
- **It complies to democratic values of meritocracy, equity and inclusiveness, and**
- **It enhances America's economic competitiveness through providing equal chances to all.**

The rationales of multiculturalism are tightly connected to the civil rights movement and the Affirmative Action in U.S. Higher education is the most influential in the whole discourse in multiculturalism. In trying to verify the legitimacy of diversity, and thus of affirmative action, with empirical proofs in connection to Hopwood v. State of Texas case in 1996, educators as well as presidents of universities have lately advanced their arguments supporting affirmative action.¹¹³ Also ACE issued a statement, *On the Importance of Diversity in Education*¹¹⁴, for it “enriches students’ educational experiences, promotes personal growth and healthy society, strengthens communities and the workplace and enhances America’s economic competitiveness”. AACU published a statement endorsed by 62 research universities stating, “We believe that our students benefit significantly from education that takes place within a diverse setting” (AACU, 1997, p. A27).

Various research frameworks have been used to examine the effects of diversity¹¹⁵ on students’ educational outcomes. The evidence is almost uniformly consistent in indicating that racially/ethnically/gender diverse societies reap a wide array of positive educational benefits (see Appendix 1.10 for details on existing research).

Unfortunately, very little research has been done in the Czech Republic on equal chances in higher education from the social mobility perspective¹¹⁶; even less has been done from the intercultural diversity benefit perspective. This lack of knowledge affects overall rationalization of internationalization in higher education institutions. (Please, conf. Discussion of Findings). Without grounding arguments on research – both qualitative and quantitative- it

¹¹³ Harvard University President, Neil Rudenstien, claimed that “fundamental rationale for student diversity in higher education is its educational value” (Rudenstien, 1999, in Turner, 2002, p. 411). Lee Bollinger, Rudenstien’s counterpart at the University of Michigan, has asserted “A classroom that does not have a significant representation from members of different races produces an impoverished discussion” (Schmidt, 1998, p. A32 in Turner et al, 2002, p. 411). W. A. Bowen (former President of Princeton University) and Derek Bok (Former President of Harvard) have provided an analysis of long-term consequences of considering race in university admission in their well-known book called *The Shape of the River* (1998) - the book has been cited only a very few times in the Czech literature, that is by Průcha in his *Interkulturní psychologie* (2002) and Choleová M. (*lidové noviny*, 25.3. 2000). On contrary to Průcha’s commentary, the book has been well received in U.S. (conf. Průcha, 2002, p.66).

¹¹⁴ Endorsed by 49 educational organizations and published in the *Chronicle of Higher Education*, 1998.

¹¹⁵ Diversity has been approach in reseach in three ways: (1) structural diversity- largely as a function of the numerical and proportional racial/ethnic/gender mix of students; (2) interactions with diversity and encounters with different peers; (3) diversity in the form of ideas and people, which is closest to the author’s perspective.

¹¹⁶ For research on the impact of socially affirmative procedures during entrance exams, i.e. taking into consideration the political loyalty, job of parents, residence and other before 1989 see Simonová, In: Matějů et Straková, 2006).

is hard to expect stakeholders of higher education institutions to be engaged in lofty institutional visions and proclaimed national priorities.

3.5.2 The Rationales for internationalization

Reasons to internationalize vary widely throughout the literature. According to Van der Wende (20007, p. 40) the US rationales for internationalization, while including the commercial and cultural, have been more varied and fragmented than those of Europe.

In general, the following arguments in favor of internationalization dominate the literature:

- **It benefits all stakeholders by broadening their knowledge and cognitive skills.**
- **It improves student's outcomes (e.g. prepare future students for competitiveness in the globalized and increasingly diverse world by providing them with necessary competencies) and enhances the value of their portfolio for future employers.**
- **It enhances the institution's quality and public image, and as a result of it, the institution may attract excellent faculty and students from around the world who may then enrich other stakeholders.**
- **It improves and enriches the climate of the institution as well as leadership style .**
- **It improves the quality of research and teaching by providing new knowledge, perspectives, and cognitive frameworks that may challenge the traditional hegemonic curricula, enrich research and lead to rethinking the content of what students need to know for living in today's society.**
- **An internationalized university may provide more networking possibilities that would benefit faculty and students and also attract money.**
- **Internationalized on-campus curricula reaches more people and is less expensive than sending faculty and students abroad.**
- **Enhanced global understanding, peaceful relations and democratic values of equity and inclusivity.**
- **May comply with democracy and inclusiveness axiom by challenging the "traditional" or national disciplines and perspectives**
(For a thematic review of rationales see Chapter 4, Theoretical Framework).

There are many rationales for internationalizing the curricula, campus, ethos, university. One of the traditionally principal rationales is accurately expressed by Harari (1992) who goes back to the role of higher education in the society: "The rationale for the internationalization of undergraduate education must of necessity take us back to the meaning we give to liberal education and the liberation of the mind. Whatever our definition might be, it is clear that acquiring global awareness and understanding of the diversity of cultures and societies on our planet has to be considered as integral part of education." (Harari, 1992, p. 53 in Ellingboe, 1999, p. 44).

An overall review and historical developments of rationales' dominance has provided by Hans de Witt (1999, not numbered). According to him, during the course of the history of higher education, in European medieval times and in the Arab university world, or even before, academic and social/cultural rationales were dominant: the wandering scholar looking

for knowledge and understanding of other cultures. These rationales have always been and still are present, but are brought several layers up.

De Witt proceeds (1999) that during the process of the development of the nation-state and its colonial expansion, political rationales became present. By copying the European models of higher education in the colonies in the Americas, Africa and Asia, the European nations were looking for political, cultural, economic and academic dominance, of which most nations and their universities are still trying to escape – which can be seen as the dark age of internationalization. (The question is whether other scholars would call that process internationalization at all if there was no reciprocity involved.)

De Witt (1999) deems that the political and, in particular, economic rationales push at present institutions of higher education to become more international are mainly external factors. De Witt (1995) described the stakeholders' rationales to include economic and political reasons concerning the future economy and the labor market, financial initiatives. He further adds other reasons like cultural reasons about the function of internationalization, the development of the individual and institutional building concerning the quality of education and research (pp. 12-14 in Ellingboe, 1999, p. 44).

Van der Wende (2001) recorded a shift from the traditional social/cultural interest in internationalization to a commercially driven or market oriented focus. "The increasing influence of economic rationales for internationalization is shaping and challenging the way internationalization is manifested in educational policy in Europe today (p. 251.) De Witt (1999) similarly explains that "the economic rationale has always been the driving force behind the European programmes for cooperation and exchange in research, technology and education such as the Research and Development Programmes, COMETT and ERASMUS, although always - and today even more than ten years ago - combined with the political rationale to stimulate the development of a European citizenship" (not numbered).

On the other hand, an optimistic view on international education as a way of peace making force has been dominant in American politics and higher education in the past fifty years. It is still rather wide spread there and has found supporters elsewhere. With the rise of political and economic influence of the United States of America as an international power in this century, and in particular after the Second World War, this political rationale got a new dimension. To maintain and expand its influence, as well as peace and mutual understanding by having knowledge of other cultures, languages and systems, became of crucial importance (de Witt, 1999, not numbered). American Universities in the United States were stimulated with federal funding to that.

The overwhelming number of rationales in American strategic papers is connected to the benefits to the individual and the community. Also Engberg and Green (2002), in their report on eight American educational institutions which have implemented internationalization programs, argued that motivation for internationalizing education have included strengthening national security, particularly during the Cold War, and enhancing scholarship through study abroad and exchanges schemes.¹¹⁷

It is therefore questionable whether to agree with de Witt (1999) that America's drive for internationalization is connected to "expanding its influence" and whether the stated civic values are just masking the real economic self-oriented motivation of overgrowing and brain draining the rest of the world, or whether the drive for internationalization comes from "preparing students for citizenship" and "developmental help" and the rationales of affirmative action and other mature civil society values.

Commonly, scholars who understand the complexity of the process internationalization within the institutions most often express also the complexity of the rationales for internationalization.

3.5.2.1 The economic rationale

The economic rationalization can be found also in U.S., but it is slightly different from Europe. In the U.S., the pragmatic perspective has been greatly influenced by the cost-conscious public and makes international proponents think about how much the funding for internationalization pays off. That is probably the reason why internationalization found greater support in the Cold War era than in the break-up of the former Soviet Union and its satellites.

International educators have always been cost-conscious, if for no other reason than majority perceptions kept reminding them that support for international education depended on losses to traditional departments. These perceptions survive according to Mestenhauser (1998, p. 30) because internationalists have not succeeded in persuading the educational establishment that international education is for everybody. Some, on the other hand, believe a university poised for internationalization would generate income from public relations and capital campaign (Mestenhauser and Ellingboe, 1998, p.204).

International education is widely perceived in U.S. as designed to benefit foreigners, whether they are international students or faculty working in development projects abroad. In reality, international student programs fast become market-oriented as institutions around the world see the presence of international students as income producing. The income is, however, hidden in institutional financial structures that do not connect it with the programs.

¹¹⁷ For the Australian perspective (on cultural and commercial rationales) see Gallagher 2002.

On the other hand, most voiced rationales in EU and Czech papers are connected purely with self-benefit of being more globally competitive usually and the purpose of “being designed for the benefit of foreigners” is not mentioned at all. The developing countries are not included among the list of interesting countries to build alliances with¹¹⁸. The Czech Ministry of Education realizes the income connected with international students and recommends(!) universities to accept international students who are from “traditional” countries, which have proved to be “beneficial” to Czech universities (Ministry of Education, 2003). Still, in practice higher education and especially human sciences seem to resent such economic drive in general. (conf. the research findings in Chap. Five).

There are also scholars in the U.S. who believe that internationalization will help to keep the U.S. internationally competitive in the business sector (Johnston, Edelstein, 1993). Approximately one third of U.S. corporations conduct business abroad and more than 80 percent of U.S. goods and services compete internationally against foreign sources. According to the Council on Independent Colleges Report (Harris, 1998), the globalization of the economy is the major rationale for internationalizing colleges for the twenty-first century. In order to prepare their students prepare to do business and interact with other cultures they need to understand at least one other culture.

Another very pragmatic reason for internationalization might be students’ individual experience, i.e. improving ones portfolio with courses on understanding world cultures, intercultural communication etc. Such value-added rationale can be found also on the institutional level. For Example, the Czech Ministry of Education (2007) explicitly ranks universities with international dimension in its overall evaluation higher than those who lack a strong international dimension. The international dimension is seen as a value-added component in the quality assessment. European strategic papers draw concrete attention to labor-market competitiveness of future graduates in the knowledge economy, as already addressed in the section on European strategic papers (e.g. EUA, 2004).

The economic rationale seems to be the driving force behind the European programs for cooperation and exchange. This change from the political to the economic is clearly demonstrated in van der Wende and Kalvermerk’s study on *National Policies for the Internationalization of Higher Education in Europe* (1997) for the Swedish National Agency for Higher Education. According to them, the Northern European countries, the Scandinavian countries, Austria, Germany, the U.K. and The Netherlands, but also Central and Eastern Europe, indicate a shift from the educational, cultural and political to the economic as

¹¹⁸ In some national governmental policies (Sweden, Netherlands) the cooperation with development countries is explicitly supported.

dominant rationale for internationalization. The only exception was from Southern Europe, Greece, an indication that in that region higher education is still more driven by traditional rationales: academic, cultural and political (p. 27). According to Van der Wende, the economic rationale appears to be the dominant driver of higher education.

Overall, the traditional social and cultural interest in internationalization as “cooperation” of European Union members (exemplified by the SOCRATES program) is displayed by the commercially driven focus of “competition”, accentuated by pressure for international free trade – exemplified by GATS¹¹⁹ (p.251) and the Lisbon strategic goals. More attention is given to the ability to compete internationally (European versus the rest of the world) in the higher education market, in research, technology but also in producing graduates with ability to compete at the global labor force. The economic rationale influences the choice of particular internationalization strategies.

Firstly, it is human resources development. The knowledge economy, demographic shifts, mobility of the labor force, and increased trade in services are factors driving nations and institutions to place more importance on developing and recruiting human capital or brainpower through international education initiatives. There are signs of heightened pressure and interest to recruit the brightest students and scholars from other countries to increase scientific, technological and economic competitiveness.

The second approach is to build strategic alliances. The international mobility of students and academics as well as collaborative research and education initiatives are being seen as productive ways to develop closer geopolitical ties and economic relationships. There has been a definite shift from alliances for cultural purposes to those based on economic interests.

Thirdly, it is joining the international commercial trade. New franchise arrangements, foreign or satellite campuses, on-line delivery, and increased recruitment of fee-paying students are examples of income generating opportunities. The fact that education is now one of the 12 service sectors in the GATS is a proof that importing and exporting education programs and services is a potentially lucrative trade area. Lastly, there is no question that more institutions are increasingly looking for internationalization activities and increasing the number of international students as a way of generating alternative sources of income.

According to the list of “Dominant Arguments for Internationalization” prepared by Ellingboe (1999, pp. 47-48) based on thorough international literature review, there are many other than just economic rationales (see Appendix 1.11). Also more recent strategic papers

¹¹⁹ For more on the relationship between GATS and internationalization see Knight (2003) and other reports on Observatorz of Borderless Higher Education: <http://www.obhe.ac.uk/products/reports/>

both European and Czech Republic also reveal the presence of other motivators. (e.g. van der Wende, 2007 EAU, 2005, MoE, 2005, 2006). Looking at the non-economic rationales, it seems helpful to group them under the following headings.

3.5.2.2 The academic (institutional and individual) rationale

Staying with the description of economic rationales would be grossly misleading and outshining other vital reasons which have nothing to do with financial benefits and which are articulated by the major internationalists. As Ellingboe (1999) wrote:

“[Internationalization] comes from our understanding as educators of the mission, aims, and goals of education itself. To become educated in the purest sense of the word involves overcoming parochialism and ethnocentrism... the university needs to respond to diverse globally focused environment and reach to global political, economic, social and cultural changes outside academia” (p. 48).

Given the increasing interdependence among nations, it is clear there are global issues and challenges that cannot be addressed at the national level alone. International and interdisciplinary collaboration is the key to solving many global problems such as those related to environmental, health, or crime issues. Institutions and national governments are, therefore, continuing to make the international dimension of research and knowledge production a primary rationale for internationalization of higher education (Knight, 2008).

A great number of universities reflect that in their vision statements, for example Hill(1996) for the University of Indiana: “Were a college or university truly committed to democratic pluralism, it would proceed to create condition under which the representatives of different cultures need to have conversations of respect with each other in order to do their teaching and research.” (p. 471).

There seems to be renewed emphasis on internationalization as a means of enhancing the international and intercultural understanding and skills of students and staff. The escalating number of national, regional, international, and cultural conflicts is pushing academics to help students understand global issues and international and intercultural relationships. The mobility of the labor market and cultural diversity in communities and work places require that both students and academics have an increased understanding and skills to work and live in a culturally diverse or different environment.

Groenings and Wiley (1990), unlike de Witt (1999) above, described the historical overview of internationalization in U.S.A. stressing its role it has played for the American society and in education agendas rather than in the economic prosperity of the nation. There is much evidence in Groenings and Wiley (1990) that internationalization benefits the

disciplines, especially the ones that are described in their volume: geography, political science, philosophy, sociology, psychology, history, and journalism. Groenings and Wiley (1990) provide pervasive evidence in their chapter about the impact of internal and global change upon the disciplines. The evidence includes new theoretical constructs, new ways of doing research, the use of foreign data to test hypotheses, the emergence of global perspectives, and the involvement of an increasing number of faculty members. As the disciplines become more international, international learning occurs as a part of general learning. Their argumentation aims at persuading the faculty that it is the role of the disciplines to provide that international knowledge to their students; to make sure that faculty understands the role of interdisciplinary among their disciplines and how international knowledge and perspectives enhance those disciplines (In Ellingboe, 1999, p. 32).

Also according to Dutch researcher, Van der Wende (1997), there are 8 characteristics of internationalized curriculum that could be driving internationalization of the curriculum (e.g. new expertise, methods, knowledge of international aspects etc., see the section on Curriculum). There are numerous scholars that support rationalization of internationalization of the curriculum and believe in its benefits. Unlike to van der Wende's infusion approach, Mestenhauser supports experiential learning through intercultural experience. Several new intellectual skills emerge from these inter-cultural interactions like cross-cultural competencies, cognitive flexibility (Paige, 1993) capacity for rapid conceptual alteration (Gergen, 1994) and alike.

Recently, more and more research on intercultural diversity alludes to internationalization. Let me support the rationalization for internationalization as institutional and personal benefit with some relevant research findings:

English (1995) found that an internationalized curriculum does affect students' global knowledge, skill, attitudes, values, and behaviors by broadening students' perspective, worldviews, and career choices. Harvey (1979) wrote of a "global competence" which includes: perspective consciousness, state of planet awareness, cultural awareness, knowledge of global dynamics, and an awareness of human choices.

Bikson and Law (1994) documented the importance of intercultural competence with graduates as the most critical human recourse needs that must be met. "Cross-cultural competence, then, chiefly entails a widened knowledge base plus openness and adaptability to different cultural perspectives and the willingness to learn whatever is needed to deploy domain skills in new contexts (including functionality in another language" (p. 401). Similarly Benjamin Baez (2002) argued that colleges that find ways for students to communicate regularly across communities of difference help to develop the cross-cultural

competencies that are essential to organizations' global competitiveness. Many students are not sufficiently exposed to other cultures to learn how to work effectively with individuals who are different from them (Turner, 2002, p. 401).

Astin's (1993) research reveals that there are certain descriptors of pedagogy that have a positive impact on the development of students' cognitive development. If one focuses on cognitive development of college students, there are three kinds of courses that generally produce favorable outcomes for cognitive development. These include courses emphasizing scientific inquiry, writing skill, and interdisciplinary courses. Interdisciplinary courses may include internationalized courses such as area studies programs, which include multiple disciplinary perspectives for a particular region of the world. Also in the area of affective development, the following practices seem to produce positive results on students' outcomes: time devoted to homework, courses in the humanities, historical analysis, foreign language, ethnic studies and interdisciplinary perspectives, multicultural or cultural-awareness workshops, volunteer work, study abroad programs, part-time employment on the campus, campus activism, student-to-faculty interaction, and student-to-student interaction. (In Turner, 2002, p. 382).

Research evidence supports also the idea that diverse (including international) work teams promote creativity and innovation (Cox, 1993; Reskin, 1998 in Turner, p.401). Organizational diversity has been shown to enhance productivity utilizing workers' skills (Reskin, 1998 in Turner, 2002, p. 401.)

Kanter's (1983) study on innovation in organizations found that the most innovative companies deliberately established heterogeneous (international) work teams. Kanter notes that innovative organizations are more likely to have effectively combated racism, sexism, and employ more women.

Citing evidence on the "groupthink" phenomenon¹²⁰, Cox's (1993) research indicates that diverse groups are more likely to do a better job of problem solving than more homogenous groups. Because of homogenous groups' tendency to be inordinately concerned with maintaining cohesiveness, they are more likely to be victims of this problem. "Culturally diverse workforce have the potential to solve problems better because of a greater variety of perspectives brought to bear on the issue, a higher level of critical analysis of alternatives, and a lower probability of group-think. Organizations that are not supportive of diversity tend to be rigid and inflexible, as evidenced by narrow-thinking and narrowly defined evaluation criteria (Cox, 1993, p. 35 In Turner, p. 402).

¹²⁰ Abelson and Levy (1985) define group think as "a strong psychological drive for consensus within insular, cohesive decision-making groups such that disagreement is suppressed and the decision process becomes defective". (p. 292 in Turner, 2002, p. 410)

3.5.2.3 Social and Cultural Rationale

While some countries are interested in the export of education, others are interested in importing education programs and institutions for nation-building purposes. An educated, trained, and knowledgeable citizenry and workforce able to do research and generate new knowledge are key components of a country's nation-building agenda.

Scholars who relate internationalization to intercultural understanding and national cultural identity are still significant; but perhaps their importance does not carry the same weight in comparison to the economic and political rationales listed above. The future will decide whether, with globally pressing issues stemming from culturally based clashes within and between countries, there will be more importance attached to the social and cultural rationales.

According to Bernardo (2003) "internationalism"¹²¹ is seeking to develop "international cooperation for the common good and the appreciation of the international character of quality in education" (p. 30). This rationale has been in Europe associated with the ERASMUS and SOCRATES projects, which have sought to reduce the social, economic and cultural disparities among the countries of the European Union.

It is very difficult to measure the impact of internationalization on social and cultural dimension of a nation and most of it remains inaccessible to the author. Relying on major findings come from a study of Canadian higher education, internationalization may help to: generate income for educational institutions, maintain security and peaceful relations, achieve international standards, maintain competitiveness, prepare graduates who are internationally knowledgeable and intercultural-competent, encourage scholarship on new topics, and also work for social change, appreciate the ethnic and cultural diversity of one's nation (Knight, 1997, p. 30 in Ellingboe, p. 44).

Similar to the intersection of research on impact of international and multicultural diversity on curriculum, students' outcomes and institution, the social and cultural rationalization seem to share a lot in common with argumentation of multicultural education. One can find international educators who, similar to critical multiculturalists, look at the balance and equity between the dichotomy of international v. national and stress the counter-hegemonic dimension and inclusiveness of internationalization.

¹²¹ defined as international student mobility, faculty development and exchange, research collaborations; foreign language studies; building international perspectives, international networks, i.e. similarly to internationalization

For example, Dilly Shoorman's (1997) argumentation for internationalization emphasizes three facets: a comprehensive undertaking, an ongoing process and a counter-hegemonic stance. In her view, internationalization is an ongoing, counter-hegemonic educational process that occurs in an international context of knowledge and practice where societies are viewed as subsystems of a larger, inclusive world. Shoorman in her perspective of international education seems to conflate internationalization with ideas of equity and empowerment of students because the goals of internationalization are based on a social vision, which values democracy and equality and a global scale, seeing national, and people as members of the same global system. Overall, the social and cultural rationale seems to resembles very much reasoning of multiculturalists (for more details see Appendix 1.10).

The review of literature indicates that the economic rationales for internationalization seem to be becoming more important to higher educational institutions and that economics can be a strong motivation toward internationalization of curricula and research. To the prevalence of the economic rationale point de Witt, van der Wende and indicate such tendencies in European policies. The discourse over domestic diversity can enrich the limited reasoning – the reiterated cliché “to be globally competitive” – with new perspectives. Such argumentation is not new and brings internationalization back to the social, democratic, equity, peacemaking reasoning, which it mostly shares with multicultural education. This might also alter strategies of internationalization in practice.

It is important to present internationalization as reflective of the real world issues and inclusive of domestic concerns, apart from emphasizing the benefits of internationalization in terms of personal or institutional growth. (Conversely, ethnic and aread studies will benefit from an international dimension.) A way to initiate a common conversation is explore current multicultural and international activities, and identify areas in which the two might collaborate. Another way is to explore the research agenda of faculty, which might be relevant for deepening common grounds. Such connections can help the discussion within disciplines and departments. Intercultural communication trainings will also prepare students and faculty for not only their experience abroad, but also for their life with “ethnic minorities” at home.

In any case, it is necessary to communicate the benefit of holding such conversation as intellectually enriching and leading to real improvements in students learning and curriculum (Olson, Evans, and Schoenberg, 2007). I believe that if the international agenda becomes more inclusive, the higher education institutions can really benefit from internationalization.

4 Methodology

This chapter addresses the methodology of this research project. Briefly re-stated, this thesis aims to describe and analyze a case study of internationalization at a university in the Czech Republic. Data were obtained from a triangulated combination of qualitative and quantitative sources in response to one overarching question, namely, “What place does internationalization have in the Czech higher education institution?” This key question will be followed by a series of auxiliary questions that are listed below.

In the following section, I present and develop my selection of qualitative methodology, the reasons why I selected this method, its limitations, and ethical issues. In addition, the chapter explains how data will be collected and analyzed, how quality assurance and credibility of this research is to be achieved, and how ethical considerations are taken into account, including the possible bias of the researcher. Finally, the chapter will conclude with the conceptual framework that was selected from a rich literature review.

The methodology stems from the extensive survey of literature contained in previous chapters that reflects the complexity of international education as a multi-dimensional, international, and intercultural field of knowledge. This field is further defined by its pedagogy, is leadership driven, and represents major educational change and innovation. The research methodology will incorporate all of these variables

My research design follows the general framework employed by Brenda Ellingboe (1999) which I found very useful¹²². Her perspective includes both the character of internationalization, and the process of how it becomes part of the institutional change. Similarly, my theoretical framework is based on two major concepts: the system approach to internationalization and its institutionalization through the organizational change theory. These concepts are higher order concepts that include other concepts, such as, for example, leadership that is necessary to affect change, etc. Apart from sharing the same system-wide developmental perspective the researchers are different. My theoretical framework flows from a qualitatively different literature review and is updated by more recent methodologies including European ones¹²³. Moreover, it reacts to specific cultural conditions of the higher education institution and employs more recent scholarship coming from the European continent. I ask different research questions and concentrate on different components of

¹²² Ellingboe's framework has also inspired my research in the choice of case studies and in the ways of data collection. Unlike her, I am not going to use on-site observation as a way of data collection.

¹²³ IAU 2003 World Survey, Gree, Hill, Peter (2003) Study of best practices, Knight's Internationalization Quality Review Process Guidelines 2002, Siaya and Hayward's Mapping Internationalization on U.S. campuses, 2003.

internationalization (see Ellingboe, 1999, p. xv). Lastly, my framework does not include any inter-institutional comparison.

The systems approach will be used to indicate that international education has multiple audiences and that it addresses multiple pedagogical approaches. In this case study, I will deal with the teaching faculty, leadership and administrator of internationalization. Unfortunately, time and space considerations will not allow me to include the students perspectives that remain to be included in future research. Organizationally, the focus of the thesis is on educational leadership of a single faculty in a single university, which is why it is a case study.

Change is implicit in the study of education, especially higher education because education itself produces changes in students' perspectives and cognition. Similarly, higher education is involved in a variety of global conditions to which it responds in a variety of ways. We should not underestimate the changes that have resulted from the need of the Czech Republic to re-orient itself from the centralized socialist system to democracy. These changes all affect higher education and suggest that international education is itself a program of change and educational reform. Therefore, the internationalization will be perceived as an evolving process, which allows me to make recommendations for future development. The context of the study has to take into account of the concept of culture as well because some of the variables are taken from other cultures and because they are being applied to conditions of the Czech culture.

Because this research project is intended not only to gain deeper understanding of the processes of internationalization within a particular institution, but also to introduce a hitherto less well known field of international education to the Czech academic audience, it was necessary to produce a much lengthier literature review than was needed for the conduct of this dissertation research and particularly for the right selection of the theoretical framework for the research. Such extended treatment will enable the reader to understand and appreciate not only the possible approaches to internationalization but also the processes that produce the necessary changes from an ethnocentric to an international character of the universities. The research questions are then based on the knowledge of the scholarship of this field including various approaches to internationalization and theories of change.

4.1 Qualitative methodology

Several key qualitative research books and manuals helped to provide the foundation from which my understanding of the methodology came, especially the following: Merriam (1998), Yin (1993), Darlington and Scott (2002), Chelimsky and Chadish (1997), Hendl

(2005), Švaříček and Šed'ová (2007), Gavora (2000). I also benefited from several dissertations that utilized this method by applying it to various international dimensions of higher education. The research works that became available to me are: Ellingboe (1999), Atkinson (2007), Almosa (2007).¹²⁴

I have chosen the qualitative research¹²⁵ in order to find out in depth information about a certain phenomenon in a chosen site, i.e. institution. The data that is generated from: observations, interviews, and document analysis can produce a holistic understanding based on interrelationships between parts of a system, and the parts and the whole – which is important for the aims of the study.

Upon consideration of my options, I have chosen three data collection methods: document analysis, interviews and questionnaires and excluded as inappropriate and unsuitable the third “traditional” data collection method, observation. I believe that all three are legitimate parts of qualitative methodology, for all explore the subject matter in great detail, and produce in-depth findings rather than findings that can be applied only to a limited population¹²⁶.

It was also important for me that qualitative research¹²⁷ is also often concerned with the emic approach in which the researcher becomes an insider and experiences a culture he/she studies from the inside – i.e. in natural setting. To sum up, the research question and corresponding sub-questions that drive the study will be best answered with the qualitative research methodology involving a case study research method.

4.1.1 Disadvantages and Challenges

From the beginning, I was aware that there are disadvantages and challenges to doing qualitative research. One of them is that the research process is time consuming and very labor intensive for the researcher. In addition to time, it requires an insider's perspective (see emic above) that in turn requires high level of knowledge and skill to truly understand not only the setting (context) of the study but the nature of the organization and the roles of the persons in them, in order to generate themes and create new knowledge. I carefully

¹²⁴ Other consulted books included: Čermák, Miovský, 2000. Pelikán, 1998. Skalková a kol., 1986. Strauss, Corbinová, 1999.

¹²⁵ For more details see Strauss and Corbin (1999, p. 11 In Švaříček and Šed'ová , 2007, p. 24).

¹²⁶ Some authors perceive questionnaires and structured interviews as quantitative. Others, do not agree with such strict differentiation and explore rather the purpose and outcome of the method before placing these tools into one or another category of methodology (see more in Švaříček and Šed'ová, 2007)

¹²⁷ My choice of methodology also confirmed Chelimsky (In Chelimsky and Chadish, 1998) and her principles on which also quantitative researchers agree: a) is empirical, b) can serve multiple functions, c) the results can be used to probe descriptive casual propositions, d) the results are potentially generalizable, e) can achieve all of the research design and data manipulations that characterize quantitative research (p. 35).

considered this point in my choice of the institution and in asking interviewees for feedback on interpretation of the data.

A disadvantage can be seen in that qualitative research may not be applicable to a larger population, especially in cases when the researcher uses purposefully targeted subjects. At the same time, however, such work can be transferable to another setting (as the research design of Ellingboe (1999), adapted for my research) and useful to other stakeholders. The results may be useful to people who find themselves in similar situation within their own institutions, holding similar position, tackling similar issues as the stakeholders being interviewed. Ellingboe (1999) wrote: "Findings such as ideas, successful strategies, recommendations, or workable components can be transferable to another college setting if one does an organizational analysis of that setting to determine the feasibility, applicability and compatibility" (p. 138). Hopefully, also recommendations of my study will be useful for other higher education institutions (especially of a similar type).

The qualitative research is interpretative and, as such, is subject to potential biases, judgments, and values of the researcher; these must be dealt with and stated in the research report (Creswell in Ellingboe, 1999, p. 142). The position of the researcher needs to be developed further with the specific view to the chosen method research: of a case study.

4.2 Case Study

A case study method, being one of the many options of qualitative research method, was immediately apparent as the best way to answer the complicated question that I posed.¹²⁸ Case studies are different from other types of research in that they involve a particular site, usually involving intensive interview or observation. They are most prevalent in education, as it is an intensive holistic description and analysis of a single instance, phenomenon, or a social unit (Merriam, 1998. p. 27 in Ellingboe, p. 131).

