

**Becoming Global Without Leaving Home: Internationalization at Home,
A Case Study of San Jorge, a Spanish Private University**

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Dedication

To my parents: Víctor and Luisa.

Abstract

The process of campus internationalization at San Jorge University, a small private Spanish university is analyzed as a case study in this dissertation. San Jorge University was selected as a unique case because of its recent creation and its being one of the first Spanish universities to implement and adapt to the Bologna process. The assumption was that the main Internationalization at Home (hereafter, IaH) elements were being implemented at USJ. The complexity of the analysis of an institutional internationalization process is found in how each one of those internationalization elements are connected to each other affecting the implementation of the whole process. Therefore, the main conceptual framework used was Mestenhauser's systems perspective for understanding internationalization.

To analyze and describe the current status of IaH at San Jorge University, an explanatory case study methodology was followed, using document analysis, focus groups, in-depth semi-structured interviews and participant observation as main methods for data collection. The findings of this study reveal that although there is no formal IaH policy at USJ, the main IaH elements are actually being implemented. Identified are both institutional and individual factors influencing such a process. The implementation of a supra national reform implemented in a private institution, is found to be greatly influenced by the institutional structure, policies, strategies, degree programs and educational model. However, the main IaH element, an internationalized curriculum, is being promoted by active faculty who are key champions of change. Transformational leadership has been found to be the key to implement important changes. The combination of institutional and individual factors, with both top-down

and bottom-up leadership, have proven to be the right combination to promote internationalization initiatives.

Resumen

En esta tesis el proceso de internacionalización de la Universidad San Jorge, una universidad española privada es analizado como estudio de caso. La Universidad San Jorge fue elegida como un caso único por su reciente creación y por ser una de las primeras universidades españolas en adaptarse al proceso Bolonia. La primera hipótesis era que a pesar de no existir una estrategia de Internacionalización en Casa, los principales elementos de Internacionalización en Casa (a partir de aquí IC) estaban siendo implementados en la USJ. La complejidad de análisis de un proceso de internacionalización a nivel institucional se encuentra en como, cada uno de esos elementos de internacionalización están conectados entre sí, afectando e influyendo la implementación de todo el proceso. De esta manera, el principal marco conceptual usado ha sido el de perspectiva de sistemas de internacionalización, de Josef Mestenhauser basado en el de Peter Senge.

Para analizar y describir el estado actual de IC en la Universidad San Jorge, se ha seguido la metodología de un estudio de caso exploratorio, usando análisis de documentos, grupos focales, entrevistas en profundidad semi -estructuradas y observación participante como métodos principales para recolectar los datos. Los resultados de este estudio revelan que aunque no hay política de IC en la Universidad San Jorge, los principales elementos de IC están siendo implementados. Esto está siendo promovido fundamentalmente por razones y factores institucionales e individuales. La implementación de una reforma supra-nacional en una institución

privada afecta enormemente en la estructura institucional, en las políticas, estratégicas, los programas de grado y en el modelo educativo. El elemento fundamental de IC es el curriculum internacionalizado que está siendo promovido por los docentes, quienes son importantes agentes de cambio. El liderazgo transformacional ha resultado ser clave para implementar cambios importantes. La combinación de factores institucionales e individuales junto con liderazgo desde arriba y desde abajo han probado ser la combinación correcta para promover iniciativas de internacionalización en la Universidad San Jorge.

Résumé

Le procès d'internationalisation au campus de l'Université San Jorge, une petite université Espagnole, est analysé ici en tant qu'étude de cas. L'Université San Jorge a été sélectionnée comme un cas unique, du à sa récente création et en tant qu'une des premières universités Espagnoles à implanter le procès de Bologne. L'hypothèse de départ est que, malgré de ne pas compter avec une stratégie d'Internationalisation À Domicile (dorénavant IAD), les éléments principaux de cette internationalisation y sont implémentés à la USJ. La complexité de l'analyse d'un procès institutionnel d'internationalisation réside sur la manière dont les éléments d'internationalisation sont connectés entre eux et affectent l'implémentation du procès au complet. Pour cette raison, le principal cadre conceptuel utilisé ici est la perspective de systèmes d'internationalisation de Josef Mestenhauser, basé sur celui de Peter Senge.

Pour analyser et décrire l'état actuel de l'IAD à l'Université San Jorge, nous avons suivi une méthodologie d'étude de cas exploratoire, tout en utilisant l'analyse de documents, des groupes de discussion, des entretiens en profondeur semi-structurés et

l'observation participative comme les principaux moyens de récollection de données. Les résultats de cette étude révèlent que bien qu'il n'existe aucune politique d'IAD à l'Université San Jorge, les principaux éléments d'IAD y sont implémentés. Cela est encouragé principalement par des raisons et des facteurs aussi bien institutionnels qu'individuels. L'implémentation d'une réforme supranationale à une institution privée entraîne d'énormes conséquences sur la structure institutionnelle, les politiques, les stratégies, les programmes des licences et le model éducatif. Néanmoins, l'élément principal de l'IAD, un curriculum internationalisé, est notamment soutenu par les enseignants, qui sont d'importants agents de changement. Le leadership transformationnel s'est révélé clef pour l'implémentation de changements importants. La combinaison de facteurs institutionnels et individuels, avec le leadership vers le haut et vers le bas a prouvé être la bonne combinaison pour promouvoir les initiatives d'internationalisation à l'Université San Jorge.

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Glossary of Terms

ANECA – Spanish National Agency of Accreditation.

AVE – Spanish high speed train.

CEURI – The Spanish Commission of International Relations.

CLIL – Content Language Integrated Learning.

CRUE – The Spanish Rector's Commission.

DGA – Diputación General de Aragón. Autonomous community government of Aragon.

EAIE – The European Association of International Education.

ECTS – The European Credit Transfer System: The new system that has been created to measure the value and volume of work at a European level.

EHEA – The European Higher Education Area, it is the major higher education reform being implemented in Europe. It is also known as the Bologna process.

ELE – Spanish as a foreign language.

EU – The European Union.

IaH – Internationalization at Home.

ICT – Information and Communication Technology.

IDI – The Intercultural Development Inventory: An instrument developed to measure intercultural competence.

IHS – Institute of Humanism and Society: One of the three institutes that work across San Jorge University.

IML – Institute of Modern Languages: One of the three institutes that work across San Jorge University.

LOU – Ley Orgánica de Universidades. The new national higher education law.

LRU – The Law of University Reform. It was the first higher education reform passed by the Spanish government after Franco's death.

MEC – Spanish Ministry of Education and Culture.

NGO – Non-governmental organization.

NUFFIC – The Netherlands Organization for International Cooperation in Higher Education.

MOU – Memorandum of Understanding.

UNED – Distance University.

UNIZAR – Universidad de Zaragoza; Zaragoza University. Large public university located in Zaragoza.

USJ – Universidad San Jorge. San Jorge University.

Chapter I

Introduction

Overview

In this study the factors influencing the implementation of Internationalization at Home (IaH) in a Spanish university are examined. IaH is to be understood as a different approach towards internationalization. This study focuses on the activities implemented on campus but also takes into account study abroad programs. Its main emphasis is on what is being developed as well as finding the agents of change who implement elements of IaH, since it is an innovative and a fairly unknown concept in the Spanish context. The purpose of the study is not to analyze program quality or outcomes.

Rationale and Importance of the Study

In 1997, Jacques Delors-in the report for UNESCO, *Learning: the Treasure Within*-made the following recommendations on the purpose and character of higher education: (a) higher education should prepare students for future research and teaching, (b) must provide specialized training courses adapted to the needs of economic and social life, (c) should assure access and equity (i.e. education for all campaign), (d) ought to promote and encourage international co-operation, and (e) universities “should also be able to speak out on ethical and social problems as entirely independent and fully responsible institutions exercising a kind of intellectual authority that society needs to help it to reflect, understand and act” (p. 39). The 21st century higher education institutions that UNESCO and Jacques Delors envisioned are neither isolated from society nor are they places where “individual abilities should be restricted to mere

technical-productive functions” (Gacel-Avila, 2005, p. 122). Instead UNESCO and Delors proposed a more holistic approach to education as a key for social cohesion and peaceful relations between peoples in a culturally diverse society, what Delors (1997) called: learning to know as a learning to learn, learning to do as combining theory and practice in real social situations, learning to be as developing one’s personality and showing responsibility for one’s actions, and learning to live together “by developing an understanding of other people and an appreciation of interdependence- carrying out joint projects and learning to manage conflicts- in a spirit of respect for the values of pluralism, mutual understanding and peace” (p. 37). How does a higher education institution promote and educate in those values of pluralism, peaceful relations and intercultural understanding? Twenty-first century universities through internationalization processes try to promote and encourage this kind of learning. However, the rationales and objectives vary from one institution to another.

Rationale for Internationalization

Internationalization of higher education institutions is seen as a way to educate global graduates and to promote global citizenry (Knight & de Wit, 1999; de Wit, 2002; Ellingboe, 1998; Gacel-Avila, 2005; Mestenhauser, 2011; Nilsson, 2003; van der Wende, 2007). If higher education institutions want their students to become global citizens then they have to become international institutions (Hudzik & McCarthy, 2012). The context in which future graduates are going to work and live has changed tremendously mainly due to globalization. The truth is that the world in which today’s secondary and tertiary students will graduate is very different from the one in which most of us grew up. The current globalized and rapidly changing society in which we

live has new challenges, which are economic, technological and intercultural (Altbach, 2005; Beelen, 2007; Brustein, 2007; de Wit, 2002; Gacel-Avila, 2005; Knight, 2004; Mestenhauser 2002, Paige 2005, Stearns, 2009; Stewart, 2007).

However, educating global citizens is not the only reason why universities have embarked on their internationalization processes; there are many other reasons. According to de Wit (2002), the multiple overlapping reasons for internationalization are: social, political, economic, educational, scientific and technological. Some authors differ on the importance of each of these factors. Van der Wende (1997) affirms that rationales for an internationalization policy are: political, educational, economic and cultural, depending on the stakeholders and the context (de Wit, 1998). Peace and mutual understanding are driving forces for internationalization shared by the United States, UNESCO and the European Commission (Gaston, 2010). The “Policy Statement on Internationalization of Higher Education in the World” by the International Association for University Presidents (1995) in the USA, describes the effects of internationalization of higher education as,

promoting vigorously the internationalisation of their institutions and the global competence and literacy of their students as being essential to the long term pursuit of a more peaceful world where international understanding and co-operation in solving problems will be increasingly critical for the quality of life and sustained economic, social and cultural development. (as cited in de Wit, 2002, p. 88)

For Stewart (2007) five trends have brought us to the present internationalization scenario:

1. Globalization of national economies and the rise of the Asian markets at the beginning of the 21st century. Countries like China, India and the former Soviet Union which were “closed” economies opened to the world with a rapidly increasing population and GDP;
2. Science and technology are causing great shifts of those working as expatriates. Today, thanks to the Internet we can work anywhere and anytime, and thus, global and international production teams have become the norm in businesses around the globe (Friedman, 2005);
3. Security and health issues. Parts of the third trend include global warming, environmental problems, and terrorism, all of which nowadays have an international dimension that was unthinkable two centuries ago (Stewart 2007; Suarez-Orozco & Sattin, 2007);
4. According to Gacel-Avila (2005) “this new context is characterized by a relationship of increasing, interdependence and competitiveness between nations, modifying the traditional paradigm of interstate relations” (p. 121). This process affects everyone and poses new challenges for nations and their peoples. Being able to face these challenges and solve these problems will require international cooperation among countries, corporations and civic organizations;
5. Demographics are also an important factor. Globalization has accelerated international migration, creating cultural diversity in local communities

as never seen before. This has engendered friction and fear towards the “other” and the “foreign” (Sen, 2006).

Threats of internationalization.

In this challenging context, university graduates will need to acquire knowledge of other cultures that will help them understand and respect cultural diversity (de Wit, 2002; Mestenhauser, 1998; Stewart, 2007). Gacel-Avila (2005) states that in the world right now there are globalizers and the globalized. In the 21st century there is increasing inequality between nations, a rapid increase of marginalization with more ethnic conflicts, terrorism and racism rooted in intolerance, rising unemployment, and with constant degradation of the environment and natural resources. This critical contextual framework has inspired several important documents for education such as the 1998 UNESCO “World Declaration on Higher Education for the Twenty-First Century”, which declares that education in general should be at the center of all social change and should help the development of a more equitable, tolerant and just society. Education is key to promote change in mentalities, “and without a change in paradigm for international relations, there can be no solidarity among nations” (Gacel-Avila, 2005, p. 122). As Delors (1997) affirms,

in confronting the many challenges that the future holds in store, humankind sees in education an indispensable asset in its attempt to attain the ideals of peace, freedom and social justice (...) education has a fundamental role to play in personal and social development. (p. 11)

These authors agree that higher education using science, technology and innovation will promote sustainable development and new ways of international cooperation among

nations. This will inevitably have great implications in terms of cultural adaptation, change and the modernization of mentalities. These are important challenges for policy makers, nations, and higher education institutions. Delors (1997) refers to these challenges as tensions that must be confronted: the global and the local (glocal) and the importance of global citizenry without individuals losing their roots (Van der Wende, 2007). The challenge for the universal and the individual reside in the fact that culture is constantly being globalized. It is also important to keep in mind the “unique character of individual human beings” (p. 15), which plays a vital role in cultural diversity. In addition, the challenge of facing both long and short term objectives, the ideas of change, as well as the mission and vision of educational institutions must also be kept in mind.

Internationalization in the Spanish Higher Education context.

Globalization affects higher education institutions worldwide (Altbach, 2005). According to Altbach & Knight (2007) “globalization may be unalterable, but internationalization involves many choices” (p. 291). This is why each higher education institution has started a different internationalization process with a different approach (Knight, 2009). The Spanish tertiary education system is not an exception to these trends and supra-national contexts that affect it, even though the national context differs greatly from that of its neighboring European countries.

Historically, Spain has always had public universities that date from medieval times and they are run and managed by the central government (Vizcarro & Yániz, 2004). On the other hand, it was not until the 1990s that the law allowing the establishment of private universities was passed (Peach, 2001). At present, private

universities are completely integrated into the Spanish higher education system and 100 percent of public universities are implementing the Bologna Reform - agreed on by certain European Union (EU) member states. Spain was also a signatory country of the European Higher Education Area (EHEA) (Vizcarro & Yániz, 2004). Currently there are 76 universities in Spain, most of them public (Rubiralta, 2010). These universities are located in the 17 autonomous regions (states) all over the country; however, most of them are located in Madrid and Barcelona, the biggest cities in Spain. In the autonomous community of Aragon there are only three: a large public research university, Universidad de Zaragoza (UNIZAR), a distance learning university, Universidad Nacional de Educación a Distancia (UNED), and a small private university, Universidad San Jorge (USJ).

Spain has gone through two important higher education reforms, which have been greatly influenced by the process of decentralization that started after Franco's death in 1975 and when democracy was established and stable (Peach, 2001). The latter was the reform that made it mandatory to comply with the Bologna process implementation, which included an internationalization of Spanish campuses (Horta, 2009; Rubiralta, 2010).

Universities have always been considered international organizations per se. Since the Middle Ages, there have been notable international scholars such as Desiderius Erasmus of Rotterdam (1465-1536), who was a Dutch philosopher, theologian and humanist. Erasmus was an example of an international scholar himself (de Wit, 2002). Mobility (i.e. the travelling of faculty and students), as well as the use of Latin as lingua

franca has created this international image of universities over the centuries (Teichler, 1999).

However, this opinion is not shared by many scholars who would argue that universities are national institutions (Mestenhauser, 2002), since universities are created in a certain nation or state, regulated by those laws, and some of them are 100 percent publically funded (Childress, 2010; Knight, 2004; Nilsson, 2003). Therefore, thinking that higher education institutions are internationalized systems or organizations is inaccurate. The internationalization of higher education institutions has always been a challenge for universities and states (Horta, 2009; Yang, 2002). The internationalization processes that Spanish universities have started coinciding with the implementation of the Bologna plan (Peach, 2001; Rubiralta, 2010; Silla 2010). In accordance with one of the objectives of the EHEA, many Spanish universities have started internationalization processes that focus mainly on study abroad programs and international research projects (Gaston, 2010). Not all of them are following the same process nor are they at the same stage (Altbach & Knight, 2007). However, large, traditional, public universities are the ones being promoted by the government initiatives, leaving private higher education institutions behind and without the same economic opportunities and/or resources (“Campus de Excelencia Internacional”, 2011). The main emphasis for internationalization is being placed on mobility programs (study abroad programs), particularly the ERASMUS program. Nevertheless, according to the latest ERASMUS statistical report (2010-2011), Spain is the country with one of the highest number of outgoing students in the European exchange program, 36,183; Spain remained the most popular destination for European students with 37,432 European students. According to

that same report only 1,081 students from the autonomous community of Aragon, which is 3 percent of the total, participated in this exchange program.

There are important questions that researchers ask when analyzing the impact of study abroad programs: What happens then with the rest of students who do not participate in study abroad programs? Are the participating students more interculturally competent after their study abroad experience? According to Ellingboe (1998), Gacel-Avila (2005), Mestenhauser (2003), Paige (2003), Teekens (2007), and many other scholars, an internationalized curriculum, its content, and its faculty are agents of change and play a crucial role in helping students develop “respect for humanity’s differences and cultural wealth, as well as a sense of political responsibility, turning them into defenders of democratic principles of their society, and true architects of social change” (Gacel-Avila, 2005, p. 125). Understanding historical perspectives, developing cultural consciousness, combating prejudice and racism as well as developing intercultural competence and social action skills, “could be ideal for internationalization-at-home strategies” (Gacel-Avila, 2005, p. 127).

Internationalization at Home.

At the end of the 1990s, Bengt Nilsson proposed a new concept called Internationalization at Home (IaH). This refers to any activity, program, and or research at a university campus that has to do with internationalization, excluding study abroad programs (Nilsson, 2003). IaH is a challenge to the international education field mainly because it covers all aspects of a higher education institution (Teekens, 2006).

According to Mestenhauser, international education seems to be fragmented, with varied aspects of it taken from different theories that are based on distinct concepts. When the

concept of IaH was initiated up by Nilsson (2003), a new discussion about internationalization, which encompassed the what, how, and who, as well as the quality and the quantity was questioned and analyzed (Crowther, Joris, Otten, Nilsson, Teekens & Wächter, 2000; Mestenhauser, 2003, 2007; Teekens, 2007). According to Mestenhauser (2002), “the concept ‘at home’ was intended as a metaphor to address the 90% of students ‘who stay at home’ as compared to those who study abroad” (p. 61). The concept of IaH has gained relevance over time, as different studies have found that a limited percentage of students and faculty-only 10 percent according to Paige (2005)-will ever study or go abroad. Relying only on mobility (study abroad) programs to internationalize universities brings up the question of what happens with the 90 percent of students who will not study abroad (Beelen, 2007; Childress, 2010; Crowther et al., 2000; Mestenhauser, 2002, 2003; Nilsson, 2003; Teekens, 2005, 2007)? According to Beelen (personal communication, 3, June, 2011) and Teekens (2007) IaH complements study abroad programs within universities.

If universities are national institutional systems and are expected to produce students who are global citizens, who are interculturally-competent, and who are able to work and live in a peaceful and multicultural society, then these national higher education systems need to work with the 90 percent of enrolled students who are unable to participate in a mobility program (Mestenhauser, 1998; Yang, 2002). This is a challenge within supra-national systems, such as the Bologna process, where the focus of the internationalization process has been placed on study abroad programs. Considering the size of the population remaining outside of this mobility focus (90

percent of students), the internationalization process becomes almost an impossible objective (Mestenhauser, 2002, 2005; Paige, 2005; Teekens, 2007).

Statement of the Problem

This dissertation focuses on the concept of IaH in a private university in Spain, which according to the Spanish National Agency of Accreditation (ANECA) has accomplished 100 percent of the Bologna process implementation (“Plan Estratégico Universidad San Jorge”, 2011), but where only 3.8 % of its students study abroad. At USJ, there is a strong focus on teaching, research, and internationalization, and over 90 percent of students will most likely not participate in any study abroad program. Therefore, since there is no institutional policy for IaH, the central purpose of this study is to analyze what is being done, who is doing it, and how. According to Nilsson (2003),

The concept of IaH is of course not new in an international academic context-it is just a way to embrace all ideas about and measures to be taken to give all students an international dimension during their time at the university. (p. 31)

San Jorge University was created at the threshold of the Bologna process implementation, which is a very unique characteristic of any university in Spain. There are many intercultural issues, projects and activities carried out by professors, as well as the inclusion of English as a main second language broadly used at USJ (Harris & Bruton, 2010). With the Europeanization of a private Spanish university that was founded almost simultaneously with the Bologna Reform, there is an internationalization of the curricula and projects which are not defined as IaH, but which are being developed. According to Mestenhauser (2002, 2011) the old university system is being converted into a new one with each faculty/college on campus working as a silo. It is

that isolation within a higher education institution that makes knowledge fragmented. Since international education “lives” in every department and college of a university it is also a fragmented field. In this way, since IaH as an approach towards internationalization, can be considered as taking place in a fragmented way.

In September 2011, USJ together with two other Spanish private universities participated in the *Campus de Excelencia Internacional* (International campus excellence), a national grant proposal which in 2012 was granted to UNIZAR in Aragon. This was done as a way of trying to promote the internationalization aspect of USJ.

Internationalization of higher education is one of the most important challenges that Spanish higher education institutions face at present (Peach, 2001; Silla, 2010). The implementation of the Bologna process has proven that Spanish higher education institutions are not as international in their research, teaching and learning as many other European universities (Rubiralta, 2010; Silla, 2010). According to Altbach (1999), the three most controversial issues in higher education today are funding, equity and the revision of the curriculum which will respond accordingly to changing times. An internationalized curriculum is one of the key elements of IaH (Beelen, 2007).

Based on these trends, a key question that needs to be explored is: Are all these changes in higher education institutions really preparing future graduates to be ready for this constantly changing globalized world we live in?

As Olson and Kroeger (2001) state,

Our work and life decisions are global in nature. ... What happens in one locality to one culture affects other cultures, although we may not see how the connecting strands tug on each other. We are not necessarily educated to

perceive this global interconnectedness, nor have we been educated to make life choices with full awareness of the global implications of our choices. Virtually every human interaction is an intercultural encounter. (p. 116)

Are universities worried about how to make graduates successful human beings who are ready to innovate and think “outside the box” and to work in a multicultural context? Or are they more worried about revenues, outcomes and what the market wants? Does the market rule over academia or is academia thinking of long-term objectives of a better-prepared society as a whole? (Brandenburg & de Wit, 2010; Mestenhauser, 1998). The social responsibility of higher education institutions in the 21st century is to prepare global ethical citizens who are interculturally competent and are successful in their daily intercultural encounters. This objective should start being reached during students’ education, through an internationalized curriculum, service learning projects and, extra-curricular activities (Hudzik, 2011; Hudzik & McCarthy, 2012).

According to Deardorff, Thorndike Pysarchik & Yun (2009),
To succeed in today’s global environment, students, regardless of their citizenship, increasingly need to complement their academic and career preparation with international knowledge, skills and attitudes that allow them to understand and respect other’s cultures and to work effectively and appropriately with people from diverse cultural backgrounds. (p. 23)

Mestenhauser (1998) also questions if we are preparing our students to live and work in the global society. Paige (2005) also affirms that university students will need strong intercultural skills and international knowledge when they graduate.

Within the Spanish context, despite the efforts of important programs like ERASMUS or SOCRATES to promote mobility among students and faculty members, there are still only a few who study abroad one semester and fewer who do it for either a whole academic year or even the whole degree program; among faculty mobility is even less common (Vizcarro & Yániz, 2004).

However, the current situation with the economic crisis, and its global impact has potentially revealed one of the darkest sides of globalization (Altbach, 2005). It is now, and more than ever that higher education institutions around the world need to educate students to be global and ethical professionals (Gacel-Avila, 2005). To prepare them for all these changes we, as educators, need to look carefully at what we are teaching them and ask ourselves if we are preparing them for the new system that they are going to find (Mestenhauser, 1998; Teekens, 2007).

The internationalization of education in general and of higher education in particular involves more than just preparing individuals for future jobs (Palmer & Zajonc, 2010; Gacel-Avila, 2005; Delors, 1997). It has larger objectives of “creating and sustaining a peaceful, cooperative and democratic world as well as mutual understanding. These goals have never been more urgent than they are now” (Mestenhauser, 2002, p. 171).

According to Mestenhauser (2002)

Despite valiant efforts of many professionals and academics, the field has not reached more than some 10% of the students. Considering the number of programs, amount of funds spent and human efforts expended this is a very

disappointing result. There is reason to believe that even the 10% have received only superficial international education. (p. 61)

Is it then the end of internationalization, as Brandenburg and de Wit (2010) asked recently, or is it just the time to revise and rethink the real concept of quality, the objectives and the outcomes of internationalization? According to Brandenburg and de Wit (2010) it seems that quantity along with economic and market factors have taken over the quality and the international component of higher education.

Purpose of the Study and Research Questions

The purpose of this case study is to identify the factors influencing IaH in a Spanish private university. This study utilizes a systems perspective. Related to the statement of study purpose the following research questions are addressed:

1. In what ways is internationalization of the campus being implemented at USJ?
2. What are the factors influencing campus internationalization at San Jorge USJ?
 - 2.1 What are the institutional factors influencing campus internationalization at USJ?
 - Mission and vision
 - Institutional profile
 - Leadership
 - Institutional history
 - Infrastructure
 - Policies and strategies
 - Implementation of the Bologna process

- Implementation of the Lisbon convention for the recognition of foreign qualifications
- Organizational structure
- Resources
- Size

2.2 What are the individual factors influencing internationalization at USJ?

- Previous international experience of key stakeholders and faculty
- Faculty syllabi (class projects; teaching and learning)
- Faculty international research

Significance of the study

Thus far, there is no research done on internationalization of higher education institutions in Spain. However, the government is aware of the fact that without important internationalization efforts from the state, Spanish universities will be left out of the international university rankings, and their potential in international research diminished (Horta, 2009; Van der Wende, 2007). In an effort to increase interest in the internationalization processes on the part of Spanish universities, the educational authorities have implemented the practice of awarding the title of *Campus de Excelencia Internacional* (International Excellence Campus) to universities whose practices meet the requirements of internationalization. However, these internationalization processes concentrate mainly on policies and mobility programs as well as cooperation between Spanish universities in order to create synergies in research projects (Rubiralta, 2010; Silla, 2010).

The Spanish Commission of International Relations, which is part of the Spanish Rector's Commission (CRUE), has begun to recognize IaH as an innovative idea and concept. However, thus far there is no Spanish university that has a policy for IaH (S. Asensio, personal communication, 1, March, 2011). Although, there are different models of internationalization like the Netherlands Organization for International Cooperation in Higher Education (NUFFIC) for internationalization of higher education in Europe (Van der Wende, 1997) and Knight's Internationalization model (1994), so far according to Beelen (2011) there is no IaH established model (J. Beelen, personal communication, 3, June, 2011; K. Bergnut, personal communication, 2, June, 2011).

I am more or less convinced that there will not be a European model for IaH. Practice in different countries diverges widely. In fact I think now that successful implementation of IaH depends on a complete contextualization to the local requirements of individual programmes of study" (J. Beelen, personal communication, 3, June, 2011).

Even though IaH was originated in Europe, the cultural variable and the institutional context are important to establish an IaH model, therefore policy advisors and researchers reject the standardization of any IaH model at a European level.