Case study is a particularly appropriate choice of a method if the researcher is interested in the process of something occurring within organization (Ellingboe, 1999, p. 131) Discovering the process along the way by interviewing multiple stakeholders is an important part of the case study. It may illuminate many important attributes of educational organizations that other methods (e.g. surveys) would not be able to capture.¹²⁹

Additional support for a case study method comes from Stake (1995) who defines case study as a effort to understand a certain social object as a integrated system. (Stake, 1995, in Hendl, 2005, p.105.) Choosing the system approach to internationalization for my

¹²⁸ According to Merriam's definition of case study (1998, p. 29-30). Conf. also Yin (1993, p. 30).

¹²⁹ For further reasons for my choice see Ellingboe, 1999, p. 131 Merriam, 1998, p. 34, and Yin, 1993)

theoretical framework, Stake's argumentation about the possibility of capturing the system through the case study seems highly relevant for my selection.

For the purpose of my study, I am primarily interested in the developmental and knowledge-generating approach to case studies¹³⁰. The developmental perspective is done to improve institutional performance. The knowledge perspective follows from the researcher's prior work to increase understanding about factors underlying problems. The knowledge gain leads recommendations for improvement as well as later use of the research framework. My research design and purpose combine both perspectives: they capture the process within institutions and they serve to generate new insights. Both perspectives also allow for a meaningful evaluation. However, acceptability of findings may differ. In the knowledge perspective, clients ignore findings they do not like, whereas in the developmental perspective acceptability of findings is more likely because no threat is posed. This is the reason, why I my report ends with possible recommendations and strategies for future development.

To sum up, I have chosen the case study I needed to employ methods that would yield deep, complex, holistic (systemic) insights and secure credibility, transferability and reliability. However, having in mind that this is the first research on internationalization and that the literature review is a pioneering effort to introduce the scholarship in the Czech Republic, I had to keep my research questions simple enough to be understood by the subjects who may have no knowledge of the theoretical background and may not have reflected systematically what the internationalization entails.

4.3 Tools

There are many useful tools in qualitative research including observation, focus groups, individual interviews, analysis of document (report, diary, minutes, books, photographs, etc.) and open-ended surveys. The data from these types of methods is rich and detailed, concerned with content, process, and meaning. It is more important to seek depth toward meaning than it is to strive for breadth and numbers of interviews and fieldwork sites.

The advantage of qualitative research concerns its depth, context, and greater involvement between researcher and individual interviewees. This case study research method involved three research tools:

- 1) Semi-structured interviews

¹³⁰ There are several approaches to case studies according to the purpose of the evaluation: a) evaluation for accountability (e.g. measurement of outcomes or efficiency of policies), b) for development (e.g. provision of evaluation is to strengthen the institution), and c) evaluation for knowledge (acquisition of more profound understanding in some specific area. (Chelimsky, 1998, p.12.)

2) Questionnaires

3) Document analysis

The best data for any study is that which will yield the best information related to the purposes of the study, and helps answer the research questions. In many cases the combination of approaches answers different parts of the research questions and provide alternative data source to strengthen the overall findings.

The primary research tool in this case study is the **individual in-depth interview**¹³¹ - because it allows a deep exploration of issues, and also because it provides flexibility and ample opportunity to ask for clarification of items face-to-face, and as Holstein and Gubrin (1997, P. 114 In Darligton and Scott, 2002, p. 49) put it, it is an active meaning-making process.

In this case all 12 interviews (plus 3 pre-testing interviews) were an in-depth interviews¹³². The interviewing was done in a moderately structured format using an open ended, direct style of questioning one-to-one. This approach followed a clear agenda but allowed for interviewees to expand on their thoughts if they so desired (Descombe, p. 167 In Atkinson, 2007, p. 33). The one-to-one format reflected the intent to recognize the significance of participants' diverse commitments and opinions and depict the structural aspect of the organization (e.g. the connection between the leadership and faculty, lofty mission- and real strategies). The interviews lasted approximately an hour to an hour and half, and any recordings were made with the consent of the interviewees.

The list of interview questions was carefully prepared beforehand based on the literature review as Švaříček and Šed'ová (2007, p. 162) advise and specifically on research questions allowing the researcher for elaboration on more details. The interviewing process was governed by the guidelines for managing an effective interview recommended by Hendl (2005, p. 172). Eventually, interview protocols were tailored for different positions held at the institution in order to gain the most detail.

The second most important tool was **document analysis**. A documents were collected from the site including: college catalogue; college mission statements; long term strategic plans; annual report; notes from the Deans' collegiums; internal evaluation plans; web pages of all departments with particular view to the departmental vision, international research and other international activities and curriculum; students' list of mobility possibilities; brochure

¹³¹ Focus groups were not conducted because it was determined that the candid conversations of individuals would be preferable as very few people shared the same job positions and atmosphere of safeness was major factor for gaining honest opinions.

¹³² In the meaning defined by Švaříček as not standardized interviewing of one researcher via open-ended questions. (p. 159)

for International students, etc. (Among these the main sources of information were over 350 analysed web pages.)

Having a variety of these kinds of documents provided information that could not have been acquired by other collecting strategies (Mayring, 1990 in Hendl, 2005, p. 132). Another advantage, according to Hendl (p. 132) is that the documents are not susceptible to distortion that may occur during the interview.

The third tool was **questionnaires** that were completed by the 12 interviewees in order to obtain supplemental information. The questionnaires were focused almost entirely on the components, structures and functions where international education resides within the college to see what possible structural changes can be affected. Questionnaires, similarly to the interview schedules, were prepared individually according to the positions held in the institution in order to gain as much detailed information as possible. (Copies of the interview schedules and questionnaires are part of Appendix II.)

These tools were combined and related in accordance with the triangulation research method described in Hendl, 2005, p. 149.

4.4 Data analysis

I constructed the gained information in such a way that it was thoughtfully considered before summarizing it in a public document, and so that the organization itself could be represented accurately and truthfully. Data analysis as an important process which makes the transition from the end of field work to the beginning of the writing stage: a systematic and organized approach for reading and understanding interview transcripts, field notes, and documents collected during the field work process. For steps that guided my data analysis, see Bogdan and Bikken (1992, In Ellingboe, 1999, p. 139)

The data gained through interviewing, document analysis, questionnaires and observation were coded and visualized into several matrices. Data were coded allowing for interrelatedness and identification of categories. After the conduction and transcription of interviews (50 pages), I gathered information from over 400 web pages and made a working chart of most important information (10 pages long). Then I started coding, categorizing and qualitatively assessing the data and their inter-relations from the three sources (interviews, documents, questionnaires). I also took into consideration the position of the interviewees in the institution especially in drawing conclusion about the role of leadership in internationalization.

My favorite method of displaying the data was through two-dimensional matrixes¹³³, which visually display results of the study. It was important to return to the conceptual framework when designing the matrix because it guided me as the researcher in transferring the information from the transcript of interviews to the matrix by providing the backbone from which to base the data. I found the matrices helped to display the data visually clearly and succinctly.

I paid special attention for the analysis of the visions and the curriculum, and combined all three sources of data in order not to end up in clichés, such as “we teach students to think critically”, “we promote intercultural understanding and tolerance”. Eliminating misleading generalizations was a major challenge that I found out in the pre-testing interviews. I collected materials from the websites and college’s booklet of current offer of courses. These I scrutinized searching for keywords such as “international,” “global,” “inter/multicultural,” “world,” “foreign,” “intercultural,” “ethnic,” “diversity”¹³⁴. I added courses that referred to comparisons (Czech and Slovak) or offered plurality of views such as “current theories” which implicitly have the dimension of international. Also courses that were offered by other than philological departments were scrutinized for other than Czech theories and scholars or epistemologies or culture-bound content contextualization. This was especially important to reflect in philological disciplines as the disciplines usually declared their effort to produce graduates with knowledge of culture of the regions to be able to work in diplomacy or other cultural institutions. Unfortunately, not all departments have their course syllabi on the web, so in some cases I could not investigate whether the syllabi may show international issues during the course. The same sometimes happened to questionnaires and during interviews, which the interviewees left some cells blank or I tried to be a responsive researcher and may not pose all questions in order not to intrude too much into one’s privacy.

4.5 Selection of College

The school was selected on these criteria:

- 1) Internationalization is declared priority, so that all (some) components of internationalization would be expected to be present and thus possibly researched.
- 2) On the advice from my Ph.D. advisor. Also a number of pre-field work conversations were held with experts from academic, non academic and governmental bodies.

¹³³ In many textbooks matrixes are described as being very important in displaying data (for more benefits of matrixes conf. Ellingboe, 1999, p. 186)

¹³⁴ For theoretical backing up see definition of “intercultural diversity” in Chap. On Bridging the Gap.

- 3) Consent of the dean was an important criteria because doing a case study at a school and the prospect publishing of the findings could be seen as a very threatening intrusion into the organization, especially at present when quality assurance measures are being put into connection with the money flow from the government.
- 4) Type of an institution according academic selectivity: A) A school that is considered for its relatively high academic selectivity and reputation for academic excellence. B) An institution that would be, according to the Carnegie criteria, described as a research university and that would be defined as a public university rather than a recently set up, private for-profit institution where some assumptions based on the literature review could not have been applicable.
- 5) Location: to be located in the Czech Republic so that assumptions and the aim of the thesis would be met.
- 6) A human sciences oriented institution.

4.6 Selection of Interviewees

The following primary stakeholders were purposefully selected from the institution: the dean, the vice dean for international affairs, the director of the international office, department chairs, faculty members from various departments, and the director of the international office at the university level (not obtained).

The rector of the university was excluded, even though it is clear from the literature that the presidents may be cheerleaders and thus central agents to the internationalization process. The case study did not include the rector for the following reasons:

- 1) Assumption that their schedule is tight,
- 2) Assumption that they might have refer me to the dean for not having a specific knowledge of the level of internationalization of the particular college,
- 3) An interview with the Rector's International office staff was chosen for the knowledge of the subject matter; however, due to their lack of interest in being interviewed, these interviews did not take place,
- 4) During the interviews, the dean the international office of the college waer questioned about the rector's commitment and strategies of internationalization and the possible implication of the rector's policy to the college.
- 5) Efforts were made to document the university policy of internationalization and to collect speeches and articles and other materials documenting the rector's internationalization efforts. Unfortunately, neither the vice-rector nor the university's international office provided any materials on internationalization strategy of the university as such.

All of this information together indicates that the effort that was put into finding the role of the rector and of the university's international offices was not totally successful.

The interviewing process also did not include students. Interviewing students would mean also interview international students and international scholars, and may be prospective students and alumni and providing a spectrum through all three levels: undergraduate, graduate and postgraduate programs. It would also entails developing a totally different interview questions and questionnaires and also redefinition of the research questions (to capture the relations and characterization of the mentioned groups, their commitment, role they play in the internationalization process including strategic planning and evaluation, etc.), and many other changes. A research that would include all college stakeholders (students, boards, university partners, governmental and research institutions) would be definitely a very valuable and desired especially in connection to capturing the culture of the organization. Still, being a pioneering case study (i.e. not being able to rely on preliminary research findings), it was not possible to accomplish that unless a team of researchers participated.

4.7 Quality criteria of the research

Concerns about quality are being remedied through many now classic books. These include for example Stake (1995), Chelimsky and Chadish (2002) and other. I have reviewed several books on methodology¹³⁵ and their quality criteria I have decided to guide myself with:

- 1) Validity secured by methodological triangulation and rehashing plausibility of the data with interviewees, thick description of the phenomena, colleague critiquing
- 2) Transferability secured by description of the process of the research, definition of the role of the researcher and the limitations of the study and biases
- 3) Reliability secured by consistency in questions and data coding and pretesting

At the same time I have kept in mind the general guidelines for a high quality research state by Hendl (2005), which are:

- To enrich the scientific field with new knowledge,

¹³⁵ The well-known Merriam's book suggests eight steps to secure both internal and external validity (Merriam, p. 204 in Atkins, p. 36), Yin (1993) suggests three steps to secure constructed validity: a) more data sources for data collection, b) creation of the finding the opt data, c) acquiring consent of the interviewees on the research report. Czech Švaříček and Šed'ová (2007) list several guidelines that may secure the validity of the qualitative research and point to the importance of transferability. Hendl (2005) lists 18 criteria for quality assurance of research projects based on Spencer et col. (2003), Chelimsky lists 30 criteria for reviewing the quality of a Case study report (including Gilbert, 1982, Yin, 1994 and U.S. General accounting office criteria, 1990). Both lists are however, applicable on researches that are done a team of researchers rather than by an individual researcher.

- To make careful decision about the research design,
- To make careful collection of data and data analysis,
- To draw findings based on collected data and connect them to the theory.

4.8 Ethics

It is necessary to ask ethical questions in every research, and in research on organizational issues it is perhaps more than in any other area.¹³⁶ The fundamental question for my research were: How questions come to be framed to ways in which research findings are disseminated and utilized and how is the process shaped by interest and various power of stakeholders and as well as by the researcher. For example the power and interest of the management, faculty may differ¹³⁷.

The capacity of an individual to give freely their informed consent to research is of great importance in research ethics, and it also entails the question about the relationship of the researcher and the client (for inspiring emancipatory research methods, see Lather, 1998). This case study aims to follow a democratized inquiry process characterized by negotiation and reciprocity. At the same time the findings give voice to those who felt that could not influence the decision making due to rigid organization structures' and grants them anonymity. All interviewees have the possibility to give the answers second thought and change their conclusions after they are transcribed and interpreted by the researcher. The leadership of the institution commented on the final version of the research report.

The development of trust between the researcher and the participants is an essential part of the research process. Participation in a research that may reveal personal opinions or work strategies may be even traumatic. Without some sense of connection, the respondents are unlikely to share their thoughts with the interviewer and the same time it is important that the interviewer does not reveal his/her opinions and attitudes. Rapport is often included in research in the beginning, but it is not a finite commodity, it develops, or does not, and it may make the interviewer think that he/she knows what the participant means and impose wrong assumptions which without checking them again with the participant would lead to wrong findings.

In order to secure confidentiality, the interviewees were be selected randomly from a list of faculty and administrators, apart from the dean of foreign affairs and the dean. All were personally met before the interviews, and the major aims of the thesis and the research were

¹³⁶ The ethical princippals which should guide research are fairly clear and appear in many psychological, pedagogical and social international research association. The Czech Association of Pedagogical Research has not established any ethical guidelines yet.

¹³⁷ See also Lynn & Davies, 1990, p. 7.

carefully explained. They were promised that no data and conclusions or names will be used for any purposes than for this dissertation and that the identity of the institution will not be revealed, that the research was not connected to any decision making body, and that the research is to be transferable as a kind of methodology and serve as a source of ideas for other higher education institutions and their stakeholders or international office administrators.

Lastly, there has been a contextual dimension to the ethical issue that was also considered. The case study is being done in a time of great turmoil: the policy makers are preparing the so-called the reform of tertiary education with its White Paper to be published in 2008. At the same time the institutions of tertiary education are being bombarded with recommendations from OECD and EU over quality assurance measurements, which cause great concern for the leadership, as well as for faculty. The conclusions of the study therefore do not include any inter-national or inter-institutional comparisons.

4.9 Limitation of the study

4.9.1 The bias of the researcher

As the researcher, I need to recognize that I hold a specific opinion on internationalization, namely I believe that universities benefit from internationalization and that internationalization should not driven only by the economic rationale but by an inclusive value orientation and peacemaking. Internationalization in the Czech Republic requires the knowledge of the scholarship and finding its own approach and strategies by setting it in Czech cultural and institutional environment. As suggested in the literature review, my attitude favors system-wide, well organized process that is based on participative leadership and ever present learning. Also my political views on multiculturalism and personal international experience come into play and thus it is not possible to state the neutrality of the researcher's position.

I tried to overcome my biases with a thorough literature review which after a critical analysis has shaped the chosen theoretical framework and also by constant concern not to inject my own opinion into the research questions. My opinions on internationalization and knowledge gained from the literature review were not revealed in interviews unless the participants asked me specific questions after the interview. Overall, I concentrated on trust, clear communication, and honesty in our relationship.

4.9.2 Other limitations

Apart from the researcher's personal bias, the first limitation is that the scope of the participants in the study. The study did not take into consideration students, international students and international scholars, and other administrators than those working in international relations office. The study will not be able to explain the role of students in internationalization, nor analyze the influence of outside stakeholders and administrators.

The second limitation concerns the institutional culture. Because methods were specially designed for the evaluation of climate, the stakeholders' relationships and other cultural dimensions were not employed, the analysis of culture is limited and cannot fully comprehend the complexity of organizational culture defined in the Literature review.

The third limitation is that the interviewing does not involve all stakeholders, but only faculty and leadership. In order to get a detailed picture of the practiced curriculum and above-mentioned culture, also international students and scholars would need to be included.

The fourth limitation is that the theoretical framework relies mostly on international scholarship and theories created for different cultural context. Assumptions based on cross-cultural psychology research and also specific comments on results of the research will try to reflect on this limitation.

4.10 Description of the process of research

- 1) Pre field work: literature review and setting purpose of the study and outline of the structure, working draft (November 2006 - November 2007),
- 2) Consultations with a consultant from Akademi ved, and Faculty of Humanities, Charles University (December 2007 – January 2008)
- 3) Choosing research framework, writing methodology chapter (January – February 2008)
- 4) Selection of institution and selection of participants (February 2008)
- 5) 4 pre-test interviews (February 2008)
- 6) Observation and conversations with (dean, dean of international office) (February - March 2008)
- 7) More clarification and review of specific theoretical issues, more details in literature review concerning particular issues: internationalization components and internationalization through multicultural education rationales and writing section Internationalization at Home approach, constant consultation with advisors about the theoretical background to the research and draft version of the interview questions. (January- April 2008)

- 8) Final revision of interview questions and questionnaires and revision of section on Internationalization of curriculum based on consultations with scholars from Department of Educational Sciences, Charles University (February - March 2008)
- 9) Document analysis (January-April 2008)
- 10) Conducting 12 interviews (February-April 2008)
- 11) Data analysis (April 2008)
- 12) Feedback on interviews transcripts
- 13) Data interpretation (May 2008)
- 14) Written discussion of findings (June 2008)
- 15) Feedback from the dean of the institution on the report (June, 2008)
- 16) Final version of Chap. 5 (July 2008)

4.11 The Conceptual framework of the research

4.11.1 System-wide perspective

The major theoretical framework is based on a system-wide approach to the internationalization of the university. This means that internationalization needs to cover all components. In the literature review I tried to capture all possible components, however, in the relationship to the research, I decided to use the following list of components. It is developed on the basis of Elligboe's (1999) findings of case study called major components of internationalization and Green, Eckel and Hills (2005) guidelines for institutional change. The list includes:

Components of internationalization Eva Janebova (2008)

- 1. Curriculum;**
- 2. Research and networking;**
- 3. Involvement of faculty and students;**
- 4. Culture of the institution;**
- 5. Administration of internationalization;**
- 6. Outreach and service to the society;**
- 7. Leadership**

4.11.2 Curriculum

Curriculum is perceived as the core component of the system-wide perspective. The literature review has shown the numerous perspectives on the definition of the internationalized curriculum. Some approaches emphasized new courses, integrations of new knowledge, other scholars rather new cognitive skills, still others defined outcomes in intercultural and global competencies. Setting up a theoretical framework for the curriculum component was very difficult because of the mentioned variety of approaches to the curricular theories and should needed to be integrated somehow. And also because mos

The following theoretical framework is based on the literature review introduced in sec. on system-wide perspective and takes into consideration. At the same time, I tried to explore the character of internationalized curriculum as deeply as possible so that I would not end up just reporting on clichés (such as “all students have developed critical thinking skills”), which would be deceptive and counter recent researchers (e.g. Gardin, 2003). After the pre-test interview and consultations with colleagues from the Department of Educational Sciences, I developed different questionnaires for faculty and leadership that supplemented my questions during the interviews in order to gain more insight into the issues of internationalized curricula.

The conceptual framework of the internationalization of curriculum was chosen to conform to the system-wide approach and to keep in mind different levels of curriculum within the institution. The framework stands on the following concepts:

1. Shan’s (2008) recommendation for internationalization of degree programs

Internationalization of degree programs adopted from Sheng (2008, p. 68-72)

- Interdisciplinary cooperation with other colleges and departments
- Make use of knowledge of area studies
- Faculty development and sharing
- Presence of international faculty
- Engagement of leadership and administration in int. of programs
- Difference valuing atmosphere

2. OECD (1996) typology of internationalized curricula, concerning the degree programs:

1. Curricula with international content (e.g. International Education, International relations)
2. Curricula that add a comparative dimension to traditional content (e.g. International Comparative Education)
3. Career-oriented curricula—(e.g. International Business Administration)
4. Curricula in foreign languages or linguistics which explicitly address cross-cultural communication issues and provide training in intercultural skills (e.g. Spanish,

French)

5. Interdisciplinary area student programs such as area or regional studies (Asian studies)
6. Curricula leading to internationally recognized professions
7. Curricula leading to joint or double degrees
8. Curricula whose parts are offered at off-shore institutions by local faculty
9. Special curricula designed exclusively for foreign students

3. There is one supplementary questionnaire that is targeted at the faculty rather than on the number of courses. As faculty was the target of my research, I tried to select information to confirm/not confirm the following questionnaire:

Internationalization of disciplines and courses (Based on Mestenhauser and Paige (1999, p. 504-505)

- Incorporate (connects with existing scholarship) culturally diverse knowledge, epistemologies and frameworks
- Introduction of new expertise and methods by visiting international faculty and students
- Social and intercultural integration of student groups with the different nationalities
- New teaching and learning practices
- Acknowledge and handle knowledge gap
- Know and reflects how culture influences the discipline and intellectual tradition
- Question cherished traditions with the view to power
- Cooperates with other disciplines to create new knowledge
- Promote intercultural sensitivity
- Integrate international students and scholars
- Teach new values, attitudes and competencies
- Acquire new cognitive skills (critical thinking, cross-cultural comparative, creative thinking)
- Acquire intercultural competencies (openness, flexibility, personality development, reflective and intercultural communication skills)
- Include and work with culturally different epistemologies and frameworks
- Use emic and etic research and cross-cultural comparisons
- Knows how global trends influence issues and discipline

4.11.3 Rationale for internationalization

The second theoretical concept is used for questions on the rationale of internationalization. It is based on a comprehensive literature review of rationales for internationalization. The major contributors to the literature review were: Brenda Ellingboe 1998, ACE 2007, Shoorman, 1998, Knight 1997, de Witt 2008, van der Wende 2003, and

Turner et al, 2002. The following matrix was developed as a comprehensive summary of the discussion on rationales in chapter 3 on bridging the gap between international and multicultural education. The clustering within the typology of the rationalization was inspired by typology of *Rationales of Internationalization* by de Witt (2008). The table includes major generally defined arguments together with some specific examples of argumentation of that reasoning. The major rationales are not ranked according to specific level of ranking, for example according to the frequency or geographical predominance.

Economic rationale	Global market competition, internationalization of institution as source of money, commercial trade
Political	EU harmonization, Cold War, democracy
Multiculturalism driven benefit	Social inclusivity and integration (of students, epistemologies, etc.), counter hegemony stance, understanding power relations in global context, meritocracy
Other Social and cultural	Intercultural diversity enrichment, civic values and responsibility, community/planet benefit, peacemaking and intercultural/international understanding
Organization benefit	Strategic alliances, research, teaching, administration, leadership, ranking and competitiveness, school culture and climate
Personal benefit (human resource benefit)	New cognitive skills, intercultural communication skills, New knowledge, experience,
Curriculum	New methodologies, epistemologies, discipline benefits, content enrichment, new perspectives

4.11.4 International office

The theoretical framework of the international office is based on the system wide perspective of Aitches and Hoeneker (1998) according to who international relations offices serve/help/manage, administer these programs. Administrators engage the institution in planning, scheduling, evaluation¹³⁸. The office also handles publicity and communication with students and staff. Mestenhauser (2000) also adds that an international office should play a dual function: administrative and educational.

¹³⁸ E.g. University of Malmo supports intentionally students to do research of internationalization in their Master and Doctoral thesis to produce feedback for the International Affairs Office. For more see <http://www.mah.se/upload/GF/internationalit/IaH%20structures%20and%20work%20areas%202006.pdf>

The comprehensive list of services of international office is based on the review of services provided by University of Minnesota, University of Northern Virginia, University of Oxford, and University of Malmo and CIEE, NUFFIC, ACE.

1) Students studying abroad, scholars and other staff outgoing mobility:

- Pre-departure seminars (e.g. intercultural communication) and counseling, travel guide, information to parents
- Integration of study abroad into the existing curriculum
- Cooperation with departments and host institutions on maximizing effectively of exchanges
- Further education of staff
- E-counseling, crisis management
- Re-entry counseling,
- After-departure advising on integration of gained knowledge, career, continuation with contacts and integration to the departments

2) For international students, scholars and staff:

- Pre-departure information on insurance, accommodation, free time, family members (schools for children), banking, health, activities organized by the institution (choirs, sports, etc.)
- Orientation seminars and counseling
- Personality Counseling (family, partner issues, inter-colleagues, etc.)
- Intercultural counseling and advising (culture shock cultural adjustment)
- Seminars of intercultural communication, cultural differences and specific information
- Czech language classes and advising center free for the international students
- Managing visa and travel agenda
- Building internally welcoming culture and curriculum
- Cooperation with International Relations office of the students' mother institution

3) Other Services

- Helping departments and faculty to internationalize curriculum
- Maximizing variety of possibilities of mobility
- Support international research projects of students, faculty, administration, leadership
- Setting graduate requirements and HR policies
- Support cooperation: interdisciplinary/interdepartmental/intercultural/with other institutions and partners on curriculum and other extracurricular activities
- Involvement of international students and faculty in the curriculum and college life
- Creating internationally friendly culture
- Participating in strategic planning of the institution towards internationalization
- Fundraising
- Evaluation and accountability

4.11.5 Leadership

1) Aiming at leadership guidelines (Vasallo, 1996):

- Using persuasive communication strategies emphasizing a shift in values and

behavior;

- Empowering employees through increased involvement in various organizational processes
- Acting in way that will motivate individuals to reach new levels of excellence;
- Role modeling to set positive and inspirational examples through the actions of managers and leader;
- Creating desired behavioral change by offering desirable rewards; and
- Influencing and controlling behavior at strategic point without creating increased resistance.

2) Additional questionnaire (Henson et al., 1990)

- Priorities of for international Activities by upper administration (Deans, and higher positions) source:
- International activities priority level: high, medium, low, none
- Foreign language study
- International content in the curriculum
- Area studies programs
- Study abroad programs or internships abroad
- Recruitment and training of internal students
- Financial support for faculty educational exchanges
- International activities required for promotion and tenure
- Supporting research emphasizing international topics
- Cooperative relationships or linkages with institutions in other countries
- Support participation in development assistance of projects and activities
- Supporting efforts to internationalize internal units within the college
- Providing faculty developmental activities
- Assisting private sector in international awareness, education providing resources for various international activities

4.11.6 Systemic guidelines for organizational change

The organizational change guiding research questions 4.and 5. The research framework is based on *Guidelines for change* by Green, Eckel, Hill (2003):

A)

- Changes to the curriculum
- Changes in pedagogy
- Changes in student learning outcomes
- Changes in policies are allied to goals
- Changes in budget priorities
- New organizational structure
- New decision-making structures leadership role, new ways of thinking, new skills, new relationships and values.
- Changes in interactions.
- Changes in the institutions self-image reflect new language to describe themselves
- Changes in rationales, institutional beliefs, norms and culture.

B) Toward the faculty:

Adopted Fullan's (1998) guidelines aiming at faculty of colleges of education and Senge's (1990) five disciplines needed for change.

- Commitment to continuous improvement (life-long learning, personal mastery and change);
- Developing collaboration among staff and students;
- Building shared vision;
- Have thinking open to others
- Work collaboratively to build regional, national, and international networks.

C) Strategic planning based on stages of school development planning (Davies, 1992):

- Mission, aims, objectives
- Review of Strength and weaknesses
- Determining priorities
- Drawing up action plans
- Evaluation of the plan and the process

4.12 Research questions

Main research question is: What place does internationalization take in the particular college from the perspective of faculty and leadership?

Additional research questions:

- 1) How do faculties understand internationalization?
 - 1a) What is their working definition of internationalization?
 - 1b) Is internationalization perceived as being important in connection to the institution's mission?
 - 1c) How do interviewees describe internationalization of the institution?
- 2) What is their rationale for internationalization?
 - 2a) Who is internationalization beneficial or risky for?
 - 2b) What reasons give interviewees for internationalization?
- 3) What are components of internationalization of the institutions?
 - 3a) How do individual components look like?
 - 3b) How is curriculum internationalized?
 - 3c) To what extent is internationalization perceived as a system-wide change?
- 4) What is the role of leadership in internationalization of the institution?
 - 4a) Does strategic planning exist at institutional and departmental level?
 - 4b) How is the possible vision of internationalization communicated by the leadership?
 - 4c) What is the role of international office in connection to internationalization as a system-wide change?
- 5) What other factors influence or do not influence internationalization as institutional change?

- 5a) Are faculty engaged in internationalization of the institution?
- 5b) Are there incentives for internationalization and HR policies in connection to internationalization?
- 5c) What role does possible evaluation play in internationalization?
- 6) What are possible recommendations for internationalization of the institution from system-wide perspective?

For a matrix on major research issues in connection to questions see Appendix 2.1

5 Discussion of Research Findings

Having completed the extensive interviews and consulted the relevant documents, I now turn to the discussion of findings and their implications for the international and global functioning within the college. This chapter begins with overall general findings based on a systems' orientation. More detailed discussion of findings from individual segments of the college follow¹³⁹.

5.1 MAJOR FINDINGS

Overall description:

Internationalization of the institution is perceived to have started only after 1989. Since then, the process has been undergoing tremendous changes in all components. The development of the future outlook of internationalization looks positive

The following table shows major findings from the system-wide perspective on internationalization of institution:

Components	Description
Curriculum	<i>Excels in:</i> use of international materials, content, graduate requirements (foreign languages), courses in English, offering of special curriculum for international students on Czech culture, abundance of Czech language classes for international students, newly intercultural communication training <i>To work on:</i> diversity of teaching styles, inclusion of international students in regular classes for more enrichment, international dimension varies greatly from faculty to faculty, recognition of the existence of new intercultural communication course, low familiarity of faculty with possibilities of internationalizing their curriculum
Research and networking	<i>Excels in:</i> some faculty highly engaged in international research and publishing scholarship, use of international frameworks, overall good knowledge of intercultural comparison of disciplines <i>To work on:</i> level of internationalization of research varies according to departments and individual faculty, internationalization of research does not dominate as priority by the leadership, few long-term research visits and limited advantage of ICT is taken
Involvement of (international) students	<i>Excels in:</i> high numbers of students studying abroad and high numbers of international students, student self-engagement in counseling of international students is high, new research scholarships for students, special curriculum for international students in offered in foreign languages, high numbers of Czech language classes are offered

¹³⁹ The chapter is structured not according to the sequence of research questions but according to fluency of issues for smooth reading (namely: how is internationalization perceived, rationale, brief description of the existing components, leadership, role of international office, strategic planning, possible other factors influencing the process, curriculum, (international) students, faculty, research, institutional culture and service to society. – i.e. research question num. 3 on components is dealt as last one. Individuals departments of the institution will be marked with letters A – Z, in order to keep their anonymity no letter will be used more times to prevent any conclusions from connections in the text.

Involvement of (international) faculty	<p><i>To work on:</i> limited strategies of motivating all students and faculty in involvement. Weak integration of students' experience gained abroad into the domestic curriculum, low inclusion of international students into regular classes, low teamwork with domestic students</p> <p><i>Excels in:</i> participation on international conferences and short term visits, great engagement of some faculty in teaching, counseling of international students, interpreting for visitors, translating materials, etc. with minimal awards, relatively high numbers of int. faculty in some departments</p> <p><i>To work on:</i> low foreign language proficiency, limited membership in highly acclaimed international associations, low engagement in informal life-long learning, low self-reflection in international activities, very few international scholars in senior positions, limited strategies to attract acclaimed scholars.</p>
Culture of the institution	<p><i>Excels in:</i> existence of ERASMUS Club run by students, a brochure for international students, engagement of some faculty in informal meetings with international scholars, films, festivals, etc.</p> <p><i>To work on:</i> culture is not a priority in strategic planning of the leadership, no research on the climate has been done, no signs in English or other interculturally friendly facilities</p>
Administration of internationalization	<p><i>Excels in:</i> very efficient and elaborate administration of agreements and communication with the departments in this respect, close cooperation with departmental ERASMUS coordinators, highly acclaimed by the faculty, foreign language proficiency of international office administrators, fundraising.</p> <p><i>To work on:</i> very limited knowledge of scholarship and the strategic papers in the EU and Czech Republic, limited comparison with international offices abroad at universities abroad or in the Czech Republic or associations for international administrators, does not prioritize all components of internationalization but mobility and research, does not perform other than administering functions (no educating, strategic planning, evaluating, coordinating, climate improving)</p>
Outreach and service to the society	<p><i>Excels in:</i> some departments cooperate with international organizations (UNESCO) or NGOs and redefine their graduate requirements to serve the society needs in departmental visions, development of scholarship on minority, globalization, post colonialism, feminism, totalitarianism etc.</p> <p><i>To work on:</i> overall weak acknowledgement of the importance of university's service to society, very low connection of internationalization rationale to social benefits (equity, international understanding) - excessive competition-based motivation, inadequate reflection of internationalized visions into practiced curriculum, limited relevance of education for future jobs of graduates and networking with their prospective employers, limited transfer of knowledge to society.</p>
Leadership	<p><i>Excels in:</i> internationalization is highly prioritized and reflected by the dean, positive personal example, high potential for future development, high engagement of some department heads.</p> <p><i>To work on:</i> the impact of unengaged department heads on the whole is too strong, poor strategic planning including evaluation mechanisms, limited incentives to faculty and neglect of international experience in recruitment of new personnel</p>

5.2 General description of the college

The chosen institution is part of a university that corresponds to the Carnegie classification of a research university (i.e. wide range of degree granting programs from Bachelors to Ph.D., wide range of research). According to J. Duderstadt's diversity types of higher education, the school would be characterized as one that: is historical (founded pre 1900), comprehensive traditional, concentrates on specific professions and disciplines at the same time rather than entrepreneurial, not virtually-oriented (online degrees), and world-focused. The school is a rather large institution (over 7000 students) which is internally differentiated (over 40 units). The differentiation also entails great variety of disciplines taught in individual units. The school has its senate (with both faculty and students) and special vice-deans for studies, science, international relations, development, information resources. The school has elected a new dean two years ago.

5.3 The perception of internationalization

5.3.1 Definitions of "internationalization of the institution"

The most frequent answers to the question of what would be the working definition of "internationalization" were: opening up (not to be isolated); international institutional relations; cooperation; exchange of students, faculty, scholarship. Other interesting individual answers included: the ability to join in the international scholarship; to get over the fear of foreigners; offering influence of Czech scholars and scholarship on others, and admitting international students.

Two interviewees expressed their anxiety about internationalization as threat to the local tradition and overall uneasiness toward (intercultural) diversity and Bologna Process.

"The science has to be developed in its tradition and arbitrary migration (of students) will not bring anything good. We had structuralism, we had an exchange with University of T., which was a school of structuralism. The choice should be according to the likeness"... "Internationalization should not be at the expense of particularity and glaichschaltization".

Two interviewees also said they did not like the term "internationalization" (in Czech: *internacionalizace*).

Overall, the definitions expressed basic understanding of internationalization. Most perceived it as mobility and the exchange/cooperation of the whole institution with other institutions. Also most perceived it as a process - rather a positive one - that has undergone

tremendous advancement lately and its future development may have a considerable potential (more below).

5.3.2 Internationalization as part of the mission

Internationalization/international dimension was not mostly explicitly mentioned in connection to institutional mission either in interviews or in document analysis.

The answers to what is the role of the university were linked to personal opinions and ranged from "*supporting the mission of humankind, foster open thinking, produce an "educated" (scholarly and morally) person, popularize the knowledge,*" to "*impart universal knowledge rather than teach the discipline*". The most voiced answers were general and as simple as ***education and research neglecting the connection to society***. Only one interviewee added the third function of university: education, research and service to the society.

The individual opinions on institutional mission were different from the departmental ones found in the analysis of documentation. The university having more abstract mission, the role of the department was only in some cases expressed in plans to outreach to cultural institutions or "scholarly counseling" to organizations and to prepare their graduates for working in international organization (more on departmental visions below). None of the departments explicitly expressed that their vision was connected to helping global understanding or equity or anything similar, even though most actually deal with area studies.

To sum up, the opinions on the mission of the institution and departments vary greatly and are linked to personal intimate opinions. Mostly, they are not directly connected to the peacemaking process or understanding the world or serving the international society, still they do express some global value in chosen words such as "humankind" or "morality". Only interviewees explicitly expressed the international character (instead of just the national impact) in their rationalization of internationalization (as discussed below).

5.3.2 Existing international strategies according to the interviewees

Internationalization was described especially in terms of a) student mobility b) short-term stays of international scholars: conferences, lectures, informal meetings with them, c) international materials in curriculum, d) cooperation with international universities, and e) faculty going to conferences and short-term visits with research.

Later on in the conversation, interviews and questionnaires revealed that internationalization also entails: f) research of students in target localities abroad, g) research on international topics with international institutions, h) international regular faculty, i) courses in foreign languages, j) research with international partners.

5.3.3 Internationalization as a process

Internationalization was found to be strongly connected to changes in the last 20 years. Having in mind internationalization, all respondents agreed that changes in the last 20 years have been tremendous and upward/positive (*“everything changed,... there was no internationalization in 1988”*).

The changes were seen in *possibilities of travel, student exchanges, networking and contacts with international scholars, change in the curriculum (content, perspectives), new methodologies and resources, and more money, more transparency in the structure and change from centralized leadership and overall personal freedom*. (Four interviewees perceived the restructuring of the degree programs into undergraduate (Bachelor) and graduate (Magister) studies negatively.)

Those who worked at the school before 1989 voiced strong opinion about gained individual freedom clearly linked to the former political regime: *“I can say whatever I want to...And have connection with the West.”* or *“I can move away from the herd of sheep”*.

The outlook of internationalization looked rather positive and expressed plans to be implemented: more transformation of the curriculum, more students going abroad and more destinations, more international research projects and generally speaking more “opening up”.

Overall, internationalization was perceived as a process that started only after 1989 (which confirms the findings in the literature review), and since then has undergone “tremendous changes”. The level and character of current internationalization is thus determined by the gained “freedom” and is thus highly Czech specific. The appraisal of the extensive changes needs to be recognized and the overall development of internationalization seems to be a very positive one.

5.4 RATIONALES FOR INTERNATIONALIZATION

There were two strong rationales for internationalization, with the first especially predominant:

1. *To become/remain an elite university;*
2. *A necessary reaction to changing world (e.g. globalization).*

Interviews revealed that internationalization was connected above all to the quality of the institution as such and in particular teaching (also below) and scholarship. There was a discrepancy in the attitudes: namely, whether interviewees thought the institution to be an elite

institution already or whether they thrived for its better quality through internationalization. The latter attitude was predominant though. The positive thing is that these interviewees perceived the quality of their institution in connection (and comparison) to the rest of the world and not in regional isolation.

Other less important rationales were:

3. Two answers also expressed that internationalization is a “*natural function of the university*” and that should not and university should not be a “*national institution*”.
4. Two opinions were: “*to get feedback on what we are doing*”.
5. According two interviewees it was: for the improvement of the *quality and content of the curriculum*.
6. One also expressed personal enrichment (friendships and things “*which have nothing to do with scholarship*”)
7. One expressed that the *enrichment should be mutual*.
8. Last interviewee said that students would be able to *inspire themselves abroad and then push on the faculty* to improve – a positive outcome.

Internationalization was deemed to be **risky** or a threat only to those who are afraid, who are not bold, who do not speak foreign languages and will have to publish and teach in foreign languages. The vice-dean for international relations (unlike to the rest of the leadership) expressed worries about “*being too internationalized... which could make a scholar to subordinate to project topics only because of money*”. Similar uneasiness was not expressed by anybody else and internationalization was deemed as “*beneficial for us*” by the majority.

The review of rationales in the view of the theoretical framework appears as follows:

Economic rationale	Global market competition, internationalization of institution as source of money, commercial trade	NO
Political	EU harmonization, Cold War, democracy, equity	NO
Multiculturalism driven benefit	Social inclusion and integration (of minority students, epistemologies, etc.), counter hegemony stance, understanding power relations in global context	NO

Other Social and cultural	Intercultural diversity enrichment, civic values and responsibility, community/planet benefit, peacemaking and understanding, adjustment to globalization of society	Yes
Organization benefit	Strategic alliances, research, teaching, administration, leadership, ranking and competitiveness, climate	Yes
Personal benefit	New cognitive skills, intercultural communication skills, new knowledge, experience, friendship	Yes
Curriculum	New methodologies, epistemologies , discipline benefits, content enrichment, new perspectives	Yes

5.5 Components of internationalization

The way internationalization was described by the interviewees primarily in terms of semester long mobility of students and short-term mobility of faculty (conferences, visits) and general cooperation of higher education institutions was found to correspond with the reality in practice and is best described in terms of *Internationalization as Europeanization*. Internationalization is not perceived explicitly as a transformation of all components of the institution, though all components of the framework are to some extent present. However, because they are not expressed as a part of the leadership strategy or in planned future efforts of the institutional transformation; and because the major rationalization behind internationalization was seen as way to attain better rankings, the institutional internationalization cannot be described with the leading definition of this thesis and the system-wide approach, namely as

“the ongoing multidimensional process of organizational change that guides institutions in making internal changes in order to respond and adapt to increasingly diverse and globally shaped external, environmental factors outside the campus gates” (Ellingboe, 1999, p.33).

The HR policies (below) do not value international (intercultural) experience and low inclusion of international students in regular classes exclude internationalization of the institution to be described as *Internationalization at Home*. Due to the fact that there is very little addition of new courses into the required curriculum, it cannot be described in terms of the add-on approach either.

For the overall assessment of individual components see the beginning of the chapter (5.1). For more details on individual components see sections below.

5.6 Leadership role in internationalization

It seems that the main players in the direction of the institution actually play heads of the departments, though the dean communicates a visible drive for internationalization with his/her personal example.

First of all, it seems that the familiarity with the university's and college's mission and declared priorities (like internationalization of the Ph.D. studies) is very low and direct questions on what is the vision of the college or whether it includes internationalization were mostly answered vaguely such as "*I assume, it is there*", "*it sounds like a strategic priority*". None of the interviewed could actually recall what the college vision says about internationalization and what the goals of the dean are in this respect. At the same time, all interviewed assessed the communication of the dean rather positively. Alarming, one department head, who actually meets quite often with the dean in person, said that he/she does not know whether internationalization is the dean's priority.

The interviewees also could not recall how the dean communicates the priority of internationalization, but most agreed that he/she does. The dean himself/herself said that he/she communicates through the vice dean (*at the time of the interview there was former vice-dean with strong position at the college*); continually "bombs" the employees through the international office, sets up new international cooperation, travels abroad, mentions it in speeches in meetings with the heads of the department. It seems that the employees perceive the importance of the internationalization rather implicitly from the dean's personal example and from the substantial improvement of functioning of the international relations office.

Interestingly enough, the dean knows quite well which department prioritizes internationalization, at least in their published visions. The dean is aware that most departments have mentioned internationalization in their visions and knows which have not. The dean is concerned about how to *enforce* changes on departments and perceives that he/she needs more knowledge about HR policies and leadership skills in this respect.

The dean is aware of what organizational change needs and noted the following: vision shared by all, strategic planning, profit of the transformation to all stakeholders, participatory leadership, change of the institutional cultural and climate, involvement of students into decision making, cooperation between units, development of personal mastery (teamwork, listening skill, ability of compromise, high individual engagement in the change, mind shift, diversity of opinions in the visioning process, change of working practices.

His/her ideas on what is needed but not practiced correspond with guidelines for systemic organizational change as described by Senge (1990) in the literature review.

Potentially, if he/she applies these guidelines on internationalization, the transformation of the whole institution could take place.

The following table shows the actual role of the dean in the change process. The table is based on interpretation of interviews with faculty and department chairs and will be augmented in more details below.

Questionnaire of Vasallo's guidelines for the Dean's role in transformation of institution:

1. Using persuasive communication strategies emphasizing a shift in values and behavior;	Personal example, (speeches, personal meetings etc. were not recognized by the interviewees)
2. Empowering employees through increased involvement in various organizational processes	Yes, but there is a problem with limited recognized responsibility by international office, overall traditionally hierarchical structure of the institution.
3. Acting in way that will motivate individuals to reach new excellence	Yes
4. Role modeling to set positive and inspirational examples through the actions of managers and leader;	Yes (well recognized)
5. Creating desired behavioral change by offering desirable rewards;	Weak.
6. Influencing and controlling behavior at strategic points without creating increased resistance.	Not evidenced

The college seems to be fragmented and uneven in the level of internationalization according to individual units. The fact that the college includes such variety of departments causes those departments which are used to fostering individual interests and "fight" against each other.

The process of vision building and consequently of practiced strategies of internationalization is based on the heads of the departments. In short: if the head of the department is not personally engaged in internationalization, than the department lacks behind.

The proof for that is what happened in the department A. With the former head, the department fostered cooperation with France, U.S. and, according to a media interview with X, all students were compelled to go abroad at least for one semester. Nothing of that sort is happening today. The department has "fewer mobility possibilities than other departments" as described by one interviewee from this department.

Weaker influence of the departmental head was found in departments with “younger” departmental heads, who were said to be more inclined to use participative vision building. Departments which were very small (3 - 4 faculty), where people expressed trust and friendship (“*we talk about the departmental future plans with the head over the coffee machine every other day*”), had developed visions in a more participatory manner.

Overall, the mid-level leadership seems to be determining the way internationalization looks in individual departments and, therefore, of the whole institution. This might be seen as a positive sign of decentralization of the institution which allows individual units to foster internationalization in case it was not favored by the dean. However, the overall non-participatory (and overall not inclusive) character of the middle-level leadership causes great concerns to internationalization because the unengaged department head have negative impact on international activities (including curriculum) of the whole department.

5.7 The Role of International Office and vice-dean in the internationalization

The international office has undergone personal changes lately (new director of the office and new vice-dean, two new staff members, and now is “*stabilizing itself*”). The vice-dean and international office work very closely together, and thus their role will be analyzed together. Their knowledge of scholarship and possible approaches to internationalization of higher education institutions is low (including the key governmental strategic papers). Their evaluation includes only quantitative criteria and is thus inadequate starting point for strategic planning. Their leadership role in coordinating the institutional change towards internationalization is low, still there is no other more competent and experienced body to do so.

The international office director is responsible for the funding activities of internationalization. Unfortunately, because of how the office perceives their role in administration of agreements, mobility, and research cooperation, other internationalization sub-processes and activities (curriculum transformation, networking, writing grant assistance, counseling to international students provided by faculty, and other) are not funded. What is positive is that the international office fundraises for their activities and development of international office from European Union money and government. Lately, they have also attracted new foundations: Sasakawa Foundation and the Anglo-Czech Foundation. That means that they will probably enlarge the scope of funded activities.

There seems to be very low cooperation with the heads of the departments (more cooperation with the ERASMUS coordinators - who however, do not exert the power of middle-level leadership). The international office and the vice-dean explicitly see their role in administration of the international activities rather than in “leading” these activities.

According to results from the literature review, the office of international relations could perform the functions ranging from interdepartmental research support, internationalization of curriculum including providing trainings in diverse teaching styles to faculty, outreach to international society (e.g. UNESCO, NGOs), reconstructing intercultural friendly dining facilities, assisting faculty in writing international grants, self development in international associations for international educators (CIEE, EIAIE, ACA).

Their own perception of their own role, power, and responsibilities does not correspond with what the dean declares they have. Their low leadership role has great impact on coordination of international in the whole institution because there is no one more competent who could lead the development of the institution in this direction at the moment.

The following tables show declared services and function of the international office by the director of the international office. The table is a comprehensive review of possible functions of international administrators according to reviewed scholarship, international associations for international administrators (like EIAE) and several universities.

A) Services to students, scholars and other staff for outgoing mobility:

Pre-departure seminars on intercultural communication, counseling, travel guide, information to parents	NO YES YES on request
Integration of study abroad into the existing curriculum Help departments to prepare outgoing students to maximize their scholarly experience (e.g. intercultural comparisons of the disciplines)	Communicating the necessity to acknowledge the credits gain during study abroad NO
Cooperation with departments and host institutions on maximizing effectiveness of Exchange	YES
Further education of staff	NO
Re-entry counseling, (integration of knowledge, career counseling in international organizations, continuing with development of contacts, networking, transfer of materials to library, etc.)	NO

After-departure counseling on re-integration to the departmental teams, motivation to publish immediately, enrichment of other colleagues)	WEAK
E-counseling, crisis management	NO (not required yet)

B) For international students, scholars and incoming staff:

Pre-departure information on insurance, accommodation, free time, family members (schools for children), banking, health, activities organized by the institution (choirs, sports, etc.)	Only travel
Orientation seminars and counseling	YES, BROCHURE
Personality Counseling (family, partner issues, inter-colleagues, etc.)	NO
Intercultural counseling and advising (culture shock, cultural adjustment)	NOT DIRECTLY but support of ERASMUS Student Club
Seminars of intercultural communication, cultural differences and specific information	NO (intercultural communication is offered by in one department)
Czech language classes and advising center free for the international students	YES, but not for free
Managing visa and travel agenda	YES
Building internally welcoming culture: Directory signs Films, festivals Staff with foreign language proficiency	NO YES NO
Cooperation with International Relations office of the students' mother institution	YES

C) Other Services

Helping departments and faculty to internationalize curriculum	YES (not specified how)
Maximizing variety of possibilities of mobility	VERY STRONG
Support international research projects of students, faculty, administration, leadership	VERY STRONG
Foreign languages	STRONG
Setting graduate requirements and HR policies	NO
Support cooperation: interdisciplinary/interdepartmental/intercultural/with other institutions and partners on curriculum and other extracurricular activities	NO

Involvement of international students and faculty in the curriculum and college life	WEAK
Creating internationally friendly culture	WEAK
Participating in strategic planning of the departments in their internationalization	NO
Fundraising	YES
Evaluation and accountability	WEAK

Overall, the findings do not confirm that the dean has an integral role in the way internationalization looks. The most influential members in reality seem to be the department heads (more on departmental leadership in the following section). The international office has been granted competence and responsibility in internationalization the institution from the dean, but they themselves do not use that and limit their role to administration with other vice-deans to oversee curricular and research matters. This diverts the institution of having a coordinated leadership fully engaged only in internationalization. According to CIEE, the international office needs to play other than administrative roles in the process for they are at this moment most knowledgeable and experienced to do so.

The future outlook of leadership is rather a positive. The dean is eager to get feedback on the institution's performance (including internationalization) from faculty as well as students. His/her leadership style is not self-protective and seems to not be based on distrust and high power distance. He/she seems to go in the more participatory leadership and involving institution direction (e.g. taking more seriously students evaluation, etc.) – which already accomplishes one of the systemic guidelines for organizational change.

The fact that he/she prioritizes internationalization is generally acknowledged in the institution. Moreover, his/her willingness to improve his/her managerial skills (recommending to focus on communication skills), makes me conclude that the dean has a significant potential on the future of the institutional change toward internationalization.

The fact that the director of the office for international relations was in the position for 1.5 years and there were three vice-deans in two years may potentially have a positive effect after all. The personnel changes may show to be the best possible choice and the vice-dean may soon show his/her personal engagement in prioritizing internationalization, start with more conceptual work, strategic planning and overall lead the internationalization of the institution from a more systemic perspective. The willingness of the director of the international office to learn and improve the functions of the office is great and very promising and in cooperation with the dean they may decide to undertake more functions that just administration of mobility. Their present work of administration of agreements and

communication with the departments is highly acclaimed in the institution according to the interviewees.

5.8 STRATEGIC PLANNING

Overall, it seems that the planning is not a strong point of the college. The interviews revealed that there was no strategic planning of internationalization in the departments and planning of the leadership did not meet the strategic planning characteristics as far as internationalization was concerned. The published visions of the departments revealed that they were first of all personal visions of the heads of the departments rather than common visions of the department. The decision making in internationalization was by everybody described as “ad hoc” rather than a systematically planned effort.

5.8.1 Institutional level

The interviews showed that internationalization is not conceptualized and planned adequately at the college leadership level who have “strategic planning” in their list of responsibilities.

The international office staff described their strategic planning as “*ad hoc decisions*” and “*reactionary*”. In their interviews they constantly leaned back on the idea that their function is administrative rather than conceptualize, evaluate and plan the college’s strategies. In contradiction to that, the dean thought “*everything international should be handled by the office of international relations*”. The influence from the rector’s office in this direction is not explicit.

Unlike to some other Czech higher education institutions, there is no document that would set out priorities of internationalization for the upcoming years either at the university level (the nonexistence confirms an e-mail of the director of the rector’s international relations office), neither at the college level. Several brief priorities can be found in the the dean’s general vision prepared for his/her election in 2006 and in Annual Report (2006) which also very briefly summarizes what was the aim of internationalization for that year, namely “*more active participation of students and faculty in mobility*”.

The non-existence of more thorough institutional strategic papers dealing (just with or in more details) with internationalization causes the leadership, let alone the departments, to have different ideas about the priorities of internationalization.

A) Dean's vision 2006/07 includes: the transformation of East and Central European Studies, development of internal criteria for rewarding teaching in foreign language, development of international cooperation in undergraduate, graduate and especially postgraduate level (especially with American universities), start the Central European Initiative program, preparing publication about the institution for international students and scholars. The dean's list was prepared with thence vice-dean for international relations in 2006

Additional questionnaire of Dean's priorities was completed after our interview. [It is based on Henson's Priorities of for international Activities by Upper Administration (Deans, and higher positions) source: Henson et al. 1990.]

International activities	High priority	Medium priority	Low priority
Students' study abroad possibilities	X		
International research and membership in international reseach associations	X		
Lifelong learning of faculty in international communication, foreign language, language assistance in writing international grant proposals		X	
Research on issues on interdependency of the world and third world issues		X	
Inclusion of international topics and materials in the classes	X		
Development of cognitive skills: comparative, critical thinking and intercultural communication skills		X	
Inclusion of international students in the classes			X
General credit requirements from foreign languages and global/international issues		X	
Support of international climate of institution	X		
Scholarships for talented international students			
Improving international office service to international students and scholars		X	
Cooperation with other institutions, NGOs on international topics		X	
Fundraising for international activities	X		

B) The vice-dean's priorities are: A) to improve the position of Program for international students, b) more possibilities of students mobility, c) more funding for internationalization from the international relations office, d) more international scholar on long-term employment, d) Ph.D. international research. (Questionnaire was not completed)

C) The director of the international relations office declared aim is to support of Ph.D. international research, to enable all students to study abroad.

Additional questionnaire of priorities was completed after our interview. [It is based on Henson's Priorities of for international Activities by Upper Administration (Deans, and higher positions) source: Henson et al. 1990.)

International activities	High priority	Medium priority	Low priority
Students' study abroad possibilities	X		
International research and membership in international research associations	X		
Lifelong learning of faculty in international communication, foreign language, language assistance in writing international grant proposals	X		
Research on issues on interdependency of the world and third world issues	undecided		
Inclusion of international topics and materials in the classes	undecided		
Development of cognitive skills: comparative, critical thinking and intercultural communication skills	undecided		
Inclusion of international students in the classes (inclusion of international scholars)		X	X
General credit requirements from foreign languages and global/international issues		X	
Support of international climate of institution			X
Scholarships for talented international students	Undecided		
Improving international office service to international students and scholars	X		
Cooperation with other institutions, NGOs on international topics	undecided		
Fundraising for international activities	X		

It must be also noted that the institutional leadership in internationalization perceives quite differently the importance of internationalizing higher education institutions as such. The dean thinks that internationalization is a priority for higher education. Interestingly enough those who should be the strongest advocated for internationalization - the vice-dean and the head of the int. relations office, think that there are other priorities for higher education. *"No, the quality is priority. The tradition and pride should not be thrown away"*.

To sum up, the institutional leadership – directly responsible and competent for internationalization - does not place the same priority on necessity of internationalizing higher education in general and does not have common agreement on particular institutional aims. If their lists of aims were put together they would make a more comprehensive picture of internationalization process of the institution. Still, the summary of all these aims does not include internationalization curriculum (this is prioritized on departmental level). Also, components such as the involvement of faculty, culture of institution, outreach and service to society, improvement of international relations office service, improvement of leadership (institutional, departmental) role in overall internationalization are not explicitly expressed in connection to internationalization.

The overall institutional unity and inadequate planning seems to be a weak point that hinders more dynamic development of internationalization in the departments.

My conclusion confirms an interviewee who was ERASMUS coordinator:

“...in the meetings of ERASMUS coordinators (with the international office and vice-dean), we different people have brought comments, wishes, and I know that these issues were repeatedly brought up already many times. And the answer was something like this: we know about that, that was already talked about and it is clear that the issues were not brought into life. It is not possible to make it more dynamic”

5.8.2 Departmental level planning

As far as the mid-level leadership, neither the interviews nor documents of departmental conceptions confirmed that the head of the departments use strategic planning method or anything similar in the context of internationalization (e.g. to make an analysis of current conditions and social context, draw mission, set up goal, set up strategies, and set evaluation techniques.)

As far as the process of strategic planning is concerned, the interviews revealed that internationalization is not explicitly planned. The term “strategic planning” was for most confusing and most unfamiliar. Most interviewees said that they make just “ad hoc decisions”, “react on the offer” and alike. The process of planning in general was very vaguely described as “discussions”. It happens mostly via the heads of the department, among the senior professors, or “over the coffee machine” in case of very small departmental teams.

One junior faculty member said: *“I have few possibilities to change the the strategy, that it also because I have not endured to do so. I must admit that if I had been arduous, but even in such case I think the functioning of these structures if inertial and frigid...”*

The following table will summarize the major general findings evidenced in the departmental visioning process both in documentation and in the interviews. (Based on Ellingboe 1999 framework for strategic planning)

Mission, aims, objectives	Not always explicitly expressed some In most cases
Review of current Strength and weaknesses	Explicitly only in few
Determining priorities	Yes
Drawing up action plans	Most stated strategies for the future
Evaluation of the plan and the process	None

The review shows that the strategic planning process is very incomplete. This may have implication on bringing out the vision and thus the transformation process. The insufficient strategic planning process has negative impact on internationalization: starting with poor vision and ending with inability to enforce changes in practice.

The following section is based on the review of vision of 41 departments (whose visions were found on the web pages).The departmental visions very weakly assessed the current internal departmental situation. No SWOT analysis was performed in any department. The document analysis revealed that most visions were drawn on the personal opinion of the department head.

The visions reveal that they are based may times solely on the opinion of the individual head of the department and his/her opinions. Most visions reveal this in the very personal way they are written, such as *“according to my opinion”*, *“the conception that has been followed under my being head”*, *“similarly to you, dean, I deem that”*. There was also one curriculum vitae of the candidate on the head enclosed in the vision. The candidate was successful in getting the job of the head of the department, but never cut out his CV from the text of the conception. Perception of the status quo *“according to my opinion, (the former conception) proved to be fine...”*. The fact that most visions of department are written in so called “ich form” is very interesting since scholarly works have used to be written until recently in the “we” or “they” form and most head of the departments/ reflecting their age, used to use the plural in their regular writing.

Taking into consideration the fact that most vision were envisioned only by the heads of the department and that the institutional vision is based on the dean and vise-dean cooperation, the leadership style of the institution seems to be more hierarchical and not participatory, at least as far as the internationalization process is concerned. According to the

findings of intercultural psychologists, this may correlate with low personal engagement (Světlik, 2003 in Průcha, 2004, p. 83) and interpersonal distrust (Schroll, Nový, 2005, p. 180).

Even though, the senate has the competence to confirm or veto the election of the dean and vice-dean, they do not seem to exercise direct power over the internationalization priorities in practice. The involvement of domestic students in decision making over internationalization was not evidenced. The involvement of international scholars in decision making was found only in one department, but their impact on strategic planning was explicitly confirmed. No direct involvement of international scholars and students was witnessed at the institutional level leadership (dean, international relations office), even though the dean acknowledge the need for their involvement for organizational change.

Most visions revealed that they react to some outside changes. This means the school is rather forced to changes from outside than the initiator of the change ahead the society.

Apart from reacting to the ad-hoc offers of international cooperation, the most noticeable change was invoked by the Bologna Process, to be specific: the three level structured curricula (Bc., Mgr. Ph.D.). Some visions seem to be so overwhelmed with the structural process that place it in the first place of the importance of their visions. For example: The main aim of the B Department in the next three years is: a) to *continue in teaching undergraduate studies, to do evaluation and incase of need to make partial content of organizational changes...*; b) to *begin discussion over the future forms of undergraduate studies (just professional, broader academic, or in combination with other institutions)*; c) to *open graduate (mgr.) studies in 2007/08 in all three forms*; d) to *gradually finish the 5-year long studies*.

There has not been evidence of positive feedback on the structural change process connected with the Bologna, only negative comments such as "*it brings down the quality*," some departments have not commented either way. Therefore it is clear that planning the restructuring can be defined as rather negative-driven visions as described by Senge (1980). The visioning process – or rather the fact that departments had to publish their visions for the first in 2006 is connected to the election of the thence new dean. As one faculty revealed writing the vision was perceived as "*necessary evil*" that was done "*because of the dean*", or "*it was pushed from the rector's office*". It can be assumed that if the threat (in the person of the dean or from the government in connection to Bologna) ended, some departments may not work on the developing or reflecting the structural change further for their good and good of their future students. This is a sign of a very short-sighted and negative driven vision which has particular consequences on the motivation and engagement of the faculty teams.