Rationale for the Study and Context

"Over the last decades, the concept of the internationalisation of higher education has moved from the fringe of institutional interest to the very core" (Brandenburg & de Wit, 2010, p. 31). Internationalization is not an end in itself but actually a means to an end (Hudzik & McCarthy, 2012; Knight, 2004). Mobility programs are just another activity that helps the internationalization process of a campus. The main goal of study

abroad or any other international activity on or outside campuses is to prepare students to live and work in a global society (Teekens, 2007; Nilsson, 2003). According to Mestenhauser (2003, 2011), internationalization is not something that happens outside the campus and/or the country, and he further states that it happens to just a few people. The future of higher education is a global one and it is our job to help prepare the higher education world for this. Therefore, what we need are people who understand and define their role within a global community, transcending the national borders and embracing the concepts of sustainability, equity of rights and access, advancement of education and research, and much more. (Brandenburg & de Wit, 2010, p. 33)

Rethinking internationalization and redefining how it is being implemented is an important step that has been avoided when trying to fill in many quantity indicators (Teekens, 2007). The Bologna process is already implemented in almost 90% of all Spanish universities. However, for some universities that implementation is taking longer than they thought (Fernández, Carballo & Galán, 2010; Vizcarro & Yániz, 2004). San Jorge University has changed its degree programs and, the quality control over learning outcomes and assessment, in order to fully implement the Bologna Reform.

Supra-national Context

In the European context there are three contextual layers: supranational (European Union), the national government, and the regional government (Horta, 2009). All these different layers tend to favor internationalization in different ways and for different reasons even though they are all highly influenced by globalization and the society of knowledge (Crowther et al., 2000; Rubiralta, 2010).

European Higher Education Area: the Bologna Process.

The Bologna process is an agreement signed in June 1999 by the ministries, universities and colleges of 47 European countries in order to create the EHEA by 2010. At first, the main objective of the EHEA was “to promote European citizens’ lasting employability and the international competitiveness” (Bergen, 2005). There is no question about the important role that higher education plays in expanding knowledge and innovation as well as the development of human potential, which is related to economic development and the economic expansion of a nation. However, Bologna is more than that, and just concentrating on its economic objective would be a reductive view of the whole process (Huisman & Van der Wende, 2004; Jallade, 2008).

The Bologna process is included in a broader agenda of the European Union. This agenda has been defined by the Lisbon initiative and the Barcelona summit, where it was clearly stated that European education systems are to become a world leader in higher education. Subsequently, there have been several meetings in order to evaluate and redefine objectives and procedures to reach 100% implementation (Gaston, 2010; Rauhvargers, 2004; Vizcarro & Yániz, 2004).

Charlier & Croché (2007) explain how the Bologna process is leading to profound changes in the main role higher education plays in European societies. The main objectives set by the Bologna process in order to establish the EHEA include: to create a system of comparable degrees for all European countries; a new higher education system based in two cycles; to establish a unified system of credits through the European Credit Transfer System (ECTS); and to promote mobility of European co-operation in quality assurance (Fernández et al., 2010). “In a few years from now,

students, institutions, parents and employers in the wider Europe will be talking in terms of learning outcomes-what a graduate can actually do, at the end of his or her degree-and competences” (Bergen, 2005). As Vizcarro and Yániz (2004) summarize, the main goals of the EHEA are mobility around Europe and standardization of comparable certifications so graduates could work freely within the European Community. “Related to these goals, there is a common unit to measure student academic work (the European Credit Transfer System or ECTS), which focuses on student effort to attain comparable academic goals” (Vizcarro & Yániz, 2004, p. 182).

As mentioned above, these broad objectives have been evolving into more detailed and specific ones over the course of different ministerial meetings and conventions. However, beneath these degree structures are important changes and agreements about quality assurance, student mobility, new ways of measuring student achievement and the relationship between teaching and learning, as well as research (Clement, McAlpine & Waeytens, 2004; Fernández et al., 2010; Floud, 2006; Gaston, 2010; Jing, 2008; McKeachie & Kaplan, 2004; Rauhvargers, 2004).

According to Gaston (2010), the Bologna process presents issues that can be found in the United States like “consistency (how degrees are defined, how disciplines are structured), continuity (how one degree level should encourage students to attempt the next), quality assurance (accountability ideas), and mobility (issues of transferability and transcript transparency)” (pp. xxii-xxiii). At present, European priorities are similar to the United States, but nobody can deny that Europe has embarked on a fast track reform that is well coordinated and comprehensive (McKeachie & Kaplan, 2004).

Before the Bologna Declaration was signed in 1999 by 47 European ministers of education, there was a meeting in Paris at one of the oldest universities in Europe: the Sorbonne. In the Sorbonne Joint Declaration of 1998, the four ministers who attended declared that “an open European area for higher learning carries a wealth of positive perspectives, of course respecting our diversities, but requires on the other hand continuous efforts to remove barriers and to develop a framework for teaching and learning” (Bologna, 1999). That was the first step for the most important higher education reform that has ever taken place in Europe. It was also the first time that all country members of the European Union agreed upon such an important matter as higher education. Nevertheless, there are also many countries that are not EU members who have ascribed to the Bologna process (Gaston, 2010).

After the Lisbon Initiative a new document was presented -“The Lisbon Declaration, Europe’s Universities beyond 2010: Diversity with a common purpose” (2007)- in which five fundamental parts for the implementation of the EHEA were specified: Introduction to the reform, building the EHEA, the internationalization of the EHEA, promoting research and innovation, and finally quality. When explaining the main objective of the ECTS, the Lisbon Declaration recalls the importance of structuring learning processes based on learning outcomes (McKeachie & Kaplan, 2004; Rauhvargers, 2004; Vizcarro & Yániz, 2004).

European academics soon realized that these changes implied the necessity to rethink their curricula and teaching methods. This implies determining what students should know and also how they should learn, in other words, determining competencies

and new methodologies in order to acquire those competencies (Croché, 2008; Gaston, 2010; McKeachie & Kaplan, 2004; Vizcarro & Yániz, 2004).

This was new for almost all European universities and especially for Spanish universities, because most programs were developed in specific academic discipline rather than being based on any thorough examination of what a student should learn (Del Valle, 2006). In many cases, courses were developed according to professors' research interests, who thus filled up lectures with content that interested them (Peach, 2001). After lecturing for a certain number of hours, the professor would require a final written exam where everything discussed in class was asked. Students knew that if they had attended the lectures, had taken notes and studied the textbook and notes, they deserved to pass the course (Floud, 2006; Jacobs & van der Ploeg, 2006; Vizcarro & Yániz, 2004).

This is why the quality of higher education has proven to be at the center of the establishment of the EHEA. However, Gaston (2010) states that at the beginning,

Concerns over principle have arisen also with regard to the overriding emphasis of Bologna's founding documents on the role of higher education in supporting economic development. While an emphasis on the expansion of knowledge and the fulfillment of human potential should pay significant economic dividends, a reductive view of higher education as primarily a means to promote prosperity may alienate important constituencies. (p. xxii)

Ministers and universities (Rectors' and students' European Commissions) committed to supporting the development of quality assurance at the institutional, regional, national and European (supranational) level (Gaston, 2010; Sharpe, 2004).

By 2010, the EHEA should have been a reality. According to Heinze and Knill (2008), “notwithstanding the legally-unbinding and intergovernmental character of the declaration, different reforms related to the process have been initiated in all of the signatory countries” (p. 494). European national governments have developed national policies that fit the EHEA agenda and trying to converge national higher education systems (Huisman & Van der Wende, 2004).

The Bologna process is an ambitious project that influences higher education institutions, but which differs widely across European countries (Vizcarro & Yániz, 2004). Spanish universities have started the implementation of new programs and the restructuring of what these changes imply (Horta, 2009). So far Spanish public universities are facing great challenges not only in the implementation of programs, but are also making important changes within the curriculum and the use of new teaching methodologies (Croché, 2008; Fernández et al., 2010; Perez, 2004; Vizcarro & Yániz, 2004). The above-mentioned changes that Spanish universities are making have been done in response to the implementation of the Bologna process.

National Context

Education in Spain has had a tenuous history, and today that history is still strongly influencing the norms and the structure of the system. Two elements stand out when considering the legacy of the past in the present of Spain: that of isolation and that of an authoritarian state. (Peach, 2001, p. 69)

The history of Spanish universities dates back to medieval times when they were closely tied to the Catholic Church in its beginnings. At the end of the 18th century, Spanish studiorum started to go through its first reforms, becoming more independent

from the church. In the 19th century, these liberal reforms gave birth to the first Spanish public universities. During Franco's regime Spain lived very isolated from the rest of Europe and the world (Peach, 2001). After his death in 1975 there were only centralized government-ruled universities. It was then that Spain started its transition to democracy and in 1983 the Law of University Reform (LRU) was passed. This was a clear response to the needs of Spanish society at a time when democratic organizations in universities, as well as wider access to higher education for all social groups became a necessity. All of these important changes in the Spanish higher education context were both publicly well accepted and required by society at that time (Vizcarro & Yániz, 2004).

However, tertiary education in Spain would face new challenges in the new democratic society. The first of these challenges was an increasing number of university students. In 1972-1973, there were 404,000 freshmen students and in 1999-2000, there were 1,583,000, which resulted in large classes and in general, an overcrowding of the Spanish higher education system (OECD, 1998). The second important factor was the new Spanish constitution, which approved 17 autonomous communities independent from the central government in Madrid. This meant the beginning of a decentralization process that took place in all ministries including the Ministry of Education (MEC). From then on, every autonomous community would manage educational resources, regional departments of education, curricula and its implementation, as well as budgets. Once all of the competencies were transferred to the autonomous communities, the number of universities tripled in Spain. However, this was not until the 1990s when private universities were created in Spain (Peach, 2001). The Royal Decree in 1991

helped the establishment of non-state, secular (private) universities and also allowed cities with populations of over 50,000 to establish higher education institutions with no control over the degrees offered and accredited. The result of this was the duplicity of degree programs that were offered, and a lack of specialization or uniqueness at many of the universities.

The new *Ley Orgánica de Universidades* (2001 and modified in 2007) or LOU has had the most recent impact on the currently 76 Spanish higher education institutions. This law made important changes to help universities adapt to the new demands of the knowledge society and to the EHEA. Some of the changes mandated by this law would be directed from the central government, but most of the new policies were to be implemented at the regional level (Horta, 2009). In this reform the national government mandated that all Spanish universities should have complied with the Bologna process and gave the following directives in order to start its implementation: class sizes of no more than 50 students; continuous evaluation or assessment of student progress; the use of the ECTS; measuring workload and competences acquired, as well as internship programs recognized with ECTS and as part of the degree program (“Guía de usuario: Campus de excelencia internacional,” 2010).

Some of the actions to support the educational innovation plan were plans for internationalizing public and private universities. The *Programa Campus de Excelencia Internacional*, aims to promote the internationalization and quality of Spanish higher education institutions (Horta, 2009; Silla, 2010). The creation of a new Ministry of Innovation is helping to promote new strategies. A group of experts evaluate teaching-learning innovation as well as the role of each university in their own context, as well as

at the regional, national, and supranational levels (Rubiralta, 2010). National government policies and support in funding help internationalization of higher education institutions (Horta, 2009). As Wächter (2000) affirms “to a high degree, the state determines the extent of a university’s degree of freedom (...) As far as I can see, governments intervene in two main ways: through legislative and regulatory acts (higher education laws), and through funding mechanisms” (p. 6).

Regional and Institutional Contexts

Regional context: Aragón.

San Jorge University is a young, dynamic and small university founded in 2005. It is located in Villanueva de Gállego, a small town 12 kilometers north of Zaragoza, an area which includes the Walqa Technological Park in Huesca. Zaragoza is the capital city of Aragón, a region in the northeastern part of Spain. Aragón is located between powerful autonomous communities: Catalonia to the east, Navarra and the Basque Country to the west, and is about a three-hour drive north of Madrid. It also has a natural frontier with France, from which it is separated by the Pyrenees (Figure 1).

If compared with Madrid and Catalonia, Aragón is not a highly populated region of Spain. According to the 2010 census, Spain has a population of 47,021,031. The region of Aragón has a population of 1,347,095, which is divided between its provincial capitals: Huesca 228,566, Teruel 145,277 and Zaragoza 973,252. In 2009, the autonomous community of Aragón had an immigrant population of 172,138. Zaragoza is where most of them are registered: 126,440. Within this population the number of young people is high: 90,156 are between the ages of 20 and 39 years old (“Revision del Padrón Municipal a 1 de enero de 2010”, IAEST, 2010). Zaragoza is a dynamic mid-

size city strategically located half way between Barcelona and Madrid, and well connected by a high-speed train (AVE) that runs between all three of the cities. Its origins go back to the first establishment of the Roman Empire on the Iberian Peninsula, then called Caesaraugusta, named after the Roman Emperor. It was a highly regarded place by the Muslims (during the year 1044) since it was the capital of one of their kingdoms. The Christian conquest of the Iberian Peninsula started in the Aragonese Pyrenees, and centuries later Zaragoza became an important capital of the Aragonese and Catalanian kingdoms. Because of its strategic location, Zaragoza has been witness to different wars such as the Independence war against Napoleon (1808) and later on, the Spanish civil war (1936-39) (Casas Torres et al., 1961).

Zaragoza has been and still is an important military post, housing a United States Air Force base from 1958 to 1994, as well as being home to one of the largest army maneuver areas. In addition, the Spanish Army's Military Academy is located just outside of the city. Currently, location is what has made Zaragoza a vital logistics center, where many important industries like Inditex (Zara, Mango), General Motors and many others have established their main supply chain hubs (Casas Torres et al., 1961).

Zaragoza is also a quiet city with little tourism where many immigrants find jobs in the agriculture sector. It is also a place where many students from neighboring autonomous communities like the Basque Country and Catalonia find a place to study in Spanish, which in the wake of the decentralization process has been an important issue in certain areas of Spain. As Hofstede, Hofstede and Minkov (2010) point out, there has been an increasing tendency within European countries for ethnic and linguistic groups to fight for their recognition, identity and independence. However, as the authors say,

“nations that exist today populate one single world, and we either survive or perish together. Thus it makes practical sense to focus on cultural factors separating or uniting nations” (Hofstede & Hofstede, 2005, p. 19).

Institutional context: San Jorge University.

San Jorge University is the only private higher education institution in the autonomous community of Aragón and it is the third university in the region. The other universities are Zaragoza University (UNIZAR) and the National Distance University. UNIZAR is a large public research university, which was already a Universitas Magistrorum in the 12th century and which received the papal bull in 1542. Zaragoza University’s current student population is over 35,000 (“Historia Universidad de Zaragoza”, 2011). It is in this context that an Aragonese foundation with its roots and a long history in vocational and secondary education, Fundación San Valero, decided to create another higher education opportunity in Aragón (“Universidad San Jorge”, 2011).



Figure 1. Spanish Map Showing where USJ Is Located. Retrieved from <http://www.viamichelin.com/web/Maps?layers=0001&strLocid=34MTE1d3h0azYwMDQxNm0zMTA1MWRmMDhjTkRfU56VTVPRGM9Y0xUQXVPRE16TIRrPWNORE>

V1TnpVek16ST1jTFRBdU9ETTFPVEk9Y05ERXVOeIV6TXpJPWNMVEF1T0RNM
U9UST0xMENhbGxIIGRIIGxhIFVuaXZlcnNpZGFkIGRIIFNhbiBKb3JnZQ

San Jorge University opened with 181 students in 2005, and the number has grown to about 1,618 today, 1,520 undergraduate and 98 graduate students. According to Dr. Carlos Pérez Caseiras, rector of USJ (2011), there was a 60% increase in freshmen students in the 2010-11 academic year. In a presentation to the university senate he analyzed data and confirmed that there were 490 new students, compared to the previous academic year when there were 301 (“Claustro presentación”, 2011). Each year, USJ’s student population increases, as does its faculty and administrative staff.

In addition, the number of accredited or official degree programs continues to grow every year. In 2005, there were three degree programs and today there are 12 undergraduate, four master and two doctoral programs. There are also 14 specific courses (USJ gives their own minor degree programs), all of which are part of five schools or colleges and three transversal (work across the whole university) institutes:

1. The School of Communication Sciences, which grants degrees in Journalism, Advertising and Public Relations, Audiovisual Communication and Translation and Intercultural Communication.
2. The School of Health Sciences, which grants degrees in Pharmacy, Nursing and Physiotherapy.
3. The School of Computer Engineering, which grants degrees in Computer Engineering.
4. The School of Architecture, which grants degrees in Architecture.

5. The College of Leadership and Administration, which grants degrees in Business Administration.
6. The Institute of Environment and Sustainability
7. The Institute of Modern Languages (IML)
8. The Institute of Humanism and Society (IHS)

The three transversal institutes have different aims and play different roles at the university. The Institute of Environment and Sustainability concentrates on research and innovation in the sciences.

The IML is in charge of all other languages that are taught at USJ: English, French and Chinese. English is the compulsory language for all of the degree programs (“Universidad San Jorge”, 2011). The IML is also in charge of the implementation of Content Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) as an innovation project, which started in 2008. The CLIL project goes hand-in-hand with the language policy that was approved in 2009, which dictates that upon graduation, all students should have acquired a B2 English level. This policy is in accordance with the Language Framework established by the EHEA.

The CLIL project started with an analysis of the faculty’s English level. Once the level was established, faculty members were assigned a CLIL instructor with whom they worked with on weekly or bi-weekly basis. In the second year of the project, the decision was made to analyze all degree courses and determine where to introduce one ECTS (which is equivalent to 25 hours of class work). This entails introducing reading, writing and listening activities in English into regular classes, not solely in language classes (Harris & Bruton, 2010).

The IML also collaborates with the International Student Office, administering level tests for ERASMUS exchange programs and SOCRATES internship programs. In addition, it organizes and oversees the pre-departure orientations for outgoing students, as well as the special courses for Spanish as a foreign language (ELE) for incoming international students.

The IHS works towards a holistic education based on a humanistic approach. The IHS aims to help USJ students to be socially responsible leaders in their local communities; helping the Aragonese community with innovative research and development projects. The main research areas of the IHS are in immigration and intercultural communication. The IHS offers undergraduate students free-standing and non-program courses in Cultural Patterns and Contemporary Society (e.g. human rights, international development, intercultural communication, history of religions, family patterns and society and research methodology). Students obtain a number of ECTS on their transcripts after taking these courses. Lecturers and their research focus on questions like intercultural issues, migration patterns, society, human rights, integration, culture and human communication. Lecturers from the IHS teach courses such as ethics and civic humanism, courses which deal with civic questions analyzed from a scientific foundation. These two courses are compulsory to all degree programs, which emphasize the humanistic education that is a part of the mission and vision of USJ.

The IHS also organizes summer courses dedicated to current issues in the Aragonese community like immigration, women and their visibility in the media and intercultural education. In 2010, the IHS was assigned by the board of directors the duty to start

volunteer programs in cooperation with local and international NGOs with whom many Memorandums of Understanding (MOUs), have already been signed.

The Office of International Relations was established in 2006-07, one year after the founding of the USJ. It was a top-down decision made by the director of innovation. The first step was to apply for the ERASMUS/SOCRATES letter in order to start mobility programs for the following academic year 2007-08. That same year, the rector and the director of innovation travelled to the United States, Mexico and Costa Rica to visit different universities and to sign new collaboration agreements. At the beginning there was a special interest and connection with the importance of learning English and to establish exchange programs. The first priority was students' mobility and later, on lecturers' mobility (M. Gómez & C. Callao, personal communication, March 4, 2011). So far there are 63 MOUs with European universities and 25 with non-European universities, mainly from North and South America as well as, 22 MOUs with Spanish universities (C. Callao, personal communication, January 12, 2011). There have been almost 300 incoming and outgoing students who have participated over the last four years in mobility programs (exchange programs) ("Universidad San Jorge", 2011).

Since its beginning, USJ has embedded Information and Communication Technology (ICT) throughout its campus. Wi-Fi is available on the university campus and all students are given a tablet PC when they register for their first semester. All lecturers are trained in the use of Moodle as the official platform for teaching and learning and all facilities are equipped for using laptops.

The Department of Quality Assurance follows accreditation and external evaluation. From this department there is assessment on teaching and learning

according to what the Bologna process specifies and also the importance of the role of the student body and their representatives. All descriptive documents of the degree programs are digitalized and there is specific software (GDWEB) developed to elaborate syllabi; these syllabi include competences acquired, methods of evaluation, ECTS, languages of instruction, as well as specific parts on internationalization and the use of English in the instruction (“Universidad San Jorge”, 2011).

USJ revised its strategic plan in 2009 in collaboration with all of the university community, its board of directors, academic managers, faculty, staff and students. The rector analyzed the 100 % implementation of the Bologna process, with USJ being one of the first universities in Spain to achieve that goal. He also commented on the new challenges: online courses, life long learning and internationalization.

San Jorge University is a non-profit organization based on Christian humanism whose mission is to serve society creating and promoting knowledge as well as contributing in the education and development of good human beings and excellent professionals. Its vision is to be a recognized and consolidated university because of its excellence in teaching; its advising and personalized attention to the students; being recognized for the quality of the degree programs as well as the international mobility; for its research and innovation, as well as its social responsibility to promote socioeconomic incentives for the Aragonese community.

According to the 2011 institutional census, there are 134 associate and full-time faculty and 70 staff members. If USJ continues its pace next year, there will be more degree programs, more students and more faculty and staff.

The nature of this university: European, Spanish, private and recently founded, combined with its humanistic approach to education makes it a very special and unique place. There are many activities, projects and efforts being done to give the students an international as well as intercultural perspective. However, those different projects and activities are not contemplated under the same spectrum and terminology, which is IaH.

Theoretical Frameworks

The main conceptual frameworks on which this study is based include Josef Mestenhauser's (2002, 2007, 2011) systems perspective on internationalization of higher education institutions, leadership for change theory based on Kotter's (1996) eight success factors promoting change in organizations and Fullan's *Six Secrets of Change* (2008). The three conceptual frameworks complement each other. Mestenhauser's system perspectives on internationalization is a more general conceptual framework and Kotter's and Fullan's focus on the process of change in any organization. Mestenhauser asserts that fragmented knowledge is represented in higher education institutions and that is why most colleges work like silos within the same system. Mestenhauser presents IaH as a new face of internationalization, which involves the whole institution (i.e. as a system), whose components are all connected and affect the final outcome; "more can be accomplished only if all parts of the field pull together and initiate major conceptual, administrative and curricular changes" (Mestenhauser, 2002, p. 62). According to Mestenhauser (2011) internationalization is a major reform, and the approach towards substantive reforms is a complex process of change that should be faced by looking at the whole system, not only at certain parts. However he affirms that, "the fundamental learning units in an organization are working teams (people who need

one another to produce and outcome)” (p. xi). Therefore, the only way to analyze an internationalization process of a higher education institution is through a holistic approach, which is what Mestenhauser’s system’s perspective illustrates in its conceptualization.

According to Mestenhauser systems perspective IaH should be at the core of a higher education institution, since internationalization affects every department an area of work in a university.

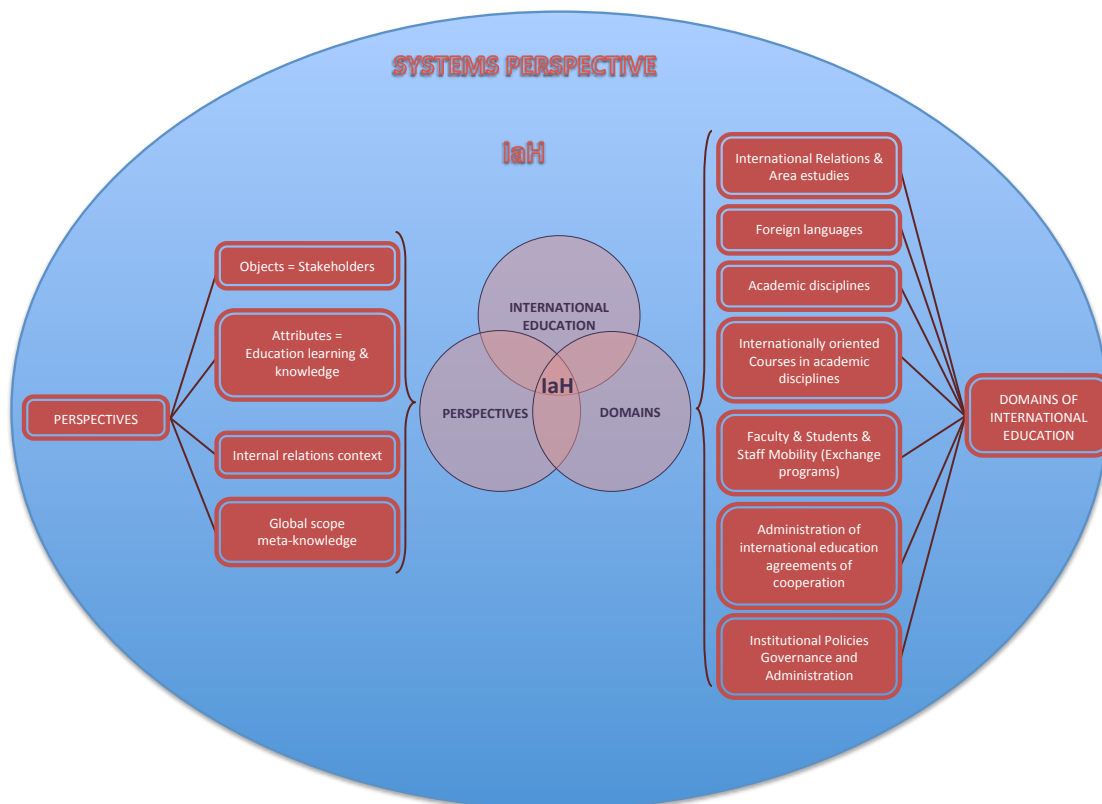


Figure 2. Systems perspective framework to IaH. Based on Mestenhauser (2002) In search of a comprehensive approach to international education: A systems perspective a chapter in the book *Rockin’ in Red Square: Critical approaches to international education in the age of cyberculture*, edited by Walter Grünzweig and Nana Rinehart.

IaH is conceptualized to be at the core of the university system affecting all members of the university community and all colleges, departments and programs.

According to Mestenhauser (2002), the systemic IaH model that he advocates,

includes other systems of knowledge in the seven domains and five perspectives, both national and international. It goes beyond the narrowly defined academic knowledge to include perceptions, attitudes, values and stereotypes because they are cognitive maps deeply embedded in the minds and memories of people. (p. 69)

This framework is enhanced by Kotter’s (2008) idea of change as a continuous process, and Fullan’s (2008) how change is implemented in educational organizations.

KOTTER’S EIGHT- STAGE PROCESS FOR ORGANIZATIONAL CHANGE & FULLAN’S SIX SECRETS OF CHANGE

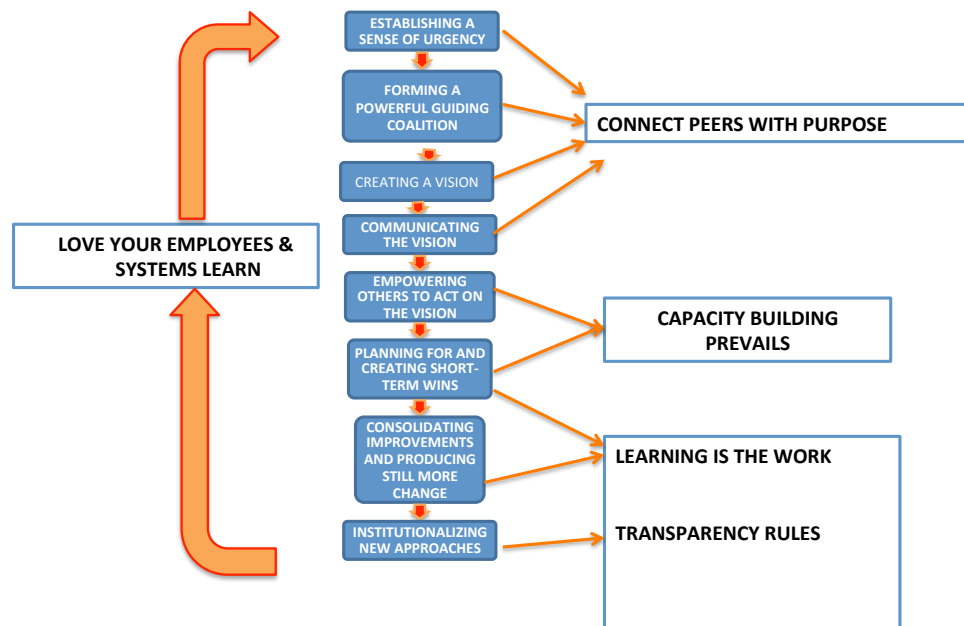


Figure 3. Promoting change in an organization. Based on Kotter’s (1996) *Eight-Stage Process for Organizational Change* and Fullan’s (2008) *Six Secrets of Change*.

Kotter's (2008) framework is based on how organizations should build a culture that appreciates constant change and knows the process of it. Kotter (2008) affirms that knowing and understanding the process of change helps to promote and implement it better. Fullan's work and Kotter's eight steps to promote change in an organization merge and there are many similarities in how change is promoted and happens in any organization.

Fullan (2008) studies how change takes place in educational organization and asks, "How do systems learn?" (p. 109). How does a learning organization learn? Systems focus on many leaders working together while Fullan says that it is better to rely on key individuals. Fullan explains that leadership is found at any level of an institution or system and includes the following "secrets" to further his point. His first secret for promoting change is to make institutional members valued. Secret two engages peer interaction, generating knowledge and commitment. Secret three builds members' individual and collective capacity. Secret four promotes everyday learning. Secret five values transparency in rules and feedback and secret six is a compound of the previous secrets, love employees and create an organizational learning system. Fullan affirms that a problem that any system faces is "how to achieve a degree of cohesion and focus in an otherwise fragmented environment" (p. 41). Promoting leadership throughout an institution helps teambuilding and faculty and staff members work towards a common vision and purpose.

Kotter (1995, 1996) explains that in order for change to happen, an institution needs to go through the following eight steps, which merge with Fullan's (2008) six secrets of change:

1. Establishing a sense of urgency. Kotter (2007) later called this the urgency of the penguins, when one penguin discovers that the iceberg is melting, this penguin communicates the news of this urgent information to another penguin who starts making decisions. For Kotter (2007), the sense of urgency is the most important one in order to start the change process; if there is no critical moment, there is not enough energy to start a transformation program. He also asserts that members of an organization are usually content to maintain the status quo. Fullan (2008) also affirms that a crisis is a great opportunity that cannot be missed;
2. Forming a powerful guiding coalition, encouraging a group of people to work together (Kotter, 2007). Fullan (2008) calls this teambuilding and forming a coalition of people working and promoting change at all levels of an institution;
3. Creating a vision and a strategy (Kotter, 2007). Knowing the process of change and understanding how it works. Communicating the vision, using every possible communication channel to communicate the ideas and make sure that people understand it;
4. Empowering others to work towards that vision (Kotter, 2007). Fullan (2008) explains it as finding the balance between guiding and listening, directing and learning and making sure that everyone is on board;
5. Planning short-term wins, the feeling of accomplishment is important for a group of people working hard to change the structure and system of an organization (Kotter, 2007). Fullan calls this the we-we solution, creating the right conditions for effective peer-interaction within a learning organization;

6. Consolidating the outcomes and continue working, do not give up but continue producing more change until it is a constant characteristic of the organization (Kotter, 2007); and
7. Institutionalizing a new culture, ensuring leadership development (Kotter, 2007). Leading change in an organization promotes a constant questioning of decisions that have been made to promote change. Fullan (2008) affirms that accepting uncertainty is a key part of the change process. As Pfeffer and Sutton (2006) state “the ability to act with knowledge, while doubting what you know” (quoted in Fullan, 2008, p. 124).

Definition of Key Terms and Concepts

Internationalization: According to J. Knight (2003) internationalization “is the process of integrating an international or intercultural dimensions into the teaching, research, and service functions of a higher education institution” (p. 2). According to Paige (2005):

Internationalization means creating an environment that is international in character- in teaching, in research, in outreach. It means exposing students, for example, to knowledge about and from different parts of the world, and it means preparing them to communicate and work with people from other cultures and countries. (p. 101)

Globalization: According to Altbach (2004) globalization related to higher education “involves information technology and the use of common language for scientific communication” (p. 65). Grünzweig and Rinehart (2002) define globalization as “the process and consequences of instantaneous world-wide communication made possible by new technology. The consequences include an explosive growth in the quantity and

accessibility of knowledge and continually increasing integration and interdependence of world financial and economic systems” (p. 7).

Internationalized curriculum: An internationalized curriculum is “a curriculum which gives international and intercultural knowledge and abilities, aimed at preparing students for performing (professionally, socially, emotionally) in an international and multicultural context” (Nilsson 2000, p. 22).

International education: According to Mestenhauser (1999), international education has been defined “as a mega-goal that drives other educational goals, as a scattering of international programs and projects, and as a simple addition of international content courses already in existence” (p. 3).

Internationalization at Home: According to Bengt Nilsson (2003) IaH “is any internationally related activity with the exception of outbound student mobility” (p. 31).

Leadership: According to Northouse (2007, “leadership is a process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal” (p. 3).

Leadership is a way to help people to solve problems that are not completely understood (Fullan, 2001).

Summary

Chapter I is an introduction to the study. The statement of the problem and the context of the study are explained. The study purpose, research questions, and the theoretical frameworks are presented. Chapter II presents the literature review relevant to the study such as academic capitalism, internationalization of higher education, internationalization at home, leadership for change and the theoretical frameworks used in the study. Chapter III reviews the methodology and methods used in the study.

Chapter IV presents the data analysis and explains the findings, and Chapter V discusses the conclusions, implications and recommendations.

Chapter II

A Critical Review of the Literature

This chapter is devoted to a review of relevant literature focusing on the topic of IaH including its rationale, history, components, strategies, and main challenges. I begin with an overview of the literature on academic capitalism to explore how current higher education institutions have changed to adapt to new trends due to globalization. This is followed by internationalization of higher education to review origin, definitions, rationales, challenges and approaches of the internationalization of universities. Then a review of internationalization at home, origins, characteristics and main elements that are part of IaH strategies are presented. The last part of the chapter centers on a review of leadership for change, since an internationalization process is a systemic organization reform that needs organizational leadership to be implemented. And finally an in-depth analysis of the theoretical frameworks used in the study is presented.

Academic Capitalism

Globalization affects all sectors of society including education (Hudzik, 2011; Scott, 2000). Globalization is often viewed as an extension, or as a triumph of capitalism. To understand more deeply what is happening globally in higher education, a review of academic capitalism is important. When we talk about capitalism we immediately think of the economy, production, business and consumerism. Worldwide higher education institutions are embedded in their regional and national systems but they are also pressured by international systems along with external economic and political ways of regulating the market (Altbach, 2005; Horta, 2009; Rhoades, 2005).

From one country to the next, the prevailing political ideology is neo-liberalism, promoting a marketizing of public-sector enterprises. In this context, there seems to be little alternative in higher education to what Slaughter and Leslie (1997) and Slaughter & Rhoades (2004) have called academic capitalism.

(Rhoades & Maldonado-Maldonado, Ordorika & Velazquez, 2004, p. 316)

Globalization and the new global knowledge society are indeed pushing higher education institutions to change in many different ways (Rhoades, 2005). Gary Rhoades and Sheila Slaughter (2004) define academic capitalism as “the involvement of colleges and faculty in market-like behaviours” (p. 37). Later on they expanded on this definition affirming that,

higher education institutions are seeking to generate revenue from their core educational, research and service functions, ranging from the production of knowledge (such as research leading to patents) created by the faculty to the faculty’s curriculum and instruction (teaching materials that can be copyrighted and marketed). (p. 37)

All these changes have evolved the old concept of higher education institutions to the business or enterprise of universities; to an environment where knowledge and learning are consumed like any other goods (Rhoades, 2005), “in short, capitalism, academic style, is reshaping the focus and forms of academic production and governance” (Rhoades, 2003, p. 1).

Globalization and academic capitalism affect faculty roles and instruction (teaching and learning), the curriculum and the whole tertiary education system (Altbach, 2005). The new economic system entails that higher education institutions

seek to generate revenues from their main activities: research, service and educational functions. As Rhoades (2005) explains, currently academic capitalism is a cultural system that values “higher education’s dual economic roles: generating revenue for academic institutions and producing knowledge and wealth to boost the global competitiveness of corporations” (p. 1). This new system is based on changing the historical university culture of tenure-track and full-time faculty to non-faculty professionals (Hellman & d’Ambrosio, 2008). These non-faculty professionals are in top-management positions deciding not only about budgets and revenues but also about accountability, outcomes, and curricula changes. These important changes within the university system are leaving full time faculty out of the top decision-making positions and making them be like just another member of the organization.

These are important challenges for higher education institutions at the moment. Some of these changes make sense due to the current context of a globalized, interconnected world and within the European context of the Bologna process (Gaston, 2010). However, there are other changes that make less sense, mainly because they are not taking into account the important role that higher education plays in society. Rhoades and Slaughter (2004) affirm that some of the roles of universities are “providing access to the economy for a broader proportion of the population; preparing citizens for a democracy in a new, high-tech, global world; and addressing a range of social problems and issues that attend the shift to a knowledge-based economy” (p. 38). In other words, higher education prepares future generations for an interconnected work place anywhere in the world, accessibility, equity, and the creation of a social

consciousness that will make our current students better prepared for solving global social problems (Delors, 1997; Hudzik, 2011).

However, the commercialization of higher education institutions (Hanley, 2005; Schuetze, 2007) pushes university members, mainly faculty, to ask what happens with the curriculum, academic freedom and research, as well as what happens with all the Humanities courses that used to be compulsory 50 years ago?

Currently, one of the main changes that universities face is the shift of government control units. These units of government and important decision-making units are full of academic managers, thus reducing the role of faculty members in teaching and research (Scott, 2000). There are new names that have been introduced from the business world into the academic world such as strategic planning, revenue generation, ratios, marketing, efficiency, product, outcomes and in some cases clients (Anderson, 2001; Heller & d'Ambrosio, 2008; Rhoades 2003, 2005; Rhoades & Slaughter, 2004; Schuetze, 2007; Walker, 2009). Globalization, neo-liberalism, the new global knowledge society and the pressure to academia to shift into academic production are the new challenges that higher education institutions are currently facing.

Public and private universities around the world are facing these important changes. These current challenges pressure higher education managers to implement academic capitalism on their respective campuses (Horta, 2009). This is manifested in an increasing presence of corporations in the academic world and university agreements with non-academic organizations, as well as a shift into more top-down decision making in the government bodies of higher education institutions (Rhoades, 2005). This is why contemporary universities are similar to corporations; using the same vocabulary and

trying to implement the same decision-making structure (Anderson, 2001; Rhoades & Sporn, 2002; Rhoades, 2003; Rhoades & Slaughter, 2004; Walker, 2009). Hanley (2005) describes the current relation between universities, corporations, academic production and governments as the “the new ‘triple helix’ of knowledge, production, underwritten by the newly dominant view of universities as engines of national wealth creation” (p. 4). Academic production is seen as an important economic factor in nations, not only as knowledge-production and as an investment in human and social capital, but it goes further than that. The production of knowledge is seen directly related to economic factors, before and after production. Research that is not driven by corporate interests is now called “curiosity-driven research” (p. 6). Academic capitalism is not only affecting the managerial structures of higher education institutions it is also affecting research, curricula and the professionalization of teaching as well as faculty contracts (Rhoades, 2005). As many authors explain, the era of tenure-track positions is almost over. All the outcomes are measured even all of the work carried out by faculty (Heller & d’Ambrosio, 2008). These are big changes in the pre-globalization conceptualization of tertiary education and the current vision of the role of universities and how these should operate in the new global market.

Walker (2009) explains how time is the fourth dimension in the globalization or commercialization of universities. The temporal dimension as well as the constant communication (through ICTS) is one of the important factors recognized by several social scientists. The other three dimensions of globalization are space, movement and place (Rhoades, 2005; Scott, 2000). The access and use of the Internet has produced a big change in higher education institutions with the use of Moodle, Web CT and virtual

classrooms as a mode of instruction, as well as online courses and programs (Rhoades, 2003; Walker, 2009). This has changed the conceptualization of the teaching-learning process, as before it always took place in a classroom setting, and currently more online and distance learning students, access higher education via the use of the Internet. How time was administered was a key factor of the “old” capitalism and currently this influences academic capitalism. Faculty are those who have to demonstrate how efficient they are maximizing their use of time, as Walker (2009) explains, “academic work has become more intensified through technologies and through techniques of managerialism, accountability, and surveillance” (p. 484). Everything faculty members do is measured and controlled. Under academic capitalism faculty and students have to show they are successful and globally competitive knowledge workers (Hassan, 2003; Heller & d’Ambrosio, 2008; Rhoades et al., 2004; Walker, 2009).

There are many important changes and challenges that faculty members face within this new “regime” of academic capitalism (Rhoades, 2005). These include mainly managerialism, accountability and surveillance. The corporate mindset greatly influences the curriculum, research and the professionalization of academia. Presidents of colleges and universities are like CEOs, so faculty members have become “managed professionals” and the current higher education curricula are focused on the global market and its needs. These trends of managerialism, accountability and surveillance have a direct implication on the control of academic work by management in its productivity and use of time, and therefore have caused a big change in the structure of professional employment. Currently, more and more associate professors who come from the corporate world are hired to teach a certain number of classes but they are not

expected to have an impact on campus life or the world of academia (Heller & d'Ambrosio, 2008). These challenges affect the stratification of academic fields, as well as the stratification of educational functions, which influence tenure-track faculty performance (Rhoades, 2005).

Higher education institutions have created new managerial positions, which assure the pedagogical quality and who evaluate what faculty do. Faculty members are seen as mere workers, in which knowledge and academic production is controlled and measured according to financing interests. This means that the only space in which faculty are in total control of what is happening is in their classrooms, while they are teaching (Hanley, 2005; Rhoades, 2003; Rhoades et al., 2004; Rhoades & Slaughter, 2004; Walker, 2009). The what, how and outcomes of that teaching is also measured and controlled in many different ways.

These are important issues in a constantly changing global system, which shakes corporations, organizations, universities and of course the members of all those institutions, people at an individual working level (Rosen & Digh, 2001; Scott, 2000). While there are differences among higher education institutions from different continents and countries, there is a certain dominant model (Beelen, 2007; Mestenhauser, 2003; Mestenhauser & Ellingboe, 2005; Teekens, 2007). Two centuries ago the German Humboldtian model was followed by all higher education institutions. Currently the US American model of “entrepreneurial universities and of university engagement with the corporate world and the market place has become a dominant policy model of higher education” (Rhoades et al., 2004, 316). The imposition of neo-liberalist practices worldwide has had a direct impact on higher education institutions.

Globalization has pushed these important shifts in academia as well as in the corporate world (Knight & de Wit, 1995; de Wit, 2002; Childress, 2009, 2010; Rhoades, 2003; Schuetze, 2007). The old conception of universities as public goods is not being used anymore and a conception of higher education institutions as a private good more like a commodity has been imposed (Altbach, 2005; Stearns, 2009).

Some scholars affirm that globalization is a natural continuation of capitalism. Rhoades et al. (2004) focus on the “international agencies and human agency that are involved in mediating and translating influences between international, national, and local social systems” (p. 319). International organizations have helped form the new shape of higher education institutions policies and practices around the world (Altbach, 2005). These agencies help the spread of not only policies and practices but also trends. The internationalization of higher education is seen as a consequence of globalization, and international agencies help mediate between all the different system levels that universities face today (international, national and local) (Altbach & Teichler, 2001). This is forcing changes in higher education institutions. Although it is very important to stress that globalization and internationalization are not synonymous (Paige, 2003, 2005). Internationalization is based on a conscious action, it is also a response to the challenges that globalization has brought since the latter has changed the world of higher education (Childress, 2009, 2010; de Wit, 2009; Hudzik, 2011; Mestenhauser, 2003; Paige & Mestenhauser, 1999; Yershova, DeJaghère & Mestenhauser, 2000).

Wächter (2003) asks, “What has all of this to do with ‘internationalization at home’? The simple answer is that a globalised world is changing the rules of the game of internationalisation” (p. 10). Academic capitalism affects any internationalization

process at any university nowadays. Internationalization of higher education institutions is a consequence of globalization, and internationalization at home is a strategy for internationalization which contributes to organizational change, thus affecting many stakeholders: managers, faculty, administration personnel and students. (Beelen, 2007; Crowther et al., 2000; de Jong & Teekens, 2003; Mestenhauser, 2003, 2007; Nilsson, 2003; Paige, 2003; Teekens, 2003, 2005, 2007; Wächter, 2003).

Internationalization of Higher Education

Internationalization processes differ greatly among countries and higher education institutions, and it is defined very differently according to each institution's context and aims (Hudzik, 2011; Hudzik & McCarthy, 2012). Thus, it is important to take into account the variable of culture and the complexity of the internationalization dimension of higher education (quality and quantity, access and expected outcomes) (de Wit, 2009; Beelen, 2007; Mestenhauser, 2003, 2007; Teekens, 2005, 2007). Childress (2010) says that internationalization should have two main goals, one more idealistic and the other one more tangible. The first one refers to the idealistic objective of how some programs tend to present their students certain awareness with basic facts; this would not only be idealistic but somehow more superficial. However, the more tangible objective has to do with training university students with skills and competencies that will help them to work and live in international and intercultural settings (Mestenhauser, 1998; Nussbaum, 1997; Rosen & Digh, 2001). This has to do with learning other languages, good knowledge of different cultures as well as the history and geography of different countries (Hudzik & McCarthy, 2012; Mestenhauser, 2011; Palmer & Zajonc, 2010).

According to Altbach and Teichler (2001), “internationalization in higher education is an inevitable result of the globalized world and knowledge-based economy of the 21st century” (p.5). Globalization has important implications for the internationalization of universities (Hudzik, 2011). De Wit (2009) explains the importance of globalization and its impacts on higher education institutions worldwide as being one of the main rationales of universities for developing internationalization processes;

The internationalisation of higher education, in itself an answer to and agent of the globalization of our society, has an enormous influence on the development of institutions of higher education, as it opens these institutions to experiences from elsewhere in the world and to the global knowledge society. (de Wit, 2009, p. 123)

In this challenging context, faculty accepts its important role in the new knowledge-based world, although they do not see education as a commodity (Altbach, 2005; Childress, 2009, 2010; Gargano, 2009; Knight, 2004, Paige, 2005). Husein (1994) explains how global interdependence and globalization affects higher education worldwide and how a global education is needed (Horta, 2009, Rosen & Digh, 2001; Süßmuth, 2007). This is why, nowadays more than ever, the internationalization of higher education institutions is a must for every institution.

Historical background.

Historically higher education institutions have been thought to be international institutions by nature (Mestenhauser, 2003). However, current universities have never been so international since the time of Erasmus of Rotterdam; during the Middle Ages

Latin was the common language of instruction in Europe and universities had the same study programs and examination system. These common features helped the mobility of students and scholars throughout Europe (Healey, 2008). This is why the European Commission gave the name of Erasmus to the most important mobility program in Europe.

However, the creation of nation-states and the barriers of language forced universities to become focused on their national cultures, and to become national educational organizations. Between the Middle Ages and World War II, universities concentrated not only on providing and spreading knowledge but were also key in helping develop national identities (Altbach, 2005; Knight & de Wit, 1995; Teichler, 1999).

Most scholars refer to the Middle Ages and the Renaissance as periods in which higher education institutions promoted mobility of scholars and students as well as being the centers of knowledge production (Healey, 2008). During the 18th century, the most relevant international element of higher education was the exportation of higher education systems from Europe (i.e. the colonial powers) to their colonies (Altbach, 1989). It would not be until after World War II, when again different governments and international agencies would emphasize higher education institutions' international role of spreading knowledge and the creation of a more "global" knowledge society. Although this time, English would be the common language instead of Latin. Kerr describes these post World War II universities as "the cosmopolitan-nation-state-university" mainly because they represent "a century of transformation from nation-state divergences in higher education toward a more nearly universal convergence where

universities best serve their nations by serving the world of learning” (as cited in Knight & de Wit, 1995, p. 6).

However, many scholars agree that it was not until after World War II that the internationalization of higher education institutions really started. Thus, if compared with other fields international education is a very recent one (Brandenburg & de Wit, 2010; Mestenhauser, 1998; Yershova et al., 2000). Although the first step to analyze any internationalization process would be defining the term; what do we refer to when using the term internationalization? Many scholars have defined internationalization in many different ways and it has also been confused with globalization.

Internationalization: A definition.

The internationalization of higher education is a phenomenon with many versions and questions about “its historical dimension; its meaning, concept, and strategic aspects; its relationship to developments in society and higher education in general, in particular the movement to globalization and regionalization; and regarding its status as an area of study and analysis” (de Wit, 2002, p. xv). This section will focus on a review of different definitions of internationalization and how some concepts such as globalization and internationalization are misunderstood. How internationalization is defined is key for its conceptualization and implementation (Hudzik & McCarthy, 2012). Different regions of the world define it differently, thus its aims and strategies will as well differ.

Internationalization is a term which definition has evolved and developed over time (de Wit, 2002). The term used varied by region; in North America scholars tended to use the term international education and in Europe scholars used the term

internationalization. Thus meaning basically the same, the word internationalization and international education have been defined very differently and have been studied across multiple disciplines (Childress, 2010). There are authors who have conceptualized internationalization focusing on international projects and activities, such as study abroad programs for students and faculty and activities for international students on campus (Hudzik & McCarthy, 2012). Yet others understand internationalization as a holistic process integrating an international perspective into the curriculum (Hudzik, 2011; Childress, 2010; de Wit, 2002; Gargano, 2009; Groenings, 1987; Mestenhauser, 2007, 2011; Paige & Mestenhauser, 1999, 2003; Paige, 2005; Yang, 2002). Each conceptualization means a different approach towards internationalization, what de Wit (2002) categorizes as: the activity approach, the rationale approach, the competency approach and the process approach. Since the terms international education and internationalization are used sometimes indistinctly and in a very generic way, de Wit (2002) differentiates them as follows:

The term international education refers to a more developed form of international dimension, a program or organization. Internationalization is an extension of international education and refers to a more strategic process approach. All three forms are presented in higher education today and are not mutually exclusive. (p. 119)

Knight's definition of internationalization (1994, 1999, 2004) stresses that internationalization is a *process* not an end in itself (Knight, 2004). This process is a systemic one, which means that it affects the whole higher education institution (Hudzik & McCarthy, 2012). It also has an important and often forgotten culture variable,

focusing on the intercultural dimension. By conceptualizing internationalization as a process locates it as a constant effort infusing international activities and intercultural perspectives into an institution's policies, programs and activities. This definition locates internationalization as a holistic and system-wide process (Hudzik, 2011; Hudzik & McCarthy, 2012; Mestenhauser, 2011; Childress, 2010; Teekens 2007).

Harari (1977) uses international education and internationalization as one concept; Van der Wende (1997) defines internationalization more broadly as “any systematic effort aimed at making higher education responsive to the requirements and challenges related to the globalization of societies, economy and labour markets” (p. 18).

Knight (2004) defines internationalization as “the process of integrating an international and intercultural dimension into the teaching, research, and service functions of a higher education institution” (p. 2). This is one of the most accepted definitions by scholars like, Childress (2010) as well as, Paige and Mestenhauser (1999) who agree with not seeing internationalization as an end in itself, but as an on-going continuing process (Hudzik & McCarthy, 2012). Paige and Mestenhauser (1999) define internationalization from a systems perspective, and concentrate on the learning process, “as a complex, multidimensional learning process that includes the integrative, intercultural, interdisciplinary, comparative, transfer of knowledge-technology, contextual, and global dimensions of knowledge construction” (p. 504). Paige (2005) states that,

internationalization means creating an environment that is international in character- in teaching, in research, in outreach. It means exposing students, for example, to knowledge about and from different parts of the world, and it means

preparing them to communicate and work with people from other cultures and countries. (p. 101).

Ellingboe (1998), based on Knight's definition, sees internationalization as the process of integrating an international perspective into a college or university system. It is an ongoing, future-oriented, multi-dimensional, interdisciplinary leadership-driven vision that involves many stakeholders working to change the internal dynamics of an institution to respond and adapt appropriately to an increasingly diverse, globally-focused, ever-changing external environment. (p. 1999)

Ellingboe's definition is complex and it covers all parts of a higher education institution. Therefore, according to Knight's definition internationalization is an ongoing process that affects a university as a whole, in a systemic way, and that implies leadership for change, as well as it reflects that it is an ongoing process in which all members of the university community are involved and play an important role in it (Hudzik & McCarthy, 2012). Knight's definition is the one used in this study.

The latter definitions are similar in terms of the important role that faculty have in internationalization processes and they all have an emphasis on teaching and learning. An important part of any internationalization process is the internationalization of the curriculum as well as co-curricular activities that help students learn and gain a more global vision of what they are learning (Cogan, 1998; Ellingboe, 1998; Mestenhauser, 1998; Paige, 2005; Yershova, et al., 2000).

Harari (1977) sees three strands when talking about internationalization, curricula, scholars' and students' mobility and the cooperation among universities internationally.

It is also important to differentiate between globalization and internationalization, since there has been many times when the terms have inappropriately been used interchangeably (Altbach, 2004; Brandenburg & de Wit, 2010; de Jong & Teekens, 2003; Knight, 2004; Knight & de Wit, 1995; Paige, 2005; Yang, 2002). Grünzweig and Rinehart (2002) define globalization as “the process and consequences of instantaneous world-wide communication made possible by new technology. The consequences include an explosive growth in the quantity and accessibility of knowledge and continually increasing integration and interdependence of world financial and economic systems” (p. 7). Friedman (2000, 2005) sees globalization as a process in which individuals have great opportunities to cooperate and compete globally. Globalization can thus be thought of as a new international and interconnected system in which capital, technology and information is integrated in order to create a single global market or a global village. Globalization in higher education institutions thus involves the use of “information technology and the use of common language for scientific communication” worldwide (Altbach, 2005, p. 64), the use of technology in higher education is more common everyday, including online courses and different ways of instruction. Currently, the common language in higher education is English. Therefore internationalization “includes policies and programs adopted by governments and by academic systems and subdivisions to cope with or exploit globalization”

(Altbach, 2005, p.64), but internationalization and globalization are two different terms that should be differentiated.

Rationales for internationalization.

It is important to analyze the rationales that higher education institutions use to integrate an international dimension into their teaching, research and other services provided on campus (Hudzik & McCarthy, 2012). The main question is why internationalize? Why are higher education institutions promoting and discussing internationalization and attempting to internationalize their campuses? (Mestenhauser, 1998). De Wit (2009) explains how the increasing competition in higher education, commercialization, and trans-national programs are challenging the value that has always been attached to exchange and cooperation programs. The current situation of higher education in the global 'environment' is pushing universities to introduce their international dimension in more international, national and institutional documents as well as in their mission statements than ever before (Hudzik, 2011; Hudzik & McCarthy, 2012; de Wit, 2009). According to Knight (2009) "rationales are the driving force for why an institution wants to address and invest in internationalisation" (p. 8). These rationales are reflected in institutional policies and programs developed and implemented. Rationales for internationalization tend to fall into the following four groups: economic, political, academic and social/cultural (Childress, 2010; de Wit, 2009; Knight, 2009; Rosen & Digh, 2001).