Some departments have already done this structural transformation and focus on other transformations again invoked from outside. Especially the linguistic departments (the so called “philologies”) have revealed efforts of curricular transformation in reaction to the “needs of society”, “the changing profile of the graduate” or “the fall of socialist block”. None of the visions tries to predict what the future for the discipline and its graduates will be. The visions thus react only to the past of present situation.

The most visible change takes place in the philological/area studies departments: from language and literature studies to more being area studies, though the changes stay rather on the level of a declared vision than in the practiced curriculum.

As one former head of the department in an interview published on internet called them “*the language schools and geography study*”. The pressure on the change comes from the society and students themselves who want to find jobs in other than academic research institutions doing research on linguistics or literature. The change is occurring very slowly though. The visions may declare that:

“...the graduates of the C languages will find employment in many areas, especially in cultural and political life, where he can use his knowledge – in case of C (language) many times very original one and more demanded – in publishing houses, diplomacy, in various cultural institutions, but also in specialized research work. ... The profile of the graduate is in the general knowledge of regional specifics, i.e. solid knowledge of political, economic and cultural history of C and other C countries, orientation in present cultural happening and Czech-x relations.”

In contradiction to what the vision declares about the graduate profile this department offers 28 required courses and only 2 are on “realia” (i.e. culture other than literature, history, society...). The rest of the courses are language courses, literature, linguistics, grammar. There is no course on intercultural language differences and no comparisons of cultures, literature or what so ever with other cultures. This is actually conformed in the further text of the conception „*the current C studies are oriented at the professional philological competence in language, literature and similar subjects. Growing interest in the C have caused that the conception will have to adjust to current modern trends.*”

Very similarly, the idea of transformation is visible in other philological departments (though not in all). For example vision of D department declares to aim to “*leave the old German model in direction to cultural contexts of the languages.*” The department, which has discussed the departmental conception in media, confirms the “*change from linguistics and literature to area studies*” as a reaction to the fall of Soviet union and Yugoslavia in order to analyze the current social issues: “*The graduate is supposed to find employment in*

governmental bodies (like diplomacy, international business and cultural institutions), commercial sphere (like analysts of domestic and international entrepreneurs, tourism), and tertiary sphere (like humanitarian organization and NOGs).” Again their current compulsory syllabus (summer semester 2007/08) includes: 2x grammar, 1 history of literature course, and 1 course on history of the region.

The former head of this D department in a discussion in the media reveals that the cultural horizon of the language and literature is also formed from technical pictures such as photographs films, cultural objects, other ways of cultural memory, and from performative and sound art. All this is unthinkable without the knowledge of theoretical and philosophical conceptions, which linked to the today’s culture “*beginning with language and ending with technologies.*” This can be summarized as an effort to teach students think critically about the region more than just to know the language. There are also philologies that already have strong cultural dimension. For example department E has 5 language courses and 5 that cover literature, history, ways of thinking, and social issues.

As far as reflection of the culture in the vision is concerned, there was one departmental vision that openly declared it wants to keep the (perhaps European) tradition and does not want to become “Americanized”. In the respect of explicit cultural comparisons of the disciplines (meaning how the disciplines is developed elsewhere), there were only two other visions who have made an international comparison with other disciplinary frameworks. There was one intercultural framework (Buddhism) of reference applied on the perception of the discipline. No other explicit intercultural comparison of disciplines was evidenced in the num of 41 texts of the visions in order to find the directions of the departments could be found.

Lastly, the declared goals are connected to very vague declared strategies. For example, the question of money deficit has been voiced many times. On the other hand, very few conceptions actually suggested what to do about the money shortage. Only several departments put explicit priority of the department into getting grants to solve the overtly criticized economic situation (especially wages and office space), others did not propose solutions. Unfortunately, there were no innovative ideas about grant resources mentioned. Predominantly the proposed sources of future grants were Czech Science Foundation (GACR) and college’s specific research grants, only few departments mentioned EU research grant possibilities and two referred UNESCO.

5.9 Other possible factors promoting internationalization of the institution: Evaluation, HR Policies, incentives

Evaluation only weakly influences the internationalization process. According to interviews no department or international relations office had any set mechanisms of auto-evaluation criteria for international activities except for numbers of outgoing students. None of the vision stated that it has been based on any kind of evaluation or any set criteria. Nevertheless, there is some evaluation of the internationalization going on. The dean has evaluated his vision of 2006 including his aims for internationalization. The vice-dean reports to the annual yearbook and some departments were required to send the dean annual reports. (These were not accessible to me.)

The dean seems to evaluate the internationalization process more conceptually (reflecting each aim of his vision) than the section of the Annual Report written by the vice-dean who concentrates on quantitative indicators (incoming, outgoing students and faculty) and new inter-institutional agreements. The report does not reflect what the priorities of the international office were and how they were fulfilled, so that the listing of all the activities looks as rather ad hoc achievements than strategically planned effort.

The interviews revealed individual faculty members do not reflect their internationalization effort unless they are forced to do so by filling in forms for career advancement, like getting the docentship. Only one faculty did evaluate his/her efforts per se.

Career advancement forms include first of all international bibliography, study abroad and research stays abroad, international awards, internationally recognized patents/artifacts, membership in international journals abroad). Reviewing the lists of published books and articles on the departmental web pages, it seems that the Ph.D.'s and docentships are not given only to those who publish in international journals and thus the criteria of international publishing for the career advancement may not be perceived as priority.

Also individual departments are expected to give accounts of international bibliography and numbers of incoming/outgoing students and scholars in connection to the introduction of new methodology of funding. Still, there is no evidence in the Annual Report (2007) that the international character of bibliography is put into records. Also according to the interviews, it is not necessary to evaluate international activities of departments.

This finding does not seem to correspond to the intentions of the recent Long-Term Policy Papers of the ministry (see in the section on European and Czech Strategic Papers). At this moment neither the dean, or the vice-dean or the head of international office, nor most faculty is familiar with how the Ministry of Education formulates the priority in internationalization in its policy long term papers. The vice-dean and the director of the

international office do not know that such strategic policy paper from the government prioritizing internationalization even exists. The overshadowing of international activities in evaluation (both of the institution and individuals) may change if the new governmental evaluation methodology and financing mechanisms comes into existence and international activities will then become required explicit criteria of external evaluation.

At this moment, there were no signs that individual faculty's international activities were reflected in individual earnings of the faculty (except for one-shot premium for administration work provided by the international office only to some departmental ERASMUS coordinators last year). The only evidenced feedback from the middle-level leadership was from engaged heads of departments who praised the faculty for that. There was no sign that this praise would have any other impact on their career advancement than personal moral value.

According to the dean, none of the following faculty activities is reflected in their wages: administration work connected to the student mobility in the departments, interpretations, nor translations of materials, counseling to international students, networking with international scholars, meeting with international scholars, reevaluation of the curriculum, publishing in international journals, membership in international association, prestigious research scholarships.

There is no evidence indicating that departments which are more active in internationalization get more money from the institutional budget. There is no central extra budget to fund other activity (than mobility) in internationalization of departments, curriculum and culture. None of faculty experienced an explicit positive feedback from the dean for their internal activities. Only last year the international office awarded the most active ERASMUS coordinators with financial award (cca 4000,-) for their coordinating work. Other faculty's engagement is not financially awarded (see the section *On Faculty*)

Moreover, the fact that the current HR policies have no laid down award system for internationalization relates to other policies for recruiting new personnel - there seems to be no institutionally declared preference to employ scholars from diverse backgrounds (graduates from different universities, cultural backgrounds, other institutional backgrounds) to enrich the diversity of the faculty teams. On contrary to seeking diversity enrichment, some visions revealed that the department "*educate their own scholarly juveniles*" [trans. vědecký dorost] to work in the future in these departments. Even though most departments want to attract acclaimed scholars from abroad, the search may be less prestigious, but still enriching domestic diversity, is very low. This confirms the following quotation: "*oh no, we employ our kids whom we have raised*".

The explanation for that might be cultural characteristic: namely a high index of uncertainty avoidance and thus fear of diversity in general, it might be the historical isolation during 40 years of communism, or it might simple ignorance of the research on benefits of diversity – produced unfortunately only abroad or just parochial views of leadership. There might be other causes too.

The prospective governmental financing methodology (above) seems to serve rather as a threat to faculty and to the whole school. The prospective funding framework is not positively motivating and engagement of faculty still may remain uneven (until ultimately being fired).

Overall, the feedback on activities in the internationalization process seems to be very weak both from heads of departments as well as from the dean. Current evaluation process does not reflect internationalization effort on no level, prospective governmental methodology that includes evaluation of internationalization does not serve as a positive motivator.

The financial component rewarding international activities seems to be minimal and highly inadequate. Other positive incentives are limited to individual appraisals. This may cause that the faculty are unevenly engaged in internationalization (see more on Faculty below). The lack of incentives – being one of the systemic guidelines for institutional change may have considerable impact on internationalization as the institutional change.

The overall HR policies do not reflect efforts of internationalization nor do they affirm of any kind of diversity in the process of recruiting new personnel. This finding of ethnocentrism does not correspond with core principle of the concept of Internationalization at Home (i.e. maximize and make maximum use of cultural diversity). It conforms to the findings of intercultural psychologists, namely that the index of uncertainty avoidance and felt distrust is very high in the Czech society. The acknowledgement of benefits of diversity might require a mind shift of the individuals.

5.10 Curriculum

In the following section, I will firstly make a concise characterization of the whole curriculum based on Sheng's (2008) general characterization of the curriculum, then use the OECD Typology in describing the internationalization of programs and disciplines (which will be mostly based on documentation analysis), and finally check the level of internationalization of disciplines according to the Paige, Mestenhauser's Guidelines (2002).

The curriculum section goes into more details, for it combines all three sources of data in order not to end up in clichés, such as “we teach students to think critically”, “we promote

intercultural understanding and tolerance”. Omitting such misleading generalizations was the major challenge found out in the pre-testing interviews.

5.10.1 Overall description

Overall, the curriculum seems to internationalized unevenly. There are differences in internationalization among philological as well as among non-philological departments. There is some traditional interdisciplinary cooperation – mainly in the form: of courses taught by and for other departments. So there is some interdepartmental enrichment of students. On the other hand there is very low knowledge and engagement in new courses on international topics that could be used by all or some departments (e.g. intercultural communication, global studies, and Roma studies stay limited to their original departments). There is no general requirement with international dimension (except for philosophy) at the moment. However, the school has a tremendous potential in the area studies and in new disciplines to foster the international dimension/perspective in interdisciplinary cooperation.

There is some interdisciplinary cooperation in teaching and research, which in practice usually means the subdivision of the research topic into subtopics which are then elaborated by individual departments and by the main researcher put together. According to the Klein’s acclaimed typology (1996 in literature review), the cooperation would be described as multidisciplinary for it is mostly a simple juxtaposition and not sharing with production of new knowledge. Still more new ventures with multidisciplinary topics and intercultural comparisons in research projects are appearing in Ph.D. theses and recent research projects of the faculty.

The most influential on the level of internationalization of the curriculum seem to be the middle leadership - the heads of the departments. There is little formal space for sharing with international scholars. The dean’s scope of internationalization of the curriculum concerns only students’ foreign language proficiency, special program for international students and more courses in foreign languages. The office of international relations stays out of evaluation and efforts dealing with internationalization of the content of the curriculum, leaving that responsibility to the departments. They seem to be content with their role and with the level of internationalization of the departments.

5.10.2 The Typology of Internationalized Curricula

I decided to use the OECD typology for the main body of the text of this long section for it is well structured and it is easy to follow. The curriculum section will also comment on other components of the institutional internationalization such as faculty, research, leadership, since from my perspective on curriculum is very broad (see Introductory chapter) and I make use of the system-wide perspective I cannot separate the curriculum from not commenting on the other components. I will also develop some parts in further detail of analysis than just the degree level of the OECD typology requires, which will allow me to immerse some of the Mestenhauser and Paige's guidelines directly into the text. Mestenhauser and Paige's framework will be then again shortly commented at the end of the section.

The OECD typology involves 9 kinds of institutional curriculum:

1. Curricula with an international subject, or area or languages studies

Courses include international studies and subjects as major or sub-major

Courses require students to complete a subject in one of the following areas: Cross-cultural communication, international studies, or foreign language;

Credit is given for foreign-languages proficiency;

Students are required to take a foreign language or an international-studies subject or a cross-cultural communication subject as a "broadening undergraduate experience" subject;

International students are given credit for English (i.e. Czech) language training undertaken during the course of studies

The analysis of 41 researched departments shows that the institution has very wide knowledge of world regions and cultures. From those, there are 12 departments that specialize in world regions or languages – called philologies. From that, there is one sub-major in interdisciplinary studies. From the non-philological there are three departments that specialize in comparisons, issues of culture or ethnicity.

The whole college places enormous stress on the foreign language course requirements. All students are required to take a foreign language course (other than their major philology) in the undergraduate and also in graduate studies and postgraduate studies. The level of required proficiency and length of the course varies from requiring one semester long "basics" of foreign language to "intermediate level" of a year-long course. A couple of non-linguistics departments require taking three foreign languages before graduation. These are usually specialized historical subject areas that have to study international sources of the era. This gives an impression that the stress on the knowledge of foreign languages seems to be very strong.

It would be misleading, however, to think that all students are able to use actively the language in their field in two or three foreign languages. The knowledge of the foreign

language in the particular discipline – i.e. not conversational language over weather and family members - seems to be developed inadequately. This is mainly because there are not enough disciplinary courses in foreign languages in the domestic departments (with few exceptions); and because the courses provided by the central Language Centre are too general to prepare graduates for international research and teaching.

The Language Centre that takes care of all the required foreign language courses provides mostly teaching of “general speaking competences” and courses in general “academic skills”.

There are three specialized English language courses (History seminar, Social Work and Related Issues, English for Humanities). All three do not specifically determine what kind of issues will be dealt with in the courses and state “*the choice of reading materials is on the consensus of the group of students*”. Which is really forthcoming, but it means that students who even take one of these “specialized” courses may never read, spoke, wrote about issues related to the major or interest. One interesting point is that all these specialized courses are led by Czech faculty. That means that the students will not gain the intercultural perspective on the History, Social Work or Humanities.

In French courses one can take also one course on communication on “Specific topics.” No further details on these topics were provided. Courses in Latin and German are fit for three majors. Other languages: French, Italian, German, Russian stay on the level of general language competence. Some of the courses are primarily from Czech written textbooks. (Only English and French is taught from textbooks originating in the target regions. All general German courses use one textbook written by a Czech author (2nd edition of a book from 1992), which seems very unsatisfactory from a perspective of foreign language instruction specialist.

Overall, there seems to stress on foreign language proficiency in the curriculum requirements. However, the level of ability of students to operate scholarly within their discipline is probably lower than their ability to talk about e.g. weather. This is because the institutional foreign language course offer is too general language proficiency focused and the fact that only 5 out of 22 non-philological departments offer course(s) in foreign language, leads to the conclusion the command in more scholarly and discipline focused writing-reading/speaking skills is not properly developed.

The great amount of international materials required for completion of courses (declared in web pages of some departments) does not correspond with the college’s preparation of students in foreign languages and thus may lead to large differences among

individual student comprehension of the foreign scholarship (according to students experience with study abroad).

As far as 1-d characteristics, there is no institutional or departmental requirements to in “cross-cultural communication”, or “broadening undergraduate experience in international dimension” except for the mentioned departments with explicitly comparative disciplines or disciplines that are culture-bound *per se*.

The interviews revealed that the profile of the requirements of a graduate is undergoing changes, which are usually fall within the widening the foreign language requirements. The answers to my question whether there are new requirements on knowledge and skills connected to the world interdependence, global problems, intercultural comparisons etc. –varied quite strongly and conclusion of a direct impact can be drawn. Some departments wanted their students to know what is happening around the world, how political issues (e.g. of post colonialism, third world, Indian submission, totalitarianism) connect to their topic. Some just wanted “*them to have skills for working with the texts*”.

Departments tremendously differ in the classes they offered to their students. One offers postcolonial theories, African, British, French and other perspectives, provides courses in English. Another department has just 3 subjects (out of 66) that connect the target region with the rest of the world.

According to the interview, the in the later example, the department does not have personnel (in Czech: “kádry”). The fact that the institution lacks faculty who are able to include the international dimension in their curriculum should be seriously considered in the HR policies (especially in recruiting new staff).

As far as intercultural communication is concerned, the term “intercultural communication” caused puzzlement by all interviewees (including the vice/dean for international relations). After my explanation, most answers expressed stongly that their students do not need that kind of training because “*they do not have any problems when they abroad.*” Some admitted that they should develop these skills with student, but “*have not figured out how*”. None of those interviewed knew that one department at the college offers intercultural communication training. That leads to the conclusion that the existing intercultural communication training at a college with 12 philological departments remains limited to the students of the particular department and international students who have that course offered in English.

Overall, the typology shows that even though one third of departments focuses on philological/area studies, there is no requirement of intercultural communication training and some kind “broadening horizons course” (other than scope of particular rarea studies) at any

level of the curriculum. The school places a great importance on the foreign language proficiency. The fact that very few courses (about 1%) are taught actually in a foreign language in non-philological departments and the inadequate preparation of students in college's Language Centre may have a negative impact on the discipline-focused comprehension of foreign language command, even moreso when no international literature recourses are required in some departments (see below).

That leads to the conclusion that students are not adequately prepared to get the most from their (ERASMUS) studies abroad or international research and teaching usually practiced at the Ph.D. level.

2. Curricula in which the traditional or original subject area is broadened by international-cultural or intercultural approaches

Includes reference to contemporary international content

Does not promote monolithic description of culture

Addresses critical global issues

Social justice, equity, human rights, and related social and economic issues

Ethical issues in globalization

International case studies

Accounts of historical background to current international practices

Investigation of professional practices in other cultural

Exploration of how the knowledge is constructed differently form culture to culture in subject areas.

It was already mentioned that the reference to contemporary international happening has shown to be weak. The social justice/human rights/globalization issues are explicit issues of courses in less than half of the departments. Some philological/area studies departments do not include any of these courses at all.

One of the more frequently dealt topic are issues of totalitarian governments. These may be tackled in the area studies departments and in the way they influence the region (though not the discipline). Social justice issue is actually very rare and it appears interestingly enough courses on drama, in non-philological department and also in the only department dealing with ethnic minority issues. There used to be one elective course offered for the entire college from Centre on F Studies which otherwise focuses only on research.

Still, one can hear and see some transformation described best as "opening up" going on. For example G department has been newly offering in the last two years the elective course on intercultural communication (mentioned above). Another H department – which offers only one course on intercultural comparison in required courses, there are 50% of Ph.D. theses focusing on intercultural comparisons. The shift to more openness is gradual and can be well perceived in the transforming conceptualization of the disciplines – in the vision published on the departmental web pages and concerns the needs of graduates (e.g work for UNESCO, NGOs, diplomacy, or even international business. (the way these visions are reflected in practice is above).

Another major finding is that the number of courses offered in foreign languages varies from 9 to 0 (concretely from 9 courses in English out of 80, or 5 courses in English out of 37 to 0). From 22 departments (no area studies, no philologies) only 8 offer 1 or more courses in English. One department also offers a course in French.

Combining the sources of evidence, it seems that mostly the departments with strong course offering in foreign languages or at least strong covering of international topics and wide spectrum of publications in foreign languages (below) usually ask their students to read lots of international materials.

It must be noted that some departments may have very few required international literature sources, other departments may rely on international literature sources. Both of these compared departments fall within human sciences and the names of disciplines themselves do not determine which should be more international than the other. It seems it would be easy to make the mistake switch the names so that the evidence of the international dimension could be the other way round it in other institution. The review revealed that most faculty who do not publish in international journals or monographs in foreign languages do not seem to force their students to study foreign written literature for their exams. The key to the international course offering seems to be in the driving force of the leader and engagement of the faculty.

Moreover, some courses on international topics/areas do not rely on international materials at all. For example a course on multicultural issues, does not include any international literature in its syllabus. Or the reading list on migration to x countries relies only on Czech written materials.

The fact that such international/multicultural issues are tackled only from the perspective of Czech writing authors (or perhaps one or two translated books) brings down the quality of other courses offered by the department and the institution overall.

There are great differences in course materials also among the philological departments (For details see Table in Appendix II). First of all the difference is whether the courses are taught in the language of the target region or not. Some philologies offer only language and grammar courses in the target language but in courses on literature and history of the region they speak Czech. Most philological departments still keep the emphasis on language.

As far as philological departments and international materials they require, the situation varies greatly (For numbers see Appendix II). A course on distant religion may not have any international compulsory literature sources, a course on another distant culture may

have all source international (English, German, Polish). This variety can be explained only in the person of faculty who teaches the course and decides on the materials.

The offer of courses in foreign language is primarily determined by the language proficiency and motivation of the faculty and students in philological departments. Incoming students to Ethiopian studies will have different command of the target language than students who have graduated from high school with English. On the other hand, the willingness to teach the literature courses or what is usually called the “realia” (the historical and cultural background) in the target language very much depends on the individual faculty’s motivation and his/her knowledge of the languages. The interviews revealed the faculty in both philological and non philological departments considers teaching in foreign language as very demanding and more difficult than teaching in Czech. The low foreign language communication skills are deemed to be the greatest barrier to internationalization from the part of faculty according to the interviews, but the situation may be changing.

The interview revealed that faculty in K philological departments, where the language proficiency of students is on average intermediate (usually European languages), have recently started teaching some of their literature courses in the target language and that happened because of the ERASMUS students who visit the department. Lot of the ERASMUS students from the philological departments are from the target regions (as most agreements of philologies prefer to developed partnerships in the target regions) and if the department offers only language and grammar course in the target language, the ERASMUS students can study only grammar and perhaps phonetics of their mother tongue (which they did already at grammar school). They cannot study the literature, culture and compare the way the discipline is defined here and enrich the perspectives of domestic students and faculty.

It seems that the international students have brought some pressure on the departments and possibly on the quality of the faculty’s teaching. First of all, they definitely put more pressure on the language proficiency of the faculty.

That fact proves the following testimony: *“I perceive speaking in foreign languages as a disadvantage because course that I have in Czech are more spontaneous. So I like the course in Czech better, so I have rather the lectures in the L language and workshops partly in Czech and in L. These switch weekly.”* Secondly, it makes the faculty think of the existence of more possible perspectives on subject matter. According to the head of philological department the presence of ERAMSUS students *“makes us change the perspective, address both sides and in the course papers students are to reflect their culture and explain cultural specifics.”*

Thirdly, it demands that they integrate these perspectives of international scholars in their courses and think of possible difference in learning styles. The interviewed head of the department described the change flowingly:

"...program ERASMUS changes the perception of course one hand because the course have to be taught in a foreign language..., in these courses there might be a third, half on half, foreign students. That means that the teacher includes the presence of foreign student, which shifts the perception, the teacher addresses the concepts of the students, changes the perspectives of addressing some issues to them and then to the others; and sometimes (that is for workshops) he/she may asks them to confront their experiences. For some K students some of the information is absolutely useless and on the other hand everybody who teaches K literature teaches it in confrontation with the Czech tradition , which must be explained to the foreigners. This is my experience; it is interesting in the courses."

The presence of ERASMUS students may have direct influence on the overall quality of teaching: the enrichment of content, the use of more teaching styles and the improvement of competence in foreign/target language.

This account reveals the changes that are occurring due to the presence of foreign students and also that some faculty perceived the importance of foreign students (which will be dealt later). Unfortunately, there are quite a few departments who do not encourage teaching in foreign or target languages – this has grave consequences on the presence of international (mostly ERASMUS) students and education they get in here. Students in departments who do not offer courses in foreign/target language courses have to then use only individual faculty consultations (for more on international students, see below). The relationship between the number of offered courses in foreign language by not philological departments and the number of international students is visible from the following table:

As far as international case studies are concerned, most interviewees declared that they use international case studies. The explicit reflection of the discipline in historical and social perspective was less evident. For example there was only one interviewee who said that his/her disciplines reflect the impact of communism. In some disciplines the culture was declared as the key to the framework of the discipline. The interviewees also commented on how the disciplines are changing. The disciplines are becoming more interdisciplinary and reflect more the social context in their focus (which confirms the curriculum transformation to area studies). According to the interviewees it was easy to study non-traditional/minority topics, though some admitted that the offer of courses is still quite *"rigid"*.

The interviewees had a solid knowledge of how the disciplines are conceived in different cultures/nations. They mostly compared the Czech version of the discipline to other European countries, U.S. There appeared also comparison to Asia, Latin America and Russia. The intercultural comparison of disciplines is not explicitly taught though, it is rather a knowledge that the faculty have gained and the more international cooperation and study abroad he/she has, the more intercultural comparisons he/she is able to provide. The interviewees did not explicitly comment on the different construction of knowledge, though some of them use different methodologies and try to do research from the emic perspective. In most cases, however, the “emic” perspective was puzzling and misunderstood.

3. Curricula that prepare graduates for defined international professions

Professional practices in the international environment determine course content and delivery;

Course description and objective specify the international professions for which they prepare students

This point seems to be very weakly fulfilled. The departments, especially the philological/area studies ones do proclaim in their vision mostly that they want to produce graduates who will be able to work in cultural organizations, diplomacy or even business. Some mention NGOs, and one names UNESCO. The international professions are specified, the interviewees declared a transformation, but the current offer of course still prepares the graduates for such jobs unsatisfactory.

The desire of the departments to see their prospective alumni in such international organizations may seem to be in contradiction to the new vice-dean for international relation who holds the opinion that the college is “academic” and in order to keep academic character, the institution should not send students to international organizations but only of study exchanges. The explanation for that may be only in the unfamiliarity of the new vice dean with the desires and needs of individual departments.

There is a visible shift from language and literature focus to broader area studies which include more courses on culture. The reason for why the philological/area studies outgoing graduates continue to be prepared to discuss the literature or lexical rarities rather than know the behavioral traits of the communication style or the political relations of the region to the Czech Republic may be in the long tradition of the particular liberal arts college. This does not mean that the college needs to necessarily transform according to the pragmatic dictation of the society or market (though society’ needs should be seriously considered in the visions in my opinion). Still it is hardly imaginable that one can do deep literature analysis without understanding the culture of the region and other socio-economic characteristics. The

emic perspective when analyzing the literature in most departments thus becomes unreachable at least for those students who did not spend some time in the target region.

Overall, there is a visible shift in the direction of preparing graduates to be able to work in international area, especially in/with target regions of area studies. However, international dimension would not be confined only to area studies as prospective graduates working in business, culture, government, diplomacy will need international education. Moreover, the newest theory suggest that most jobs in the future will need will require some intercultural competencies, which are now required only from workers dealing with foreigners in person and in international corporations.

4. Curricula in foreign language or linguistics that explicitly address cross-cultural communication issues and that provide training in intercultural skills.

a) Course goal, objectives and assessment explicitly identify cross/cultural communication content and skills.

Intercultural communication skills are basically, limited to two fields of study: translatology and psychology. Translatology involves the M, N, O, P departments. None of their courses explicitly address the intercultural differences in communication styles, which does not mean that the students do not pick that up during their studies. Other languages taught at the college do not have any such courses. Newertheless, there is a recently opened course on intercultural communication skills offered both to domestic and international students. Its syllabus draws on the newest international theory of intercultural communication and the fact that it is also open to international students looks very promising.

5. Interdisciplinary programs, such as region and area studies, covering more than one country.

Course requirements include detailed and extensive international case studies from more than one country and/or real or simulates instance of corss-cultural negotiation and communication.

Assessment test the application of international standards and practices within the profession in different cultural settings.

Most philological/area studies departments do cover more than one country. Still, they are mostly geographically close, or share the same history of colonization or origin before emigration. Trans-area studies (U.S.-Italian, Russian-German) comparisons and cooperation were not found. (5.1. was not found relevant.)

6. Curricula leading to internationally recognized professional qualification

Course is recognized by international acredition

Successful completion of the course leads to an internationally recognized professional qualification.

The university is part of EHEA, which secures the recognition of the Bc., Mgr. and Ph.D. diplomas. The only internationally recognized curriculum seems to be at the Department of Translation., which provides specific internationally recognized professional qualification. Several departments are participating in CEEPUS, and thus their courses yield an international credit. The data about how many departments have working ECTS credits system were not provided by the international relations office

7. Curricula leading to joint or double degrees in international and language studies

At the moment there are several double-degrees being set up.

8. Curricula in which compulsory parts are offered at or by universities abroad staffed by local lecturer

a) Part of the curriculum is delivered by another institution in another country; 8-b. Part of the course is delivered and assessed by an overseas institution using distance methods

These were not evidenced.

9. Curricula in which the content is especially designed for overseas students

a) Course content and delivery specially addresses the needs of overseas students

The college has designed a special program of studies for just for international students. The programs is a *“semester-long program with instruction in English, French, German, and Spanish, designed for international students of the college including the self-financing (59 000,-crowns) or students coming with ERASMUS, university study abroad agencies, CEEPUS, governmental scholarship and other exchange agreements”*.

The offer of courses is quite wide, though not deep and definitely does not cover fields of study of all departments. As far as disciplines: it covers, arts, history, film, culture, political science, feminism of the region and Czech language for foreigners. Unexpectedly, courses such as the politics of Northern Ireland or modern Irish drama were also offered. Looking at the pell-mell curriculum, it is clear that faculty members able to teach in a foreign language are brought in from many departments. This list of courses plainly shows which departments have faculty who are able to teach in foreign language and who are not. Those departments – which primarily fit the regional and cultural aim of the studies- but do not have faculty proficient in foreign language are not included.

The lack of foreign-speaking faculty is supplied by recruiting faculty from other colleges. Teaching in the Program is better paid than any other teaching activities at the college. So those who do not try to prepare their curricula in foreign languages and teach in

the program deny themselves the opportunity of a better wage – that is in the times when the wages are perceived by all interviewees as “minimal”, “over the verge”.

One last comment to the low foreign language proficiency of faculty: the overall low ability of the faculty to speak foreign languages (found out during the interview and in the publications in foreign languages) does not correspond with the general requirements placed on students who have to get credits mostly from three foreign languages during their studies. Even though, the researcher realizes that the foreign language proficiency of the senior faculty has been highly determined by the partial isolation of the country during, the consequences of the low proficiency in foreign languages of the faculty as very strong for internationalization process and must be seriously considered by the leadership (see more below).

As far as the declared language diversity of course languages are concerned, the current offer of 48 courses of the Program includes only 3 course in German and 1 course in French. The fact that there are departments that do not offer courses in foreign languages leads to the conclusion (which was similarly voiced by the interviewees) that the Program and a couple of other linguistic departments end up as gathering of international students from other departments in order to keep the exchanges of these departments running. In practice it looks like this: international students coming to non-philological department, let us say again anthropology (which is not offered) end up studying Irish fiction or Czech folk street theater in the Program or literature offered by philological departments. This has, however, severe consequences.