Ellingboe (1998), with a more US American focus, explains that the rationales for internationalization are: university benefits, college/school benefits and individual benefits. Understanding rationales help to understand why higher education institutions

develop internationalization plans as well as why faculty may or may not engage in those plans. Without a clear set of rationales with clear objectives accompanied with a strategic plan and a monitoring-evaluation system, the internationalization process of higher education institutions tends to be an “ad hoc, reactive, and fragmented response to the overwhelming number of new international opportunities available” (Knight, 2009, p. 8). All these different motivations have an important culture variable. De Wit (2009) comments on the internationalization of European higher education institutions recalling their “complexity and diversity in the context of the regional process of Europeanization of higher education through the Bologna Process and the Lisbon Initiative” (p. 124). Each region of the world has a different approach and main rationales for internationalization. The Europeanization of universities adds another layer of complexity in the analysis. Thus, despite trying to unify Europe into one large integrated regional group, the diversity within Europe still persists even though the Bologna reform emphasizes standardization. Therefore, the institutional rationales may differ greatly within universities even in the same regional context.

The main push factor for the economic rationale is that universities want their graduates to be globally competent as businesses need employees with knowledge and skills to move, work, live and interact effectively with multiple and diverse cultures. When students graduate from university they must be able to work in an international and intercultural setting, which might be either with an international enterprise based locally or abroad (Rosen & Digh, 2001). The global labor market along with the economic growth and competitiveness are two of the major economic rationales for internationalization. This way, enterprises can successfully face the global competition

and international challenges (Rosen & Digh, 2001). Another economic reason is the financial incentive. The important impact that international students have to host countries and their local economies, as well as how the recruitment of international students is seen by institutional leaders as an important source of enrollment and revenue. It is not only politicians, education leaders and business people who have been driving the economic rationale for the internationalization of universities, individual citizens have manifested how it is believed that global knowledge and international skills are very important for economic competitiveness and success (Childress, 2010; Rosen & Digh, 2001). In summary, the economic push for a mobile and educated workforce that is able to adapt to different situations in intercultural settings is an important rationale for internationalization (Childress, 2010; de Wit, 2009; Knight, 2009).

Knights (2009) affirms that political rationales existing at a national and institutional levels combined are: foreign policy, national security, technical assistance, peace and mutual understanding, national and regional identities. Childress (2010) mentions that political rationales for internationalization have been present in many leaders' speeches and in many recent policies. After World War II there was an important push towards internationalizing higher education institutions for international and national policies and technical assistance, as I have mentioned above. But, more recently, terrorists attacks in New York (September 11th), London (July 7th) and Madrid (March 11th) have drawn attention towards internationalization as a key element for a peaceful understanding of intercultural communities and societies as well as national security, both in North America and in Europe, as well as in many other countries

around the world (Horta, 2009). The only way to live peacefully in an interconnected world is through peace and understanding of different cultures (Beelen, 2007; Childress, 2010; de Wit, 2009; Ellingboe, 1998; Mestenhauser, 1998; Nilsson, 2003; Peach, 2001; Teekens, 2007).

The academic rationale for the internationalization of universities is viewed as very important, mainly because teaching and research are at the core of the mission and vision of higher education institutions worldwide. In most universities if not all, teaching and research explicitly appear either in the vision or mission statement or in both (Childress, 2010; Hudzik & McCarthy, 2012). According to Knight (2009) the existing academic rationales are: international dimension of teaching and research, extension of academic horizon, institution building, profile and status, enhancement of quality and international academic standards. Internationalization improves the quality of teaching and research as well as faculty and the institution profile, since it promotes the institution internationally and promotes the exchange and dissemination of knowledge (Teekens, 2007).

Thus, the academic interest in internationalization at many institutions has translated into a desire to develop student's global critical thinking skills. In order to provide opportunities for students to develop these skills, higher education leaders have called for the internationalization of curriculum.
(Childress, 2010, p. 13)

The main outcome of an international dimension to research and teaching is, as Paige and Mestenhauser (1999) call it, an international mindset, which they define as “as a way of constructing knowledge that recognizes the significance of cultural variables and

understands education itself as a cultural phenomenon” (p. 501). These academic initiatives help students learn and become knowledgeable about different cultures and worldviews. They have the opportunity to analyze and understand the international dimensions of their majors, learn another language, which in the case of Spain will be English, and they are able to communicate cross-culturally and “hopefully” become interculturally competent or at least show sensitivity towards cross-cultural issues and realities (de Wit, 2009; Teekens, 2007).

This academic rationale has been proclaimed not only by education leaders, it also appears in new policies as well as voiced by individual citizens who have showed their interest and concern about the skills and qualifications that new graduates will need in order to be successful in the working environment of the knowledge society (Gaston, 2010; Rosen & Digh, 2001). Childress (2010) states that in a survey conducted by the American Council on Education on individuals’ attitudes and views on international education, “94%, 86%, and 77% of respondents expressed that learning about global cultures, interacting with international students, studying abroad are important components of education” (p. 14).

Even though, as Childress points out, “academic rationales serve as important driving forces for the internationalization of universities and colleges, in order to develop students’ global awareness and critical thinking” (p. 14). Therefore, at the center of higher education institutions there is a social aspect of every institution and its contribution to the knowledge society (Gacel-Avila, 2005; Hudzik, 2011; Hudzik & McCarthy, 2012).

Socio-cultural rationales for internationalization have to do mainly with increasing students' competences and abilities to live and work in a continuously changing multicultural society, contributing to international understanding among different cultures (Beelen, 2007; de Wit, 2002, 2009; Nilsson, 2003; Paige, 2003; Rosen & Digh, 2001; Teekens, 2003, 2007). Knight (2009) includes under this group: national cultural identity, intercultural understanding, citizenship development as well as social and community development.

Internationalization of higher education has been closely related to the acquisition and development of intercultural competence and therefore with the outcome of students improving their intercultural communication skills, which currently is viewed as key in order to communicate effectively in the increasing multicultural communities and among countries (Childress, 2009, 2010; Deardorff, 2006, 2009; Ellingboe, 1998; Mestenhauser, 1998; Nilsson, 2003; Paige 2003; Savicki, 2008; Teekens, 2003; Yershova et al., 2000).

Challenges in measuring intercultural competence.

The academic and social/cultural rationales are somehow mixed when both imply the development of students' intercultural competence either through an internationalized curriculum or through citizenship development with community work. Measuring intercultural competence is difficult when compared with how traditional academic knowledge is measured, namely through many different direct and indirect assessments such as "higher education examinations; economic success, which is measured through employment status and compensation; and political knowledge, which is measured by government employment examinations" (Childress, 2010, p. 14).

Standardized examinations are not a way of assess the development of intercultural competence. It is important to note that cultural knowledge, and other language knowledge do not imply intercultural competence (Bennett, 2009; Lou & Bosley, 2008). The Developmental Model of Intercultural Sensitivity (DMIS) (Bennett, 1993) is an example of the different stages that a person might be on in order to develop their intercultural competence, moving from ethnocentric stages towards an ethnorelative stage. However, this is not the only model that exists for measuring intercultural competence and its development. Deardorff (2006, 2009) proposes the Process Model of Intercultural Competence, which begins with attitudes: first individual attitudes and then the interaction level (outcomes). She affirms that the development of intercultural competence depends on the “degree of attitudes, knowledge/comprehension, and skills” (Deardorff, 2009, p. 480).

Paige (2004) and Fantini (2009) study and analyze a large number of instruments that measure and evaluate intercultural competence and its development. The main cultural characteristics of these instruments are “cognitive, attitudinal or behavioral in nature, or they can be broader measures that combine two or more of these into a gestalt or worldview” (Paige, 2004, p. 86). Paige mentions many different assessment instruments like the Intercultural Development Inventory (IDI) (Hammer, 1999, 2007) based on Milton Bennett’s DMIS (1993). Paige (2004) also mentions Kolb’s Learning Style Inventory (Kolb, 2007) among many others. Even with such a broad range of well-respected instruments, measuring intercultural competence remains a challenging task (Lou & Bosley, 2008).

Despite this “difficulty” in measuring the development of intercultural competence, many higher education institutions still use socio-cultural and academic rationales for internationalization so students and faculty enhance their cross-cultural knowledge that is important for international development, and they try to measure the development of their students’ intercultural competence (Deardorff, 2009; Lou & Bosley, 2008). The Association of American Colleges and Universities Greater Expectations Project on Accreditation and Assessment (as cited in Bennett, 2009) states that, “global knowledge and engagement, along with intercultural knowledge and competence, have been identified as essential learning outcomes for all fields of concentration and for all majors” (p. 123), which shows the importance of the socio-cultural rationales for internationalization at a national and institutional levels (Rosen & Digh, 2001).

While these rationales have been divided or categorized, it is common to find several of these rationales in one campus. Another important point is that a higher education institution community is composed of many members/stakeholders like faculty, administration staff, academic managers, teaching assistants and students (Beelen, 2007; Nilsson, 2003; Teekens, 2007). Thus in one higher education institution there are diverse stakeholders with very different characteristics, objectives that need to be taken into account when analyzing rationales for internationalization (Hudzik & McCarthy, 2012).

Rationales for different levels.

Ellingboe (1998) in a summary of her higher education Master of Arts thesis, which was an educational case study on the University of Minnesota Twin Cities

campus, explains that one of the major findings was about the rationales for internationalization. Interviewees said that campus wide internationalization would have three different levels of benefits: University, college, and individual benefits. What Ellingboe calls university benefits cover what Childress (2010) includes in political and economical rationales, mainly mentioning internationalization as a priority, what university and political leaders call the attention at an international, national and regional level, which will benefit the university. An internationalized curriculum calls attention to international students and international faculty, which are beneficial for international research projects as well as for university budgets. Within what Ellingboe (1998) calls college benefits are what Childress (2010) includes in academic, economic and socio-cultural rationales. At the college level, Ellingboe (1998) also includes the improvement of the quality of teaching when cross-cultural, comparative and international dimensions are included in the curriculum; these help students when they graduate because they can work in international and intercultural contexts, as well as being highly valued graduates by international business enterprises (Rosen & Digh, 2001).

Finally, Ellingboe's (1998) individual benefits are what Childress (2010) calls academic and socio-cultural rationales. As Ellingboe explains,

individual stakeholders, including administrators, faculty, staff, and students, would benefit from an intentionally internationalized campus. This increased awareness of world cultures and attention to the global perspectives of individual disciplines would represent a value-added dimension to the undergraduate curriculum and the professional/graduate school portfolio. (p. 205)

She includes here the emphasis on learning a foreign language and developing intercultural competence, as well as broadening the knowledge of cultural diversity and diverse worldviews. Both authors, Ellingboe (1998) and Childress (2010) reach these conclusions after developing a multiple case study of several U.S. universities in the field of internationalization.

The existence and use of different definitions and terminology, plus the different rationales used by each institution, reflect different ways in which each university has when approaching the international dimension and the role that it plays in each institution (Childress, 2010; Ellingboe, 1998; Harari, 1989; Knight & de Wit, 1995; Mestenhauser, 2007; Paige, 2005; Yang, 2002). According to de Wit (2002) the meaning of internationalization “is linked to its rationales, its means, its content, and/or its activities. This has contributed to the confusing overlap in terms used to describe (elements of) internationalization” (p. 116).

Approaches to internationalization.

The increasing differentiation of higher education necessities means that universities have a great variety of visions, missions, objectives, values, policies and rationales (Hudzik, 2011; Hudzik & McCarthy, 2012). These differences have a great impact on the approach that an institution takes to internationalization, and confirms that there is more than one way to internationalize (Knight, 2009). De Wit (2009) identifies four approaches towards internationalization: activity approach, rationale approach, competency approach and process approach. Knight (2009) identifies six possible approaches: activity, outcomes, rationales, process, ethos and broad/cross-border. It is important to take into account that they are not mutually exclusive; there are different

approaches that integrate the different aspects and elements of internationalization (Hudzik & McCarthy, 2012; Mestenhauser, 2003). Different approaches also might be combined in a way that makes sense for each higher education institution (Beelen, 2007). This is why culture variables as well as institutional and national context are so important for understanding and analyzing approaches towards internationalization (Mestenhauser, 2011).

The activity approach describes internationalization according to the type of activities that are being developed on a campus. This includes academic and extracurricular activities such as: study plans and courses; mobility and exchange programs for faculty and students; technical assistance; international research projects; and intercultural and cross-cultural training. This approach focuses on “the content of the activities and does not necessarily include any of the organizational issues needed to initiate, develop, and sustain the activities” (de Wit, 2002, p. 116). This is the most widely used approach when universities refer to internationalization in general. Even though it is common to fall into the quantitative part of the approach; the number of international orientations and number of outgoing or incoming students, as well as number of courses offered which have international designators (Lou & Bosley, 2008; Paige, 2005), it is not the only aspect of internationalization that should be considered. The quality of what is being implemented is very important when evaluating any institutional internationalization process. As Brandenburg and de Wit (2010) ask in a recent article: does this quantitative part of internationalization prove real internationalization? Or do universities need to take an in-depth look at what is really happening in their campuses and classrooms? The quality of a certain number of

activities being implemented on campus is key when any assessment of the development of students' intercultural competence or global competence is stated in the mission and vision of the institution. Therefore, there is a shift in how internationalization is viewed. Are we talking about the end of internationalization, as it has been conceptualized in the past ten years or so? How do we measure the learning outcomes and the quality of an internationalized curriculum? Are higher education institutions educating global citizens, as they affirm they do? (Brandenburg & de Wit, 2010).

According to many scholars, curricular development or the internationalization of the curriculum, as it is also known, is the most important element of any in internationalization process and thus deserves more attention (Cogan, 1998; Harari, 1992; Mestenhauser, 2011). De Wit (2009) includes specific curricular foci as components of the activities approach; these include "international education, area studies, multicultural education, intercultural education, cross-cultural education, education for international understanding, peace education, global education, development education, international studies, transnational studies, and global studies" (p. 116). There are many authors who claim that the more important part of internationalizing the curriculum is a focus on what is being taught, where it is taught, why, how, and by whom (Childress, 2009, 2010; Cogan, 1998; de Wit, 2002; Knight, 2004; Mestenhauser, 1998, 2003; Nilsson, 2003; Paige, 2002, 2005; Teekens, 2003, 2007; Yang, 2002; Yershova et al., 2000; Wätcher, 2003).

In the rationale approach, internationalization is defined by its purposes, main objectives or outcomes that are expected when internationalizing a campus. This approach is obvious when higher education institutions state that one of their aspirations

is global understanding and peace between societies. Knight (1994) includes developing a culture on campus that highly supports intercultural and international initiatives under this approach.

The competency approach focuses on the development of certain skills, competences and attitudes within the university community (i.e. students, faculty and administration personnel) as a main method to internationalization. This approach focuses on the human dimension and development in an internationalization process, not in quantitative indicators of a certain number of activities and/or projects (Rosen & Digh, 2001; Teichler, 2001; Yershova et al., 2000). There are many scholars who support this approach with the understanding that the main objective of internationalization is developing what de Wit (2009) calls, “learning competencies, career competencies, global competencies, transnational competence, and international competencies” (p. 117). However, few universities invest in evaluating these outcomes, since it is costly and difficult to measure the acquisition and development of all individuals’ international competencies.

Finally, in the process approach internationalization is understood as a process that integrates an international dimension and perspective into the most important functions of a higher education institution. This is probably the most comprehensive approach of all; it includes academic activities, institutional policies and procedures as well as strategies. Within those policies are national and international policies, strategic plans on internationalization as well as quality assurance procedures (Hudzik, 2011; Hudzik & McCarthy, 2012; Knight, 2004; Paige & Mestenhauser, 1999; Paige, 2003, 2005). This approach is the one that best fits this study since it is more comprehensive

and systemic. Contextual factors are essential at a national, institutional and individual level, when evaluating any internationalization process. What is being done by whom and why are key questions when looking at internationalization efforts of a university (Beelen, 2007; Hudzik, 2011).

Two Main Approaches to Internationalization

According to de Wit (2009), the internationalization process in each higher education institution is conceptualized and perceived differently depending on many variables: national and regional contexts, identity, and philosophy, vision and mission etc. as well as “to the stage and nature of the internationalisation process of a particular higher education institution” (p. 124). According to Knight (2006),

traditionally, internationalization at the institutional level has been thought of as a series of different strategies. It appears that these strategies are now naturally falling into two different streams or categories. One stream includes internationalization initiatives, which occur on the home campus and the other stream relates to those activities that happen abroad or involve activities that cross borders. (p. 25)

In the last nine years a new term has been introduced as part of the development in the conceptualization of internationalization, this is internationalization at home or campus-based internationalization (Wächter, 2003). The use of the term ‘at home’ is to give emphasis to campus-based elements (Knight, 2009). According to Knight (2004) the process of internationalization at an institutional level occurs with a series of activities falling into two strategies: those that are happening on the home campus and those that happen abroad. There are important reasons why the activities that are taking

place in higher education institutions are part of a holistic and systemic internationalization process, rather than simply “housed” in the office of international relations of an institution (Hudzik, 2011; Hudzik & McCarthy, 2012; Mestenhauser, 2011; Nilsson, 2003). According to Teichler (1999) several stages of development in internationalization in Europe can be identified: the separation of international activities on the one hand and the internationalization of core activities moving towards an integrated internationalization of higher education institutions on the other.

Internationalization at Home

Internationalization at home is another face of internationalization, “it is the youngest kid on the block” (Mestenhauser, 2007, p. 13). It is an approach to internationalization that moves beyond student mobility as the most important and in most cases the only international activity on campus, “IaH is not a ‘coherent theory’, but internationalization in action” (Tekeens, 2007, p. 1). This does not mean that the approach of internationalization at home, rejects mobility programs as an important element of internationalization, it is just focusing its efforts beyond mobility programs, complementing them and nurturing for and from them (J. Beelen, personal communication, 3, June, 2011). It is moving internationalization from the periphery to the core of a higher education institution (Mestenhauser, 2003; 2007, 2011; Wächter, 2000, 2003). Internationalization at home is an approach to internationalization that started in Europe when the creation of a university was conceptualized (Nilsson, 2003). The main scope of IaH has been “to try to let the internationalisation process embrace the whole university: all staff and all students-not only the 10% of the mobile students and a few professors” (Nilsson, 2003, p. 27).

This is Bengt Nilsson's explanation about how the idea of IaH was first conceptualized. The key word in this quote is 'embrace.' It highlights how internationalization or international education should be transversal and how it should be a process that involves every member of the institution where it is being implemented (Beelen, 2007; Crowther et al., 2000; Hudzik & McCarthy, 2012; Mestenhauser, 2003; Nilsson, 2007; Paige, 2003, 2005; Teekens, 2005, 2007; Wächter, 2003).

European higher education institutions are facing important changes and challenges, not only at a European level (i.e. the Bologna process) but also at the national level through increasing multiculturalism in societies and the rapid change of demographics in European countries; the last 15 years have shown that European education needs to be revised and internationalized (Gaston, 2010; Süssmuth, 2007).

Education systems produce graduates who are supposed to possess the knowledge and skills they need to operate successfully on the labour market and also in a wider sense-to be able to participate fully in the civil society in which we live. In this day and age, participation in civil society is international and therefore intercultural by its very nature, and this is as true at home as it is abroad. (de Jong & Teekens, 2003, p.49)

This is the context that European institutions are facing, forcing rapid change and pushing towards internationalization processes throughout Europe. As Otten (2000) affirms "changing cultural patterns of the domestic institution are a dimension of internationalisation which is often subordinated to the organizational, managerial and formal aspects of institutional policy" (p. 15). Some forms of internationalization are

not perceived as a holistic process, since it falls into what traditionally has been known as managerial areas or organizational policies.

Nevertheless, faculty members are important change agents, promoting it and implementing it. Faculty members have direct contact with students and are the ones who can change and really implement internationalization (Carter, 1992; Childress, 2010; Harari, 1992; Tekeens, 2003). According to Rumbley (2010), who developed a case study of four Spanish universities, “the increasing numbers of international students in Spanish universities and Spanish students with study abroad interests have served as a catalyzing force, pushing professors to reconsider their material and their audiences” (p. 210). According to Carter (1992) in a study developed by Washington State University in 1990, 90 % of 183 US universities when answering a survey, pointed out that “faculty were very important factors for internationalizing a campus” (p. 39). The findings of the study reported that those universities, which had an important and broad based faculty support had more chances to have a high degree of success in their internationalization initiatives. Faculty are seen as, “the implementers of international competence” (Carter, 1992, p. 40). In many US universities faculty have been those designing and implementing international programs as well as developing and teaching curricula in international or comparative studies (Childress, 2010; Hudzik & McCarthy, 2012). They have been those innovating and promoting international awareness and competence throughout campuses (Carter, 1992; Harari, 1992). Thus, as Childress (2010) states, “successful internationalization efforts are dependent upon faculty engagement” (p. 27). No internationalization policy and/or strategy will be successful without the collaboration of faculty.

Internationalization at home highlights the value of cultural diversity as an enriching factor of social interaction on campus. The world around us is changing and our communities have become globalized communities. Our students will live and work in these globalized communities, if we want them to be successful, universities have to prepare them adequately for this new interconnected, fast changing and multicultural world (Hudzik, 2011; Rosen & Digh, 2001; Süssmuth, 2007). According to Beelen (2007) “they will be global citizens at home. If universities manage to prepare only a small percentage of their students for that world (...), they will miss their goal” (p. 4). Multicultural societies are very common in every European country.

Teekens (2007) explains how the concept of IaH “functions as a new paradigm in the discourse on strategic institutional development of the internationalisation of higher education, with a strong emphasis on intercultural learning and teaching for all students, abroad and at home” (p. 3). The inclusion of intercultural learning in the discourse is a key factor that still needs considerable work as well as, how universities and scholars need to elaborate and develop it more (Mestenhauser; 2007, 2011; Teekens, 2005, 2007). The aim of IaH when implemented is that all students,

internalize the international and intercultural component of what is taught. This is internationalization that goes beyond mobility. The variety of activities and the disparate types of internationalization of former days have now become part of a larger whole. It is no longer necessary to choose one approach; it is a matter of integrating the various possibilities. (de Jong & Teekens, 2003, p. 45)

This holistic internationalization approach and focus is being promoted by new educational reforms. European higher education policies—mainly the Bologna

Declaration and later the Lisbon Initiative—promoted an important shift in changing the main focus of previous policies from mobility and international cooperation to more holistic ones, involving all higher education institution members: academic management, faculty and staff (Hudzik, 2011; Hudzik & McCarthy, 2012). These policies also required European institutions to create internationalization policies and strategic plans. Therefore, more thought has been given to internationalization policies that already existed in some European institutions and more attention is given to what is being implemented on campus (Gaston, 2010; Teekens, 2007).

Within different internationalization approaches, US American universities tend to have a more competitive model and an economic approach, while most European universities have a more cooperative model (de Wit, 2009). De Wit (2009) did a benchmarking exercise about the internationalization strategies of five European universities and found that there were clear and important differences among them. One of the Northern European universities in the study had a strong competitive approach to internationalization, the other two were moving in that direction. Meanwhile, the two Southern European universities have a more traditional cooperative approach to internationalization. As Van der Wende (2001) explains, most continental European universities have and pursue a cooperative approach to internationalization, which is more aligned with the traditional values of academia.

IaH concentrates on the whole higher education institution; it makes it possible to educate a much higher percentage of students, and also promotes access to students who cannot afford to study abroad. Securing and improving access, for all students, to an international and/or intercultural experience in higher education is the most important

objective of IaH. That is a difficult task for higher education institutions and not in the least for teachers and students themselves. Improving the effectiveness of exchanges and study abroad means creating cultural learning experiences and working on the curriculum (Hudzik & McCarthy, 2012). Improving the intercultural learning of the students on campus through the curriculum and co-curricular activities requires flexibility and creativity; “an understanding of the forces at work is an important insight, especially when you become able to see more clearly your own role and radius of action. It offers new light on the challenge of the job beyond the practicalities of daily problem-solving” (Teekens, 2007, p. 1).

This internationalization approach is hard to measure since outcomes are difficult to reach. It would probably be better to say that the goal is to try to reach the whole university community since it is comprehensive and holistic. IaH changes traditional paradigms that have been assumed with mobility programs (Beelen, 2007) and challenges previous concepts and approaches to internationalization (Brandenburg & de Wit, 2010).

History of IaH.

The concept of Internationalization at Home started in 1999 when Bengt Nilsson was offered the opportunity to start working at Malmö University. Nilsson was previously working at Lund University in Sweden directing the international office. Lund University was already a large and mature university. The city of Malmö is located near Copenhagen with a population of 300,000 people. It is an industrial city and it has an immigrant population of about 35%. When Nilsson started in Malmö there were no exchange programs and an important objective of the university was to be

inclusive with the diversity that characterized the city of Malmö. The need for inclusiveness was a key reason why the International Migration and Ethnic Relations (IMER) center was created (Nilsson, 2003). Multicultural issues were going to be the main theme throughout Malmö University with compulsory courses in Human Rights and Intercultural Communication (Bergknut, 2007). Newly arrived at this new university, Nilsson felt it was urgent to connect all departments and to make all members of the university inclusive in the new process.

I would like to see all our students leaving this university with the added value that an internationalized curriculum can give: Besides good knowledge of their subject area, they should have open minds and generosity toward other people, know how to behave in other cultures and how to communicate with people with different religions, values, and customs; and not be scared of coping with new and unfamiliar issues. I would like to vaccinate all our students against the dark forces of nationalism and racism. (Nilsson, 2003, p. 39)

This is Bengt Nilsson's (2003) conclusion, in his article "Internationalisation at Home from a Swedish Perspective: The Case of Malmö," published in *The Journal of Studies in International Education*. It was not the first time that these challenges and perspectives were brought to a group of scholars as IaH was previously called internationalizing the campus (Mestenhauser, 2007). Beelen (2007) differentiates both terms,

the USA has a long tradition in 'internationalizing the campus', which bears a close resemblance to internationalizing the curriculum, a key feature of IaH. There is also difference. The drive to internationalize universities in the USA

was only loosely related to diversity issues, whereas IaH in Europe was much involved with these from the start. (p. 5)

That same year a diverse group of scholars from different backgrounds decided to start a Special Interest Group within the EAIE, composed by Paul Crowther, Michael Joris, Bengt Nilsson, Matthias Otten, Hanneke Teekens and Bernd Wächter. This group of scholars met in Malmö, where they worked on the first ideas that Nilsson proposed in his 1999 article and conference presentation. They subsequently created the vision for the concept of IaH. After this meeting they wrote a 'Position Paper' on IaH in which they tried to explain in writing the concepts and ideas, as well as the rationales for IaH. That paper was presented at the following EAIE conference after which many faculty members and managers of international student offices became actively involved in putting it into practice (Crowther et al., 2000).

In 2003 an international conference took place in Malmö and a special issue of the *Journal of Studies in International Education* was devoted entirely to IaH. After that EAIE conference, many scholars in Europe, the United States, and many other parts of the world began following the working group, and the term IaH became established and used in the field of internationalization, appearing in policy papers and different educational documents (Beelen, 2007). Currently the EAIE's Special Interest Group is a platform for discussion and analysis of IaH best practices that are being implemented around the world. There are also training workshops on IaH run by the EAIE (Sild Lonroth & Nilsson, 2007; Teekens, 2007; van Rensburg, 2007).