International students because of the limited/no offer of courses of the departments, the incoming international students are forced to study subjects that are far from their original majors and then look as if their knowledge and performance were not as high as the domestic students from the philological departments – which may be misleading conclusion.

When asked about their experience with international students, some interviewees made an incomparable comparisons that may international students look less sophisticated than the domestic students. The vice-dean interviewed has expressed his/her opinions on international students flowingly:

“Around one third (of international students) can adjust, two thirds cannot. We have lot of frustration especially with ERASMUS, where I have to say, they need individual care. In most cases their foreign language proficiency is unsatisfactory.... They came to different departments, but they do not have enough courses there, so they come to xxx but if they are not from the North or German, their foreign language proficiency lags behind our (xxx departmental) students. And that is making things difficult.”

His/her comment reveals that lumping international students from all departments of the whole college to a couple of special courses may look international students as if they are not as sophisticated as domestic students. It is hardly imaginable that an Australian (there are no Australian international students) student majoring for example anthropology (deliberately chosen discipline that is not taught at the college) for attend classes on British women detective fiction can be compared to students majoring in the literature of the region. The comment also reveals other things.

Another conclusion can be drawn from the “bad experience with international students” (which was either explicitly or implicitly voiced in more interviews) - the institution may not really be able to attract the brightest students from abroad. The institution may rely on its traditionally high reputation in the Czech Republic for selecting the domestic students, but the same strategy does not work for students abroad. In other words, its international reputation is not as high as to attract the students the institution should wish to attract.

This is misleading – almost ethnocentric comparisons of “our” students being better than the international ones. The fact that the faculty may hold such opinions is very endangering the climate of the institution and general moral equity values of students. It hinders the staff from looking for ways to change that situation, i.e. to become the worldly attractive institution. The institution needs to find ways to attract world-class students. This can be through the highest quality offer of curriculum, through some communication strategies, through the friendliest climate and thus easy access, through particular communication strategies, etc.

Overall, the fact that most international students do not attend regular classes in the departments they major in, has one very serious consequence: international students cannot enrich the domestic students or faculty. The above mentioned segregation of international students to classes to specially designed classes or classes where their presence is just “tolerated” (because they do no major in them and lack behind the domestic students) goes against the core principles of the concept of Internationalization at Home (namely integration and enrichment) and against the core rationales of internationalization as such: enhancing intercultural understanding.

Before going on with the issues of international students let me close the curriculum section with the following review of findings from interviews put into a visual form of matrix (based on Mestenhauser and Paige’s guidelines for internationalization of disciplines (1999, p. 504-505) because it explores in more details on the role of faculty in the internationalization. The following table is interpretation of interviews with the faculty and data from questionnaires.

Internationalization of disciplines and courses based on Mestenhauser and Paige	
Incorporation (connects with existing scholarship) culturally diverse knowledge, epistemologies and frameworks	In most case through international materials, case studies. The scope is limited mostly to Europe and U.S.
Introduction of new expertise and methods by visiting international faculty and students	Most international faculty teach “language”, which limits their sharing epistemologies and culturally diverse scholarship
Social and intercultural integration of student groups with the different nationalities	Many international students are not studying their major and their integration is not supported by teamwork with domestic students
New teaching and learning practices	The presence of international students has some impact on the teaching styles by individual faculty
Acknowledge and handle knowledge gap	Was not included in interviews for being too sensitive. The knowledge gap was implicitly acknowledged by most through the thrift of international materials after 1989.
Know and reflects how culture influences the discipline and intellectual tradition	Some strongly, some do not.
Question cherished traditions with the view to power	There is some room for not traditional issues. The power of the tradition was not explicitly reflected.
Cooperates with other disciplines to create new knowledge	The cooperation with other disciplines is rather cross-disciplinary than interdisciplinary
Promote intercultural sensitivity	Not an explicitly reflected aim of teaching
Integrate international students and Scholars	Depends on individual departments, most international students attend Special program just for int. students
Teach new values, attitudes and competencies	Reflection of totalitarianism, sensitivity to feminist issues, minority issues and social and cultural inequity in some departments
Acquire new cognitive skills (critical thinking, cross-cultural comparative, creative thinking)	The declared curriculum is to develop critical thinking, less cross-cultural comparisons and creative. The practiced curriculum was not however analyzed.
Acquire intercultural competencies (openness, flexibility, personality development, reflective and intercultural communication skills)	Just implicitly through individual faculty. Such aims were not declared.
Use emic and etic research and cross-cultural comparisons	Some departments do, most interviewed faculty was puzzled with the meaning emic-etic.
Include and work with culturally different epistemologies and frameworks	More practiced by faculty than by students
Knows how global trends influence issues and discipline	Most described the change of the discipline as a global trend.

5.11 Students

5.11.1 International students

A lot was already said about the curriculum offered to international students and the consequences of them being separated from the domestic students because the international students cannot attend regular classes in most departments with the domestic students. It may

be thus assumed that international students who come to departments which do not offer any classes in foreign languages nor regular meeting activities for students actually leave the departmental without getting to know the students, without speaking to the students about their perspectives, without any enrichment of domestic students and faculty (except for the advisor or ERASMUS coordinator) whatsoever.

Such separation of international students is limiting the internationalization of the institution (especially the culture, curriculum, faculty and students enrichments). As can be seen from the literature review, unless international students are integrated into the regular classes with domestic students, they cannot be enriched by the intercultural diversity entailed from internationalization.

According to the review of research on intercultural student body, the benefits of integration of international students in classes might be: internationally broader perspective on the subject matter and old view in general, higher cognitive abilities (like critical and creative thinking), team work abilities and problem solving, improved learning outcomes through active learning, gains in interpersonal development, more positive academic and self/portraits, greater involvement in community, overall positive impact on future life of graduates. The effects of that might be also on more positive college climate, improvement of the organizational performance, positive impact on faculty, better public image and reputation and accreditation agencies perception, greater attraction for internationally acclaimed scholars and research projects. Lastly, it is also faculty who may be enriched and inspired.

The possible impact of intercultural diversity was analyzed in the interviews too. The answers revealed that most faculty members don't believe change would occur if there were more international students. They usually hesitantly said “ *I do not think that there would be any change*”. There were two answers which explicitly expressed that there would be more conflict. “ *Students could fight with each other, but it (to have international students) is necessary in the 21st. ct.* Four answers openly said that more intercultural diversity would be beneficial and enriching for students and that welcome it. Lastly, there is no requirement for international students to take either Czech classes or English classes unless they are regular students, but there is a large offer of paid Czech courses of different levels and special topics.

5.11.2 Domestic students

The findings on students' involvement in internationalization is limited for students were not involved in the interviewing, nor given questionnaire – a further research is thus needed in the future to bring more details. The numbers show that there is considerable student mobility and there is a considerable number of international students (namely 6%),

even though the numbers are quite high. The leadership and faculty expressed concern about motivation of all students to have the abroad experience. It seems, however, that the aim of the dean to have every students go abroad is not realistic at the moment unless, study abroad is made a graduate requirement. (For numbers on Student Mobility see Appendix II...)

Students assessed their experiences abroad as overall positive according to reports published at departmental web pages. The willingness students (who were abroad or are coming) to participate in the ERASMUS Club also confirms that students are engaged in internationalization. They help incoming students with orientation and counseling, are active in preparing extra-curricular activities with international students, trips, etc. It seems that students are rather willing to be involved actively in the influencing the decision making of the school, evaluation as well as internationalization.

Students' proficiency in foreign languages is quite high, though they may not have enough opportunities in the offer of the courses to practice the foreign language active usage in the particular discipline of their major (for more, see the section on curriculum above). Departments also newly focus on development of skills of finding information (including in international libraries), reading international materials Students (especially Ph.D. students) have the opportunities to do research abroad through scholarships. The leadership supports their activity in setting up joint-degrees, finding international diploma thesis advisors highly in funding (461 proposals were granted from 521) were as well as administration and welcoming attitude. Also some departments newly encourage their students to write Ph.D. theses in foreign languages.

At this moment majority of student do not develop their intercultural communication skills in courses. No anti-bias education is provided and one faculty expressed concern that students may have prejudice against the Eastern European countries.

5.12 Faculty

The faculty involvement in internationalization varies greatly. One of the important findings from my research is that the fact that faculty spent some time abroad lately greatly influences his/her engagement in internationalization of the curriculum, publishing in fostering languages and research with international partners.

The overall faculty involvement in internationalization is very uneven. Even though the numbers for 2007 are that there were 81 faculty going abroad, when the interviewees compared involvement of students to the involvement of faculty they revealed great concern (including the dean) about the involvement of faculty: *"this is not that good"*, *"other*

colleagues are not involved at all”, “*that (faculty involvement) should be better*”. The vice dean commented on the involvement of departments as being “*half-and-half*”.

There also seems to be some difference between declared interest in internationalization and real activities. I found that majority of my interviewees have not published in the last three years in international journals (for review of bibliography of the whole institution see curriculum above). Majority are not involved in international teaching activities, nor research in an international team and in international associations.

On the other hand, there are individual faculty who do maximum in what they think is important for internationalization: take care of ERASMUS mobility, interpret to host scholars, counsel students, teach in foreign languages, review their curriculum to include more perspectives, international materials, translate departmental materials to foreign languages, meet with international scholars informally. An alarming finding is that they do most of the work for free. As ERASMUS students are not counted in the per-capita funding, faculty end up teaching classes absolutely for free. This is the only way for them to attract international students to come.

Incentives in general are a big issue also for other than ERASMUS coordinators. Sometimes there are other faculty members who spend a lot of time with the ERASMUS students or even teach courses for ERASMUS students for free. This issue has to do with the fact that ERASMUS students are not included in the per capita money budgets. That means that they are not formally recognized and all consultations, teaching and other work with them is not recognized by the money decision makers. This problem goes as high as the governmental budgeting and is in ironical contradiction with the declared priority of internationalization in the Long Term Vision of the Ministry. Only one of the interviewed faculty said that his/her work is explicitly recognized by the head of the department, though it is not done in money bonuses, he/she is explicitly praised for what he/she does for international students.

The fact that faculty are not financially evaluated for the work and that their wages are “*at the minimal level*”, should be considered in the strategic planning of HR policies considerably for as my finding has revealed: after some time with no incentives and approval, the faculty may start working for other institutions where their international experience and activity will be more actively appreciated.

Another major finding is that foreign language proficiency of the faculty is perceived as the major barrier to internationalization of their curriculum and engagement in international research. At the same time, most faculty members do not participate in foreign language courses to improve their skills. Overall involvement of formal life-long education is extremely

low (none of the interviewees has experienced intercultural communication training). The engagement in personal development through life-long learning has proved to be directly proportional with his/her involvement in international activities. As one faculty expressed in the interview: “*quality is the prerequisite for internationalization,*” or internationalization being part of individual life-long learning process.

There was only one faculty from all the interviewees that was developing his/her skill in writing grant proposals and managerial skills. Another faculty member worked on his/her team skills. Overall, external motivation and institutionalized support for improving skills needed for international cooperation seem to be insufficient. Unlike to some other Czech universities the institution does not provide any courses for faculty on writing grant proposals in foreign languages, intercultural communication to improve communication within international teams, no courses on curriculum transformation, teaching skills, managerial skills for department heads, nor writing support for publishing in foreign languages.

The fact that further development of faculty is not seen as priority of the international office at all and only mild priority of the dean has an impact on the whole institution as a learning organization. A) the learning and development of faculty in the respect of internationalization is very uneven. B) the knowledge and interest in exploring the concept of internationalization systematically of the leadership of international activities also very low. According to the learning organization theory, the organization cannot develop without the self-development of stakeholders.

5.12.1 International Faculty

As far as international faculty, the majority of departments do not have a regular international faculty in their teams. The number of international faculty is much higher for departments dealing with languages, philology or area studies (from historical perspective) – these are colored in the table (See Appendix II...).

Still, one area studies department does not have an international faculty and on the other hand humanities have international faculties on their teams. Q department has 2 host scholars and 1 regular international member from the team of 7. Some philologies have more international faculty than Czech faculty. In most cases the international faculty however teaches the language and grammar, or possibly linguistics and do not specialize in specific topics such as frameworks or reference, issues concerning today’s society.

Most of the international scholars have a special position of a “lecturer”. Some of them are sent and paid by governments of the particular nations (Macedonia, Lithuania, etc.). The “lecturer position” does not actually fit within the traditional academic career system of

assistantship, docentship, and professorship. In the Language Centre, the international faculty members teach language courses which do not yield any credits to students and under list of classes; it is noted "*Courses of international lecturers ... do not end with credits (zapocet).*" Such formal lack or recognition of the job and position does not add to the integration of international faculty members with other staff.

There are also very few distinguished international scholars at the college who would teach at regular teaching positions. One of the many times heard problems for that is that it is impossible for a foreigner to rent a flat and live with a family on the regular colleges wages. This concerns especially those scholars from well-off countries. Departments focusing on less well off regions seem to be able attract more international scholars (e.g. R department has 3 Czech and 3 international faculty). On the other hand, one of the economically best well of regions, the S department has 8 international faculty from 28 and 4 visiting scholars.

The economically weak motivation (i.e. wages) from the part of the college is not the only explanation however. It seems that some departments do not attract scholars who could get their own research scholarships from Fulbright, DAAD, ERASMUS MUNDUS, etc. to come here and teach for a semester of a year or more and fund the visit themselves. This is an ordinary policy of high profile institutions to offer their workspace to scholars who want to come, do research and teach at the college and live on grants they themselves gained elsewhere. The analyzed college does have a very limited office space; still a fundraising for an extra PC from the departmental grant could save up a lot of money for the whole college.

There was T department, which a prospective Fulbright scholar contacted with the vision of spending a year of teaching and researching in the department. The scholar flew over, had a meeting, unfortunately, the head of the department did not like the idea of having an international scholar in the team. The scholar ended up in different Czech university. The fact that the scholar got the Fulbright grant speaks for his/her quality itself.

Economic and material conditions are declared to play important role in relationship to the lack of the international faculty according to the interviews. Most of the interviewed faculty revealed concerns about the office space. According to the vice dean "*if the international scholar comes and we do not have a classroom for his course, in special cases, we meet intensively over the period of six week and not the whole semester. But if one realizes how much work it takes to organize that all, then one comes to the conclusion that all the effort to find a room is so great that it is not worth it.*"

The quality of the international scholars was of a special concern for one of the interviewed heads of the department. For example if there is a high unemployment in the target regions, the departments may receive many offers of job positions. She gave an

example of international faculty who has learned Czech, works on translations and comparisons of his/her original culture and Czech. The department chair found that very interesting and inspiring for fostering intercultural comparisons in his/her department.

This last comment of the interviewee is important because the international scholars seem to influence the traditional framework of the departments. The extremely limited offer of courses on intercultural comparisons in philological departments may grow in the future. The interviewee himself/herself does major research on certain issue in multicultural comparison and encourages her students to engage in research on social, cultural background and exploration of minority epistemologies.(For number of international faculty see Appendix II...)

Let me finish the section with reviewing general guidelines aimed at faculty in order to bring about change in learning organizations (adopted from Fullan’s guidelines aiming at faculty of colleges of education and Senges’s Five discipline).

Commitment to continuous improvement (life-long learning, personal mastery and change	UNEVEN, RATHER WEAK (relationship between engagement in internationalization and self-development)
Developing collaboration among staff and students	WEAK
Building shared vision	WEAK
Have thinking open to others	UNEVEN (Some faculty very strong)
Work collaboratively to build regional, national, and international networks	RATHER GOOD (though some faculty are not engaged at all)

5.13 Institutional culture:

The analysis of culture limits itself only to documents analysis and opinions of interviewee on the culture and their engagement in more internationally friendly culture. There are two major findings to culture: it is not a priority of the leadership, and review of institution’s web pages show that international students and scholars cannot learn about the institution unless they speak Czech or want to visit just university department.

Web analysis has shown that most of the departments do not have functioning English equivalents. Even though in most web pages the icons for English and sometimes for German are present, the versions have very limited information - usually just the name of the department in English. Some departments do not have the foreign language option at all. Only very few departments have some information about the department. And only one department has full English versions (including the syllabi of courses).

The only department that has “information for international students” actually offers the most 9 courses in foreign languages. It must be noted that the discipline is not an area study nor in linguistics. The departmental information for the international students also include course taught in foreign languages by other departments. Such departmental drive for international students is, however, a rather exception.

In general, I have not found evidence of any activity in providing international students with intercultural dining possibilities, meeting rooms, no regular international-domestic meetings for students and scholars over coffee (except for the ERASMUS Club), no particular activity in involving international students and scholars in sports teams, choirs, formal happening of the school, etc. The involvement the welcoming atmosphere at departments (like dinners with host scholars, inviting to families, sharing of scholarly information in personal discussion, organizing films, festivals, exhibitions, not lectures) was very uneven and mostly not coordinated from the leadership or communicated as a priority from the departmental leadership.

5.14 Research

As far as international activity in research is concerned, the level of internationalization of these components varies greatly. “Internationalization of research” is not explicitly mentioned as being a priority in the major documentation of the institution (Annual Report 2006, Institutional Vision 2006/7.)

The Annual Report 2006 in its section on Research is not internationalization of research mentioned at all. The section written by vice/dean for international relations does include a paragraph on major topics of international cooperation and faculty who have been awarded special awards, however, the fact that international research is not included in the chapter on Research and Development may indirectly share it is not a priority of the school, even though it is a priority of the leadership.

For example department V has in their conception the goal to “organize once a year a conference with domestic or international audience”. In reality the same time, this department has not organized a conference with international hosts in the last two years at all since the vision was written. This particular department (until March 2008) did not have any official research on any intercultural/international/global or explicitly comparative topics.

Low communication of the priority of internationalization of the research may have impact on the fact that some departments have very few or no international research (i.e. international cooperation with scholars or institutions, international topics). This limits indirectly the inclusion of international scholarship/epistemologies/partners/consultant and

little search for international funding. In 2006 there was only one research project of the institutions funded by other than Czech or European money. European Union supported 20, Aktion and Czech-German Fund of Future 5 (out of 143) research projects.

On the other hand, there are departments (mostly the philological ones) who actually work on mostly on international research projects as far as the topic, locality, and team of researchers are concerned. Still, some philological departments foster only research on literature and language of the target region and do very little on other cultural context or intercultural comparisons, international depends, etc. There is one non-philological department which does all listed research projects in English. There is another non-philological department that does research on equity issues, violence against women, globalization and international topics. Overall, the philological departments do have more research on international topics with international partners. Still there is huge variability among the level of internationalization among philological as well as non-philological departments.

Let me comment on the scope of partnerships cooperating in the research. The scope of the international cooperation also differs a lot. Very few cooperations (unless regionally focused) are outside Europe. Some of the exceptions are Tokyo and Canada. None are with Africa from other departments than the African area studies, none are with Australia, and most of Latin America is not covered. The situation is better with the U.S. and only one department has declared cooperation with Canada. This shows very little diversity within the intercultural diversity, and could be seen as a great problem for enrichment. For example, the Confucian frame of thinking is totally omitted in other disciplines than religion.

The third world perspective is basically silent in the whole school. The interviews showed that none of the interviewees does any research concerning the third world and only two want to pursue such topic in the future. There was no evidence about a course on third world in the whole institution in 2007/08. The fact that students graduate from Liberal Arts College and have no idea about the world interdependency makes them unprepared for their work in UNESCO, NGOs and other declared organization of future employment of the graduates. It also limits the “universality” of the university. Lastly, this crosses out the possibility of intercultural enrichment of faculty and students and global scope of their possible civic engagement (only 1 student from Africa was enrolled in 2005/06).

There are also differences to whether the department cooperates with institutions from the target country (which it is focused on) or from other countries. Departments with non-European foci do foster cooperation with European universities, but the same is not reciprocated.

One can also learn how much the research of the faculty is internationalized also from literature they publish: their bibliography. This was found to be very uneven. There is a department on geographically very distant region, which has most of its publications in English (not in the regional language). That means that the faculty need to know the regional language to do the research as well as English to publish in international high-impact journals, they produce their works also in English. Overall number of publications of senior faculty differs greatly.

For example, one has 37 publications; another with the same career title of "docent" has 1. The highest number found was 135 publications. The difference can be found also in books written in foreign languages. W department (not philological) has 14 people, 62 publications and 5 articles/studies in foreign languages. X department (not philological) has 7 people, 71 publications and 26 in foreign languages. The explanation for such difference may not be in the age (the X department has more than 15 years lower age average). The W Department was described by two interviewees as "*very weakly engaged in internationalization.*"

The possible remedies to the unevenness in international publication may include: improvement of foreign language command, writing assistance, incentives and encouragement and support to publish right after the arrival from visits abroad.

5.15 Outreach and service to the society

This component was found very weak. According to the literature review, there is a great governmental emphasis on the interconnection between the research of the higher education institutions and society (Lisbon Declaration, 1999, Ministry of Education 2006). Outreach and service to the society was not explicitly prioritized in the future aims of the departments or institution in their declared visions. The annual report does not include description of the institution's outreach to society. Only one interview actually did mention the service to society in the mission of the university. The rationalization for internationalization in terms of benefiting the society/ social good/ international understanding was not evidenced. Moreover, there are no scholarships for exceptionally talented international students from less well-off countries provided by the school and the leadership does not intend to provide in the future either.

Nevertheless, the school has one minority department, one research centre dealing with gender issues and one dealing with global issues. There is a feeling that all three are relatively isolated because no evidence was found that the minority departments cooperate with other departments on teaching activities, though some collaborative research was found.

The first research centre is heavily supported by an NGO and on its web pages declares to have left for another higher education institution to fully prosper and teach regular classes. The second research centre does not provide regular classes and is supported heavily personally by the Academy of Sciences. The Centre organizes number of international lectures and conferences. The Centre's web page is not based in the school but in Czech Science Academy, which makes it look separated from the school too. There was no evidence that these centres worked through departments and thus remain in certain isolation in the institution.

There are departments that explore topics (post colonialism, Roma issues, migration, gender, aboriginal cultures, equity, minority epistemologies and literature like Indian, influence of socio-economic situation and relatively often democracy and totalitarianism) in their research and curriculum (see sec. on curriculum for details). Developing the scholarship in these topics is definitely beneficial for the society. Still, the "transfer of information to practice" seems to be inefficient in some cases.

My findings confirmed that the public sector is motivated for cooperation with higher education institution, but the finding ways of common research cooperation and ways of transferring the scholarship for the use of society lags behind (MoE, 2006, p. 20). There is some research going on with NGOs (in this case NGOs ensure that the outcomes get to society), perhaps cultural institutions, less with the governmental bodies and almost none with business. The institution seems not as up-to-date as far as the Triple Helix Model of University or the Mode 2 production of knowledge (described in Literature review).

Moreover, the institution does not have any visible link on its web pages for public, cultural institutions, think-tanks and by no means entrepreneurs interested in research cooperation, consultations, discussions, resources, cultural partnerships, etc. with the institution than in educating themselves in the institutions' life/long learning program.

It is usually individual faculty who are personally engaged in the civic society or in other cultural institutions who bridge the gap to the. Sometimes there are more faculty of this kind, sometime there are less or none. Their effort is not however recognized, sometimes even wanted by the middle-level leadership. The echo of their effort seldomly reaches the leadership of the institution, which at the moment is positively inclined.

The school also has lifelong learning programs – an offer of classes for elderly people who want to study. This effort is very positive indeed and is rightly viewed as a strategy against age-discrimination. As far as international dimension of the courses is concerned there course on world film and world drama – so that is positive. On the other hand, there is little

effort done to admit and integrate older people (older than in their twenties) into the regular(!) curriculum.

Overall, the institution does not seem welcoming cooperation with the community. Even though the institution focuses on human sciences, it should find ways to interlink with the society, transfer the knowledge to practice and think of how the institution can help either the “*competitiveness*” or “*development of the Czech society*” as it is declared in the university’s vision 2004.

5.16 Institutional development guidelines

To sum up, the research has shown that all set components of internationalization are more (sometime strongly or weakly) present. Internationalization is perceived as a process that has started only after 1989 and is part of the institutional development.

Before suggesting recommendations, let me briefly comment on the process occurring in the institution according to the general guidelines for a system-wide transformation of higher education institutions as discovered by Green, Eckel, Hill (2002). These might help the institution to decide on priorities in their strategic planning effort.

Changes to the curriculum	PRESENT
Changes in pedagogy	PRESENT
Changes in student learning outcomes	PRESENT
Changes in policies are allied to goals	WEAK
Changes in budget priorities	WEAK
New organizational structure	PRESENT
New decision-making structures leadership role: new ways of thinking, new skills, new relationships and values	PARTLY
Changes in interactions , stakeholders, society	WEAK
Changes in the institutions self-image reflect new language to describe themselves	NOT
Changes in rationales, institutional beliefs, norms and culture.	PARTLY

5.17 Recommendations

The above-mentioned table could make the reader think that there are components such as curriculum or pedagogy that are already being internationalized and that they do not need any further development. Let me stay with - the learning organization’s theory, with my personal attitude and the linguistic interpretation of the word “university”, namely that there are always possibilities to transcend and to improve - when suggesting the following recommendations.

These recommendations do not aim to represent a plan of institutional action or anything similar. On the contrary, it would be best, in case the institution agrees on a common vision of internationalization itself, to set up a strategic planning process (perhaps through a committee) to analyze the current possibilities and barriers for its internationalization. Perhaps this work could provide ideas what internationalization may look like (vis-à-vis the literature review). However, only after their own critical analysis, which recommendations they find fit for their institutional aims, will emerge.

In the event that none of this happens, I still hope that the leadership, faculty, internal relations office and perhaps students will find some inspiration for their individual development in case they move toward internationalization after finding this thesis to be meaningful.

5.17.1 Leadership

The dean needs to more explicitly communicate the priority of internationalization of research and curriculum, especially with the departmental heads who have shown to have great influence on internationalization.

Leadership should decide on ways of (involving) strategic planning; and, pay attention to setting common aims, strategies, and mechanisms of qualitative evaluation for accountability.

HR policies should implement stronger non-financial incentives as well as financial incentives for engaged faculty and departments in other activities than mobility

All leadership positions should be taken up by people who have some managerial skills (including strategic planning) so that departmental visions do not solely rely on individual position of the chair.

5.17.2 International office

Most importantly, the international office needs to take up new roles (other than just the administration of agreements) if internationalization is to concern all parts of the institution as there is no one office more experienced to do so at the moment.

The international office will benefit if they are familiar with current approaches to internationalization (e.g. Internationalization at Home) and connect that to the knowledge of Czech education policy (including the upcoming *White paper on higher education*). Moreover, the office could develop institutionally through participation in associations such as EAIE (see appendix 3 for more information).

It would be helpful to concentrate on the “maximalization” of study/research abroad experiences of both incoming and outgoing mobility by providing more complex services like pre-departure trainings and counseling (for more suggestions, see sec. on int. office, above).

5.17.3 Curriculum

The institution could make a better use of the great amount of international knowledge existing in individual departments by setting up more cooperative teaching ventures and interdisciplinary degree programs.

The offering of courses needs to better reflect the envisioned international jobs for future graduates that are contained the in departmental vision, but not contained in the curriculum.

It is not possible not to give a non-ethnocentric perspective on international/intercultural issues when teaching just from Czech-language literature.

International scholarship and resources need to used in these classes.

In order to attract the most talented international students, a greater offering of courses in foreign languages and issues of intercultural comparisons need to be provided throughout the institution.

5.17.4 International and domestic students

The impact of international students on quality of the courses and quality of teaching and improvement of foreign language proficiency of faculty needs to researched and accounted for.

International students need to be included in regular classes in order to enrich domestic students. Particularly if they are placed into special programs created for them, their impact is limited to economic benefits.

If the school wants to attract the most talented international students, then scholarships for the brightest students, including special scholarships earmarked for those from less developed countries, should be offered.

If students want to get the most from their studies abroad, they need to have a proficient command of the host language in their discipline (not only in conversation) and be familiar with the culture (beyond what is presented in literature) in order to comprehend intercultural differences in the frame of reference of the discipline.

5.17.5 International and domestic faculty

First, faculty need to develop foreign language skills because low foreign language proficiency was found to be the greatest barrier for developing international research or attracting international students.

Faculty need to be motivated for lifelong learning and develop their grant writing skills, intercultural communication capabilities, and implement interculturally diverse teaching strategies.

As far as international faculty are concerned, they must be encouraged to get to senior positions and not just stay in the positions of “lecturers” because possibilities for career advancement elsewhere may attract more desirable scholars.

Well-known international scholars should be systematically sought after with the help of external foundations and organizations (like Fulbright) and new motivating strategies (other than pay and office space) should be developed.

5.17.6 Research

More attention should be paid to memberships in prestigious international associations and the editorial boards of international publications.

Faculty should be supported and given the possibility to take time off for longer research visits abroad and be encouraged to publish outcomes of their studies soon after their arrival.

Those faculty who do not like traveling or otherwise find it difficult to travel, should explore the use of ICT to foster international research that does not involve physical mobility.

5.17.7 Institutional culture

The institutional culture should be included into the reasoning about internationalization as being an important component of the process, and research on today’s climate as well as structure should be done to start with. Moreover, the benefits of international/cultural diversity need to be researched, discussed and communicated throughout the institution. Intercultural diversity should be part of HR policies such as the recruitment of new personal.

The school needs to develop interculturally-friendly facilities, materials, web pages, building orientation signs and administrative staff capable of speaking foreign languages.

The international office, in cooperation with departments, should set up and popularize regular, attractive activities for international students and scholars to meet with domestic students and scholars.

5.17.8 Outreach

The institution needs to be active in seeking out other organizations and think-tanks interested in cooperation on research and teaching of international issues. The institution should make a strategic plan that encompasses these outreach activities (especially in regard to fundraising and service function).

In regard to the university's mission, it is necessary to communicate that the university's function is to serve and improve society both locally and globally. The answer to: *how should the institution educate students for an interdependent world of the 21st Century* – needs to be reflected in the vision, research, and in practiced curriculum.

5.17.9 General suggestions

It is necessary to foster more research and theoretical scholarship, in general, so that Czech higher education institutions can learn about the ways they function, their culture, leadership, curriculum, faculty development, etc. Only then will the international education better fit its frame of reference into the Czech higher education context. Interviews also suggested that more scholarship in Czech is needed to learn about the role of higher education in connection to the changing world, to learn about strategies of internationalization of curriculum (including teaching styles), to learn about administration of internationalization, and about leadership strategies fostering internationalization. Higher education institutions could encourage their own students to participate in such research.

5.18 Conclusion

In this thesis I have set out several aims. The first one was “to introduce into the Czech Higher Education scholarship the theory, research and practice of international education as an interdisciplinary field of knowledge that has been developed over the past fifty years, principally in U.S. as well as in Europe.” In order to reach this aim, I reviewed an extraordinarily extensive body of international and Czech literature. I analyzed the historical development of educational policy in connection to international education both in US as well as in Europe and Czech Republic. I also introduced the reader to four approaches to internationalization: a) Internationalization as Europeanization; b) Internationalization at Home as reaction to the overwhelming support of mobility; c) internationalization as an add-on approach; and, d) internationalization from a system-wide perspective, which I found most comprehensive. I described internationalization as being comprised of six major components,

namely curriculum, research and networking, involvement of (international) students and faculty, institutional culture, leadership, and outreach to society.

A separate chapter on bridging the gap between international education and multicultural education was included to help further develop the concept of multi/inter-cultural education in the Czech Republic. I compared the two fields with their differences and similarities and suggested ways they could enrich each other. I hope that drawing on Czech literature of multicultural education helps Czech readers to better comprehend the connections in rationalization of multicultural and international education and learn about other reasons for internationalization than the reiterated “to be competitive” drive.

The thesis also aimed to “produce new knowledge and to enrich scholarship of international education both in the Czech Republic as well as internationally”. For that I developed a relevant theoretical framework, which may inspire research at other higher education institutions of similar characteristics. After executing my case study, I provided a report where I discussed how is internationalization represented in a particular Czech higher education institution. My recommendations may help higher education institutions and their stakeholders in finding ways of how to open the school to world; and, more importantly, call for further interest in the until recently neglected field of international education.

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Appendix 1

Appendix 1.1 American Strategic Papers

- 4) The President's Commission on Foreign Languages and International Studies Report: *Strength Through Wisdom – A Critique of U.S. Capability* (1979);
- 5) The Association of American Colleges' Report *Widening the Circle: the Humanities in American Life: A Report of the Wingspread Conference on the Humanities and Higher Education* (1981);
- 6) U.S. Department of Education and the National Commission on Excellence in Education's *A Nation at Risk the Imperative for Educational Reform* (1983);
- 7) The Association of American Colleges' *Report on Integrity in the College Curriculum* (1985 and 1990 editions);
- 8) The Council on International Education Exchange's (CIEE's) *Educating for Global Competence* (1987);
- 9) *The National Task Force Report* produced by the Association of the International Educators NAFSA), CIEE and the IIE (1990)
- 10) The Association of American Colleges' report to the Nationals Assembly on Foreign Language and International Studies entitled *Toward Education with a Global Perspective* (1990);

- 11) The American Council on Education (ACE): *Educating Americans for a World in Flux: Ten Ground Rules for Internationalizing Higher Education* (1995); and
- 12) Association of International Education Administrators' (AIEA's) report entitled *Guidelines for International Education at U.S. Colleges and Universities* (1995);
- 13) The American Council on Education and the Commission on International Education: *Educating for Global Competence: America's Passport to the Future* (1998);
- 14) AACU's *Globalizing Knowledge: Connecting International and Intercultural Studies* (1999);
- 15) NAFSA and the Alliance for International Educational and Cultural Exchanges issue a call *Toward an International Education Policy for the United States* (2000);
- 16) President Clinton issues *Executive Memorandum on International Education* (2000);
- 17) *Beyond September 11: A Comprehensive National Policy on International Education* (2002) by ACE;
- 18) AACU's *Making Diversity Work on Campus: A Research-Based Perspective, 2005*;
- 19) *College Learning for the New Global Century*, AACU, 2005;
- 20) NAFSA's *An International Education Policy For U.S. Leadership, Competitiveness and Security*(2006); and *To American Public: International Education is Key to Preparing Next Generation* (2006);
- 21) *At Home in the World: Bridging the Gap Between Internationalization and Multicultural Education*, (ACE, 2007);
- 22) *A Call to Leadership* (2007) published by the National Association of State Universities and Land Grant Colleges.

The first on the list report written by President's Commission on Foreign Language and International Studies entitled *Strength through Wisdom: a Critique of U.S. Capability* (1979) made several persuasive recommendations for political leaders, education leaders, business leaders, and teachers. It called for better language competence and international awareness. The report was tailored for leaders and provides recommendations on administration and establishment of an advisory committee on international education policy at individual colleges.

A Nation at Risk: A Report to the Nation (1983) by Secretary of the U.S. Department of Education and the National Commission of Excellence in education provided multiple recommendations for not only high-school teachers (secondary education was in the focus of the report) but also higher education leaders. If the schools are to be more productive, students must be more cross-culturally competent. Excellence characterizes a school that has set high expectations for all learners and tries in every possible way to help students to reach these goals. School must prepare students to respond to the challenges of a rapidly changing world.

In *Report of the Study Commission on Global Education* (1987), educators stated four curricular areas that must be emphasized: a) a better understanding of the world as a series of interrelated systems, b) more attention to the developments of world civilizations, c) greater attention to the diversity of cultural patterns both around the world and within the united States, and d) more training and policy analysis of both domestic and international issues (p. 3 In Ellingboe, 1998 p.12) Authors recommended that students develop a knowledge of opposing value systems, a concern for humanity and an understanding for international relations, and an understanding and appreciation of culture different from their own (ibid, p. 31). Similarly, the President's Commission on Foreign Languages and International Studies (1979) recommended that school and colleges increase foreign language offerings and encourage or require students to take foreign languages courses. It also recommended increasing funding for mobility programs.

The Association of American Colleges' report (1985) entitled *Integrity in the College Curriculum* states that faculty have the responsibility to reform the curriculum, for hardly ever

do faculty consider, in any system ways, the curricular structure as a whole nor do they seriously ask whether the curriculum meets defined goals that are rational, socially-healthy and appropriate. Colleges must create a curriculum in which the insights and understanding, the lives and aspirations of the distant and foreign, the immigrant and the neglected, are more widely comprehended by their graduates (AAC, 1985).

The report produced by American Council on Education (1995) *Educating Americans for a World in Flux* was written by 40 colleges and university presidents for presidents, chancellors, and trustees of U.S. institutions. The report is outstanding for it includes 10 ground rules for internationalization:

- Requiring that all graduates demonstrate competence in at least one foreign language;
- Encouraging an understanding of at least one culture;
- Increasing understanding of global systems;
- Revamping curricula to reflect the need for international understanding;
- Expanding international study and internship opportunities for all students;
- Focusing on faculty development and rewards for international activities;
- Examining the organizational needs of international education;
- Building consortia to enhance capabilities;
- Cooperating with institutions in other countries; and
- Working with local school and communities.

In the ACE (1995) report, the term “intercultural competence” is inserted as a goal, which must be infused with the educational experience. “Without intercultural competence, the nation’s standard of living is threatened and its competitive difficulties will increase. Unless today’s students develop the competence to function effectively in a global environment, they are unlikely to succeed in the twenty-first century.” (ACE, 1995 p.1). The authors of the report believe that the U.S. should be producing not only knowledgeable graduates who know how countries interact, communicate in at least one foreign language but also have the exposure to other peoples, languages and cultures in order to understand global systems. They believe in making systemic and curricular changes and revamping curricula to reflect the need for international understanding. They also believe that this level of competence (in languages, diverse culture, and global issues) needs to be provided, not as something extra in the curriculum, but as an integral part of the educational experience (ACE, 1995, p. 5)

These presidents would concur with today’s international education experts Josef Mestenhauser, Maurice Harari: “When we are talking about internationalizing liberal education, we are not talking about an additive,” (Harari, 1992, p. 59 In Ellingboe, p. 8); and “in order to be comprehensive international education requires basic changes because a piecemeal approach can hardly be called an educational reform” (Mestenhauser, 2002, p.2). The add-on approach described below differs greatly from the integrative one.

AIEA also presented in the document six keys to successful internationalization: administrative leadership, faculty preparation, and multidisciplinary focus, communication throughout entire institution, funding, internationalized mission and goal statement as priorities.

As Brenda Ellingboe’s research of an individual case study revealed even though the mentioned guidelines may be adopted by individual faculty or be employed by the leadership in mission statements, if there is not a campus-wide discussion and agreement on a system-wide change, internationalization cannot be successful (Ellingboe, 1999).

Globalizing Knowledge: Connecting International and Intercultural Studies (1999) argues for new goals for global learning that bring together lessons learned from movements to internationalize the curriculum, the campus diversity movement, and the study abroad and experiential learning efforts. The paper seems to be one of the first to explicitly argue for a new approach to internationalization, namely bridging the gap between multicultural themes and international ones.

The paper draws attention to the insufficiency and inaccuracies to teaching students about the international area independently of their roles as U.S. citizen or about domestic diversity without the reference to transnational responsibilities and identities. Attention should be paid to both inequalities within and between states.

“Just as multicultural education was designed to promote respect for the different subcultures of the United States in order to recognize the positive values of difference, so we need knowledge of the histories and beliefs of the global societies with whom we interact, in war and peace. Without such knowledge, it is difficult to empathize with the societies we are acting with or upon, and it makes it difficult for citizens of the United States to have informed opinions about the justice or injustice of our nation’s actions.” (p.35)

The paper, in accordance with the interculturalists' approach, sees educational goal for students in the 21st ct. in providing students with the ability to move easily among different cultures, to apply diverse ways of thinking and go beyond applying their own labels, who seek common humanity in those whose beliefs, and practices are different. Globalization is portrayed as the greatest challenge to academia, for it must develop ways of transcending rigid specializations. (pp. 21)

NAFSA and the Alliance for International Educational and Cultural Exchanges issued a *Call toward an International Education Policy for the United States* (2000). International education should become a part of U.S. undergraduate education with every graduate achieving proficiency in a foreign language and attaining basic understanding of one world area. International institutional partnerships should be fostered and facilitate internationalized curricula, collaborative research and faculty and student mobility. By 2010, 25 percent of graduates should have studied abroad and by 2040, it should be 50 percent.

President Clinton consequently issued an executive order to heads of executive departments and agencies calling for international education policy that reflected NAFSA policy statements issued earlier that year. The memorandum states that it is the policy of the federal government to support international education and to be committed to:

- 1) Encouraging students from other countries to study in U.S;
- 2) Promoting study abroad;
- 3) Supporting exchanges of scholars, teachers and citizens at all levels of society;
- 4) Enhancing programs that build international partnerships and expertise;
- 5) Expanding high-quality foreign language learning and in-depth knowledge o other countries;
- 6) Preparing and support teachers to interpret other countries and cultures for their students; and
- 7) Advancing new technologies that spread knowledge throughout the world.

Beyond September 11: A Comprehensive National Policy on International Education (2002), published by NAFSA, consists of similar guidelines proposed already before the tragedy in 2001. It is an international policy paper published by ACE and was endorsed by 35 organizations including NAFSA, AACU, and American Council on International Intercultural Education, Institute of International Education, and Alliance for International Educational and Cultural Exchange etc. The paper reacts to interconnectedness of Americans to the rest of the world.

Like Sputnik in 1957, the attacks of September 11 have brought America’s international preparedness to a crossroads. The global transformations of the last decade have created an unparalleled need in the United States for expanded international knowledge and skills. Apart from the “global competence” (including in-depth knowledge for interpreting information affecting national security, to the skills and understanding that foster improved relations with all regions of the world. (p. 7)

The paper outlined the U.S. need for international and foreign language expertise and citizen awareness, examined shortages in those areas, and proposed strategies and policies to meet the needs. National strategy proposes the following guidelines:

- 1) Enhancement of foreign language, international studies and business education;
- 2) Internationalization of teaching and learning;
- 3) Promotion of international research;
- 4) Enhancement of Institutional Linkages Abroad;
- 5) Increase Study and Internships abroad;
- 6) Increase in number of international students;
- 7) Increase scholarly and citizen exchanges;
- 8) Making greater use of technology in learning and information access.

Key federal funding programs promoting international education were re-established with Title VI, Title VIII, USAID and NESP (National Security Education Program).

On the grounds of a NAFSA's national survey (*American Public: International Education is Key to Preparing Next Generation*, 2006) where it was found that 90 percent of Americans think that it is important or very important to prepare future generations of Americans for a global society, 77 percent feel it is important to participate in study abroad programs in college, 94 believe it is important for future generations to have knowledge of other countries. In *An International Education Policy for U.S. Leadership, Competitiveness and Security* (2006), NAFSA calls for an establishment of a national program that will ensure that study abroad becomes the norm in U.S. higher education, which at the same time will be inclusive in a multicultural sense. Study abroad programs must be designed to be accessible primarily to "minority students" and to low-income students and students who study part-time or work full-time to support their families.

At Home in the World: Bridging the Gap between Internationalization and Multicultural Education (ACE, 2007) launches conversations about the relationship between internationalization and multicultural education. It outlines the common grounds of areas share, the ways these areas diverge, and potential strategies for advancing conversations that bridge the two disciplines. (I will return to this paper in section 2.2.5 in connection with my discussion of how to bridge the gap between multi-cultural and international education.)

Finally yet importantly, NASULGS's paper *A Call to Leadership* stands out because it addressed the presidents and leadership of higher education institutions. It advocates internationalization not as an additive to the "must-do list", but as "one significant act that can transform and enliven our institutions" (NASULGC, 2004, p. v). The paper empowers presidents and provides them with strategies how to "articulate, advocate and act" internationalization, i.e. how to articulate a vision, execute strategic planning, mobilize support as well what steps to make on the institutional level toward internationalization.

Appendix 1.2 European Strategic Papers

- 1) *Sorbonne Declaration* is signed by Germany, France, Italy and UK in 1998;
- 2) *Bologna Declaration* signed by 29 countries in 1999 and following communiqué in Prague (2001), Berlin (2003) and Bergen (2005);
- 3) *Salamanca Convention: The Bologna Process and the European Higher Education Area. The Message of Salamanca* (EUA, 2001);
- 4) *International Initiatives and Trends in Quality Assurance for European Higher Education* (European Network for Quality Assurance in Higher Education, 2000);
- 5) *International Dimension of the European Research Area* (EC, 2000);
- 6) *Graz Declaration: Strong Universities for a Strong Europe* published by EUA in 2003;
- 7) EURASHE's *Policy Statement on the Bologna Process - Towards Berlin 2003* (2003);

- 8) *Lisbon Declaration Europe's Universities beyond 2010: Diversity with a common purpose* (EUA, 2007);
- 9) *The Role of Universities in Europe of Knowledge* (EC,2003);
- 10) *Internationalizing Higher Education: European Responses to the global perspectives* EAIE,EAIR, Amsterdam, 2005;
- 11) *Standards and Guidelines for Quality Assurance in the European Higher Education Area* (European Association for Quality Assurance in Higher Education, Helsinki, 2005);
- 12) *Guidelines for Quality Evaluation* by EUA, 2007;

Firstly, the *White Paper on Education and Training. Teaching and Learning. Toward the Learning Society* published by the European Commission in (1995) stressed the importance of investment into education and training. The paper set forth the following main tasks: the encouragement the acquisition of new knowledge (through mobility particularly Erasmus program and recognition of skills and new ICT), the development of proficiency of three languages, as well as the support the equality of chances and bringing schools and business sector closer together. Internationalization is seen as one of the main three challenges for the society to deal with. "Internationalization of the economy is the second largest upheaval that gives rise to unprecedented freedom of movement for capital, goods and a resource...in a changing uncertain world, Europe is the natural level of organization." (p. 7). The idea of integration of Europe through internal mobility and harmonization of the education system (e.g. mentioned "recognition of skills") to combat what is in later papers called globalization (rather than internationalization) in connection to global market economy became the most influential paradigm for the forthcoming strategies of the European Union.

The so-called *Lisbon Convention (The Convention on the Recognition of Qualifications Concerning Higher Education)* was developed by Council of Europe and UNESCO (1997) in order to facilitate access to further education studies in another country, the use of academic titles and access to labor market. Education was part of the strategy for economic growth and competitive strength of Europe.

The *Sorbonne Declaration* signed by France, Italy, United Kingdom and Germany with the aim of "harmonization of the architecture of the European Higher Education System" (1998). It suggested the importance of education and educational cooperation for the development and reinforcement of peaceful, democratic, multicultural societies and pointed out the key role of the university in that process. (Lavdas, Papadakis, Gidarikou, 2006, p.130).

A year later *Bologna Declaration* (signed by 29 European countries originally and 46 currently) "aims to create a **coherent and cohesive European Higher Education Area (EHEA)** by 2010". The main objectives outlined in this statement were as follows:

- 1) To adopt a system of easily readable and comparable degrees;
- 2) To adopt a system with two main cycles (undergraduate/graduate);
- 3) To establish a system of ECTS credits;
- 4) To promote mobility by overcoming legal recognition and administrative obstacles;
- 5) To promote European cooperation in quality assurance;
- 6) To promote a European dimension in higher education.

Since the adoption of the Bologna Declaration in 1999¹⁴⁰, European ministers have met every two years to further discuss and build upon the initial objectives. Ministers of participating countries met at communiqués: Prague (2001), Berlin (2003) and Bergen (2005), London (2007) and outlined the progress made and further priorities. (For that purpose, EUA

¹⁴⁰ Also the Commission of the European Communities (Barcelona, 2002) set the objective to create "...the most competitive and dynamic knowledge-based economy in the world, capable of sustainable economic growth with more and better jobs and greater societal cohesion:"

has published six reports called Trends since 2001 that evaluate the process towards AHEA in participating countries including the Czech Republic and provide recommendations.)

In Prague, it was agreed to add three more objectives:

- 1) Inclusion of life-long learning strategies;
- 2) Involvement of higher education institutions and students as essential partners in the process;
- 3) Promotion of the attractiveness of the European Higher Education Area.

According to Šebková and Kohoutek (2007) Prague was the first place where “transnational education” (reaching outside Europe) was addressed by a communiqué of ministers as a topic, “which importance is not comprehended in most European states enough” (p. 81).

In Berlin (2003), the ministers agreed to speed up the process by setting an intermediate deadline of 2005 for progress on:

- 1) Quality assurance;
- 2) Adoption of a system of degrees structure based on two main cycles;
- 3) Recognition of degrees.

A very specific outcome was agreed upon, namely that since 2005 every graduate was to get a Diploma Supplement issued in a foreign language.

In Bergen (2005), ministers committed themselves for their next meeting in 2007 to reinforcing the social dimension and removing obstacles to mobility; and well as to making progress on:

- 1) Implementing the agreed guidelines for quality assurance;
- 2) Implementing national frameworks of qualifications;
- 3) Awarding and recognizing joint degrees;
- 4) Creating opportunities for flexible learning paths in higher education. (RAABE, 2006)¹⁴¹

The Bergen communiqué document¹⁴², unfortunately being a short and political document which takes into greater consideration the different national perspectives, and thus formulated its main theses rather vaguely, points to the importance of regional level and local authorities – which can promote the economic development and sustainability - and enhancement of the role of the university in teaching and research. Before such goals are achieved, it was considered vital to evaluate the current practices. The quality assurance procedure was based on the OECD’s approach to benchmarking and aims at the dissemination of the best practices. This learning process contextualizes the strategy proposed in the OECD/IHME project in 2004. Member states agreed on high recommendations to use the Report called *Standards and Guidelines for Quality Assurance in European higher Education Area* (ENQUA, 2005) to create systems of quality assurances in national states.

The London Communiqué in 2007 followed the agenda of Bergen and pointed to the importance of focusing on quality assurance, three level degree structure, and recognition of degrees. Among other priorities also remained the mobility and national states were to report on their national mobility process with the help of EUROSTAT database set up by the European Commission. Other sub-themes of discussion included lifelong learning opportunities, employability, quality of Ph.D. studies, and last but not least an important issue for internationalization: the international cooperation with non-European countries.

¹⁴¹ Bologna Handbook, Froment, Purser, Wilson (ed.) RAABE 2006

¹⁴² Bergen document urges the need to ensure the doctoral programmes promote interdisciplinary training and the development of transferable links. (for more see Huisman, J. & Naidoo, R. The Professional Doctorate: From Anglo-Saxon to European Challenges. In HEMaP, 2006, no 2.)

In *Institutional Evaluation Program Guidelines* (EUA, 2007) is the topic of Internationalization and Implementation of Bologna is included in Annex II on Special foci. In order to see the distinction, it useful to look closely on which guidelines shape the concepts.

The paper suggests considering the following aspects:

- 1) What are the priorities of institutions, and are they included in official documents,
 - 2) Is the infrastructure one of internationalization (e.g. international office),
 - 3) Information policy on internationalization (information to students, staff on grants, study/research abroad etc.),
 - 4) Mobility of data for students and faculty,
 - 5) Policy and practice in student and staff exchange programs, including orientation programs, for incoming and out-going participants,
 - 6) Is students' international experience used in classroom,
 - 7) Internationalization of the curriculum (including an international dimension in course work, developing policies regarding language studies etc.),
 - 8) Links with international research and educational networks (p.23)
- Assessment of the Bologna Reforms includes these questions:
- 1) What is the level of awareness of the Bologna Process in your institution,
 - 2) How does Bologna fit into the institution's strategic plan,
 - 3) Have there been legislative changes linked to Bologna,
 - 4) Which overall changes has Bologna brought about in the institution so far,
 - 5) Comment on funding of the implementation of Bologna's goals (public bodies' incentives),
 - 6) How autonomous do you feel you institution is with respect to implementation of the Bologna reforms (decision-making, financing mechanisms, and timing),
 - 7) Comment on the state of implementation of the Bologna study structure at your institution and major challenges in the process,
 - 8) What do students do upon completion of the bachelor degree,
 - 9) What types of masters programs are offered at your institution,
 - 10) Have there been any changes in doctoral training based on the Bologna debates,
 - 11) Are there differences among disciplines in terms of implementation of the Bologna study structure,
 - 12) Have structural changes had an impact on student mobility patterns,
 - 13) How relevant is the concept of learning outcomes for your curricular reforms,
 - 14) What difficulties have you experienced in restructuring your curricula,
 - 15) Are ECTS/other credits used for transfer and/accumulation purposes? Are there differences among disciplines,
 - 16) What is the policy in terms of the recognition of non-academic /non-formal qualifications,
 - 17) Are there any difficulties in the recognition of students' exchange/mobility periods,
 - 18) Is the Diploma Supplement issued to all graduates,
 - 19) What are the institution's procedures for recognizing foreign diplomas,
 - 20) Does the university provide mobility support for researchers,
 - 21) Is there European/International dimension in doctorate programs,

Appendix 1.3 Long-term Policy for higher education (2005)

Stated priorities for internationalization are:

1) The support of **foreign language training**. Student should have the possibility in studying chosen programs in foreign languages or at least part of their programs. The offer of postgraduate programs should included modules provided in both: Czech and foreign language. This effort is visible in the whole Europe for there is growing importance of emergence of English as the principal international language. Universities in several countries

are establishing programs, especially at the postgraduate level that are thought in whole or in part in English (Wende, 2007¹⁴³)

2) The second guideline is very similar to the first guideline and stresses the importance of foreign language trainings for students, **curriculum taught in foreign language** for both Czech and international students and offer of courses on Czech language for international students. Foreign language competencies of faculty will be subject to quality assurance criteria and will be important for accreditations and quality evaluation of the institution. In addition, administration's foreign language proficiency will be looked upon as criteria for evaluation of institutional quality.

3) **Cooperation with foreign institutions** (namely in curriculum, but the point is not specified unless geographically as: EU, Asia, Latin America, and USA and other significant international institutions)

4) **Mobility** of A) students and faculty through (Socrates, Erasmus, Leonardo da Vinci, Visegrad Fund, CEEPUS, bilateral agreements and student agreements called free movers.) B) international students and scholars through above mentioned forms, also Erasmus Mundus; C) selected suitable states such as India, Thailand, former USSR; D) scholarships for talented international students especially at Ph.D. and Mgr. Level, D) attracting young international faculty; E) cooperation on research.

5) Offering cooperative study programs: **double degree, joint degree** and project sin Erasmus Mundus for students in Asia and Latin America

6) Gaining an **ECTS Label, Diploma Supplements Label,**

7) **International cooperation on research** projects with other higher education institutions, business sector, and other significant governmental and nongovernmental organizations

Appendix 1.4 The thirteen work areas within the framework of

Internationalization at Home

- Policy and Goals
- Curricula Transformation
- Learning and Teaching
- Language Policy
- Intercultural Communication
- Practicum (*Note E.J. meaning internships in multicultural environment in region of Malmo or abroad*)
- Student Union and Clubs
- Mobility
- Learning Outcome and Evaluations
- Network and Cooperation
- Staff Development
- Administration, Service and Information
- Commercialization (Bergkhnut, 2006, p. 15)

Appendix 1.5 List of international relations office services based on literature review

- | |
|--|
| <ol style="list-style-type: none">1. Expansion of study abroad possibilities;2. Inclusion of study abroad into the compulsory core; |
|--|

3. Inclusion of global issues course in the core curriculum;
4. Proficiency in foreign language skills (at least two languages) in the relevant discipline;
5. Support research projects and final papers of students in cooperation with other students abroad;
6. Support of faculty membership in international organizations;
7. Support departments in international teaching activities (joint/degrees and e/learning);
8. Support of research and teaching stays of faculty abroad;
9. Help the departments to internationalize their curricula (by adding international courses, foreign languages, etc.);
10. Support research with third world countries and on world interdependency;
11. Support international research with new ICT (leapfrogging etc.) which does not require physical mobility;
12. Support interdepartmental i.e. interdisciplinary cooperation on teaching and research. (E.g. multicultural education: pedagogy and sinology, ethnology, Intercultural communication: comparative linguistics, linguistics, psychology, etc.);
13. Support interdisciplinary cooperation in topics of international issues and world interdependency;
14. Infusion of materials and issues in the classroom teaching;
15. Encouragement to use culturally diverse methodologies and epistemologies that could be relevant and emic perspectives in areas studies;
16. Encouraging students in searching for alternative/nontraditional ways of research and findings and use of emic and etic perspective;
17. Encouragement of intercultural comparisons of disciplines and analysis of the cultural contextualization of the discipline;
18. Involvement of international students in the entire curriculum and encouraging cooperation of international and domestic students on papers and research;
19. Integration of international students and scholars in after-school activities of the school (choir, sport teams, ceremonies);
20. Integration of visiting faculty into the strategic planning of the departments;
21. Encouragement of memberships in prestigious research organizations (international Alliance for Research Universities, Europaeum) and in cooperation on summer schools and research activities;
22. Development of leadership competencies (strategic planning, leadership skills, intercultural awareness, conflict solving, etc.);
23. Support of interculturally friendly campus climate (orientation notices, administrators speaking foreign languages, seminars, films, festivals, food, etc.);
24. Providing scholarship for international students;
25. Supporting departments to systematically integrate the students experience for study abroad into their curricula (intercultural comparisons with other universities and their students requirements, curricula, responsible selection of institutions, advising students how to incorporate their study abroad into their curriculum);
26. Organizing regular international activities and meeting opportunities for domestic and international students and scholars;
27. Postdoctoral scholarships for internationals with the opportunities of full employment;
28. Fundraising for international office and internationalization of the institution;
29. Integrating internationalization also into HR policies (personal incentives, international experience as prerequisite for employments etc.) and departmental funding incentives (international cooperation, study abroad, publishing in international journals, etc.); and
30. Support of cooperation with nonacademic: business, think-tanks and NGO partners on research and service to society on international and global issues.

Appendix 1.6. Institutional change

1.6.1 Theories of organization

Reviewing the current international as well as Czech journals of higher education and scholarship, there is no doubt that schools in general are widely conceptualized in terms of

theories of organization. According to Poll (2006), educational sciences have adopted the view of a school as an organization¹⁴⁴ and have absorbed organizational theories into their scholarship.¹⁴⁵ The Czech scholarship has been viewed school as an organization since the 80's (Kaláb, 1983, Obdržálek a kol, 1987, Bacík, 1990) and it is widely accepted in the current discourse (Bacík, Kalous & Svoboda, 1998, Pol et al., 2006, Eger & Jakubíková 2001) and the need for constant learning (life-long learning) is argued by many Czech scholars (e.g. Rýdl, 2003 in connection to school innovation). Also higher education institutions including public universities, private institutions of post-secondary or tertiary level have been viewed in terms of an "organization" for sometime and now are discussed especially in connection to the changing model of university (namely from a bureaucratic to entrepreneurial and market-oriented one).

Another contribution to organizational theory has been made by the system perspective and its later advancements. The importance of system perspective in reforming education has been stressed by many. Fullan (1991) and Sarason (1993) conclude that scholars who have been studying educational reform suggest that failures are common, and that they are primarily caused by an inability to take the complexity of change into account (In Mestenhauser and Ellingboe, 1998, p. 21). In order to produce change, one must look at the organization as a system's underlying structure (Senge, 1990, p.42).

Systems approaches have found their place in management theories as well as in theories of change applied either in the context of schooling or organizations in general¹⁴⁶. For example Seebaner, Koliadis, Helus (2000, p. 24) write that the concept of school as a learning organization means "mutually influenced system with its concrete surrounding" where visions and values are being developed in connection to innovation efforts and cooperation with the development of the society. In the Czech Republic the system perspective was adopted by Blížkovský (1997) in his description of the learning situation and to some extent also by Bacík, Kalous and Svoboda (1998), Prášilová (2003) from their management perspective (for more see sec. on leadership).

In the late sixties, anthropologists begun to apply the cultural theories to the study of organizations as a metaphor to the climate of a corporation. Later on in a more comprehensive sense was the concept of organizational cultures used a factor enabling change with educational institutions (Fullan, 1982). (conf. Pol et al. 2006, Hlouskova, 2007, Clark and Soulsby, 1999) The groundbreaking international dimension to the organizational theory is to be attributed to Geert Hofstede who found out the vast differences among organizational cultures based on their nationality background. According to Výrost and Slaměnik (1998), the term of organizational culture has been used widely in Czech scholarship thanks to Hofstede's work (p. 37).

As the role of culture of the higher education institution was already described above, there is still to explain the connection between change of the institution, leadership and structure of the institution. The first to start with is to understand what is a "change".

1.6.2 Defining Change

The use of the terms "change", and "transformation" can mean different things and provoke different reactions (even emotional ones). The perception of change is culture

¹⁴⁴ Theories on organization have appeared since the beginning of the 20th ct.

¹⁴⁵ Many writers on organizational theory have used the metaphor of organization as organism which emphasizes a different image of an organizational control rather than that of the traditional hierarchy. Theories on organization have appeared since the beginning of the 20th ct. Very shortly, Azlor and Weber has based their ideas on rational closed units. Later Mazo, McGregor and Merton have condemned the idea of members of organizations behaving just rationally because people are human beings with feelings, creativity, trust and criticized bureaucratic forms of organizations where people were just following formal rules. Parsons has attribute the organization its auto regulation and relative independence (adopted by Bacík). Toffler have found an alternative to bureaucratic organization in so-called adaptive corporation or adhocracie. (Pol et al, p. 47). There is another relatively new model of organization – a learning organization, which expresses the proactive dealing with change.

¹⁴⁶ For more details see Výrost and Slaměnik, 1998, pp. 27.

bound and the willingness to change may depend on the long-term and short-term future-orientation of the particular culture (see more in Implications for research below or conf. Hofstede and Hofstede, 2006). Change may also be influenced by the particular organizational culture (already described above), which may be or may not be inclined to a change.