IaH started to have many followers because the traditional concept of internationalization made the process unclear, abstract, bureaucratic, and mainly focused

on study abroad programs (Beelen, 2007; Bergknut, 2007; Teekens, 2007; Thomas & Kaunda, 2007). Many scholars started to think and realized that merely studying abroad does not necessarily make you more inter-culturally competent (Deardorff, 2009; Paige, 2005). Study abroad may help, but there are many variables during the study abroad experience that might affect the impact and outcome (Lou & Bosley, 2008; Paige, 1993; Vande Berg, Paige & Lou, 2012). What started as an extraordinary experience far away from family, friends and your own culture had changed and with the help of ICT, it became just spending one semester in a different country and then returning to your ‘same old’ reality and continuing with your life (Lou & Bosley, 2008; Vande Berg, Paige & Lou, 2012). According to Paige et al. (2002) the study abroad experience must be accompanied with self-reflection as pre-condition for learning to happen and some changes in attitudes and ways of thinking (Lou & Bosley, 2008). The ideal of traditional internationalization is based on the idea that “international exchange contributes to academic learning, cultural awareness and international understanding, or even peace” (Teekens, 2007, p. 5).

Many people from different universities started to think and to ask what the relationship between international and intercultural was, as well as what was being done in the classrooms and on the whole campus with all the students (Lou & Bosley, 2008). The approach of IaH links the international and the intercultural, promoting broad-mindedness and understanding of other people’s cultures, far or near (Gacel-Avila, 2005; Gargano, 2009; King & Baxter Magolda, 2005). IaH is an approach to internationalization that is not for a minority but for everybody; “in a certain way internationalisation is noncommittal, it is being organized. IaH is not being organized,

you have to do it yourself” (Teekens, 2007, p. 5). There is no IaH standardized model, and it entirely depends on each institution and its nature and context. This is why it is an approach towards internationalization that entirely depends on each institution. Each university conceptualizes IaH in its own and different way. According to Beelen,

I am more or less convinced that there will not be a European model for IaH.

Practice in different countries diverges widely. In fact I think that a successful implementation of IaH depends on a complete contextualization to the local requirements of individual programmes of study. (personal communication, 3, June, 2011)

Even though there is no established European model for IaH, it seems to be quite an agreement in its definition and main elements.

Definition of IaH.

Nilsson (2003) defines IaH as “any internationally related activity with the exception of outbound student mobility” (p. 31). Teekens (2005, 2007) and Beelen (2007, 2011) add student and staff mobility to the above definition specifying that mobility is also considered a part of IaH, but; it is seen as a complementary activity and not as the star or the only activity of internationalization. Paige (2003, 2005) expands on Nilsson’s definition and states that IaH is “the provision by universities of international and intercultural learning opportunities for those students who for various reasons do not participate in study-abroad programs” (p. 52). The concept of IaH is based on the fact that the majority of students do not participate in study abroad programs. In Europe only 10% of all students participate in study abroad programs (Beelen, 2007; Mestenhauser, 2003; Nilsson, 2003; Nilsson & Otten, 2003; Otten, 2003; Teekens, 2007;

Wächter, 2003). Knight (2008) affirms that IaH is another way of “expressing internal internationalization” (p. 22). Mestenhauser (2003) on the other hand, defines IaH as “the practice of an integrated, conceptually coordinated and system oriented approach to international education” (p. 6). He also explains that IaH is not just another trendy project:

it is a new concept that challenges the field whose parts are driven by different concepts and theories; whose dominant values tend to be a theoretical and instrumental; whose components are unconnected administratively; and whose use of resources and credibility are justified by doubtful criteria based on simple statistics about projects and participants. (p. 61)

Knight (2006) also explains how internationalization at home had given a new emphasis to cross-border education, which refers to internationalization abroad (i.e. study abroad programs).

Even though the concept of IaH might be confusing for some scholars, according to Tekeens (2007) the addition of IaH to internationalization redefines “the setting of the internationalization of higher education-at home- but in the light of the lack of a clear understanding of what internationalization in higher education really does, that addition is perhaps more of a complication than an explanation” (p. 4). Knight (2006) agrees and comments how IaH complements mobility programs or what she calls “internationalization abroad” (p. 26), and how both are interdependent and they make an internationalization process stronger.

IaH is seen by many scholars as a timely, new approach to the traditional definition of internationalization. These scholars stress that there are more

international/intercultural activities happening on campus that should be included in the concept of internationalization in addition to study abroad and quantity indicators (Beelen, 2007; Crowther et al., 2000; Mestenhauser, 2003; Nilsson, 2003; Paige, 2005; Teekens, 2007). IaH is also seen as a ‘critique’ to the traditional way of looking and understanding internationalization.

[IaH] places current institutional developments in the area of internationalization and academic learning in a broader context by including global issues and by linking the international dimension with the intercultural dimension of higher education. It stresses the fact that this issue concerns the content and delivery of the curriculum of all students. (Teekens, 2007, p. 5)

The stakeholders in IaH include all members of the university community. Nobody is excluded, since it is an institutional, systemic approach. The burden of internationalization shall no longer be placed on the international relations department or international office alone (Hudzik, 2011; Hudzik & McCarthy, 2012; Nilsson, 2003). All members have a role to play in IaH and faculty have an important one. Faculty inclusion also helps to control what is being learned and how, as well as the perception of study abroad programs which assumed that just having students go abroad would lead to them becoming internationally educated (Beelen, 2007; Crowther et al., 2000; de Jong & Teekens, 2003; Lou & Bosley, 2008; Mestenhauser, 1998, 2003, 2007, 2011; Nilsson, 2003; Nilsson & Otten, 2003; Otten, 2003; Paige, 2003; Teekens, 2003, 2007; Vande Verg, Paige & Lou, 2012; Wätcher, 2003). IaH seems to include the following points, which are inclusive and aligned with the original definition of Nilsson (2003),

IaH is aimed at all students and is therefore part of the compulsory programme; IaH is a set of instruments and activities ‘at home’ that focus on developing international and intercultural competences in all students; may include short term outgoing mobility in the form of study visits or research assignments that are a component of the compulsory curriculum; only includes the individual experiences of students undertaken during study and placement abroad if these are integrated into the home institution’s standard assessment tools (such as the portfolio for all students). (Beelen, 2012, p. 2)

Teekens (2007) agrees in the idea that IaH links study abroad programs and international activities with international and intercultural aspects of promoting knowledge and understanding as well as respect for other people and their cultures. According to this view, IaH includes every single activity that is ‘compulsory’ on campus and abroad if it is part of a structured international experience. Although, Brandenburg and de Wit (2010) in the latest issue of *Forum* challenges the instrumentalization of IaH,

gradually, the why and what have been taken over by the how, and instruments of internationalization have become the main objective: more exchange, more degree mobility, and more recruitment. Even the alternative movement of ‘internationalization at home’ of the late 1990s has shifted rapidly into this instrumental mood. (p. 31)

Would this lack of a model and standardization, be part of the process, growing or simply academic capitalism and being internationalization as a commodity? Does it happen the same way in every country and institution? Or does culture play such an

important role in the IaH process that it makes each case different and an impossible task to generalize?

Cultural variable.

IaH embraces the whole university community and the society where that university is located (Bergknut, 2007; Teekens, 2007; Mestenhauser, 2003, 2007, 2011). This is why even though IaH is being developed in many regions of the world, each case is a unique case and the cultural variable should be taken into account (Beelen, 2007). Because the culture variable is an important aspect of IaH, the approaches, components and strategies for its implementation are thus very unique, diverse and different (Crowther et al., 2000; Mestenhauser, 2002, 2003, 2007, 2011; Nilsson, 2003; Nilsson & Otten, 2003; Paige, 2003, 2005; Teekens, 2007; Wächter, 2003). “There are different accents and approaches. Internationalisation strategies are filtered and contextualized by the specific internal context of the university and how they are embedded nationally” (de Wit, 2009, p. 3).

Beelen (2007) who is an expert in IaH, and has managed many IaH trainings all over the world concludes that, “it became clear that each situation is different. Therefore, when determining a strategy for IaH, the education system and the local circumstances should be taken into consideration. There is no recipe for IaH that will work at every university” (p. 5).

Mestenhauser (2007), Hudzik and McCarthy (2012) and Beelen (2007) also comment on culture as an important variable for each higher education institution when starting or developing an internationalization process. According to Teissier (2007), a successful IaH strategy

does not belong to the international department or any other area. To be successful, IaH has to be owned by each and every one of the departments of an institution and every member has to be an active part of it. (p. 23)

IaH involves different elements, which some may fit one institution while others may not. In order to IaH to be systemic and holistic the local culture and context of each institution is key to define which main elements fit best in their organizational structure and institutional nature.

IaH model.

According to Beelen (2012, in press) there is not a current European model for IaH and he can almost affirm that there will not ever be one, mainly because there are so many culture variables and possibilities. Despite the lack of a universal model, Otten (2003) proposes a Framework for the Analysis of IaH Policies and Activities (FAIPA, see Figure 4). FAIPA is defined as a tool developed to make an inventory of IaH elements mainly in the curriculum at three different levels: micro, meso and macro-level (Beelen, 2007).

FAIPA - Framework for the Analysis of IaH Policies and Activities

| Focus of Activity | Level of Implementation | | | Target Groups involved | | | |
|---|--|---|---------------------------------------|------------------------|------------------------|-------------------------------|------------------------|
| | Micro-level <i>Individual / Group</i> | Meso-level <i>Faculty/ Institution</i> | Macro-level <i>Region/ Country</i> | Students | Staff Admin./ Teachers | Institutional Decision-Makers | Policy-makers / others |
| Curriculum & Foreign Languages | | | | | | | |
| Teaching Methods & Use of ICT | | | | | | | |
| Campus Climate & Students Participation | | | | | | | |
| Staff Development & Faculty Training | | | | | | | |
| HE Management & Institutional Policies | | | | | | | |
| International Cooperation & Mobility | | | | | | | |
| Community Involvement and Local Impact | | | | | | | |
| Gratifications and Funding Structures | | | | | | | |
| Quality Assurance and Accreditation | | | | | | | |
| Other: | | | | | | | |

IaH (Matthias Otten), Jan. 2001 - updated April 2003 for IaH Conference in Malmö

Matthias.otten@zak.uni-karlsruhe.de

FAIPA - Framework for the Analysis of IaH Policies and Activities

| Level | Description | Whom to look at - first (target groups) |
|--------------------|--|--|
| Micro-Level | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Activities that change the (everyday) practice of learning, working and working conditions of individuals and - to a great extent - can be organised by these individuals themselves. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> (Groups) of Individual Actors e.g. Staff Members, Teachers, Coordinators, Students, |
| Meso-Level | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Activities that change the institutional setting and strategies and that affect the department / institution and that have to be organised by the institution | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Faculty, Departments, Formal groups within the Institution e.g. Task Forces, Networks, |
| Macro-Level | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Activities that change several institutions, that go beyond the single university, and which have to be organised on an inter-institutional level | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Ministry and Policy Departments Regional, National and International HE Councils Consortia, Networks |

IaH (Matthias Otten), Jan. 2001 - updated April 2003 for IaH Conference in Malmö

Figure 4. Otten's framework for IaH policies and activities. Framework for the analysis of IaH policies and activities. Retrieved from http://www.gar.uff.br/aai/artigos/FAIPA_Otten.pdf. Reprinted with permission.

According to Teekens (2007) the definition of IaH tries to expand internationalization definitions and stresses other elements to get a wider perspective; “it is not so important how IaH is defined, it is crucial to describe what its aims are, what it does, and to define criteria to measure results” (p. 6). The regional aspect of IaH, particularly in regards to the extent in which different rationales and components are stressed in different ways, is even stronger when analyzing case studies. Even though the cultural variable is an important one, there are other components that also need to be considered and various authors may describe the same component using different terminology. Table 1 identifies the most common components among case studies from different regions.

Table 1

Common Components of IaH According to Different Case Studies

| Crowther et al (2000) | Otten (2003) |
|---|--|
| 1. The curriculum | 1. An internationalized curriculum & foreign languages |
| 2. Co-curricular activities | 2. Teaching & learning/the use of ICT |
| 3. Technology dimension and the use of ICT | 3. Campus climate and student participation |
| 4. Teaching and learning/International classroom | 4. Staff & faculty development |
| 5. Institutional implications: Governance structures, management & leadership | 5. Leadership & institutional policies |
| 6. Foreign languages | 6. Students & faculty mobility |
| 7. Contextual dimension | 7. Service learning & outreach programs |
| 8. The role of faculty & staff | 8. Incentives & funding structures |
| 9. Student body | 9. Quality Assurance & accreditation |

(continued)

Table 1 (continued)

| Malmö University, Sweden (Nilsson, 2003) | Teekens (2003) |
|--|--|
| <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. An Internationalized curriculum 2. Staff and student mobility 3. Staff and student development 4. Internationalization at home policy 5. Faculty involvement in international activities 6. Bilingualism (English and Spanish) for faculty, students and staff | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Global learning (international & intercultural elements in the curriculum) 2. Teaching & learning 3. The international classroom 4. Foreign language for instruction 5. The role of lecturers (faculty) 6. The use of ICT in the classroom |
| Wächter (2003) | The University of Minnesota, USA (Paige, 2003) |
| <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Teaching & learning in a culturally diverse setting 2. Intercultural classroom 3. The use of ICT 4. An internationalized curriculum 5. Foreign languages 6. IaH as an educational policy | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. International students and scholars in university life 2. Internationalized curriculum 3. Role of faculty in international activities 4. The institutionalization of IaH: internationalized co-curricular units/infrastructure for IaH 5. University and college leadership 6. Study abroad programs |

(continued)

Table 1 (continued)

| Teekens (2005) | Malmö University, Sweden (Bergknut, 2007) |
|--|---|
| <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Platform for dialogue to create ownership of IaH 2. Activities beyond mobility 3. The use of ICT 4. An internationalized curriculum: development: content & delivery 5. Intercultural learning on campus & service learning. 6. Development of language skills (including English as a language for instruction) | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Institutional policy for IaH: broad-based recruitment; service learning & outreach programs. 2. The international office & IaH: advising managerial positions and deans & encouraging implementation of international elements into learning, teaching and the curricula 3. Governance & facilities for IaH: services/ICT 4. Preparing staff for IaH-based curriculum 5. IaH in the curricula and syllabi/ an internationalized curriculum 6. Informal learning by local students outside the classroom |
| Universidad Regiomontana, Mexico (Teissier, 2007) | The case of an Australian University (Leask, 2007) |
| <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. An internationalized curriculum 2. Courses with text books in a foreign language 3. Courses taught in English 4. English level of students and faculty 5. International visiting staff and faculty 6. International 'ethos' on campus | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Policy for IaH & planning 2. An internationalized curriculum 3. Staff development 4. Teaching & learning activities (intercultural skills) 5. Co-curricular activities (buddy program) & service learning |

(continued)

Table 1 (continued)

| Teekens (2007) | University of Cape Town, South Africa (Thomas & Kaunda, 2007) |
|--|--|
| 1. Institutional development | 1. Institutional policy for IaH |
| 2. Diversity: inclusive activities on campus | 2. Governance for IaH |
| 3. ICT | 3. The role of international academic programs office |
| 4. Intercultural learning | 4. Facilities for IaH |
| | 5. Teaching and learning. Faculty development |
| | 6. IaH in the curriculum/ an Internationalized curriculum |
| | 7. Informal learning by local students outside the classroom |

IaH elements.

Knight (2006, 2008) analyzes the main components of IaH using six main categories: (1) Curriculum and programs, (2) teaching/learning processes, (3) extra-curricular activities, (4) liaison with local cultural/ethnic groups, (5) research and scholarly activity, (6) as well as the integration of international students and scholars in the campus life and activities.

An internationalized curriculum.

The main focus of IaH is in curriculum development: the content and its delivery (Otten, 2003; Teekens, 2007). According to Paige (2005) “the curriculum is at the center of the student learning experience and represents for universities the major arena for developing international and intercultural knowledge, skills, and worldviews” (p.

56). Nilsson (2000) analyzed the OECD definition of an internationalized curriculum and found it “too passive” and he gives the following definition: “a curriculum which gives international and intercultural knowledge and abilities, aimed at preparing students for performing (professionally, socially, emotionally) in an international and multicultural context” (p. 22). Brustein (2007) talks about the obligation of future graduates to acquire global competence. Global competence includes the ability to work and live effectively in an international setting, being able to adapt to different cultures and approaches (Otten, 2003; Rosen & Digh, 2001; Svensson & Whilborg, 2010). Brustein (2007) affirms that in order to do this, US curricula need to be redesigned; “in my view, if we are to achieve global competence, then we are obliged to internationalize the educational experience no matter the discipline” (p. 385). An internationalized curriculum is the only way to ensure that global competence can be acquired by all students and not only by a few. Brustein (2007) claims a systemic approach for reaching this outcome, having to work together: administrators, faculty, staff and students (Hudzik, 2011; Hudzik & McCarthy, 2012; Brustein, 2007; Harari, 1992).

Citizens who cultivate their humanity need moreover, an ability to see themselves not simply as citizens of some local region or group but also and above all, as human beings bound to all other human beings by ties of recognition and concern. The world around us is inescapably international. (Nussbaum as cited in de Jong & Teekens, 2003, p. 47)

The main discourse about IaH has aimed to recover a human touch to internationalization processes (Teekens, 2007). This means that future students need both good interdisciplinary training in their field of specialization and a “broad liberal

education expected of university graduates” (de Jong & Teekens, 2003; Nussbaum, 1997). Many authors like Paige, Mestenhauser, Ellingboe, and Cogan affirm that internationalizing the curriculum is one of the most forgotten aspects studied or analyzed when internationalization assessment, evaluation, processes or studies are developed. An internationalized curriculum is key to promote the learning that 21st century graduates need to have to become global ethical citizens (Mestenhauser, 2011). Ellingboe (1998) states that a curriculum is “the complete portfolio of requirements and electives offered by individual co-cultures (colleges, divisions, departments, and units) operating within a larger system (the higher education institution)” (p. 199). Ellingboe (1998) and Teekens (2003a, 2003b & 2007) state that an internationalized curriculum can either be analyzed as global learning, although “global learning needs will draw more attention to the need to include international elements in the curriculum of all students” (Teekens, 2003, p. 109).

According to Teekens (2003) and Nilsson (2003) the main objectives for an IaH curriculum may be divided into cognitive objectives and attitudinal objectives. Cognitive objectives refer to “strengthening the students’ international competence” (Teekens, 2003, p. 110). Attitudinal objectives refer to the development and strengthening of the students’ intercultural competence. In order, for this to happen specific content courses or topics within the courses must take place (Bennett, 1993; Lou & Bosley, 2008; Mestenhauser, 2011; Nussbaum, 1997; Paige, 1993; Vande Verg, Paige & Lou, 2012). Harari (1992) as well as Brustein (2007) agree on seeing an internationalized curriculum not as a fragmented one with certain courses here and there

or certain number of credits, but a curriculum that has internationalized content, skills, awareness and attitudes.

This way the international or intercultural dimension is part of the content and the delivery of the curriculum to all students. An internationalized curriculum provides access to international and/or intercultural components to all students of a higher education institution (Ellingboe, 1998; Metcalf, 1998; Nilsson, 2003; Paige, 2003, 2005; Teekens, 2003, 2007). A successful internationalized curriculum builds upon not only content but also delivery (Teekens, 2007). It also builds on the international experiences that students have outside the classroom (Lou & Bosley, 2008). It should incorporate new ways of learning (Beelen, 2007).

Therefore, an analysis of the main assumptions of how learning takes place in higher education is needed. Mestenhauser (2011) identifies several assumptions that researchers/faculty believe and affirm are part of the academic world. For instance, ideas like the formal curriculum dominating higher education institutions and also that the only place where learning happens is in the classroom. Other assumptions are:

1. Knowledge is universally valid and learning and transferring of knowledge is unidirectional from teacher to student.
2. There is no new creation or innovation of knowledge that happens in the classroom.
3. Intellectual skills are taught with the subject matter and there is no need to teach them separately.
4. International knowledge is external, it is not integrated with other learning, and it is gained abroad.

5. Specific and technical content of each academic discipline is all important.

Mestenhauser (2007, 2011) questions these assumptions and explains how the IaH approach, implies change in each one of them. For example, formal curriculum needs to be complemented with hands-on learning, either with laboratory or with community based non-formal curriculum (service learning activities and/or projects) (Hudzik & McCarthy, 2012). There are some areas and courses in which both teachers and students are learners: this is where students' experiences come into play (Nilsson, 2007).

Knowledge is not universal, its perspective, what knowledge is being transferred and how is a community process. The classroom is a place where knowledge is shared and all the members of the classroom construct new knowledge. Currently with the wide use of ICT, the classroom can be a world laboratory (Lou & Bosley, 2008; Teekens, 2007). Being knowledgeable about these assumptions and their impact in the academic world is key to understand certain processes of change in higher education institutions and especially in regards to the curriculum.

An internationalized curriculum needs and requires interaction with the local community in order to create truly intercultural encounters (Brustein, 2007). Although some scholars affirm that intercultural encounters might only happen when going abroad. Paige et al. (2002) and Vande Verg, Paige and Lou (2012) assure that a study abroad experience does not result automatically in these outcomes, and that self-reflection is a prerequisite. Intercultural learning does not happen without pushing it and it is influenced by cultural diversity (Lou & Bosley, 2008).

Harari (1992) states that many innovative ideas and imaginative curricula can be found in different institutions, there is no correct or right formula for an internationalized curriculum. Although he suggests a list of 12 possible options to internationalize a curriculum:

1. The infusion of courses with international content (Childress, 2010; Cogan, 1998; Knight, 2008).
2. Comparative approaches in research projects and teaching (Childress, 2010; Knight, 2008).
3. Interdisciplinary studies (Mestenhauser, 2011).
4. Studies focused on civilizational approaches (Palmer & Zajonc, 2010; Knight, 2008).
5. International and intercultural studies (Childress, 2010; Knight, 2008; Lou & Bosley, 2008; Paige, 2003).
6. International development studies (Palmer & Zajonc, 20120; Mestenhauser, 2011).
7. Important role of other languages as an integral part of the undergraduate education (Brustein, 2007; Knight, 2008; Teekens, 2003).
8. The internationalization of professional schools and pre-professional ones as well as K12 (Brustein, 2007).
9. Faculty and staff development in the international area (Carter, 1992; Childress, 2010).
10. International institutional linkages and international networking of scholars (Carter, 2010; Childress, 2010; Knight, 2008).

11. Involvement of students (Childress, 2010; Knight, 2008).
12. Involvement of students and faculty in internships with an international perspective either abroad or local (Childress, 2010; Nilsson, 2007).

Each institution should decide which parts mentioned above are aligned with its mission and vision, and how they would like to design them as a part of a holistic curriculum (Hudzik & McCarthy, 2012). Setting an interdisciplinary curriculum is a very complicated process and directly related to the reward system that distends stress among faculty (Brustein, 2007; Childress, 2010; Harari, 1992; Hudzik, 2011). An internationalized curriculum should be an important element of any holistic internationalization process in higher education, where faculty are key for its development and delivery.

The role of other languages, not only in learning and instruction but also English training for staff and faculty.

Nowadays, the main international language used for instruction is English. English is the *lingua franca* used not only for research but also for instruction and to promote international exchanges among students, faculty and staff (Healy, 2008; Knight, 2008). The role of other languages for IaH is an important one (Tekeens, 2003). Requirement of knowledge of at least one other language in higher education is important for internationalization (Brustein, 2007; Harari, 1992; Paige, 2005). English will not only be a compulsory course or a requirement for graduation, but it will also be used as a mode of instruction for certain courses. The implementation and use of Content Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) as well as staff development training, testing and teaching staff and faculty as part of professional development projects are also important

for this key role of languages in any internationalization process (Bergknut, 2007; Crowther et al., 2000; Nilsson, 2003; Teekens, 2003, 2005; Teissier, 2007; Wächter, 2003).

Institutionalization of IaH or institutional policy for IaH.

If IaH is viewed under the conceptual framework of a systems approach (integrated approach), this means that it embraces different actions, which has been somehow problematic since it is “an integrated process of institutional change and reform” (Teekens, 2007, p. 7). It is not only a question of implementing and developing some study abroad programs and co-curricular activities on campus. The integrated process of IaH implies an institutional approach, getting the whole institution implied in the internationalization process including all areas and all stakeholders. Looking at what is happening in a classroom is just the micro-level or just one part of many other parts that constitute the whole process. The higher education institution should make the effort in planning accordingly, analyzing what stages education leaders of each institution decide they want to implement first (Hudzik, 2011; Hudzik & McCarthy, 2012). The first step should be a deep analysis of each institution’s current situation in order to set up objectives, and a strategic plan for internationalization, in order to get all university members involved in the process. Mestenhauser (2007) explains, “if IaH is designed to affect large-scale changes, only a systems approach will enable small and partial changes of individual parts to be integrated, coordinated and balanced” (p. 15). Managerial support is needed for this comprehensive reform of the whole system, helping with the implementation of policies (e.g. language policies, human and economic resources) as well as the creation of special transversal (i.e. across the

institution) institutes or faculties that work towards an intercultural environment on campus (Bergnut, 2007; Crowther, 2000, 2003; Hudzik, 2011; Hudzik & McCarthy, 2012; Leask, 2007; Mestenhauser, 2003, 2007; Paige, 2005; Teekens, 2007; Wächter, 2003).

Teaching and learning: Intercultural learning and international or intercultural activities.

“Like all social behavior, teaching and learning is shaped through acculturation and different cultural backgrounds. Most people expect a learning and teaching environment that they are used to from their own educational experience as a student” (Otten, 2003, p. 19). The lecturer plays an important role in the use of methodologies and the transmission of concepts. However, IaH emphasizes the fact that an international classroom is composed of many different students who come to class with their own cultural backpacks full of experiences and knowledge that should be taken into account and this way enrich the classroom (Knight, 2008; McIntosh 2005; Paige, 2005; Teekens, 2000, 2003, 2007). The teaching is more student-centered and the national context of the classroom gives way to a global one where the communication could be more virtual and where, “the students are seen as sources of knowledge” (Teekens, 2007, p. 9). The role of faculty is key for many important tasks such as setting the right environment, changing to more internationally minded methodologies, being inclusive with international students, and for selecting international/global readings and assignments for the course, promoting this way a dialogue between students and faculty from different cultures bringing different angles of the same topic. Thus, creating in the

classroom an international-learning setting (Childress, 2010; Leask, 2007; Wächter, 2003).

The internationalization at home approach focuses on an internationalized curriculum and on its delivery, mainly for the assumptions that have preceded the impact of study abroad programs on students. According to Otten (2003) despite the ideals and efforts of international exchange programs,

it can be observed that after a certain time abroad, many international students group in their national communities or in any kind of international reservations, for example, the so-called Erasmus communities, where European exchange students usually meet other European students but rarely those of the host country. (p. 14)

The same happens with domestic students who tend to keep their circle of friends. A survey among German students carried out in 1998 showed that more than sixty percent of them had no contact or little contact with international students. A similar study was carried out at the University of Michigan where students had little or no contact at all with people who were from different ethnic or racial groups. As Pettigrew (1998) concluded from his research, just getting international students in a classroom with domestic students does not lead to interaction. Thus as Otten (2003) affirms, “cultural diversity and internationalization do not automatically lead to intercultural contacts and intercultural learning experiences” (p. 14).

A difficult challenge in internationalization is creating opportunities for social interaction and communication between students among themselves (i.e. national students with international students), with the local community, and with different ethnic

and social backgrounds (Hudzik & McCarthy, 2012). Since the interaction between local and international students do not occur naturally, and international students live within their own international community on campus. Therefore, no exchange or any intercultural learning happens naturally this way (Lou & Bosley, 2008). The challenges of creating these opportunities suggest that these activities must be planned and supervised on campus in order to promote this kind of interaction. These activities should be part of any internationalization process in order to reach the intercultural learning objectives (Nilsson, 2007; Teekens, 2007). Otten (2000) states that,

the fundamental and more cooperative assumption of ‘internationalisation at home’ as a means for mutual intercultural learning is to consider cultural diversity as a general resource and potential enrichment. Intercultural learning, although a process of individual development, cannot be left to the initiative of individuals alone. (p. 19)

The fact that intercultural learning can’t be left to individual initiative, and that planned and supervised activities between international and local students are key for mutual understanding, is why integration in the curriculum of an intercultural dimension is important (Lou & Bosley, 2008). It is also central for the whole educational and organizational activities of a higher education institution (Hudzik & McCarthy, 2012; Mestenhauser, 2011).

Allport (1954) developed the inter-group contact theory where he affirmed that contact with people from different backgrounds and ethnicity will help to reduce and to eliminate stereotypes and prejudices. This reduction of stereotypes will happen through people’s interactions and it will help to change their beliefs and feelings towards each

other. Allport affirmed that four conditions must take place in order for this reduction to happen: equal status, common objectives, intergroup cooperation and external support (i.e. laws and/or authorities) (Nesdale & Todd, 2000). Further research has shown that these intercultural encounters do not automatically decrease the formation of stereotypes and can even reinforce both stereotypes and prejudices. These contacts need reflection and a cognitive, affective, and behavioral level approach (Allport, 1954; Amir, 1969; Nesdale & Todd, 2000; Pettigrew, 1998). “When new learning corrects negative views of the out group, contact should reduce prejudice” (Pettigrew, 1998, p. 6). Supervision and formal learning are needed in order to reduce and eliminate stereotypes.

Intercultural contact seems not to be enough if the experience of otherness is not personally transformed into a learning experience (Vande Verg, Paige & Lou, 2012). This is why a well-planned with clear objectives and of supervised activities to promote interaction between local and international students, as well as an internationalized curriculum are key to reduce stereotypes and to promote understanding among cultures (Anand & Lahiri, 2009; Lou & Bosley, 2008; Deardorff, 2009; Paige, 2003). This reflection upon intercultural encounters and how the process is related to personal transformation is also why it is important to promote such learning in the curriculum and in a classroom setting (teaching-learning environment).

Co-curricular activities on campus and in the community: Service learning programs and outreach programs.

Another approach to foster and promote intercultural competence is through community involvement (Bergknut, 2007; Otten, 2003). One of the main objectives of IaH is to have students involved with the local community where the university is

located. The programs should try to reach ethnic and culturally diverse groups of the community, promoting contact and encounters with local diversity and creating opportunities for more interdisciplinary approaches to intercultural learning (Mazzoneli & Senn, 2007; Nilsson, 2007; Teekens, 2005).

Nilsson (2003) explains in detail the success of the implementation of the Nightingale Program in Malmö University. The main objective of this program is that university students can become a mentor of primary school children from six multicultural schools in Malmö, coming from war zones countries and from socially underprivileged circumstances.

The Buddy Program currently established in many universities (originally implemented at the University of Minnesota), consists of connecting local students to become mentors to international students (Mestenhauser, 2011). Both programs have the objective of helping students to interact either with diverse local communities in their same environment or to help international and local students to communicate and serve as a cultural mentor for each other during international students' stay in the host institution.

The interaction between students and the local community is important for the development of intercultural competence as well as training, and it is related to the social responsibility of higher education institutions (Knight, 2006, 2008; Otten, 2003). Nowadays diversity is not far from home, therefore students should get used to the diversity that is closer to them (Bergnut, 2007; Leask, 2007; Otten, 2000; Thomas & Kaunda, 2007). "The reduction to parochialism and asymmetries on the institutional level is another major challenge for the European institutions in higher education.

Implementation of IaH and cultural diversity have intercultural implications far beyond a nice-to-have attitude” (Otten, 2003, p. 22).

The use of ICT.

According to Teekens (2007) the role of ICT is key in any IaH implementation. Being able to cut distances when communicating has changed everything, everywhere and higher education is not an exception (Cairncross, 2001). The use of ICT has helped to eliminate physical and time barriers; it has, in fact, unified the concepts of time and place and “this in theory reates the possibility of worldwide classrooms with an unprecedented input from different international and cultural elements, and thus greatly enhancing traditional programmes” (Teekens, 2007, p. 8). Cairncross (2001) explains how the new way of communicating works thanks to this interconnectedness and thanks to the use of Internet worldwide. Distance will not determine the cost of communicating anymore, which has also become faster as well. More people than ever have access to information and news from all over the world. People worldwide are able to access information from associations, news, events etc. than ever before. People are able to communicate freely (mainly in English as it has been established as the global language) and faster. This rapid connection of ideas and ideals help to increase understanding of what is happening in other parts of the world.

According to Cairncross (2001), technological change has the power to revolutionize the way people live, and this one will be no exception. It will alter, in ways that are only dimly imaginable decisions about where people work and what kind of work they do, sovereignty, and patterns of international trade. (p. 1)

Having access to internet and information communication technology (ICT) in general opens the doors for many different possibilities in the classroom: the use of innovative methodologies, the use of Moodle and the use of Skype or video conferences help faculty to prepare students for an interconnected world. The influence of ICT has changed university study, from a process focused on the teacher-student relationship to a “learning pathway determined along systemic lines” (de Jong & Teekens, 2003, p. 47) with the use of different online platforms, Moodle, Skype, conferences or guest speakers on streaming help and promote learning in a constant way. To date, the broad use of email has been the primary milestone of important changes in communication for many universities (Lou & Bosley, 2008). However, the nature of communication and thus the role of teachers will change even more when Web-based learning becomes common in all universities (Tekeens, 2003).

On one hand, the increasing use of ICT will increase the complexity of teaching but on the other hand, ICT has a great potential to enrich teaching and learning helping to add an international perspective with easy and fast access in the classroom. Nowadays, instruction is communication with a global orientation not a national one as it was before (Cairncross, 2001). In any higher education classroom news, articles, or even some students or faculty are international. Thus, the instruction has somehow an international aspect. Using ICT correctly can enhance and promote intercultural communication and can promote intercultural encounters without worrying about distance or access to information (Crowther, 2000; Lou & Bosley, 2008; Teekens, 2000, 2003, 2005; Wächter, 2003). The dramatic change in access to knowledge and ideas that ICT has enabled gives the current university classroom more international potential as

you can be in one place but travel, talk, see and have access to anybody, anything and anywhere.

The students' role in their own learning has changed in terms of method is making them more than simple consumers of information, but above all, producers of knowledge. The delivery of an internationalized curriculum, and the use of ICT in instruction produce different interactions. The use of ICT in higher education enables a different relation between faculty and student. This relation and communication is not limited to the classroom setting and time, it can happen any day of the week at any time and from anywhere. Learning objectives will still be formulated in terms of academic content, but outputs are measured mainly in terms of competencies (de Jong & Teekens, 2003; Rosen & Digh, 2001).

However, ICT could never substitute the “real” experience of going abroad, although not everybody can go abroad (Knight, 2008; Paige, 2005). As Wächter (2000) explains “intelligent use of ICT can and will support and boost ‘internationalization at home’ (...) ICT will greatly enhance the quality of higher education, through an import of international (foreign) elements” (p. 11).

Governance and facilities.

IaH is a holistic and systemic approach to internationalization. Thus, all levels and stakeholders of an institution have a role to play in this process. According to Bergnut (2007), “it is up to each level in the hierarchy to make sure that internationalization is implemented and monitored according to the University’s mission statement and other applicable policies” (p. 83). An IaH strategic plan should contemplate the objectives and actions that each level and unit should reach in an

internationalization process. Governance should enable that the internationalization process takes place at all levels of the institution. Governance should play the role of being in charge of monitoring that each level reaches its internationalization objectives (Hudzik, 2011; Hudzik & McCarthy, 2012). In most institutions, the norm is that internationalization is a fragmented process, the unit in charge of it is usually the international relations office (Mestenhauser, 2011). The role of the international office is an important one when providing several services for the correct integration of international students and visiting faculty and scholars (Beelen, 2007). Important services may include the web page, library, and student services offered in English. The role of the student union is also an important one, in order to promote co-curricular activities. There are action plans in colleges and schools with international committees and coordinators of international activities (Crowther et al., 2000).

Challenges of IaH.

Mestenhauser (2011) as well as Hudzik and McCarthy (2012) identify six main challenges to internationalization: the concept of internationalization as a knowledge system, the ability to identify the main barriers to internationalization, placing culture at the core, the importance of knowledge, internationalizing the curriculum, and rethinking the organization, administration and the institutionalization of internationalization. The same challenges can be identified for IaH.

A system's approach is key to implement a holistic and inclusive approach to internationalization "a systems approach requires that we consider the entire world as the learning field, even when we study single cultures or regions of the world" (Mestenhauser, 2011, p. 7). Mestenhauser (2003) assures that trying to reach 90 % of

students and faculty to study abroad which is the aim of IaH, is a gigantic task. The systemic approach of IaH is also difficult to conceptualize and difficult to measure. Mestenhauser (2003) also analyzes the fragmentation of internationalization and all the different parts that compose a higher education institution; “more can be accomplished only if all parts of the field pull together and initiate major conceptual, administrative and curricular changes” (p. 62).

This kind of change is complex and sometimes confusing. Since there is no established IaH model, it is more difficult to measure the efforts being done and changes being implemented (Beelen, 2011). Knowing what the major obstacles are that an institution might have when trying to implement IaH is key in order to have the right analysis and strategic plan with reachable objectives. The main challenge of IaH is its implementation, especially how to become international ‘at home’, placing culture at the core of a higher education institution. As Teekens (2000) states about IaH implementation,

it means that all of us will have to cross borders to be ‘at home’ in the global village. Sometimes these borders are only in our heads, but they may well present the most difficult journey we have to make. (p. 34)

One of the most important challenges of IaH involves determining how to use the intercultural resources on campus and in nearby communities to transform perceptions at all levels of the institution. This is placing culture at the core of an institution, which is also connected to internationalizing the curriculum.

Additional challenges include governance to promote policies and approve budgets, faculty to internationalize the curricula, administrative staff to promote co-

curricular activities, and students to become agents of change in their classrooms and communities (Hudzik, 2011; Hudzik & McCarthy, 2012; Otten, 2000).

Implementing IaH involves attitudinal changes as well as perceptual changes, which implies cognitive and emotional changes (Mestenhauser, 2011; van Rensburg, 2007). According to Teekens (2000),

a bad student or lecturer never becomes a good one by involvement in international education. It is the other way around. It is necessary to feel secure in your discipline to be able to deviate from a well-trodden path and to look at things in a different way. (p. 31)

This implies that IaH, as an internationalization approach, is a challenge for higher education institutions since the concept is fragmented and not conceptualized by all the stakeholders involved. IaH faces the challenge of trying to help connecting all the elements that are part of it which vary depending on the context. As far as IaH in the Spanish context, is still a fairly unknown concept. The discourse of IaH has tried to bring back the human touch into higher education, maybe trying to go back to the origins of internationalization (Brandenburg & de Wit, 2010). According to Knight (2009) “the many changes and new challenges impacting internationalisation make the international dimension of higher education an agent of change itself” (p. 3). The whole institution and stakeholders have to stop paying attention to the micro-fragmented part of it and look at the university as a whole in a systems approach (Hudzik & McCarthy, 2012). But at the same time a thorough analysis should look at the leaders (micro level), who are the ones promoting organizational change in a higher education institution. This way there will be ‘space’ for all kinds of knowledge, not only in the classroom but

also outside of it (Beelen, 2007; Leask, 2007; Lou & Bosley, 2008; Mestenhauser, 1998, 2003, 2007, 2011; Nilsson, 2000; Teekens, 2007).

Leadership for Change

The main IaH element is an internationalized curriculum (Beelen, 2007; Mestenhauser, 2011). Faculty are key in order to promote and implement an internationalized curriculum as well as to introduce changes in the courses and research projects. In this analysis, I look into the role of faculty and administration staff in both managerial and non-managerial roles (i.e. the micro level) who are the ‘champions of internationalization’ in an organization (Mestenhauser, 2011). Any internationalization process in a higher education institution implies change, “leading organizational change is among the most important and challenging leadership responsibilities. It is the essence of leadership” (Malm, 2008). Leaders are key for any successful change; they promote it in order to keep up with external demands and contextual factors (Rosen & Digh, 2001; Cummings, 1999). In this case some of those contextual factors are: globalization, the implementation of the Bologna Declaration and its consequences for European universities (i.e. competition among them), and internationalization (Fullan & Scott, 2009). Faculty members are key agents for change (i.e. leaders) within the university (Childress, 2010). Although according to Harari (1992) “the key to change is the faculty, but the support of the administration is essential” (p. 69). Therefore, in a higher education institution a combination of both is essential in order to implement change. The kind of leadership that faculty promote in an institution is transformational, since it is promoted at a micro and macro level and since it implies important changes such as an internationalized curriculum and its instruction.

An internationalization process is an educational reform that requires change in any higher education institution. Since the success of internationalization efforts reside in the work of multiple leaders who work all over a higher education institution, key administration staff should also be included as agents of change (Bolman & Gallos, 2011; Harari, 1992; Hudzik, 2011; Hudzik & McCarthy, 2012; Mestenhauser & Ellingboe, 2005). For this reason Teekens (2007) states that in higher education institutions “to bring about innovation on the micro level of the classroom is not only an educational process. You need managerial support and structural embedding in institutional policy and finance” (p. 8). Harari (1992) affirms that 100% of faculty participation in the internationalization of a university is a very unrealistic percentage; he estimates that 15% is sufficient to move forward with internationalizing an institution. In order to analyze change in higher education, a review of main leadership theories is needed as well as main characteristics of leaders, and how they manage change in a higher education context.

In the case of working in the creation of a new university, challenges are presented continuously almost on a daily basis (Mestenhauser, 2011; Nilsson, 2003) and multitasking is common until programs are created or departments established; “adapting, adding or merging programs to meet the changing needs of communities present formidable leadership challenges” (Malm, 2008, p. 615). It is both a fascinating and challenging job, but also a very hard one where the need for collaborative and transformational leadership comes up constantly. Although according to Bennis (2000) change is the only constant element in an organization. March and Olsen (2006) also explain how in a learning organization thinking, evaluating, and reflecting are important

actions leaders must take in order to be successful. Analyzing what happened, why it happened and if it was good, help leaders to learn and improve their leadership skills (Bolman & Deal, 2008; Rosen & Digh, 2001). Bolman and Gallos (2011) agree on this matter and they also see that reflecting and knowing how change happens is key (Fullan & Scott, 2009).

According to Malm (2008), effective leaders initiate and promote organizational change and innovation. Successful organizations are sustained through change, but there are some risks when change is promoted. Whenever there is something new, it exists in a state of confrontation with the old. A leader believes in the change he/she is promoting; Bennis (2000) calls this dream and Burns (1978), Bass (1990) and Fullan (2001) call this vision. This vision is key when facing external demands and surrounding resistance.

Transformational Leadership Theory in higher education.

In this section I review transformational leadership applied to organizational change and innovation in higher education institutions. Most of the authors concentrate on business organizations and not on higher education institutions, although they claim their theories can be transferred since they talk about organizations in general. For example, Bennis (2000) and Kotter (1990) affirm that leadership has looked the same regardless of time. Bolman and Gallos (2011) also note there are similarities that can be found between businesses and universities, particularly when talking about management and innovation as every organization has some of the same elements (e.g. goals, structures, cultures, and employees). However, Kezar (2001), Mestenhauser and Ellingboe (2005) as well as Fullan and Scott (2009) believe that universities are

“special” organizations, mainly because they are learning organizations with tenure track faculty, which cannot be found in private businesses and therefore universities will differ from other organizations. Fullan and Scott (2009) state that higher education institutions have a distinctive “combination of goals, tasks, employees, governance structures, values, technologies, and history [which make them] not quite like anything else” (p. 5). Universities also differ in their mission (e.g. a combination of teaching, research, service and outreach), dynamics, personnel structures and values, which require different skills to lead (Hudzik & McCarthy, 2012). The goals of an educational organization focus on learning goals and objectives and “employees” are hired for their commitment and enthusiasm about teaching and learning. The production of higher education institutions is also very different from other business organizations. The production of higher education institutions is a more complex one, since it is mainly “creating, interpreting, disseminating, and applying knowledge through multiple means for many different audiences and purposes” (Bolman & Gallos, 2011).

Although, as Fullan and Scott (2009) affirm, “despite the tradition of collegiality and collective debates, universities are amazingly individualistic” (p. 27). Team- work and collegiality as well as research projects reflect an ideal of teamwork in higher education that is not found as such. This individualism is probably due to certain organizational cultures like the incentive system and the freedom in what and how they teach. In a university, there might be a lot of meetings and a lot of talk in those meetings but what really matters is what is being done between those meetings. As Bolman and Gallos (2011) explain, this individualism might come from the autonomy that faculty

have and the collective power that they may also have depending on the institution's governance structure.

Leadership theories.

In general, I agree with Northouse (2007) who argues that leadership is a process; it involves influence, it happens in the context of a group of people and it implies setting and reaching a common goal. Similarly, Kotter (1990) defines leadership as the process that helps to direct and to mobilize people. Even if there is some consensus on the view that leadership is a process, there are different theories that define leadership in different ways. In this section, I review the trait approach, the skills approach, the situational approach, Bass's (1991) universal leadership, contingency theory, path-goal theory, and leader-member exchange. In addition, the next section will focus on the idea of transformational leadership due to its key role in higher education and its importance for IaH.

Northouse (2007) and Mestenhauser and Ellingboe (2005) explain that in the trait approach, leadership is seen as personal quality; it is innate and thus differs from situation to situation (Bass, 1990). A person who might be a leader in one situation might not be a leader in a different situation. The main question that theorists in this approach ask is: Is a leader born or trained (Mestenhauser & Ellingboe, 2005)? This question, according to Fullan and Scott (2009), is a question that still has no clear answer. Despite a lack of a clear answer, trait theorists such as Bolman and Gallos (2011) affirm that learning and reflection are key traits for successful leadership.

The skills approach focuses on personal skills and abilities that are learned and developed over a lifetime in order to be an effective leader (Northouse, 2007). This

approach focuses on the capabilities of leaders and on the competencies that a leader needs to do his/her job effectively. The main competencies needed are problem-solving and social judgment. According to Mestenhauser and Ellingboe (2005) this approach is widely used in international education, although in higher education institutions the approach is defined as interpersonal skills more than organizational functioning.

The situational approach is one of the most recognized approaches to leadership. It concentrates on how a leader adapts his/her style of leadership to different situations. The situational approach places the leader in a situation where their performance is what is being evaluated as key for leadership. The approach is based on the idea that employees develop and change over time on a continuum. In this way the leader has to use his/her best skills to diagnose and evaluate these developmental changes and then match them with a leadership style. It requires a leader who is very flexible (Mestenhauser & Ellingboe, 2005; Northouse, 2007). Although this approach dominated the thinking about leadership during the '70s and '80s, it lacked empirical support from researchers (Weese, 1994).

Bass (1991) believes that leadership is universal and although there are different contexts, leadership is more centered in the individual and in his/her main characteristics than in situational determinants. Bass sees that transformational components (to be discussed below) are universal while still taking into account cultural differences and different organizational cultures.

Contingency theory is based on matching the leader and the situation. This is dominated by three variables: leader-member relations, task structure, and power and position. This theory as well as the situational approach is widely used in industry and it

is supported by plenty of empirical research like the study Fiedler developed in 1967 in which many different leaders who worked in different contexts were studied in order to see if they were effective (Northouse, 2007).

The path goal theory is based on expectancy theory, which is a motivational theory that states motivation is a product of how much one values a task and to what degree they expect they can complete it. It assumes that workers' performance will be enhanced if they are empowered, especially if they think that they are capable of performing well and if their efforts reach positive outcomes. It is based on positive feedback and motivation integrated with leadership (Northouse, 2007).

The leader-member exchange theory is based on the interaction between leaders and subordinates. This 'relationship' goes through different stages: being strangers, being acquaintances, and finally being partners. Its main strength is that it claims that it can be used universally: in business, educational organizations, and NGOs (Northouse, 2007).

Even though, a mix of different leadership styles can be found in most organizations, transformational leadership is the most widely used in higher education institutions because of its nature as a learning organization (Mestenhauser & Ellingboe, 2005).

Transformational leadership.

Transformational leadership aims to transform individuals by exercising an exceptional influence so they behave and perform beyond what is expected from them (Weese, 1994). Burns (1978) defines transformational leadership as "when one or more persons engage with others in such a way that leaders and followers raise one another to

higher levels of motivation and morality” (p. 20). Bass (1991) and Weese (1994) describe transformational leadership as including the “four I’s”: intellectual stimulation, individual consideration, inspirational leadership and idealized influence. This leadership theory is concerned with improving the performance of followers as well as helping them to develop as much as possible (Northouse, 2007). It implies the need for a group of people who embrace a common and ethical cause that is good for everybody (Kotter, 1994). According to Burns (1978), it is an expansion of transactional leadership. However, transformational leadership takes leadership a level up by involving inspired followers to commit to a common cause and/or vision as well as common goals for an organization or a department/unit. Transformative leadership is charismatic and it focuses more on the process than on the task, motivates collaborative work more than competition, and encourages participation in problem solving (Ramsden, 1998).

Transformative leaders push their followers to solve problems in an innovative way; they develop their followers’ leadership capacities and skills by giving them both challenge and support (Bass & Riggio, 2006; Kotter, 1994). Transformative leaders do more than correct followers’ mistakes, else they risk dissatisfying followers (Bass, 1985). The transformational leader is the one who is able to inspire and influence his/her followers, greatly helping them go further in their levels of commitment and contribution. They are able to motivate followers and make them envision the future of the organization (Burns, 1978). They promote the common good and make it important for all instead of just their personal interests (Weese, 1994). “Transformational leaders ask followers to look beyond their own self-interests and focus on the big picture”

(Weese, 1994, p. 182) so that followers are concerned with what is good for the group, the organization, and the society. This is why vision and charisma are the main concepts in this theory and the main strategies of transformative leadership include long-term goals, ethics, high standards, values, emotions and high levels of stimulations (Burns, 1978).

Transformational leadership theory is widely used in higher education institutions since it is flexible in how people can be both leaders and at other times managers. It includes assessing followers and also taking risks (Bennis, 2000). The common cause embraced by all members in an educational institution is teaching and learning and ultimately the social change that is produced by the collective benefits of education for the whole society.

Leaders who show this kind of leadership skills have strong internal values and they have strong ideals (Bolman & Deal, 2008). They are very good at motivating followers and acting for a good common cause. According to Mestenhauser and Ellingboe (2005) transformational leadership focuses too much on the individual rather than on the institution and thus they argue that it is not appropriate for a university.

Main characteristics of transformational leaders.

“Better leaders are transformational more frequently; less adequate leaders are passive or concentrate more on corrective actions” (Bass & Riggio, 2006, p. xii). Many authors (e.g. Bennis, Burns, Bolman, Deal and Fullan) have researched about the main characteristics of leaders. There is not a lot of empirical work about “the actual ‘movers and shakers’ who lead organizations” (Weese, 1994, p. 179). On the one hand, Bennis and Kotter believe that the principles of good leadership are timeless and that they never

expire. On the other hand, Bass believes that leadership is universal. Thus, the existing empirical research seems to be current and enough.

Nowadays more than ever we are in need of global leadership, leaders who have a global mindset and who have a broader vision (Hudzik & McCarthy, 2012). You do not need to work in a multinational company to be a global leader, globalization and multiculturalism pushes to local organization to have global leaders with a global vision in order to be successful (Rosen & Digh 2001). Academic capitalism in higher education institutions has brought managers into universities. If we want universities to be internationalized organizations, then more global and internationalized leaders are needed in managerial positions (Hudzik, 2011). Leaders do the right thing while managers do things right (Covey, 1996). Bennis (2000) states, that organizations are full of managers but not of leaders, and that the main difference between them is that managers ask 'how', when leaders ask 'what' and 'why' (Bennis & Goldsmith, 1994; Bennis, 2000; Covey, 1996). Leaders conquer the context while the manager administers (Kotter, 1990), the leader innovates and he/she is original not a copy (Bennis, 2000). Leaders have a vision a global picture of the outcomes that the organization should reach (Covey 1996; Fullan & Scott, 2009; Kotter, 1990). The manager maintains, the leader develops and innovates (Bolman & Gallos, 2011; Deal & Peterson, 1999). The manager mostly focuses on systems and structure, while the leader focuses on people (Burns, 1978; Weese, 1994); he/she inspires trust and does not rely on control (Kotter, 1990); the leader has a long-range perspective (Deal & Peterson, 1999); the manager has his/her eye on the bottom line meanwhile, the leader has his/her eye on the horizon (Kotter, 1990). The manager does things right, while the leader does the

right thing (Bennis, 2000; Covey, 1996). According to Deal and Peterson (1999) “to sustain strong, positive cultures, leadership must come from everyone” (p. 138).

According to Bass (1991), transformational leaders inspire and challenge followers on an intellectual way and higher education institutions are “centers of learning and hope” (Bolman & Gallos, 2011, p. 7). Kotter (1990) talks about good or effective leadership when it moves people to be better off, which should be part of the spirit of universities. Innovation and creativity should be part of any university environment. Transformational leaders make followers look at problems in a more creative way, viewing them as challenges or opportunities. “Leaders who are intellectually stimulating are not threatened by the possibility of learning from their followers. These leaders recognize the potential of synergy and the power of collective creativity” (Weese, 1994, p. 183). Transformational leaders create an exciting environment where creativity and collective learning is empowered. They also recognize the individuality of each of the members and treat each one of them accordingly, being active listeners and trying to understand the perspectives of the followers (Covey, 1996). They make decisions on each case basis. They are inspirational making their followers to feel important and critical in reaching the goal of the organization. Followers respect transformational leaders, they believe that they are competent enough to carry and achieve the vision and goal of the organization (Bennis & Goldsmith, 1994). Charisma can be learned as well as leadership, either with effective or ineffective role modeling and/or specific training (Bennis, 2000; Burns, 1978; Fullan, 2008; Weese, 1994). If universities are learning systems and/or

organizations then transformational leadership and leaders are the most adequate ones for such organizations.

“True leaders of the day will not be recognized for their personal accomplishments, but more accurately, their real genius will be found in the unleashing of the talent and potential of their followers” (Bennis, 1992 cited in Weese, 1994, p. 185). Leaders are very different, but they have one thing in common: “a concern with a guiding purpose, an overarching vision” (Bennis, 2000, p. 6).

Transformational leadership in higher education.