People from different countries but also from different organizations (including schools) can ascribe different meanings to these words and assumptions that underlie the usual way of doing business range from a rapid change, threatening change to important institution wide change (ACE, 2001, p. 11) Definitions can differ both quantitatively and qualitatively. It is thus useful to understand characteristics of change: depth and pervasiveness in articulating the types of changes institutions may seek or undergo in connection to internationalization.

Change is something that has been discussed in the Czech discourse quite frequently, though in very general terms. After 1989 change was frequently discussed in a reaction to fall communism and resulting in the need to change “ideologized” education. Later on, the scholarship react to integration of EU (e.g. Walterová in Internationalization as Europeanization, above). After that, globalization is discussed as an incentive for change in education quite frequently (Skalková, 2000). Some scholars also express their worries about too much change and characterize the today science as “changeology” and criticize those who do not seek change as not being “in” (S. Štech, 2000, p. 117)¹⁴⁷. Others (Pol et al. 2006, Bacík, Kalous, 1998) advocate for change in view to changing society. The awaited monograph on educational change is to be published by Pol¹⁴⁸.

Changes and development are natural with human beings and it is natural with humankind and everything it does. Change does not have to mean a total replacement of the present situation, on the other hand, change and deep change means to start with the analysis of the current situation and find better ways and improvements. Changing society (especially its democratization and globalization) needs to be reflected in schooling, and as the World Bank Report (2002) proclaims that higher education institutions represent the greatest innovative potential of a society.

Some observers insist that traditional colleges and universities must completely transform themselves – becoming more efficient, more affordable, more responsive to students – or risk becoming obsolete, overpowered by competitors who can deliver such an education (such as for-profit consulting firms that provide intercultural trainings and similar courses: (For recommendation on how to change Czech higher education institutions see OECD Country Report 2006, Matějů and Straková (2005)). Others emphasize the urgency of higher education’s reclaiming the moral high ground and of more actively contributing to the social good. Still others scoff at the notion that the sky is falling, proclaiming the resiliency of colleges and universities, citing their adaptation and endurance over time.

A question to be raised is whether higher education institutions have the capacity to translate their understanding of the new environment into a strategy for the future¹⁴⁹. Some observers are convinced that institutions react to uncertainty with resistance, only changing when forced to do so by legislators, activist boards, or public pressure. If colleges and universities want to change their futures, they must develop the capacities to change and change again in ways consistent with their mission and purpose.

1.6.3 Typology of change:

Green, Hill and Peter (2001) developed a clear typology for understanding an occurring change. Their matrix is based on the two basic elements of change: depth and

¹⁴⁷ S. Štech, *Křivá huba nebo křivé zrcadlo?* In *Pedagogika*, 2000, no 2, p. 117

¹⁴⁸ Note: *Škola v proměněch*, Masarykova univerzita, to be published in 2007/2008?.

¹⁴⁹ For concepts on pervasive roles or innovative roles of schools see e.g. Pol et al 2007.

pervasiveness (p.12). Their matrix helps to characterize the change that is occurring at higher education institutions and thus will be included in the research framework.

1. Deep change is characterized by a shift in values and is very much connected with the culture of the institution. Deep change requires people to think differently as well as to act differently. Deep change is not necessarily broad. Given decentralized nature of academic institutions, it is possible for deep change to occur within specific units or academic departments without being widespread throughout the institutions.

2. Pervasiveness refers to the extent to which a change is a far-reaching within the institution. The more pervasive a change, the more it crosses unit boundaries and touches different parts of the institution. (The use of computers is a common example of pervasive change. Faculty uses computers from tracking students accounts to submitting grades to analyzing data for research, to ordering books in the library.)

Using the parameters of depth and pervasiveness of change, they found that four kinds of change occur on campuses:

Adjustment	Isolated change
Pervasive change	Transformational change

(ibid, p. 13)

The first quadrant is adjustment – a change to an existing practice. Changes of this nature are: revisions, revitalizations, or renewals, they occur when current designs or procedures are improved or extended. An adjustment may improve a process or the quality of a service or it might add new element. Nevertheless, an adjustment is not a drastic alteration and does not yield a deep and far-reaching effects.

The second quadrant, isolated change, is deep but limited to one unit or a particular area it is not pervasive. An example of it is the infusion of an international dimension into the curriculum of certain department.

The third quadrant is pervasive change, it is extensive but does not affect the organization very deeply. An example of this type of change is a new process of submitting grades via web. It affects all academic units; however, the change is not very deep.

The final quadrant is a transformational change. Transformation occurs when a change is both deep and pervasive. Transformation does not entail fixing discrete problems or adjusting and refining current activities. The depth of transformation addresses those assumptions that tell organizations what to do, how to behave, and what to produce. In other words, transform touches the core of organization. It is also pervasive, it is collective, institution wide movement, even though it can happen one unit or one person at a time. Green, Hill, Peter (2001) describe it flowingly: "when enough people act differently or think in a new way, that new way becomes the norm" (p. 12).

Transformation in academic institutions is most likely to occur through evolutionary rather than revolutionary steps for specific internal and external circumstances influence the rate of change, which brings us back to the idea of learning/transforming organization. Most universities do not have the cultures and the structures to bring about rapid transformation. That is why the cultures of the institutions together with the forms of leadership is one of the significant variables of institutional change.

At the same time transformation of an institution cannot be done in environmental isolation as the systemic perspective rightly reminds. Seebaner, Koliadis, Helus (2000)¹⁵⁰ connect the development of a organization and behavior of individual stakeholders with the processes in the society. As an example of transformation the authors propose interdisciplinary teaching because it demands cooperation of teachers and involves also a certain level of the development of the school. Moreover, because of the close relationship between education, politics and economics, no educational issues can be solved in isolation.

¹⁵⁰ Their book "Kvalita cestou kvalifikace"(Quality through qualification) considers primary schools.

If higher education is to educate for the future and the future holds more global than strictly national dimension, there should be a reason for organizational change towards connecting with the world. Administrators can provide present day evidence of international activities in the form of newsletters, international events. Improving institutional infrastructure for the internationalization and gaining organizational culture for it is a problem noted both in U.S. and European literature. Institutions have to make significant changes to its curriculum so that the content is internationalized. They need to alter their pedagogies and assessment activities to include service learning, leaning communities, community and internationally/based learning. The institutions need to create new offices, need to change hiring policies based on merit-pay structures, develop recruitment plans for students, work with community, create budgetary incentives, encourage units and individuals to engage, address immediate problems and develop long-term mission plans.

In short, the institution needs to develop strategies to alter all components of the institution in order to bring out the desired change of the whole institutions. The following text will consider overall strategies as well as specific concepts involved in organizational change process.

1.6.4 Organizational Change

Review of organizational change literature reveals that the U.S. literature on higher education management and leadership is abundant (Northouse, 2004, Hunt 1991, etc.). Scholars may discuss particular topics of how leaders discover and communicate a vision, resistance factors to implementation of change, involvement/empowerment of all in the process (Freire), and challenges brought by different cultural leadership styles (Adler), and many other.

At this moment the Czech-written discourse offers literature on culture and climate of primary schools (Pol, Hloušková, Novotný, Zounek, 2006, Čáp, Mareš, 2001, Helus, 2007), role of school directors at primary schools (Pole et al, 2006), culture of organizations in general (Amrstrong, 2002), management (Cejtmar and Dědina, 2005), development (Eger, 2002,) leadership, and quality of primary schools or companies (Eger, 2004, Jakubíková, 2000, Nezvalová, 1998). An analysis of the tertiary education system in Czech Republic (Matějů and Straková, 2005) and a Czech translation of Fullan's Change Forces. Management literature covers organizational change literature (Pitra, 1998), translation of Kotter's Heat of Change (Srdce změny, 2003) and Leading Change (Vedení změny, 2000) and on effects of social change on organizations in Organizational Change of post-communist Europe: Management and Transformation in the Czech republic (Clark, Soulsby, 1999).

A considerable number of international materials on organizational change looks at the institution from a system-wide perspective considering relationships among its components and well as its outreach to the outside world.

Vassallo (1996) communicates his powerful seven-point strategy for transforming today's organizations. Davies (1992) proposes a model in Klasek's (1992) well-known book entitled *Bridges to the Future: Strategies for internationalizing Higher Education*. His model was later adopted by Ellingboe (1999) for her research in the following scheme:

- 1) leader's vision,
- 2) strategic planning,
- 3) financial component,
- 4) program element,
- 5) personnel,
- 6) evaluation.

The already mentioned ACE project (1998, 1999, 2000, 2001) on transformation of universities restructured the dimensions into an even more detailed structure (see systemic guidelines for organizational change).

All of the above mentioned perspectives have one very important common denominator: all try to look at the institution from a systems perspective and the more recent ones refer directly to Senge and Fullan's concepts of learning organizations. With OECD Report (2006) recommendations and Matějů and Straková (2005) comments on the slow speed of transformation processes of higher education institutions, it may be useful to understand the potentials of the concept.

1.6.5 Learning organizations

The concept of a learning and self-renewing individual and later of an organization has been around since the 1960's (Gardner, 1964). The emergence of the idea of the 'learning organization' is also wrapped up with notions such as the learning society. Perhaps the defining contribution to the theory was made by Donald Schon (1973). He provided a theoretical framework linking the experience of living in a situation of an increasing change with the need for learning. He describes his rationale for developing the concept of a learning organization with these words:

„The loss of the stable state means that our society and all of its institutions are in *continuous* processes of transformation. We must learn to understand, guide, influence and manage these transformations. We must make the capacity for undertaking them integral to ourselves and to our institutions. We must, in other words, become adept at learning. We must become able not only to transform our institutions, in response to changing situations and requirements; we must invent and develop institutions which are 'learning systems', that is to say, systems capable of bringing about their own continuing transformation“.
(Schon 1973, p. 28)¹⁵¹

Senge (1990) brought the model of a learning organization to the systems thinking perspective. Systems thinking is the conceptual cornerstone of his influential book *The Fifth Discipline* (1990). It is the discipline that integrates the others, fusing them into a coherent body of theory and practice (ibid, p. 12). Systems theory's ability to comprehend and address the whole, and to examine the interrelationship between the parts provides, for Senge, both the incentive and the means to integrate the disciplines. Three things need to be noted here.

First, systems theory looks to connections and to the whole. In this respect it allows people to look beyond the immediate context and to appreciate the impact of their actions upon others (and vice versa). To this extent it holds the possibility of achieving a more holistic understanding.

Second, while the building blocks of systems theory are relatively simple, they can build into a rather more sophisticated model than are current in many organizations. Senge argues that one of the key problems with much that is written about, and done in the name of management, is that rather simplistic frameworks are applied to what are complex systems. When we add these two points together it is possible to move beyond a focus on the parts, to begin to see the whole, and to appreciate organization as a dynamic process. Thus, the argument runs: a better appreciation of systems will lead to more appropriate action.

Third, systemic thinking, according to Senge, allows us to realize the significance of feedback mechanisms in organizations and thus to orientate the organization towards long-term views. (1990, pp. 92)¹⁵²

¹⁵¹ <http://www.infed.org/biblio/learning-organization.htm>

¹⁵² Senge's (1990) example of what systems thinking means is: "A cloud masses, the sky darkens, leaves twist upward, and we know that it will rain. We also know that after the storm, the runoff will feed into groundwater miles away, and the sky will grow clear by tomorrow. All

While other writers may also lay stress just on the working of the parts of the system, in Senge's work it sharpens the model of a learning organization and provides integration of the five 'disciplines' he identifies: personal mastery, mental models, shared vision, team learning and systems thinking. He characterizes learning organizations as having the following features: continuous learning opportunities, use learning to reach their goals, link individual performance with organizational performance, foster inquiry and creativity, teamwork, involvement of all in decision making, but also shift of mind, mental models, shared vision, team learning, and finally "localness" of decision making. His own definition goes as follows:

"Learning organizations [are] organizations where people continually expand their capacity to create the results they truly desire, where new and expansive patterns of thinking are nurtured, where collective aspiration is set free, and where people are continually learning to see the whole together". (Senge, 1990, p. 3)

Especially his ideas on local versus traditional hierarchy might resonate with today's university leadership in their effort on drawing a vision and implementing it. As Kerka (1995) comments the five „disciplines“ that Peter Senge identified are the keys to achieving this sort of organization. According to her, most recent conceptualizations of the learning organizations seem to work on rather general assumptions that learning is valuable, continuous, and most effective when shared and that every experience is an opportunity to learn.¹⁵³

Senge's ideas were transferred to the educational sciences for example by Fullan (1998). According to him, the way teachers are trained, the way that schools are organized, the way the educational hierarchy operates, and the way that education is treated by political decision makers results in a system that is more likely to retain the status quo than to change. Unless the educational system becomes a learning organization - which is: dealing with change as a normal part of work, not just in relation to the latest policy, but as a way of life - it is impossible to make a change in non-linear complex system.

Senge's model was an alternative to authoritarian hierarchy but also as an innovation alternative with lifelong commitment to learning. The theory of learning organization is built on interdisciplinary thinking rather than one traditional discipline's perspective. System approaches have found their place in management theories as well as in theories of change applied either in the context of schooling or organizations in general.

Fullan and others have tried to bring the learning organization into the specific primary and secondary school culture, which is both conserving its tradition and being under constant pressure for reform. According to one of the famous advocates Senge's ideas - Fullan, the concept of learning organization has been in general fit for thinking about educational change as a larger social agenda of creating learning societies on the edge of the 21st. (Fullan, 1998).

In 1998, Fullan wrote that scholars in educational sciences are beginning to appreciate the systemic views: the total picture *Managing in the Edge* by Pacale, 1990, *The fifth Discipline* by Senge, 1990, *Breakpoint and Beyond* by Land and Jarman, 1992, *Managing the Unknowable* by Stacey, 1992, *The Challenge of Organizational Change* by Kanter, Stein and Jick, *Changing Essence* by Beckhard and Pritchard, 1992 . The ideas of holistic view are not uncommon in international education either. Some of the voiced argumentation

these events are distant in the and space, and yet they are all connected within the same patter. Each has an influence on the rest, an influence that is usually hidden from view. You can only understand the system of rainstorm by contemplating the whole, not an individual apart of the latter." (p.7). Human actions are also system, bound by invisible fabrics of interrelated actions, which often take years to fully play out their effects on each other. Since we are part of the system, it is hard to see the whole pattern. There is no end to the exploration of the system, we can never say that now we comprehend how the whole net functions (ibid, p. 8)

¹⁵³ for more discussion on Senge's theory see <http://www.infed.org/biblio/learning-organization.htm>

is to be heard from Mestenhauser (1998, 2000, 2002), Ellingboe (1999) Nilsson (2000), Harrari (1998), Klasek (1992) and Green, Peter, Hill (2003).

In the Czech Republic the system perspective was adopted by Blížkovský (1997) in his definition of educational situation, even though he used earlier works in his conceptualization than Senge's (1990) book and also for example by Prášilová (2003) and Bacík and Kalous (1998) from their rather management perspective. Also Bacík, Kalous, Svoboda(1998) stress constant innovation of organization as a whole as the commitment to it of its stakeholders. They do it without a direct reference to Senge and rely on Fullan. For them, a school (meaning primary school) in order to be successful, cannot close itself to its problems, on contrary, it has to constantly perceive what is going on around and react to that (pp.150)¹⁵⁴. Within the managerial literature one can find also books on organizational change (Pittra, 1998,).

1.6.6 Strategic planning

Some of the strategic planning authors are: Keller (1983), Davies (1992), Peterson (1980), Bryson (1995), Cope (1981), Chaffee (1985), Smart (1996), are some of the strategic planning authors who have written about higher education planning. (For Czech scholars the available resources are: Hargreaves and Hopkins (1992) or Hugh Lawlor (1998), Košťan and Šuleř (2002)¹⁵⁵.

Planning as such is not a new concept, it has been done always. What strategic planning does that it allows the organization to control and manage changes and anticipate future. The future orientation of such planning may be the reason why it may not be so commonly used in culture characterized by short-term orientation. It will be interesting to find out how Czech leadership of the institution and of department as well as teaching staff plans changes (conf. chap. On Discussion of Findings).

An outline of the strategic planning process according to looks like this: Stage 1 - Arriving at the mission, aims and objectives; Stage 2 – Review of Strengths and Weaknesses; Stage 3 – Determining priorities; Stage 4 – Drawing up action plans; Stage 5 – Evaluation of the plan and process (Lawlor, 1999, pp. 94-99).

When there are great challenges in an institution like innovative pressures, there is no feasible way of redefining roles of responsibilities within a realigned, redesigned organization unless one does it within a strategic planning process. Bryson (1995) describes strategic planning as a set of concepts, procedures and tools designed to help leader, manager, and planners think and act strategically (p. 9, In Ellingboe, 1999, p. 11). Some of the benefits of doing strategic planning include: enhanced organization responsiveness, improved performance, and direct benefits for the people within as organization.

Moreover, according to Chaffee (1985), strategic planning can provide the kind of thinking about actions that higher education institutions desperately need to follow: firstly, it encourages awareness of the organization's environment; secondly, it encourages decision makers to anticipate or counter the moves of their competitors; and thirdly, it encourages anticipatory adaptation. (Chaffee, 1985, In Ellingboe, 1998, p.112). By scanning the environment, an organization can evaluate future possibilities and make changes to adapt to the changing environment and equip itself for the market place (ibid, p.111).

¹⁵⁴ As far as their systemic approach to schooling point to its integration of its subsystems as a condition of its existence. Bacík, Kalous and Svoboda (1998) comprehend the systemic approach as an answer to the "pluralistic pedagogical thinking in order to find attitudinal integration at least the main pedagogical questions and approaches in order to allow the school to function successfully." (p. 155) A contrasting view is traditionally held in works of international authors. System thinking is not viewed as a way of integration of plurality of views but rather as an interplay of them.

¹⁵⁵ Košťan and Šuleř (2002) in Czech deal with management of companies rather than institutions of higher education Lawlor and Hargreaves with primary schools rather.

Bacík, Kalous and Svodoba (1998) do not stress such future orientation in their book; they remind us that in order to set the schools mission, the analysis of internal and external factors needs to be done. The school has to be placed in “political and administrative context, socio-cultural context, economical and technological context and demographical development.” (p.178). The authors provide also ideas how to transfer the roles organizations into a mission statement from which flow general aims and concrete strategies as well as evaluation indicators (pp. 185).

In order to do strategic planning it is necessary to understand who participates in the process and what is needed in order for the planning to be successfully implemented. Answering these questions is crucial for one of the already mentioned sub-processes of the strategic planning, namely visioning - a concept that requires more detailed explanation as follows.

According to the literature reviewed here, a vision appears to be the major characteristic of effective leadership. According to the scholarship, any organization, public or private, must base its action on its “mission” for the future (Troquest, 2004, p. 61). The process of building a vision can be seen as either a participative process or a process done by the leadership. The question of who creates the vision has consequent implications of who will be engaged in bringing the vision into reality and thus either support the change that are anticipated or sabotage these changes. Understanding of how the vision is created is very important for considerations about how the change is occurring in organizations and might help to explain the nuances and causal relationships of why change is/is not occurring.

Recently, Gilbert (2006, p.156) writes about ways of building a consensus from a new vision for an academic department. Gilbert’s experience may serve as a source of handy inspiration for heads of departments. He began the process by asking all members to suggest ideas related to departmental needs (at a brainstorming meeting and individually in two weeks time). He then collated these ideas without attributing them to any person. Collated submissions were distributed to the faculty to be ranked as essential, desirable, nonessential. The scores were averaged and a list order higher to lowest importance was discussed at next meeting. Ideas were advocated, criticized, discussed and strategies of implementation were suggested. During the next step, all members were asked to identify and rank five choices to establish departmental goals for the next year (with ranking of importance). The top three of five priorities were then developed into an action plan. This general procedure can be easily adapted to other settings where the vision is to be decided.

Senge (1990) comes with a more general description of the process of building a vision. The visioning idea should definitely come at times where a total redefinition of the organizations role and its vision is to be tackled. According to Senge, the organization should start with the following questions: What is the picture of future we seek to create (vision). Why do we exist? How do we want to contribute to the world? How do we want to act consistent with our vision?

Senge (1990) also comments on the negative/positive character of the vision. A positive vision is different from what the organization wants to avoid. This seems obvious but negative visions are in fact more common than positive ones. Many organizations truly “pull together” only when their survival is threatened. They focus on avoiding on what people do not want – being taken over, going bankrupt, losing jobs or not letting our competitor beat up, (conf. European and Czech strategic papers above).

According to Senge (1990), negative visions are limiting for three reasons. Firstly, energy that could build something new is diverted to: preventing something, we do not want to happen. Second, negative visions carry a subtle, yet unmistakable, message of

¹⁵⁶ Developing Department Goals by Building Consensus see ACE web page: <http://www.acenet.edu/resources/chairs/index.cfm?section=2&subsection=24>

powerlessness: our people really do not care. They can pull together only when there is a sufficient threat. Lastly, negative visions are inevitably short-term for the organization is motivated so long as the threat persists. Once it leaves, so does the organization's vision and energy. There are two fundamental sources of energy that can motivate organizations: fear and aspiration. The power of fear underlies negative visions. The power of aspiration drives positive visions. Fear can produce extraordinary changes in short periods, but aspiration endures as a continuing source of learning and growth (p. 225).

A positive vision is actually linked with a more general concept of positive politics of change, which occurs in the literature. The key to positive politics, then, is to look at each encounter as an opportunity to support autonomy and to create an organization of our own choosing. The way people perceive encounters may be culture bound. The different "uncertainty avoidance" indexes (Hofstede and Hofstede, 1999) may influence how the above described process greatly.

Senge's idea on visioning in order to be successful must fulfill the following characteristics: a) the vision must be believed in and b) advocated for by everybody; c) must be supported by „personal mastery“ and d) creativity, e) must involve some conflict overcome by team skills, f) must allow for enough time and human resources.

Senge (1990) classified several categories of attitudes according to the extent of how much one believes in and is involved in the vision.

Also according to Fullan (1993), accomplishing personal purposes is a route to organizational change. When personal purpose is present in numbers, it presents a vehicle for change. If schools are to become the responsive, renewing institutions that they must, the teachers in them must be purposefully engaged in the renewal process (Fullan, 1998, p. 9). All stakeholders must believe in both: the rationale for internationalization and for change in general. Overall, Senge's and Fullan's ideas about the visioning process are influenced by his assumption that the vision should be created by the whole team and that organization's leadership is decentralized and participatory.

There is one more question to be asked about the kind of goal that drives the vision – the rationalization behind it. According to Jaworski (1996) visioning requires linking individual goals to institutional goals and finding how one's inner path of leadership links to the grater good and the broader vision of the organization.

There is a great distinction between self-interest driven vision and common-interest driven vision. If individual division heads worry that, his/her section will not receive adequate attention from the institutional leadership then they start to compete with other divisions. One division head may advise his/her staff to identify their requests as being high priority. Other divisions, fearing that they will be slighted, push for more support and decide to try the same strategy. Before long, most requests coming in are "high priority" and the managing staff starts to discount them. Or, worse yet, the support staff tries to accomplish everything asked of them, so they accept all the extra requests, become overburdened with "juggling" priorities, and their work quality rapidly deteriorates until they are no longer useful to anyone. That leads to the conclusion that successful vision can hardly be by self-interests.

Appendix 1.7 Figure on EMIC-ETIC perspective in research (taken from the already mentioned Segal, Berry, Dasen, 2002, p. 41)

<i>STEP</i>	<i>RESEARCH ACTIVITY</i>	<i>OWN CULTURE</i>	<i>OTHER CULTURE</i>
1.	Begin research in own culture	EMIC A	
2.	Transport to other culture		Imposed ETIC
3.	Discover other culture		EMIC B
4.	Compare 2 cultures	EMIC A	EMIC B
5.	Comparison not possible	EMIC A	EMIC B
6.	Comparison possible	EMIC A	EMIC B
			Derived etic

Appendix 1.8 Comparison of multicultural and international education by Mestenhauser (2008)

Issue:	Multicultural:	International:
Antecedent:	History of oppression, discrimination, exclusion, atrocities	Ethnocentrism, wars
Goals:	Equality, inclusion, removal of causes of discrimination, Restitution, entitlements, respect	int'l relations, understanding assistance to individuals knowledge production, utilization
Frames of reference	Human Rights democracy, Civil society	cultural diplomacy, diplomacy, business Interactions, communication
Methods of	primary: legal remedies secondary: education	Primary: education secondary: interaction Contacts, networks
Scope:	specific "minorities" e.g. ethnic, racial, gender, etc.	entire world, individual countries, int'l org., multi-Nat'l corporations
Issues for students	change majority, restitution of equality, access, participation	treatment of for. Students, int. scholars, Integration, inclusion of students
Power, influence	majority vs. minority Assumptions" that power is exercised unidirectionally	big and small nations
Social psychology	us versus them = changing mindsets = leadership driven	us versus them = changing mindsets = leadership driven
Points of contact overlap: treatment of individuals, acceptance of differences, knowledge about communication, origin of prejudice and stereotyping, ethnocentrism, ethnic conflicts, history, specific cultures, they also overlap when minorities show interest in foreign nationals from the countries of their own origin		

Appendix 1.9 Short overview on multiculturalism

First of all, it useful to trace the development of the discourse on multiculturalism with its distinctive features and arguments, having in minded that there is unavailable literature in Czech on the issue. Similarly to internationalization, multiculturalism as old as migration and encounters of peoples. I will however go back only as far as the last century and shed light on the discussion that took place in USA in the second half of the 20th ct. (Period before that is covered in Appendix III where multiculturalism is usually is agreed (Banks, 2002 in Turner et al, 2002, p 472) described to „start”).

Banks succinctly summarizes four overlapping phases in the evolution of multicultural education since it emerged in 1960's. The first phase, the ethnic studies approach, emphasizes ethnic pride, empowerment, and social change. Ethnic studies strove to give historically marginalized groups in society a voice in the curriculum and it significantly influenced multicultural education. Multiethnic education, the second phase, moved beyond a strictly curricular focus and sought to bring about educational equality systemic and structural reforms. In the third phase, multicultural education came to encompass much more than race and ethnic studies, as other groups (women, gays, lesbian, and the disabled) sought to have their voices, experiences, and cultures reflected in higher education. The fourth current phase

has involved a comparative approach, examining the connection and interrelationships among race, ethnicity, gender, and class (conf. J. Banks & C.A. McGee Bank, 2004).

Multicultural education followed political and social movement and represents a great variety of attitudinal positions since it 1960's. It is useful also to look at the various positions thematically rather than just through the historical developmental perspective, (Banks above). In order to keep it succinct and well arranged I will use short illustrative commentaries arranged into a table based on Kincheloe and Steinberg (1997).

<p>Conservative multiculturalists</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ believe in the superiority of Western/other culture ▪ liberation movements is seen as attacks on "Western" identity ▪ try to assimilate everyone who is capable of assimilation to a (e.g. white, middle-class) standard ▪ believe that universities are places where objective researchers and teachers pursue and produce the truth and defend what they worked so hard to build against any new voices
<p>Liberal multiculturalists</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ individuals from diverse backgrounds share a natural equality and a common humanity, colorblind perspective ▪ intellectual sameness exists that allows different people to compete equally for resources in a capitalist economy ▪ depoliticize and decontextualize multiculturalisms at schools
<p>Pluralist multiculturalism¹⁵⁷</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ focus on the difference as opposed to liberalism's focus on sameness. ▪ celebrate human diversity in comfortable: way of seeing diversity as enrichment, as some kind of seasoning. "We" learn about how "they" how celebrate Hanukkah, or how "they" cook. ▪ do not disrupt the dominant (perhaps Western) narratives or view power relationship ▪ open up curriculum to scholarship written by women, Jews, African Americans, Latinos, etc
<p>Left-essentialism¹⁵⁸</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ race and gender are unchanging hereditary and biological categories ▪ do not recognize the poststructuralist notion that identity formation is socially constructed ▪ connect their difference to a romanticized historical past ▪ is concerned more with self assertion
<p>Critical multiculturalism</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ economic inequality of a central concern because it interacts with other axes of power like race, gender etc ▪ is concerned with how power has operated historically and contemporaneously to legitimate social categories ▪ rethink the ways knowledge (as power) is produced and reproduced and what role power plays within the educational process. ▪ rethink the study of education in isolation to society, respectively in isolation to those who are outside the mainstream, to those with whom have not been counted on in past school reforms

Appendix 1.10 Research on multicultural diversity benefits:

- 1) Higher minority retention (e.g. Bowen and Bok, 1998, Chang, 1996);
- 2) Greater cognitive development (Cohen et al, 1997, Hurtado, 1999, Astin, 2002), critical thinking skills (Pascarella, Edison, Nora, Hagerdon, and Terenzini, 1996; MacPhee, Kreutzer, and Fritz, 1994)

¹⁵⁷ Note E.J. seems to be nourished in CR

¹⁵⁸ Hirt, Jakoubek (2005) reproach some scholars from Roma studies at FF UK from essentialism.

- 3) Gains in interpersonal and psychological developmental changes including increased openness to diversity (Pascarella, et al. 1996);
- 4) Greater commitment to social justice (Antonio, 1998),
- 5) More positive academic and social self-concepts (Astin, 1993)
- 6) More civic-related values and greater involvement in community (Astin, 1993, Hurtado, 1999, Bowen and Bok, 1998,
- 7) Gains in problem solving and team work (Terenzi, Carbera, Colbeck, Bjorklund, Parente, 2006 In Turner et al, 2002),
- 8) Positive impact on future life with the view to choosing culturally diverse organizations (perpetuation of segregation of desegregation (McPartland, 1982; Bikson and law, 1994).
- 9) There has been research on the improvement of organization performance (Cox, 1993),
- 10) Higher levels of critical analysis in problem solving in heterogeneous groups (Nemeth 1985), and
- 11) Improvement of campus climate (Hurtado et al., In Turner et al. 2002, p. 671-686), learning process and learning methods (Gurin, 1999).
- 12) Improved learning outcomes through active learning processes (Gurin, 1999; Orfield and Whitla, 1999) and improved campus climate (Hurtado, Milem, Clayton, and Allen, 1998, 1999) outcomes
- 13) Positive attitude of faculty to improved students' outcomes (HERI, 2002)
- 14) Positive impact of diverse faculty (Milem, 1999)

Appendix 1.11 Ellingboe's list of other than economic rationales for internationalization of U.S. institutions includes the following:

- 1) Internationalization benefits students' world view by broadening the students' knowledge base for international issues and culture, and it may enhance the value of students' major as defined by the student and by future employers;
- 2) Employers may look favorably upon graduates with an international knowledge base and skills and cross-cultural competencies;
- 3) The college and university's academic quality may be enhanced as a result of internationalizing the curriculum and efforts that support them. At the same time an internationalized on-campus curriculum reaches more people and is less expensive than sending a few faculty and students abroad;
- 4) The public image and national reputation of an institution may be affected positively;
- 5) Internationalization may be looked upon positively by accrediting agencies and boards of trustees and external evaluators;
- 6) An internationalized university may attract faculty with international experience and interests to apply for positions and may encourage students with international interests to apply for admission and thereby increasing the international knowledge base of the campus;
- 7) An internationalized university may provide more on-campus intercultural connections and networking that would benefit faculty, staff, and students;
- 8) An international perspective in academic affairs units may give incentives for students affairs units to coincide or collaborate in making their units internationally focused also (and vice versa);
- 9) An institution which has made internationalization a priority may be publicly launched into arena with other internationalized institutions and may receive distinction in higher education circles as conferences, within and among consortia, etc.;
- 10) An international institution may see increase in individual, corporate, and foundational giving as it creates targeted resource development campaigns aimed at specific internationalization programs to benefit the campus and campus climate. (Ellingboe, 1990, p. 47-50).