Leadership in higher education institutions entails maintaining learning organizations and having leaders throughout the organization, not only top-managers (Hudzik & McCarthy, 2012). If transformational leadership is about participatory decision- making, self-awareness, reflection and empowering followers (Covey, 1996; Burns, 1978), “who could be in a more opportune position than teachers to confirm that leadership is a reciprocal learning process?” (Treslan, 2006, p. 59). These aspects of transformational leadership encourage constructive change not only at an organizational level but also in society, as well as education does. This type of leadership moves away from the traditional conceptualization of leadership, where only people in top positions are seen as leaders (Hudzik & McCarthy, 2012). This view includes all members of a learning organization, and concentrates on looking at teachers as they are in direct contact with students. Therefore they are promoting change through education. According to Treslan (2006) “teachers currently practice cutting edge transformational leadership in their student-teacher interactions and confirm that such evidence can be detected in the process of effective teaching” (p. 58). Although according to Fullan and

Scott (2009), leadership in higher education is overlooked and not enough attention is paid to the role of teacher-student interaction and the development of leadership skills within an institution. Leadership in higher education institutions is not well recognized, either understood or supported (Hudzik & McCarthy, 2012). Fullan and Scott (2009) carried out a study about leadership in universities among experienced university leaders from all over the world, and the outcomes of the study confirm that “effective change management and implementation are not only an increasingly central focus of university leaders’ work, they are also among their top priorities for professional improvement” (p. 132). These leaders wanted to become better in leading change, as well as in learning and teaching change, in a way that at the end it would make a difference for the students. A leadership for transformation at all levels at the management and teacher level. Transformational leadership in universities would help promoting change and innovation in a systemic way. In a university the diverse stakeholders makes leadership to be key to success (Hudzik, 2011; Hudzik & McCarthy, 2012). In higher education transformational leaders are administration staff, managers and instructors. Without promoting leadership among instructors real transformation cannot be accomplished (Harari, 1992; Mestenhauser, 2011).

Bass and Riggio (2006) argue about the universality of transformational leadership, stating that it can be found in all parts of the world and in all kinds of organizations. Fullan (2008) agrees, “good theories travel across sectors of public and private organizations, and they apply to geographically and culturally diverse situations” (p. 1). Bolman and Gallos (2011) also affirm that even though each university is unique they all have a lot in common. Transformational leadership can be found in all

universities. Research has been carried out in all industrialized countries (e.g. *The Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness Study* or the GLOBE Study) and its findings support the conclusion that “elements of charismatic-transformational leadership are valued leader qualities in all countries and cultures” (p. 36). Transformational leadership has an influence in different cultures and organizations because transformational leaders think of the common good and have goals that benefit the whole community or organization, which benefits any higher education institution (Burns, 1978).

Transformational leadership is linked to organizational change. Many scholars affirm that organizational success and survival are directly linked with good and effective leadership. Transformational leaders have an excellent impact on followers’ satisfaction, productivity and, organizational effectiveness (Weese, 1994). More and more empirical research shows that transformational leadership has “strong relationships with teachers’ organizational citizenship behavior, teachers’ commitment to professional learning community, to organizational learning and to teachers’ reflective practice” (Runhaar, Sanders & Yang, 2010, p. 1156). In a study carried out in schools in Singapore, Retna and Ng (2009) found out that transformational leadership empowered teachers to promote important change in their institutions “transformational leadership is relevant to achieving the desired educational outcome at both the system level and the school level” (p. 41). The authors of this study conclude that transformational leadership is needed if initiatives and changes are wanted and can only be achieved with the collaboration of teachers.

Although, the majority of the studies have been carried out at a school level (Retna & Ng, 2009; Runhaar, Sanders & Yang, 2010) a parallel can be drawn with higher education institutions. Academic administration positions often come from faculty members so they encounter great pressure to initiate change (Bolman & Gallos, 2011). This is a very specific characteristic of higher education institutions, the mix of academic and administration positions and the rotation of decision-making units such as deans, vice-deans, vice-rectors back to just academic, teaching and research positions. According to Harari (1992) leadership is key to promote institutional change and it needs vision and inspiration. Leadership can be found at all levels of a higher education institution and it is needed in order to promote change (Harari, 1992; Hudzik & McCarthy, 2012; Mestenhauser & Paige, 2005).

Organizational Change Processes

Any organizational change process is affected by the institution's challenges, its leadership and organizational culture (Northouse, 2007). According to Fullan (2001) a culture of change "consists of great rapidity and nonlinearity on the one hand and equally great potential for creativity breakthroughs on the other" (p. 31). The main paradox is that change and/or transformation cannot take place without some messiness. Understanding the change process is mainly about innovativeness and about strategizing (Fullan, 2001). Currently promoting change and collaboration in higher education institutions has never been so critical (Drew, 2010; Hudzik, 2011). Universities are known for being static and reluctant to change. They are also complex organizations and academic leaders have an important role in directing universities during times when demands are constantly increasing and public support is diminishing (Bolman & Gallos,

2011; Hudzik & McCarthy, 2012). “Consequently, the significant question in any area of change or leadership is the degree of energy, or vitality which individuals at various levels are capable of developing under different sets of circumstances and in response to different stimuli” (Dimmock, 1970, p. 81). Most leadership theories are static as well, except path-goal, contingency theory, situational, and transformational theory (Mestenhauser & Ellingboe, 2005).

The main organizational change models reviewed in this section are Kotter’s (1996) eight-stage organizational change, and Peter Senge (1990, 2006) theory of organizational change.

Kotter (1996) presents an eight-stage organizational change process taking into account contextual, economic and social forces pushing and driving the need for change in an organization. Kotter’s change process from a leadership perspective is as follows: 1) establishing a sense of urgency, 2) creating a guiding coalition, 3) developing a vision and strategy, 4) communicating the change vision, 5) empowering employees for broad-based action, 6) generating short-term wins, 7) consolidating gains and producing more change and 8) anchoring new approaches in the culture. Kotter’s (1996) organizational process was designed for the corporate world and not for higher education institutions. Kotter’s process also “does not include all the elements of every change procedure” (Malm, 2008, p. 616). However, this model is still applicable for Spanish private universities, as they resemble more of a corporate organization due mainly to academic capitalism and economic forces.

Peter Senge’s (1990) theory of organizational change looks at organizations in a systemic way. According to Senge (2006), the main traits for a learning organization

include: systems thinking, personal mastery, mental models, building a shared vision and team learning. “Simply stated, if teachers, administrators, and professors share their expertise and knowledge, change will result. This shared vision and work is known theoreti-cally as systems thinking” (Reynolds, Murrill & Whitt, 2006, p. 124). Senge (1990) affirms that systems thinking is a discipline for being able to see wholes not fragmented parts, it is a framework for seeing interconnected parts instead of seeing only things “for seeing patterns of change rather than ‘static snapshots’” (p. 8). It is a system that helps to see the forests and the trees of a learning organization (Schomburg, 2008). Professors and/or teachers are no longer absolute authorities in the field; they now have to share their authority with administrators and this is why a systems approach is needed when analyzing change in an educational institution.

Kotter (1996) as well as Fullan (2001) affirm that change initiatives tend to fail mainly because they are complex in nature and they need to be implemented at an institutional level, which needs a systemic approach. Fullan (2001) adds that change initiatives do not work because of the lack of training and understanding of the change process by leaders and followers. Bolman and Gallos (2011) as well as Fullan and Scott (2009) affirm that understanding the process of change helps to promote it and carry it through.

Kotter (1996) focuses his process of leading change in eight steps describing process, while Fullan (2001) centers more on attributes and knowledge of effective leaders when dealing with change. Senge (1990) talks about mental models and how we see work and conceptualize change while Kotter (1996) affirms that all organizations are similar so his process for change will work in any institution.

Mestenhauser and Ellingboe (2005) disagree with the idea of comparing a learning organization with a business/corporate organization. However, there are also similarities between learning and business organizations; Bennis (2000) affirms it would not matter how long leadership and change theories were developed, similar problems and critical matters will be found and leadership will always be leadership. Although Senge (1990) developed his theory with a business organization in mind, it has been proven that it has so much to teach to an educational organization.

Bennis and Mische (1995) enumerate five essential elements of change in an organization: a bold vision, a systemic approach, a clear intent, a specific way or methodology and finally an effective and visible leadership.

According to Childress (2010) and Harari (1992) faculty are critical for the success of any internationalization initiative. Change in universities is also criticized for being slow and dysfunctional due to a lack of productivity as well as inexistent change in some cases (Fullan & Scott, 2009). There are other authors who see a more democratic change in learning organizations since there are multiple agents of change. According to Harari (1992),

we cannot but have admiration for the creativity and achievements of several dozens of our institutions and thousands of our faculty members in higher education today who are functioning as agents of change and who are providing critical leadership in the international arena. (p. 78)

Faculty influence directly and have direct contact with students; they are also the ones that teach and research which are the main objectives of a higher education institution. They can transform curricula and push for important changes in courses and

activities that take place on campus. Faculty are the ones who can implement or change into an internationalized curriculum, they can also promote service learning activities to be included in their courses as well as implement the use of ICT and to have a global classroom. Collaborative leadership and a systemic approach towards change are needed in higher education institutions (Hudzik & McCarthy, 2012). Thus, faculty are key in organizational change processes in universities (Agnew & VanBalkom, 2009; Fullan 2001; Cuttles & Kilcher, 2005).

Challenges of change in higher education institutions.

Fullan and Scott (2009) researched and identified the following change challenges in higher education institutions: cultures that are against change; planning, structural, administrative processes which are excessively bureaucratic and do not add value; inefficient decision-making, accountability, and funding; change strategies which are non-existent or unproductive; inconsistent quality in the delivery of the main activities of learning and research; inadequate approaches to leadership selection, development and management performance. Thus, as many studies indicate many of the strategies used in universities “are inadequate and that the current focus, culture, and structure of many universities is change averse” (Fullan & Scott, 2009). If these are the main change challenges identified in higher education, they have to be taken into account when internationalization processes are analyzed in universities.

Even though these challenges can be found in almost all institutions, change is a constant factor that should always be taken into account; this includes who promotes that change as well (Bolman & Gallos, 2011). Learning and thinking in a learning organization is key for promoting organizational change. Agents of change in

universities can be found throughout the whole organization, what Mestenhauser (2011) calls “champions of internationalization” (Hudzik & McCarthy, 2012).

Main Theoretical Frameworks

Mestenhauser’s (2002) systems approach based on Senge’s (2006) systems theory along with Kotter’s (1996) model of change and Fullan’s (2008) six secrets of change are being used to analyze how certain faculty and key administration staff (i.e. key stakeholders) play the role of leaders for internationalization throughout a higher education institution.

Senge (2006) in his book, *The Fifth Discipline: The Art and Practice of the Learning Organisation* talks about personal mastery, shared vision, mental models and team learning as key factors for succeeding in what he calls the “systems thinking” or the “fifth discipline”. However he affirms that, “the fundamental learning units in an organization are working teams (people who need one another to produce and outcome)” (p. xi). Therefore, the only way to analyze an internationalization process of a higher education institution is through a holistic approach, which is what Mestenhauser’s system’s perspective shows in its conceptualization.

According to Mestenhauser (2002, 2011), the main barriers that higher education institutions face when implementing internationalization processes are systemic. Thus, problems and solutions are part of the same system, which varies according to the culture not only at a national level (national laws), but also at regional and institutional levels (organizational culture) (Deal & Peterson, 1999; Fullan, 2008). Therefore, knowing the culture and challenges of each institution will help to remove barriers and improve flexibility in a system, promoting change (Hudzik & McCarthy, 2012;

Mestenhauser, 2011). Deal and Peterson (1999) affirm that the most important task that leaders do is create and manage culture, and the great talent of leaders resides in their ability to work with culture (Hofstede, Hofstede & Minkov, 2010; Rosen & Digh, 2001). The leadership culture also varies according to the national culture. Since knowledge is not fragmented, Mestenhauser (2002, 2003, 2007, 2011) questions why educational institutions help to fragment it and compartmentalize it, usually under the administration area of a university, but also in every academic discipline.

According to Deal and Peterson (1999), “leaders in strong cultures are everywhere- teachers, administrators, parents, even students. Together these leaders read, shape, and continuously transform the culture of their school” (p. 10). Martin and Calarco (2006) found out in their study that there is a shift in the paradigm of how leadership is understood, and there seems to be a shift in viewing leadership as a shared group process, finding it throughout the organization and being more flexible at all levels. Since the main knowledge is not fragmented, there are pieces of it coming from different disciplines and experiences. Therefore there is a constant movement back and forth as, “the tools and techniques are intellectual skills that encourage shifts of thinking from parts to whole and back again; they include cognitive complexity and flexibility, and comparative and meta thinking” (Mestenhauser, 2000, p. 67). Mestenhauser’s systems approach is based on Senge (1990) systems theory,

systems thinking is a discipline for seeing wholes. It is a framework for seeing interrelationships rather than things, for seeing patterns of change rather than static ‘snapshots’. It is a set of general principles-distilled over the course of the twentieth century (...) and systems thinking is a sensibility- for the subtle

interconnectedness that gives living systems their unique character. (Senge, 2006, pp. 68-69)

One of its characteristics is the interdependence of the pieces and bites of all the ingredients that compose that system, until all fit into one, unique whole picture. If one effect of globalization is the interconnection of fields, the access to information from all over the world anywhere, this erases the frontier of what is domestic and what is international (Cairncross, 2001). When you add to this, the great process of immigration that is making our local communities more international than ever, the system's thinking is then more needed than ever. The tools and techniques of a systems perspective are "intellectual skills" (Mestenhauser, 2011, p. 126). These skills allow people to go back and forth from the whole to the parts and reverse the process as well.

Higher education functions within the context of internal relations, while external relations are the global forces. The idea of context is especially important because it changes the typical metaphor about systems thinking from 'seeing the trees, the forest, its environment, and everything else that grows and lives there. (Mestenhauser, 2011, p. 127)

Summary

In this chapter the main categories: academic capitalism, internationalization, leadership for change and organizational change from the literature are reviewed. The most important internationalization rationales, contextual factors, as well as the main elements of IaH which are: an internationalized curriculum, the role of other languages, institutionalization of IaH, teaching and learning: intercultural learning, co-curricular activities on campus, the use of ICT and governance and facilities are explained.

Towards the end of the chapter the corresponding leadership theories are reviewed as they relation to organizational change and higher education institutions as well as the main theoretical frameworks that frame this study. The next chapter focuses on the methods and methodology used to answer the research questions provided in chapter I.

Chapter III

Methodology and Methods

Overview

In this chapter, the theoretical foundations of qualitative research methodology and its appropriateness for this study are presented. Second, an explanation for why case study research was an appropriate qualitative method for this study as well as the techniques of focus groups, interviewing and document analysis—the primary methods of data collection—are explained. Lastly, the procedures of data collection and analysis are explained.

The main purpose of this study is to identify the factors influencing campus internationalization of a Spanish private university. The following research questions are addressed:

1. In what ways is internationalization of the campus being implemented at San Jorge University?
2. What are the factors influencing campus internationalization at San Jorge University?
 - 2.1 What are the institutional factors influencing campus internationalization at San Jorge University?
 - Mission and vision
 - Institutional profile
 - Leadership
 - Institutional history
 - Infrastructure

- Policies and strategies
- Implementation of the Bologna process
- Implementation of the Lisbon convention for the recognition of foreign qualifications
- Organizational structure
- Resources
- Size

2.2 What are the individual factors influencing internationalization at San Jorge University?

- Previous international experience of key stakeholders and faculty
- Faculty syllabi (class projects; teaching and learning)
- Faculty international research

The nature of the research design is an interpretative qualitative case study.

Study Methodology

This study draws upon the interpretivist perspective within qualitative research (Creswell, 2009). This research paradigm has its origins in cultural anthropology and American sociology (Creswell, 2009). This type of research employs different philosophical assumptions, strategies and methods of collecting data, analysis and interpretation, which differs from quantitative research (Gibbs, 2002; Wolcott, 1994). According to Creswell (2008, 2009) quantitative research helps the researcher to inquire about the existence of relationships among variables. Merriam (2009) states “there are many definitions of research, but what they all have in common is the notion of inquiring into, or investigating something in a systemic manner” (p. 3). Qualitative

research is a term that covers many different interpretative techniques; the objective of which is to describe, decode and analyze natural phenomena (Wolcott, 2008).

Qualitative researchers want to understand “how people make sense of their world and the experiences they have in the world” (Merriam, 2009, p. 13).

Merriam (2009) identifies six assumptions of qualitative research design.

Qualitative research is the following:

1. Inductive: Theories are built from details trying to give meaning and understanding to natural phenomena and professional practices that occur in natural settings (Gibbs, 2002; Kvale, 2007; Stake, 1995; Yin, 2009).
2. The researcher is the main instrument for collecting, analyzing and interpreting the data (Kvale, 2007).
3. Qualitative research is concerned with the process rather than with the outcomes (Gibbs, 2002).
4. Rich description is required; the context, the participants, and the interesting activities are described using what Wolcott (1994) calls thick description.
5. Conducting fieldwork is an extremely important part of qualitative research.
6. The analysis is descriptive and demonstrates understanding using words, pictures or any other visual aid (Gibbs, 2002; Kvale, 2007).

There are other characteristics and competencies that Merriam (2009) attributes to qualitative research, such as how qualitative studies are ideally “emergent and flexible, responsive to changing conditions of the study in progress” (p. 16). The sample is a purposeful sample and tends to be smaller than in quantitative studies (Kvale, 2007).

The use of qualitative research gives the researcher the opportunity to look into the detailed personal aspects of a phenomenon (Kvale, 2007; Stake, 1995). Qualitative research includes differences that are “ideologically, epistemologically, methodologically and most importantly, humanly” (Merriam, 2009, p. 52). Using qualitative research allows the researcher to look into details, personal aspects, interpretations and perceptions that quantitative research would not allow.

Qualitative research methods include participant observation, document analysis, focus groups and personal interviews. These methods provide descriptions and information of phenomena that would not be known by using other methods (Weiss, 1994).

This study is a qualitative case study using mixed (multiple) methods. According to Merriam (2009), a case study “is an in-depth description and analysis of a bounded system” (p. 40). The “bounded system” under study is a Spanish higher education institution: USJ. According to Yin (2009), “a case study is an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context, especially when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident” (p. 18). The internationalization process of a Spanish private university is a contemporary phenomenon happening in a “bounded system”, which is not limited to one stakeholder nor to one department of the institution.

Thus, according to the system’s perspective theoretical framework and the research questions proposed, a qualitative research design using mixed (multiple) methods was determined to be the most appropriate means through which to examine the

factors that influence internationalization in a Spanish private university, which is the main focus of this study.

Case Study Design

A case study research methodology is the most adequate research approach in order to answer the main research questions. Case study researchers may use ethnography as a valuable method to collect relevant data and they find similarities in the use of certain techniques in both approaches (ethnography and case study approach) (Creswell, 2008; Stake, 1995; Wolcott, 2008). Ethnographers search for meaning generated through cultural symbols. Ethnography involves describing a culture from the point of view, experiences, and perspectives of those who live that culture (Jax, 1984). On the other hand, case study researchers focus on a specific activity or program that mainly involves individuals rather than a general group per se. According to different authors, the case study research methodology draws from holistic, naturalistic, ethnographic, phenomenological and biographic research methods (Stake, 1995; Wolcott, 2008). Case study researchers are interested in describing the activities of a group rather than focusing on shared patterns between groups; they are interested in catching the complexity of a single case. As Stake (1995) explains, a “qualitative study capitalizes on ordinary ways of making sense. Each person has a great deal of experience encountering strange objects and phenomena” (p. 72).

According to Merriam (2009) the use of case studies as a methodology is a way of studying systems as,

complex social units consisting of multiple variables of potential importance in understanding the phenomenon. Anchored in real-life situations, the case study

results in a rich and holistic account of a phenomenon. It offers insights and illuminates meanings that expand its readers' experiences. These insights can be construed as tentative hypothesis that help structure future research; hence, case study plays an important role in advancing a field's knowledge base. (p. 51)

Case study methodology is suitable for research focused on contemporary and real phenomena where the context is important and "when the relevant behaviors cannot be manipulated" (Yin, 2009, p. 11). The implementation of internationalization elements in a Spanish university is a real life complex phenomenon; a case study research design was selected as it allowed the researcher to analyze and account for the diverse contextual elements in order to bring greater understanding to the case under study (Stake, 1995).

This study is a qualitative descriptive explanatory case study. A descriptive explanatory case study has the purpose of bringing light to particular issues. The main objective of the study was to analyze not only what is being done, but also why it is being done, and by whom. The questions "what" and "why" about a case, led to the type of case of case study this was. The case study design helped gain an in-depth understanding of the process of internationalization at USJ, as well as the institutional and individual factors and/or reasons that promote or prevent internationalization (Yin, 2009).

The use of case study design implies some challenges that have to be taken into account which include: construct validity, internal and external validity as well as reliability (Yin, 2009). The researcher constructs validity using and identifying "correct operational measures for the concepts being studied" (Yin, 2009, p. 40). In order to

construct validity in a case study research the researcher needs to use multiple sources of evidence, as well as a chain of evidence is established. The existence of key informants reviewing the draft of the case study report is key for constructing validity (Yin, 2009). The first two phases of the research occur while collecting the data, the latter occurs when writing the case study report. Internal validity is developed through different tactics which might be: pattern matching, explanation building, addressing rival explanations or using logic models, all of which occur during the data analysis phase of the study (Yin, 2009). External validity when doing case study research is a test that has usually been questioned by many researchers. Critics affirm that single cases cannot be generalize, Yin (2009) disagrees with this stating that it depends on what type of research has been developed. Some of the researchers who state that are contrasting this test to survey research, in which the sample is always generalized to a larger universe. Although, Yin (2009) affirms that “this analogy to samples and universe is incorrect when dealing with case studies. Survey research relies on statistical generalization whereas case studies rely on analytic generalization” (p. 43). This basically means that the researcher, when developing analytical generalization, is trying to generalize “a particular set of results to some broader theory” (Yin, 2009, p. 43). This type of generalization it does not happen automatically, a theory must be tested many times, replicating findings two or even three times. Thus, if such conditions of repetitions are met then a strong case for developing a theory can be made. Reliability is a test which objective is to make sure that the researcher followed a case study protocol, and if another researcher will decide to use the same study protocol all over again that the same results and conclusions would be made. The use of a case study protocol is key during

data collection, mainly during documentation (document analysis). For document analysis the researcher followed an already existing U.S. American internationalization model, the Horn, Hendel and Fry (2007) model revised and adapted to the Spanish and USJ contexts.

The application of verification, validation and validity brought methodological rigor to the study. The researcher followed all the four tests when developing the research design of the study, creating documentation protocols, using multiple sources of evidence and having key informants reviewing the draft of the case study report (Creswell, 2007; Yin, 2009).

In addition, there are shortcomings in qualitative case study methodology. First, researcher biases may affect the focus and findings of qualitative studies (Yin, 2009). To avoid and minimize this, triangulation and the collection as many sources of evidence as possible were used. Merriam (2009) advocates that rather than trying to eliminate these biases or subjectivities, it is important to identify and monitor how they may shape the connection and interpretation of data, positioning yourself as a researcher and stating what is your background and what your assumptions of the study outcomes are. Since the researcher worked at USJ during the study the verification of her ideas of what IaH elements were being implemented by other sources helped in the interpretation of data. The use of triangulation in the study, using multiple sources of evidence, helped to focus on the objective outcomes of the study. The outcome of the study, was also verified by key informants who reviewed the draft of the case study report (Yin, 2009). According to Patton (2002) “the quality of qualitative data depends to a great extent on the methodological, skills, sensitivity, and integrity of the researcher” (p. 5).

Second, qualitative research is highly time -consuming, as it requires the development of thick, rich descriptions (Creswell, 2009; Wolcott, 1994). This is a case study of one institution, which gave an in-depth description and analysis of the case under study. At the time of the study the researcher had been working for the institution five years, she had worked in two of the three institutes that are present in all schools of the university. This opportunity gave her the chance to be able to know every school well and to have a holistic idea about USJ.

Since a case study focuses on a single unit, the issue of generalization is an additional limitation of the study (Stake, 1995). However, this study provided an opportunity to look at all the details and insights of a developing process: in this case, the internationalization of USJ. Much can be learned from a particular and unique case such as this one by managers, program developers and policy makers in Spanish universities, but it must be remembered that the results of this study are limited to this particular case.

It is important when doing case study research to try to be as objective as possible. Triangulation helps in this matter since triangulation is the “rationale for using multiple sources of evidence” (Yin, 2009, p. 114). As opposed to other research methods like surveys or histories, a major strength of case study research data collection is the chance to use different sources of evidence. The major strength in doing so is “the development of converging lines of inquiry, a process of triangulation and corroboration” (Yin, 2009, pp. 115-116).

Data Collection Methods

For this study, the researcher collected from multiple sources and employed four

main data collection methods: participant observation, document analysis, focus groups, and in depth personal interviews.

Participant observation.

According to McClung (1970), participant observation is the door to the details and problems of the right social knowledge, when the researcher experiences and observes the situation and context under study. As Lofland and Lofland (1995) say, participant observation is also known as “field observation”, “qualitative observation”, or “direct observation” (p.18). Participant observation is a process in which the researcher starts and establishes a relationship with the case under study or the subjects and in their natural environment (Fetterman, 1989; Lofland & Lofland, 1995; Stewart, 1998). According to Wolcott (1999) participant observation is what the researcher gains from experiencing in the field.

The participant observer should be able to see, listen and be sensitive to the social interactions that he/she is observing. The participant observer should be able to learn and grow in his/her knowledge with the experiences he/she is observing. The first important aspect that the participant observer sees are the patterns of behavior, interaction, as well as the cultural, organizational habits common of the case under study (Fetterman, 1989; Stewart, 1998; Wolcott, 1999). As Fetterman (1989) says, participant observation is important and crucial for the fieldwork of case study research. Participant observation was important for this study because since the researcher worked at USJ she was able to attend meetings working sessions and faculty trainings in where main elements of IaH were discussed, but since it is an unknown concept in the Spanish context, nobody registered it as such. It was after the focus groups and personal

interviews were developed that the researcher observed that faculty in meetings and working sessions used internationalization more and for different aspects than before. Another important source of evidence in case study research is document analysis.

Document analysis.

Extensive documentation was collected and reviewed for this study. As many researchers point out, shortcomings are found in document analysis (Creswell, 2008; Merriam, 2009; Yin, 2009). The materials collected might not show enough detail, or may not follow any precise system. Notes and reports on events are not usually well kept. The objectivity, accuracy and the biases' of the writer might also be an issue. This is why other sources of data were also used mainly because the researcher's caution may also reflect some of the limitations inherent in this data source. There is no IaH model. Therefore, for document analysis the researcher used Horn, Hendel and Fry (2007) model revised and adapted to the Spanish and USJ contexts as a descriptive framework. The use of this adapted model focused the search and use of document analysis. There were extensive documents but following a framework helped the researcher to know exactly what type of documents were relevant for the study. "Several limitations stem from the basic differences between this source and data gleaned from interviews and observations" (Merriam, 2009, p. 153). The researcher also conducted focus groups interviews as another source of collecting data.

Focus groups.

Focus groups are a qualitative research method used for collecting qualitative data, which are generated through group discussions (Krueger & Casey, 2009). This is why "they use guided group discussions to generate a rich understanding of participants'

experiences and beliefs” (Morgan, 1998, p. 11). Focus groups draw on three main strengths: 1) exploration and discovery: because focus groups are usually used to learn about topics that are usually poorly understood, 2) context and depth: helping to understand the background of participants’ experiences and thoughts about certain topics, and 3) interpretation: since participants want to understand each other, sharing thoughts and ideas give understanding of why certain things are the way they are.

Focus groups are group interviews guided by a moderator. It is a method that promotes communication within the group participants and the researcher. Focus groups are in the middle of a communication process that has three steps: 1) the researcher decides what he/she needs to hear from the participants; 2) the focus group method promotes a conversation among the participants about the topics selected by the researcher; 3) the researcher at the end of the focus group, summarizes what he/she has learned from the participants (Morgan, 1998). When using focus groups the researcher decides what set of group dynamics best fits the research project. The moderator can follow a strict interview protocol or the discussion can be less structured with open-ended questions.