Appendix 2

Appendix 2.1 Major research issues, concepts and research questions

Major research issues	Concepts	Details to be explored	Type of questions
Overall mission on connection to the changing society, understanding IZ,	Ellingboe;	How does IZ fit into the mission What do you understand under IZ	Value orientation, reasoning
Rationale	De Witt; Knight; Olson, Evans, Schoenberg,	Why to do it? Why not?	Reasoning/outcomes
Which components are included?	Mestenhauser & Paige, Nilsson	Curriculum, involvement of students and faculty, culture, research, outreach, leadership?	Priority setting Structural
Organizational change	Green, Eckel, Hill	Strategic planning? Leadership? Goals?	Structural/procedural Priority setting
Involvement of stakeholders	Fullan, Senge,	Everybody committed? Leadership? Skills necessary	Procedural Cultural Future oriented

Appendix 2.2. Characteristics of offered courses

A) Offer of course of non-philological departments

Departments	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K
Courses in foreign language	0	0	Yes*	0	0	5	0	0	9	0	8
International topics	Yes	Yes	Yes	14 (37)	7 (15)	25 (37)	Yes	5 (57)	10 (80)	Yes	Yes
International materials	No	Yes!	Yes!	Yes, Varies**	Yes!	Yes!	Yes	?	Yes	Yes	Yes

DEPARTMENTS	L	M	N	O	P	Q	R
Courses in foreign language	0	0	0	0	1	2	1
International topics	0	34 (56)	0	Yes	Yes	Yes	2
International materials	Yes	Yes!	?	Varies	varies**	Yes	Varies

*only irregular workshops in current offer;

** topics on area studies may not include any international literature;

? not stated on web pages

Tables do not include translation and interpretation-focused departments

B) The offer of courses of relevant philological/area studies departments

Departments	S	T	U	V	W	X	Y	Z	ZA	ZB
Courses in target language	0	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Few	Few	Yes	Yes	Yes

Topics on culture (not literature courses)	0	3(50)	Socio-political, multicult.	Yes Sociopolitic.	0	Few	5 (58)	Few	0	Yes
International Materials	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes

*only irregular workshops in current offer;

** topics on area studies may not include any international literature;

? not stated on web pages

Tables do not include translation and interpretation-focused departments

Appendix 2.3. Table: student mobility in 2006 look like this (the total number of students is 7061):

<i>Outgoing students</i>		<i>Incoming students</i>	
ERASMUS:	240		15
Governmental agreements:	139		78
Interinstitutional agreements:	53		49
Visegrad:	8		0
Fond mobility:	12		31

Appendix 3 Interview Schedules, Checklists

(Dean, International Edu. Administrators, Faculty and Department Chairs)

INTERVIEW Num. 1/Rozhovor:č. 1 – Děkan/ka fakulty

1. Jaké je poslání Vaší školy a z čeho vychází?
2. Jaká je Vaše definice „internacionalizace univerzity“?
 - Pokud problém, tak proč?
3. Fakulta v rámci Boloňského procesu harmonizovala strukturu. Jak hodnotíte změny a jejich dopad?
4. Jak byste popsal/a proces internacionalizace?
 - Co motivovalo ke stanovení si priorit mezinárodní výzkumné spolupráce s USA ve vizi instituce?
 - Pro koho bude internacionalizace přínosná a pro koho riziková
5. Jaký je současný stav a podoba internacionalizace?
 - Domníváte se, že jsou absolventi připravováni na práci a život v mezinárodním prostředí?
 - Domníváte se, že kromě jednotlivých filologických oborů výuka poskytuje studentům „mezinárodní rozhled“?
 - Je prostředí školy přívětivé a nakloněné zahraničním studentům a pedagogům?
4. Jaká je Vaše dlouhodobá vize internacionalizace?
5. Jaké strategie využíváte, k docílení těchto priorit?
6. Kdo se podílí na vedení fakulty? Kdo má vliv na prosazování změn?
 - Jsou dané jasné kompetence, nebo dochází k neformálním rozhodovacím mechanismům?
 Kdo a do jaké míry ovlivňuje implementaci internacionalizace?
 - Je priorita internacionalizace zahrnuta ve strategickém plánování fakulty?
 - Jakým způsobem probíhá plánování?
7. Kdo je zodpovědný za implementaci internacionalizace na fakultě?
 - Jaká je role proděkanky pro zahraniční vztahy?
 - Jakou roli hraje zahraniční oddělení?
 - Jaké jsou jejich kompetence a možnosti prosazování internacionalizace v celé instituci?
8. Jak byste hodnotil/a zaangażování ostatních členů a pracovníků fakulty?
 - Je internacionalizace mezi prioritami strategických plánů všech kateder a ústavů?

- Existují rozdíly v přístupu k těmto otázkám mezi jednotlivci, katedrami, administrativními pracovníky podmíněné věkem a proč?
9. Jaké strategie využíváte Vy osobně k prosazení internacionalizace?
 - Komunikujete se zaměstnanci o důležitosti zahraniční spolupráce?
 - Jaké prostředky využíváte, abyste ukázal svoji zangažovanost a podporu?
 - Jak podporujete studenty a pracovníky fakulty v mobilitě, spolupráci a v dalších stanovených cílech?
 10. Je v osobním ohodnocování přehlíženo k následujícím okolnostem:
 - zapojení se do mezinárodní spolupráce, pobyt v zahraničí, péče o zahraniční studenty nebo profesory, výuka v cizím jazyce, revaluace kurikula, publikace v zahraničí?
 - zohledňujete ve své personální politice zahraniční zkušenosti, publikace v zahraničí, členství v zahraničních asociacích?
 - spolupracujete se zahraničním oddělením na společné strategii, jak prosadit prioritu internacionalizace?
 - daří se zahraničnímu oddělení prosazovat myšlenku internacionalizace?
 11. Domníváte se, že současné kurikulum, klima a kultura školy jsou internacionalizaci nakloněny?
 - Pokud ano – k jakým procesům dochází?
 - Pokud ne- proč
 12. Internacionalizace je popisována jako proměna celé instituce. (Checklist)
 13. Je internacionalizace součástí interní/externí evaluace instituce?
 14. Jak byste pospal/a svoje vlastní zapojení v internacionalizaci?
 - Co děláte?
 15. Jaké jsou 2 silné stránky a dvě překážky k internacionalizaci?
 - Na osobní rovině zaměstnanců?
 - Na úrovni instituce?
 - Jaké vidíte Vaše silné a slabé stránky?
 16. Potřeboval/a byste nějaké informace ohledně tématu pro svoji práci?

QUESTIONNAIRE#1 (based on Henson et al. (1990) Checklist of priorities for senior positions)

Jaké jsou Vaše současné priority v oblasti internacionalizace fakulty?	Vysoké	Střední	Nízké		
Bohaté možnosti studia v zahraničí pro studenty					
Podpora mezinárodních výzkumných aktivit pedagogů a jejich členství v mezinárodních asociacích					
Podpora rozvoje a vzdělávání pedagogů: Např. semináře interkulturní komunikace, cizího jazyka, podpora při psaní mezinárodních grantů					
Podpora spolupráce se zahraničními institucemi na výuce Např. point degrese, elearning					
Podpora výzkumu zaměřeného na třetí svět nebo vzájemnou propojenost světa					
Zavedení povinných kreditů ze dvou cizích jazyků a kurzu věnujícímu se globální/rozvojové/ interkulturní problematice					
Zahrnutí zahraničních témat, metodologie, materiálů ve výuce					
Rozvoj kritického myšlení, komparativních kognitivních dovedností a dovedností interkulturní komunikace u studentů Podpora spolupráce mezi jednotlivými pracovišti/obory fakulty na výuce a na výzkumech					
Zapojení zahraničních studentů ve veškeré výuce a spolupráce s našimi studenty na výzkumech					
Zapojení zahraničních pedagogů do strategického plánování kateder, fakultních a univerzitních ceremonií, oficiálních setkání a dalších mimoškolních aktivit					
Podpora mezinárodního klimatu školy: materiály, orientační nápisy, administrativa mluvící cizími jazyky, semináře, filmy, festivaly					
Podpora spolupráce se subjekty z neakademické zajišťování finančních zdrojů na internacionalizaci					

QUESTIONNAIRE # 2 Organizational Change (based on Fullan, 1998, Senge, 1993)/
Dotazník 2 Organizační změna (E.J. založeno na teoriích Senge, Fullana)

Co je potřeba k proměně fakulty?	Dochází k tomu	Nedochází, ale je potřeba	Není potřeba
Všemi sdílená vize			
Strategické plánování/ jinou strategii - prosím doplňte			
Změna musí přinést individuální profit			
Změna musí přinést profit všem			
Dostatek času věnovaný k prodiskutování změn a jejich zavedení			
Pevné vedení a rozhodování na centrální úrovni			
Decentralizované rozhodování			
Změna kultury a klimatu školy			
Změna způsobů práce			
Změna myšlení a uvažování všech členů university			
Zahrnutí studentů do rozhodování a procesuálních změn			
Spolupráce mezi katedrami			
Rozvíjení osobních dovedností: týmové práce, naslouchání, schopnost kompromisu			
Různé názory na vizi změny			
Vysoká míra osobního zaangażování u všech pracovníků			
Jiné			

INTERVIEW Num. 2/Rozhovor:č. 2 – Vedoucí pracovník zahr. oddělení, proděkan/ka pro zahr. záležitosti a vedoucí zahr. odd. rektorátu

- Jaké jsou Vaše kompetence a zodpovědnost na oddělení?
- Jaká je Vaše pracovní definice „internacionalizace univerzity“?
- Pokud máte s jejím vymezením problém, tak proč?
- Považujete ji za prioritní oblast současné VŠ pedagogiky, proč?
- Jak byste popsali proces internacionalizace na Vaší fakultě/univerzitě?
- Jak se fakulta dostala k současnému stavu? Jak hodnotíte zpětně tento proces?
- Jaké aspekty internacionalizace probíhají a jaké ne/jsou budoucími cíly?
- Jaké jsou současné priority fakulty a změnily se nějak?
- Jaká je Vaše dlouhodobá vize internacionalizace?
- Jaké teoretické přístupy k Internacionalizaci využíváte ve strategii?
- Pro koho je/bude internacionalizace přínosná (a pro koho riziková)?
- Domníváte se, že škola připravuje absolventy k práci a pro život v mezinárodním prostředí? Jaké specifické znalosti, dovednosti by měli Vaši absolventi mít a kde je mohou obdržet? Ve kterých kurzech dostanou tyto dovednosti/znalosti?
- Vzdělávací obsah předmětů má také obsahovat rozvoj intelektuálních dovedností. Jaké schopnosti si myslíte, že studenti získávají?
- Domníváte se, že kromě jednotlivých filologických oborů, poskytuje současně koncipované obory a výuka studentům „mezinárodní rozhled“?
- Existují informace ohledně jazykových schopností u Vašich studentů před příchodem, po ukončení studia? (Jaké jazyky? Na jaké úrovni schopnosti?)
- Je klima školy přívětivé vůči zahraničním studentům a pedagogům?

- Jak? Co víc hodláte dělat?
8. Jaké jsou Vaše zkušenosti se studenty, kteří studují v jiných zemích? Vrací se na univerzitu? Jsou jejich zkušenosti využívány v seminářích?
 9. Jaké jsou Vaše zkušenosti se zahraničními studenty. Jak se jim daří v našich vzdělávacích podmínkách a jak obstojí akademicky ve srovnání s našimi studenty?
 10. Máte provedenou SWOT analýzu (potřeby zahr. studentů a pracovníků, maximalizace zkušeností studentů a vědec. Pracovníků při návratu pro obor in instituci apod.)

QUESTIONNAIRE #3: Services of International Relations Office

Komponenty a strategie internacionalizace	Probíhají	Moje osobní priorita	Priorita školy	Není prioritou
Podpora bohatých možností studia v zahraničí pro studenty - jak?				
Podpora členství věd. pracovníků v mezinárodních asociacích, a redakčních komisích časopisů – jak?				
Zahrnutí pobytu v zahraničí do povinných kreditů				
Podpora: A) výukových pobytů pracovníků v zahraničí Výzkumných pobytů pracovníků v zahraničí				
Podpora rozvoje a vzdělávání pedagogů: např. semináře interkulturní komunikace, cizího jazyka, podpora při psaní mezinárodních grantů				
Pomáhat oborům internacionalizovat jejich kurikulum a disciplínu (interkulturní srovnání disciplíny, redefinice priorit oboru vzhledem k současnému měnícímu se světu, a měnícím se požadavkům na absolventy)				
Podpora spolupráce se zahraničními institucemi na výuce např. joint degree, e – learning				
Podpora výzkumu vědeckých pracovníků zaměřeného na problematiku rozvoje světa nebo vzájemné propojenosti světa				
Podpora mezinárodního výzkumu pomocí nových ICT (např. leapfrogging apod.), které nevyžadují mobilitu osob				
Podpora mezinárodního spolupráce ve výzkumu u studentů doktorského a magisterského studia				
Zavedení povinných kreditů ze dvou cizích jazyků a kurzu věnujícímu se globální/rozvojové/ interkulturní problematice				
Podpora mezioborové/mezikatedrové spolupráce na výuce na mezinárodní interdisciplinární témata (např. multikulturní vzdělávání: etnologie, sinologie...a pedagogika, interkulturní komunikace: psychologie, etnologie, lingvistika, atd.)				
Podpora spolupráce mezi jednotlivými pracovišti/obory fakulty na výuce a na výzkumech zaměřených na mezinárodní problematiku				
Zahrnutí zahraničních témat, materiálů ve výuce				
Využití kulturně odlišných metodologií a epistemologií (způsobů poznávání)				
Vedení studentů k hledání alternativních řešení/metodologií (k tradičně používaným) výzkumech, podporování emit-etic perspektivy				

na problematiku				
Podpora interkulturního srovnání přístupů a definování oboru/disciplíny včetně analýzy kulturní kontextualizace v českém a jiném prostředí				
Zapojení zahraničních studentů ve veškeré probíhající výuce a spolupráce s našimi studenty na výzkumech, seminárních pracích				
Integrace zahr. studentů a vědců do mimoškolního života školy (sbory, sporty, ceremoniály,...), se svými zkušenostmi do strategického plánování kateder a akademických ceremonií, oficiálních návštěv a dalších aktivit				
Zapojení do „prestižních“ mezinárodních výzkumných organizací (např. International Alliance for Research Universitties, Euaropaeum) a spolupráce na společných letních školách, výzkumu.				
Podpora dovedností u vedoucích pracovníků k transformaci pracovišť (dovednosti strategického plánování, další vzdělávání v manažerských dovednostech, interkulturní komunikace, řešení konfliktů, výběr vedoucích pracovníků)				
Podpora mezinárodního klimatu školy: materiály, orientační nápisy, administrativa mluvicí cizími jazyky, semináře, filmy, festivaly, jiné doplňky...				
Kompletní servis pro vyjíždějící studenty/zaměstnance: Informace o kulturních rozdílech (např. Příručka a semináře pro studium v zahraničí podle jednotlivých kultur/států) Semináře interkulturní sensitivity, interkulturní komunikace, týmové (interkulturní spolupráce-hl.pro výzkumné aktivity), anti-bias (protipředsudkové), multikulturní semináře, předcházení kulturního šoku Další vzdělávání vědeckých pracovníků (viz výše), plus cizí jazyky, ICT technologie s využitím pro zahr. spolupráci v výzkumu i výuce (např. e-learning) Spolupráce s katedrami na takovém souhrnu informací k přípravě studentů pře výjezdem, aby měli interkulturní srovnání oboru před výjezdem a maximalizovali zisk vědomostí Poradenství před pobytem v cizině, výběr státu, instituce, velikost stipendia, délka pobytu, druh ubytování, možné zdravotní/životní nebezpečí Informace: příprava, cesta, pojištění, peníze, (především pro neevropské destinace), důležité mezinárodní právní předpisy, zdraví, nebezpečí, rodina s sebou Poradenství při pobytu v cizině (v případě sex. harassment, krizový management při krádeže dokladů, apod.) Informace pro rodiče vyjíždějících studentů Návrat domů, re-entry semináře, předcházení kulturnímu šoku Po-pobytové poradenství (integrace vědomostí, kariérové poradenství v mezinárodních institucích, možnosti dalších zahr. Zkušeností) Poradenství pro zaměstnance (možnosti rozvíjení				

<p>kontaktů, systém spolupráce s knihovnou na převodu materiálů, max. usnadnění agendy administrativních záležitosti)</p> <p>Integrace zpět na pracoviště, sdílení s kolegy, motivace k okamžité publikaci, využití zkušeností pro strateg. Plánování a případně administrativní změny – maximalizace zkušeností pro obor i instituci)</p> <p>Pro zahr. Studenty a pracovníky: Orientační semináře při příjezdu zahr. Studentů a vědců</p> <p>Informace o pojištění, ubytování, volný čas, pro ostatní členy rodiny (např. školky), bank. účty, zdraví,</p> <p>Psychosociální a osobnostní poradenství (kulturní šok)</p> <p>interkulturní poradenství (cultural adjustment) semináře interkulturní komunikace a kulturních rozdílů a specifické informace (policie, apod.)</p> <p>Výuka češtiny pro přijaté zahraniční studenty zadarmo</p> <p>Info na víza, imigraci, organizace pro uprchlíky...</p> <p>Možnosti přivýdělků podle vízového statusu apod.</p>				
Zavedení půjček, stipendií pro zahr. studenty				
Spolupráce s katedrami na systémové! integraci zahraničních zkušeností studentů do kurikula (promyšlení definice oboru v interkulturním srovnání a požadavků na absolventy v interkulturní srovnání, výběr institucí, zakomponování zahr. zkušeností do kurikula)				
Pořádání pravidelných multikulturních/ mezinárodních akcí (např. setkávání u kávy, kluby) pro poznávání zahr. hostů s domácími studenty a pracovníky				
Podpora spolupráce s neakademickými subjekty (nevládní organizace, mezinárodní organizace, think-tanky) na výzkumu mezinárodních a globálních témat				
Postdoktorální stipendia pro zahraniční experty s výhledem jejich plného zaměstnání				
Zajišťování vlastních (ne rozpočtových) finančních zdrojů na internacionalizace				
Zahrnutí mezinárodních zkušeností do personální politiky (finanční a jiné iniciativy, zahr. zkušenosti jako podmínka po přijímání nových zaměstnanců , apod.), případně v rozpočtech kateder zohlednění zahr. spolupráce, pobytů, časopisů atd.				

11. Jaké strategie jsou využívány, aby byly tyto priority docíleny?
 - Kdo má vliv na prosazování změn obecně? Kdo má největší vliv na prosazování internacionalizace?
12. Kdo je zodpovědný za implementaci internacionalizaci?
 - Jaké jsou jejich kompetence a možnosti prosazování internacionalizace v celé instituci?
 - Kdo a do jaké míry ovlivňují implementaci internacionalizace

13. Jakým způsobem probíhá strategické plánování? A kdo se na něm podílí? dochází k neformálním rozhodovacím mechanismům?
 - Je prioritou mezinárodního vzdělávání zahrnuta ve strategickém plánování všech kateder?
 - Soutěží internacionalizace s prosazováním jiných priorit? Jakými a jak si na tom stojí?
 - Je internacionalizace součástí interní/externí evaluace instituce? (pokud ano- dokument získat)
14. Jak byste hodnotil zaangažování jednotlivých kateder?
 - Existují rozdíly mezi jednotlivci, katedrami, administrativními pracovníky dané věkem a pro?
15. Jaké strategie jsou využívány k prosazení internacionalizace na všech katedrách?
 - Jak komunikujete se zaměstnanci o důležitosti zahraniční spolupráce?
 - Jak podporujete studenty a pracovníky fakulty k mobilitě a spolupráci?
 - Jak podporujete internacionalizaci kurikula?
 - Spolupracujete s vedením na strategii, jak zaangažovat celou instituci? např. na personální politice
 - Podporujete spolupráci mezi katedrami a vzájemné obohacování
 - Další prostředky?
16. Daří se Vám prosazovat myšlenku internacionalizace
 - Co byste chtěli dělat jinak?
17. Jak získáváte finanční zdroje na podporu internacionalizace, kdo o nich rozhoduje? A jak podporujete pracoviště a jednotlivce, aby získávaly finanční prostředky?
18. Internacionalizace je popisována jako proměna celé instituce.
18. Jak byste popsal své vlastní zaangažování v internacionalizaci?
 - Co děláte?
 - Další vzdělávání, mezinárodní pobyty, četba mezinárodních časopisů, kontakty s asociacemi (Study Abroad, Fulbright), členství v International Administrators, kulaté stoly s ostatními univerzitami, spolupráce na strategii, pobyt/výzkum v zahraničí
19. Myslíte, že znáte dost informací o programech a jejich dynamice, nebo je třeba dělat další výzkum a zapojit české vědce do současného zahraničního Výzkumu a teoretizování internacionalizace? Jaké znalosti byste potřebovala mít pro svoji práci?
20. Považujete za důležité, aby byla internacionalizace v ČR zkoumána a teoretizována v rámci interdisciplinárního oboru mezinárodní pedagogiky? Jaké další informace by Vás ohledně internacionalizace zajímaly eventuálně pro svoji práci potřebovala?

INTERVIEW Num. 3/ Rozhovor č. 3 - Vedoucí katedry a vyučující

1. Jak byste jednou větou popsal dnešní poslání univerzity?
2. Jak rozumíte pojmu internacionalizace fakulty - jaká je Vaše pracovní definice?
3. Proč by měla být univerzita internacionalizovaná? (přínosná nebo riziková)?
4. Zamyslíte-li nad uplynulými 20 lety, řekněte mně, jestli se něco změnilo? Co vedlo k těmto změnám, - Jak se na ně díváte (dobré-problematické).
 - Byly tyto změny způsobeny tlakem zvenčí? (odkud?) Jak se jim katedra přizpůsobila? Nebo se staly na základě plánovaných rozhodnutí?
5. Jak byste popsal proces internacionalizace na Vaší katedře/ústavu?
 - Patří internacionalizace mezi strategické priority katedry/ústavu?
 - Jakými konkrétními strategiemi tyto cíle naplňujete?
 - Kdo se podílí na strategickém plánování? A Jak probíhá?
 - S jakými prioritami soutěží internacionalizace?
 - Jaké mechanismy evaluace máte stanovené?
6. Jak koncipujete budoucnost – jak bude univerzita/Váš obor vypadat za 10-20 let? Co se změní? Vaši studenti:
 - Mění se nějak požadavky na absolventy? (povinně cizí jazyk, mezinárodní problematika nebo interdisciplinární kurzy apod.)?
 - Mění se nějak profil absolventa Všeho oboru? Jakou výbavu mají mít pro své budoucí povolání? (Intelektuální/kognitivní dovednosti v souvislosti s obrovským množstvím informací? Požadujete, aby měli znalosti o vzájemné propojenosti světa, globálních problémech?)
7. Co by se stalo, kdyby katedra měla více zahraničních studentů a studentů z etnických minorit (např. Vietnamců, Romů, ..) Jak by to ovlivnilo vyučování, atmosféru, vzájemné vztahy?

8. Jak rozvíjíte dovednosti interkulturní komunikace?
 - Jak rozumíte interkulturní senzitivitu? Co napomáhá k jeho rozvíjení?
9. Spolupracujete nyní s jinými obory/katedrami? Jak byste popsal Vaši interdisciplinární spolupráci? - - - Co Vám přinesla?
10. Mohl byste říct, že víte, jak je Váš obor/disciplína koncipována v jednom nebo více státech? Liší se? - - Proč? Považujete tuto znalost (např. vliv kultury na Váš obor) za důležitou?
11. Dochází k redefinici priorit oboru díky v souvislosti s tímto srovnáním nebo vzhledem k měnícímu se světu?
 - Reflektuje explicitně Váš obor to, jak ho ovlivňuje česká kultura, místní intelektuální tradice, případně komunismus? Domníváte se, že probíhá v oboru nějaká paradigmatická změna? (například změny od kvantitativní ke kvalitativní metodologii apod.)
12. Je ve Vašem oboru snadné zabývat se jinými než tradičně uznávanými tématy?
- {13.} Využíváte ve svém výzkumu etické i emické perspektivy? Jak byste popsal jejich rozdíl? Pokud nezná: Co potřeba k tomu, aby se výzkumník mohl na kulturu dívat zvnitřku a ne zvenčí?
14. Jaké kulturně odlišné perspektivy na svou problematiku teď využíváte?
 - Jak postupujete při jejich (znalostí z jiných zemí) zpracování pro svou práci? Podle čeho zvažujete jejich relevantnost?
 - Využíváte metodologických postupů (způsobů poznávání), které nevznikly v Evropě?
 - Využíváte materiálů mimo Euroameriku?
 - Mohl/a byste říct, že se na svou problematiku dokážete podívat s porozuměním dvou nebo více kultur?
 - Analyzujete záměrně ve své práci to, jaký má vliv na Vaši problematiku sociokulturní, ekonomický nebo politický kontext?
15. Jak byste hodnotil zaangažování ostatních členů katedry: Existují rozdíly mezi jednotlivci, katedrami, administrativními pracovníky dané věkem,...?
 - A) Jak se s nimi vedení fakulty vyrovnává?
 - B) Vedoucí: - jaké prostředky využíváte, abyste ukázal svoji zangažovanost a podporu?
 - Komunikujete s ostatními o důležitosti zahraniční spolupráce?
 - Jak podporujete studenty a pracovníky fakulty k mobilitě, spolupráci a další stanoveným cílům?
16. Je v osobním ohodnocování přihlíženo k následujícím: zapojení se do mezinárodní spolupráce, pobyt v zahraničí, péče o zahraniční studenty a profesory, výuka v cizím jazyce, revaluace kurikula, publikace v zahraničí? (Popř. v přijímacím řízení studentů?)
 - Zohledňujete zkušenosti v zahraničí, zahraniční publikace, členství v zahr. organizacích v přijímacím procesu, případně jiný kulturní původ, absolvování jiné univerzity?
17. Víte, jestli je internacionalizace v prioritou fakulty?
 - Jak hodnotíte způsob, jakým vedení fakulty komunikuje svoje priority ohledně internacionalizace?
 - Jaké možnosti máte k ovlivnění strategie fakulty?
18. Jak jste spokojen s prací a zodpovědnostmi zahraničního oddělení?
 - Jak komplexní poskytuje služby a jak Vám vychází vstříc v administrativních záležitostech nebo v péči o zahr. studenty a vyučující?
 - Jak Vám dokáže poradit a poskytnout informace či další vzdělávání?
19. Co je podle Vás potřeba, aby došlo k proměně instituce – její internacionalizaci?
20. Máte pocit, že máte dost informací o procesu internacionalizace, nebo je třeba dělat další výzkum a zapojit české vědce do současného zahraničního Výzkumu a teoretizace internacionalizace? Jaké znalosti byste potřeboval/a mít pro svoji práci?

QUESTIONNAIRE # 4 Další Komponenty internacionalizace

Zaškrtněte činnosti, které vykonáváte	Pokud vykonávám -jak hodnotím jejich přínos?	Nevykonávám, ale chci dělat v budoucnu -prod?	Neplánuji dělat- proč?

<p>Cílevědomě vyhledávám</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> -zahr. studenty pro spolupráci s našimi studenty v kurzech (společné projekty, seminární práce apod.) -zkušenosti absolventů studijních pobytů v zahraničí ve své výuce 			
<p>Spolupracuji se zahr. institucemi na výuce v rámci např. joint degree, e-learning apod.</p>			
<p>Zúčastňuji se výzkum za měřeného na problematiku rozvojového světa nebo vzájemné propojenosti světa</p>			
<p>V posledních 3 letech jsem publikoval/a v zahr. časopise, publikaci</p>			
<p>V posledním roce jsem byl/a v zahraničí za účelem výzkumným, výuky</p>			
<p>Spolupracuji s kolegy z jiných kateder/fakult na interdisciplinárních:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> -výzkumech, -výuce, -jiných aktivitách 			
<p>Organizuji – zúčastňuji se:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> -semináře, přednášky zahr. přednášejících nebo na mezinárodní témata, -filmy s mezinárodní problematikou, -mezinárodní festivaly, -společné formální setkání (večeře se zahr. hosty univerzity) -osobní neformální setkání se zahr., studenty a akademiky -na „mimoškolních“ aktivitách s jinými katedrami/ústavy 			
<p>Vzdělávám se dále v kurzech:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> -cizího jazyka -interkulturní komunikaci -nabízené na zahr. institucích -týmové spolupráce -managementu, strategickém plánování -psaní a vedení výzkumných záměrů -jiné: 			
<p>Vedu – participuji na:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> -mezinárodní spolupráci nebo networku -v mezinárodní odborné asociaci -na výzkumu s mezinárodním účastí 			
<p>Pro vedoucí kateder/ústavů:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> -zapojuji zahr. vědecké pracovníky do schůzí kateder a do rozhodování (např. strategické plánování) jako ostatní pracovníky -zapojuji pracoviště do prestižních mezinárodních výzkumných asociací 			
<p>Podílím se na tom, aby kultura školy a atmosféra byla nakloněna zahr. spolupráci:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> -aby byly výukové a prezentační materiály jakož i texty výzkumných dokumentů a orientační nápisy na katedře na přeloženy -na tlumočení pro zahr. hosty -poradenství pro zahr. hosty -vědomě hodnotím vlastní aktivitu - aktivitu školy se internacionalizovat 			
<p>Jiné</p>			

Appendix 3

Associations dealing with international education

ACA – Academic Cooperation Association (independent European organization dedicated to management, analysis and improvement of education and cooperation in Europe since 1993)

ACE – American Council on Education

AMPEI – Mexican Association for International Education

CIEE – Council on International Education Exchange (leading American nongovernmental organization for creating and administering programs of exchange since 1946)

EAIE – European Association for International Educators (nongovernmental organization for professional development of international educators and administrators in Amsterdam)

IEA – International Association for Evaluation of Educational Achievement JAFSA – Japan Network for International Education

IIE- Institute for International Educators (one of the largest nonprofit organizations administering education and training exchanges since 1919)

NAFSA – Association for International Educators (professional association promoting exchange of students and scholars to and from U.S.)

NASULGC- National (American) Association of State Colleges and Land-Grant Universities

NUFFIC – The Netherlands Organization For International Cooperation in Higher Education