It is important to remember that communication has to be fluid and that focus groups work best if the interests of the researcher are the same as the interests of the participants. If a focus group is well planned before, the questions asked by the moderator will produce lively discussions that will address the topics.

There are many misunderstandings about what is and what isn’t a focus group. A focus group is not just a group where people talk about an issue (Krueger & Casey, 2009; Kvale, 2007). According to Morgan the main objective of a focus group must be

to gather research data using a focused group discussion with a moderator. Using focus groups helps the researcher to explore and discover as well as to understand things and/or topics and their processes. The environment during the focus group must be comfortable and non-threatening; the moderator must help the participants to feel welcome and appreciated. Participants of focus groups are those who have something in common, “focus groups use homogeneous purposeful sample composed of information-rich participants. This homogeneity fosters a sense of commonality that results in greater sharing of insights” (Krueger & Casey, 2009, p. 3).

Krueger (1998) explains that there are two kinds of questioning strategies, the “topic guide” and the “questioning route”. Each approach is different and has its advantages and disadvantages. For this case study the questioning route was considered more appropriate. According to Krueger and Casey (2009) the typical size of a focus group is between five and eight participants with a maximum of 12; although Bergua (2011) recommends a size between four and 11 participants.

As Krueger (1994) affirms that the use of open-ended questions in interviews allows the participants to comment without any boundaries or limits about certain topics as opposed to the structured interview. This kind of interview helped the researcher note the rich informants, and asked them afterwards for an in-depth personal interview. For this study another method for collecting data was personal interviews. The major difference between focus groups and personal interviews is that in a focus group data are gathered concerning participants’ shared experiences and thoughts. However, the use of focus groups does not provide the researcher with enough data from each participant. The amount of information that a personal interview provides is far more than the data

obtained in a focus group. This is why for this study the focus groups were used to generate discussion about internationalization at USJ and also to detect informant-rich participants within those focus groups. Those informants, after participating in the focus group, were then asked to participate in an in-depth personal interview.

Personal interview.

The interviews will be guided conversations rather than structured queries. In other words, although you will be pursuing a consistent line of inquiry, your actual stream of questions in a case study interview is likely to be fluid rather than rigid. (Yin, 2009, p. 106)

Interviews are one of the most important sources of evidence in case study methodology since most case studies focus on “human affairs or behavioral events” (Yin, 2009, p. 108). Rich informants and/or well informed interviewees provided a unique insight and information of the case under study. According to Kvale (2007),

if you want to know how people understand their world and their lives, why not talk with them? Conversation is a basic mode of human interaction (...) Through conversations we get to know other people, get to learn about their experiences, feelings and hopes and the world they live in. (p. 1)

In the research interview, knowledge is constructed with the interaction of interviewer and interviewee. Qualitative interview research has been used in social sciences for a long time. However, literature on interview research is a more recent phenomenon. The interview in research is a powerful method, used in order to produce knowledge and to get an insight and understanding of a human situation.

The case study researcher has two main jobs during the research: 1) following the research own main line of inquiry and 2) asking actual questions in a conversational and unbiased way. The latter has to serve the main line of inquiry questions. Yin (2009) calls them “Level 1” and “Level 2” questions. The researcher should be very careful in asking “why” questions to the interviewee, because it creates defensiveness on the participant’s part. Although posing a “how” question is preferred in an interview with open-ended questions.

According to Yin (2009) there are three types of case study interviews: an in-depth interview a focused interview, and a third interview with more structured questions similar to a formal survey. The in-depth interview focuses on key informants about their opinions. This type of interview usually takes place for a long period of time and they usually meet more than once. In an in-depth interview the interviewee is considered as a “key informant” rather than a participant.

On the other hand, in a focused interview rich informants are interviewed for about an hour. The questions are open-ended and in a conversational manner. The researcher follows a set of questions that are constructed according to the case study protocol and the case under study. According to Krueger (2009), the semi-structured interview brings nice balance and fluidity to the process. This type of interview should have an interview guide. The most commonly used strategy for sequencing the interview is the funnel or focused interview, which begins broad with more general questions at the beginning and later on they become narrower and more focused. The number of questions depends on the time with 10-14 questions in two hours or 6-8 in one hour. The questions are focused and as part of the strategy sometimes they seem

spontaneous in order to create a conversational group discussion and environment (Krueger & Casey, 2009). The focused interview differs from other types of research interviews. First, the persons interviewed are selected because they know or are part of a particular situation. Second, these characteristics have previously been analyzed by the researcher and he/she has developed an interview guide,

setting forth the major areas of inquiry and the hypotheses which provide criteria of relevance for the data to be obtained in the interview. (...) the interview is focused on the subjective experiences of persons exposed to the pre-analyzed situation in an effort to ascertain their definitions of the situation. (Merton, Fiske & Kendall, 1990, p. 3)

Focus groups and personal interview methods require purposeful selected participants since they all should be able to participate and give an opinion about a topic or a product. In this case, all of the participants in each focus group shared the same level of positions at San Jorge University and certain characteristics. According to Stake (1995) much of what the researcher cannot observe is observed and interpreted by others,

two principle uses of case studies are to obtain the descriptions and interpretations of others. The case will not be seen the same by everyone.

Qualitative researchers take pride in discovering and portraying the multiple views of the case. The interview is the main road to multiple realities. (p. 64)

As Creswell affirms (2008), the intention of qualitative inquiry “is not to generalize to a population, but to develop an in-depth exploration of a central phenomenon” (p. 213).

This is why, for a better understanding of a case or phenomenon under study, it is

appropriate to intentionally or purposefully select the individuals and sites. Personal interviews were important in this study because they helped the researcher to get an in-depth and detailed picture of what key participants thought internationalization at USJ was and how it was being developed.

Sampling

In this case the bounded system, or unit under study, was USJ in Zaragoza, Spain. USJ is a very important and unique case. Created in 2005, it is the only private higher education institution in the autonomous community of Aragon. According to the ANECA, USJ has accomplished 100% of the Bologna reform implementation and it was one of the first in doing so in Spain. As Stake states (1995)

we study a case when it itself is of very special interest. We look for the detail of interaction with its contexts. Case study is the study of the particularity and complexity of a single case, coming to understand its activity within important circumstances. (p. xi)

The researcher was currently working at USJ when the research was developed, and as Bengt Nilsson (2003) once affirmed, not many people have had the opportunity to be part of the beginning of a new university. This professional relationship gave the researcher access and helped develop the study and the research process. It also made the participants to feel at ease and comfortable during the personal interviews and focus groups. If the interviewer/moderator had been an outsider, the trust and openness as well as the environment would have been different.

The sampling method used in naturalistic and inductive research is purposeful sampling based on information rich cases or informants that provide insights and

understanding of the case or problem under study. A total of 42 participants were part of focus groups and/or personal interviews. Twenty-four participants were asked to be part of focus groups. Each focus group interview included four to nine participants for a total of four focus groups. From these four focus groups, five participants were asked for a personal interview. The participants in the focus groups were selected according to areas of expertise and positions held (see table 2 below). However, there were rich informants, key stakeholders and practitioners, who were asked directly for a personal interview (see Appendixes G and H for interview protocols). In this case the sampling was homogeneous.

Data Collection

For this case study the researcher collected data using four main data collection methods: participant observation, document analysis, focus groups and in-depth personal interviews. The next sections highlight each of the four data sources utilized for this study.

Participant observation.

Participant observation was one of the first sources of evidence used by the researcher, since she worked in the institution under study. The researcher started her participant observation as soon as she the IRB approval was notified. Thus, the data was collected at the same time. The researcher attended meetings, general assemblies, taking notes of the different uses of the word internationalization and who mentioned it in those meetings and working sessions. A field work diary was used throughout the six months the researcher was collecting data in order to record reflections about the context, and key ideas.

Document analysis.

Since there is no IaH established model, the documents reviewed for this study followed the Horn, Hendel and Fry (2007) model revised and adapted it to the Spanish and USJ contexts which helped to organize the large amount of information available. Document analysis was done through access to public and official documents, from the web page and from different department archives. Some information was not available and the researcher had to ask personally in each department, this was where being an “insider” helped the researcher to collect information which could have taken longer to obtain due to plenty institutional bureaucratic approvals. The researcher had access to the intranet, a web page for San Jorge University students and employees, where all official documents were located. If the information was not available there, the researcher had access to the Department of Research, the Quality Assurance Department, the International Relations Office, Office of the Registrar, the Institute of Modern Languages, the Institute of Humanism and Society and Human Resources in order to obtain the information needed. She was also an elected member of the university senate and had access to the most current and updated public information, like annual reports and strategic plan.

Document analysis for this study draws from the Horn, Hendel and Fry internationalization model (2007), adapted to the Spanish and USJ contexts. Following Mestenhauser’s (2002) systems perspective to analyze the main learning domain of internationalization “and the ‘perspectives’ through which the domains can be

examined” (Horn, Hendel & Fry, 2007, p. 333), Horn, Hendel and Fry developed an instrument with different indicators in order to rank the internationalization of 77 US research universities. The instrument contains 19 indicators of internationalization focusing on student characteristics, scholar characteristics, research orientation, curricular content and organizational support. These indicators were used to analyze the documents at San Jorge University. The researcher previously reviewed all the indicators to assess their applicability to the Spanish context. Afterwards these indicators adapted to the Spanish context were reviewed and added indicators for USJ context. Some indicators were evaluated as non-pertinent to the Spanish higher education context, mainly because they did not exist in Spain, and their existence was therefore not applicable in the process of document analysis. Some other indicators were specific according to the European, Spanish and institutional context, such as the number of students participating in the Erasmus exchange program. The categories were not included in this review, taking into account that if one indicator was applicable, the category was then also applicable. After completing this review, it was found that six of the 20 indicators (including one that Horn, Hendel and Fry, 2007, rejected in their revision) did not exist in Spain. These indicators were the following: (a) number of Marshall scholars, (b) number of Rhodes scholars, (c) number of Peace Corps volunteers, (d) number of Title VI centers, (e) Fund for the improvement of Post-Secondary Education grants and (f) number of Ford international project grants. A further revision of the excluded indicators showed that at least two indicators could be substituted by its equivalent in the Spanish higher education context, as well as three more indicators were added in order to be more specific and to try to reach all the

contextual differences. For more information about the criteria and details on the applicability or non-applicability of the indicators, see Appendix B.

Focus groups.

The use of focus group interviews helped the researcher to reach out to all levels of USJ. This could have been done using a survey method. However, it was discarded because of the organizational culture (plenty of electronic surveys were constantly filled in) and being still a manageable sized university, as well as the sociable aspect of the Spanish culture, focus group interviewing was decided to fit best for this study. A semi-structured interview with open-ended questions was used in this study.

For this case study, participants in the focus groups were purposefully selected according to holding same positions and sharing working characteristics (please see table below). The discussions were vivid and sometimes the researcher/moderator had to repeat the question, redirecting the topic and the discussion. This flexibility brought up interesting topics related to structure, qualifications, and many others, which were not in the mind of the researcher when the focus group was planned. The researcher was the moderator in the four focus groups. All focus groups were recorded and transcribed. The researcher had also a secretary who took notes and attended the participants serving coffee and muffins. They all took place at USJ and the duration was approximately one hour and half or two hours.

The questions used in the focus groups and personal interviews were carefully planned and constructed to maximize the collected data in answering the research questions and trying to avoid confusing participants (Merriam, 2009). The researcher employed three types of questions: main, probing and follow up. The interview

questions started from general to more specific. The main questions gave information about the main research questions. Then the probing questions helped to get additional information and finally the follow up questions were asked in order to find more layers and insights to the main issue under study (Merriam, 2009).

The main criteria for selecting the participants of three focus groups were to hold the same category and position at the institution. The criteria for selecting the participants in the fourth focus group, (faculty) the criteria was the sum of certain characteristics that made them bring a broader perspective into the discussion (Bergua, 2011) such as: participant of Content Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) project, being in charge of an international program, teaching a class with an international content (i.e. the course has the words international, global, or universal in its name), teaching in English, or having a strong international research background. This selection process did not include those faculty who hold a position as directors, or who were selected for a personal interview directly because they were considered rich informants. Therefore, those selected as such were interviewed personally.

The final analysis of all of these characteristics among USJ faculty, discovered that three professors from the School of Communication, three from the College of Health Sciences and three from the School of Architecture had at least three of the characteristics required to participate in the focus group. The School of Engineering had two that due to their managerial positions were already included in other focus groups.

It is also important to take into account that there were three additional participants who were considered to be rich informants. The vice dean of the Translation and Intercultural Communication degree was asked for an in-depth personal

interview directly due to the nature of that degree program (i.e. it has a compulsory semester abroad as a requirement for graduation, and the number of “international” and “intercultural” mainstream courses) as well as her strong intercultural research background. Two additional faculty members were also asked directly for an in-depth personal interview due to their active role in their classes and in their work on campus to promote internationalization elements.

Table 2

Structure of Focus Groups

| 1. Deans & Directors of Schools | 2. Vice-Deans | 3. Faculty | 4. Administration Staff |
|--|--|---|--|
| Criteria of selection: Same category; position held | Criteria of selection: Same category; position held | Criteria of selection: Same category, same level of expertise and accumulation of certain characteristics | Criteria of selection: Same category in different administration departments |
| Total number of participants: 4 | Total number of participants: 7 | Total number of participants: 6 | Total number of participants: 7 |
| 2 Deans of Colleges 2 School Directors 2 rich informants from this focus group will be selected for an in-depth personal interview | 1 rich informant from this focus group will be selected for an in-depth personal interview | 1 rich informant from this focus group will be selected for an in-depth personal interview | 1 rich informant from this focus group will be selected for an in-depth personal interview |

From these focus group interviews rich informants were selected and asked for an in-depth, semi-structured interview with open-ended questions (see Appendix H for interview protocols).

Personal interviews.

Apart from the focus groups, in-depth personal interviews with key informants also took place. A total of 23 people were asked to participate in in-depth personal interviews, 18 were asked directly for a personal interview and five were asked after participating in a focus group.

Table 3

Structure of Personal Interviews

| Board of Directors/Management | Deans &/or Directors | Vice-Deans | Faculty | Students |
|--|--|--|---|---|
| The University President | The Director of the IML | The Vice-Dean of Translation and Intercultural Com. Degree | 2 professors from the IML | 3 senior students, studied under the Bologna Plan |
| Head of Academic Affairs | The 2 Directors of the IHS | The Research & Internationalization Coordinator School of Architecture | 2 professors from the IHS | |
| The Director of Human Resources Department | The Director of the Quality Assurance Department | | 2 professors from the School of Communication | |

As Table 3 illustrates there are more faculty and directors from the IML and the IHS than from other schools. The IML developed the international language policy. These languages are taught by professors from the IML. They developed the CLIL project across the university as well as cooperating with the Office of International

Relations to develop co-curricular activities and courses for international students. They have been implementing important internationalization projects. Therefore, their ideas and conceptualization of the process was important for the study.

The faculty from the IHS taught the mainstream courses of Ethics and Civic Humanism, as well as a minor in Cultural Patterns and Contemporary Society. They have organized five summer courses focusing on cultural patterns and multiculturalism among some other “international topics”. They were also in charge of the cooperation with NGOs as well as international development agreements (see Appendix H for interview protocol). These faculty have been developing and implementing key elements of IaH, as an internationalized curriculum and co-curricular activities. Therefore, their conceptualization of internationalization at USJ was key in the study.

A total of 12.9 % of the faculty and staff participated in the study, either in a focus group interview or in a personal interview or both. Figure 5 elucidates that almost all departments and/or units have participated in the study. It illustrates the percentage of participants according to their departmental unit, one representative from most of the units participated in the study. The board of directors, which is being included by USJ standards in administration staff/personnel, is referred to here as management (rector’s team, at USJ), of which 50 % participated in the study. The School of Communication Sciences has the highest participation percentage, mainly due to be the 1st school established at USJ, so it has all degree programs established and more faculty assigned.

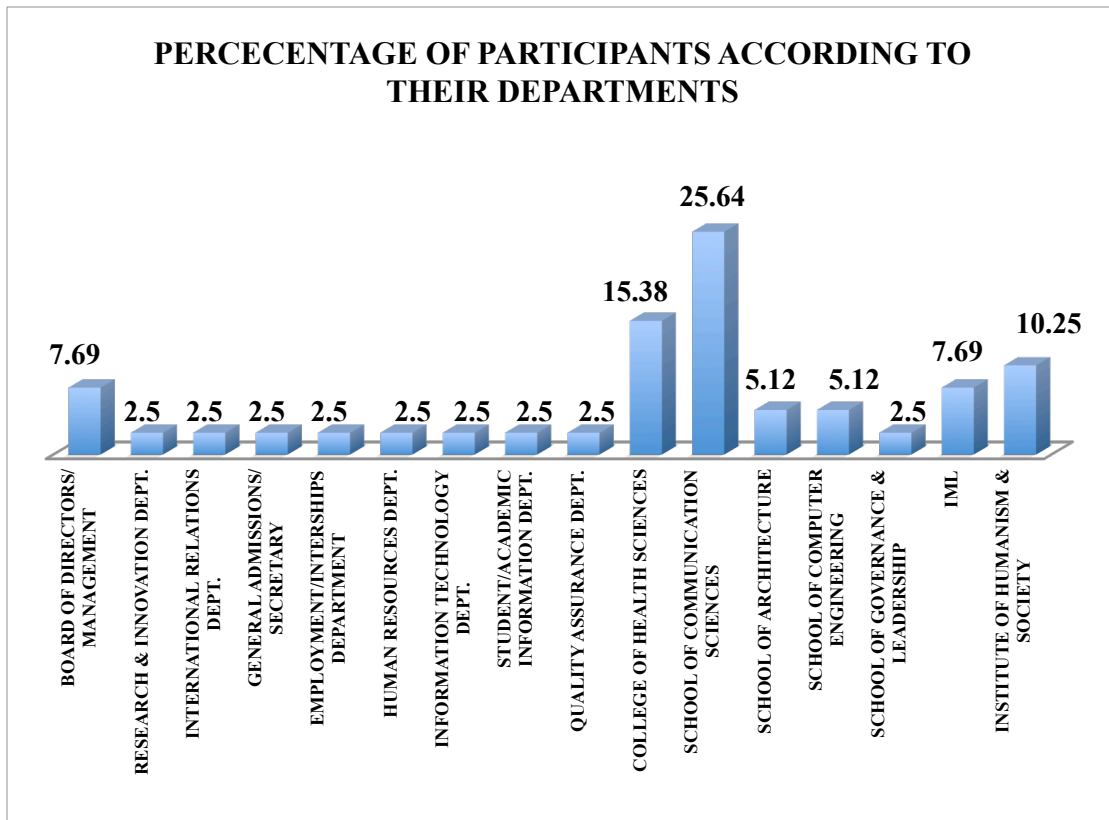


Figure 5. Study participants and their departmental unit. $N = 39$.

The sample in qualitative studies is normally much smaller than in quantitative studies. Krueger and Casey (2009) recommend not using any statistical formula for deciding the size of the sample, “instead, use the concepts called ‘redundancy’ or ‘theoretical saturation’”. With redundancy or theoretical saturation the researcher continues interviewing until no new insights are presented. In effect, the researcher has exhausted the range of views on the topic” (p. 6). Reaching theoretical saturation is mainly when more interviews do not bring new views on the topic under study. Lincoln and Guba (1985) define saturation as when the size of the sampling “is determined by

informational considerations. If the purpose is to maximize information, the sampling is terminated when no new information is forthcoming from the new sample units” (p. 202). Glaser and Strauss (1967) define theoretical saturation when the researcher samples until he/she has “reduced variation and uncovered the range of experiences” (p. 62). In other words, sample until the researcher has discovered what there is to discover, the actual number is not important. Once the data are collected it is recommended to follow an analytical strategy. However, in case study methodology this aspect is not as well developed as in other qualitative methodologies. In this study the researcher realized that the last interviews were reiterative and that she was collecting the same information as in the previous interviews. Since data were collected simultaneously the researcher finished all the personal interviews planned in the case study protocol.

Approach to Data Analysis

As Basit (2003) explains “the object of analyzing qualitative data is to determine the categories, relationships and assumptions that inform the respondent’s view of the world in general, and of the topic in particular” (p.143). It is a demanding and complex activity in which researchers spend much time and energy. Analyzing qualitative data requires the researcher to understand a text in order to answer their main research questions (Creswell, 2008). According to Merriam (2009) qualitative data analysis should be inductive and comparative, going back and forth with all the data gathered and trying to make sense of all of it.

Analyzing qualitative data is done simultaneously with the process of collecting data. Once the data are transcribed then the researcher should prepare for data analysis. Wolcott (1994) explains that sometimes a major problem with qualitative analysis is not

about collecting enough data but what to do with a huge amount of data. The main goal of collecting data is “to make sense of what goes on, to reach out for understanding or explanation beyond the limits of what can be explained with the degree of certainty usually associated with analysis” (Wolcott, 1994, p. 11). Wolcott (1994) differentiates between analysis and interpretation, pointing out that interpretation is the beginning and the culmination of any qualitative inquiry. The first step is to analyze the data collected and the final step is to interpret the data, so it makes sense for the reader. The terms tend to be combined as descriptive analysis and interpretative data, which include the main three categories in qualitative research: description, analysis and interpretation. “Data analysis consists of examining, categorizing, tabulating, testing, or otherwise recombining evidence to draw empirically based conclusions” (Yin, 2009, p. 126).

For this study data collection and analysis were completed simultaneously. This gave the researcher insights about certain sub-questions or clarifications that needed to be asked during the following interviews (Merriam, 2009). The coding using *NVIVO* started after the second personal interview was done. The researcher decided to use *NVIVO* since it “helps analyze, manage, shape, and analyze qualitative data” (Creswell, 2007, p. 167). The use of this software helped with the use of two languages (Spanish and English), and the researcher was able to manipulate the data and conduct different searches. This way the coding was deductive and inductive, since some nodes were created before an in-depth analysis of the transcribed interviews, and inductive since some codes were created while transcribing the interviews directly in the software. The constant comparative method of data analysis helped the researcher to manage the huge amount of data that was being collected and to create the larger themes. The researcher

was open to new codes that were emerging during the analysis. According to Creswell (2007), the use of 'prefigured' codes are normally used more frequently in health sciences. However, following an inductive and deductive coding process helped the researcher to limit the analysis and build up from there. The researcher had certain codes in mind before transcribing and coding the data. Those main codes were deductively constructed from the literature review, such as main rationales for internationalization and IaH main elements among others. The researcher started making sense of the data, making decisions on how to narrow and focus the study, developing analytic questions, and incorporating themes on participants (Merriam, 2009).

Even though, the qualitative remained central to the entire case study a certain amount of quantitative data was collected, and used mainly to describe and compare with other Spanish higher education institutions. Since this was a descriptive explanatory case study, the mix of these two general strategies suited the analysis well and helped the researcher organize the data accordingly.

The analysis of case study data is specifically difficult; this is why several researchers and experts in case study methodology recommend having an analytic strategy and an analytic technique (Stake, 1995; Yin, 2009). The analytic strategy recommended by Yin is the guide for drafting the story that is the case study. The strategy will help the researcher to look at the evidence fairly, producing compelling analytic conclusions and disregard other conclusions. The analytic strategies used for this case study were according to Yin, a mix of two general strategies relying on theoretical propositions and using both quantitative and qualitative data. The first one is

one of the most preferred strategies, following the theoretical propositions or research questions that first led the researcher to the case study (Yin, 2009).

The explanation building technique.

The explanation building technique is part of pattern matching. According to Yin the main goal of this analytic technique is “to analyze the case study data by building an explanation about the case” (p. 141). This type of technique is relevant to explanatory case studies like this one. The main “elements of explanations” (Yin, 2009, p. 141) are composed by a set of casual links that explain a process or phenomenon, “how” or “why” something happened or took place. However, these casual links might be difficult to measure in a precise way.

The explanation is most likely to be a result of a number of different iterations or revisions of the explanatory statement or proposition (Yin, 2009). “The gradual building of an explanation is similar to the process of refining a set of ideas, in which an important aspect is again to entertain other plausible or rival explanations” (Yin, 2009, p.144). Either way, the main goal of the technique is to show how “rival explanations cannot be supported, given the actual set of case study events” (p. 144).

There are potential problems when using this analytical technique, particularly the fact that as the iterative process progresses, it is fairly easy for the researcher to be distracted from the original topic of interest. The technique also demands a high level of analytic insight, which may not help the researcher to keep on track from the original topic. There are ways of minimizing these potential problems; one method is to keep referring constantly to the original purpose of the study and a second is to use a case study protocol, indicating what data were to be collected and also establishing a case

study data base, which can be available for inspection by a third party. Another challenge when using this analytic technique is that there is not enough documentation about it, leaving the researcher with no references that would guide the technique.

Data Analysis Procedures

For this study the data were organized in computer folders: interviews, focus groups and documents. A copy of all data was kept as a backup. Document analysis was organized following the descriptive framework used in this study, Horn, Hendel and Fry (2007) model modified for the Spanish and USJ contexts. Participant observation documents were kept in computer folders and later on coded using *NVIVO*. Focus groups and interviews were recorded and transcribed immediately after they took place. The transcriptions were kept in separate computer folders.

For coding, the *NVIVO* software program was used. Each focus group and interview was coded as it was transcribed directly in *NVIVO*. As it was mentioned above some codes were set before analysing the data, deductively, such as meaning of internationalization and main elements of internationalization. Thus, additional categories were added during the process of coding some codes were added inductively while the researcher analysed the data. Restructuring the first coding and reviewing the list of codes helped to group similar codes and look for those that were redundant. This helped to reduce the codes to a more manageable number. The process continued looking again for new or redundant codes.

The researcher determined the categories to be coded that include:

1. Meaning/perspectives of internationalization
2. Context for internationalization

3. Main elements of internationalization: Internationalized curriculum, English as a language of instruction and learning, teaching and learning intercultural issues, an international classroom, the use of ICT, co-curricular activities on campus, governance and facilities, policy and mobility programs
4. Barriers and drivers of internationalization
5. Institutional characteristics

The researcher analyzed each data source separately, and then look for themes that were common as the researcher worked to build explanations. After following this process and when the list was reduced to five or seven themes or categories that the participants talked the most about during the interviews then those themes were the ones developed in a narrative way.

Summary

In this chapter a review of the qualitative descriptive explanatory case study methodology used in the study is explained, as well as the mixed methods used and the data gathering and analysis procedures. The data were collected using: document analysis, in-depth semi-structured interviews, focus groups interviews and participant observation. Methods of analysis, justification and revision of the descriptive model used for document analysis is presented in this chapter. A description and rationale of the selection of participants in the study and also who participated in focus groups and who in in-depth personal interviews is also described and explained. Finally, the explanation building technique was used to analyze the data, as well as the use of *NVIVO* for coding the interviews and documents. The following chapter will present the

description and analysis of the data and develop the common themes found in the analysis.

Chapter IV

Results and Findings

Overview

The purpose of this study is to identify the factors influencing campus internationalization of a Spanish private university. This chapter is organized in terms of two specific research questions posed in chapter I, and the common themes found in the study. Under the first research question, the main elements of internationalization being implemented at USJ are presented in a descriptive way following the Horn, Hendel and Fry (2007) model modified for the Spanish and USJ contexts (Appendix C). Second, the institutional and individual factors that influence internationalization at USJ are analyzed. The first research question is: In what ways is internationalization of the campus being implemented at San Jorge University? To answer this question the researcher follows the categories proposed by Horn, Hendel and Fry (2007) model modified for the Spanish and USJ contexts, these categories (Appendix C) are the following:

1. Student categories
2. Faculty and scholar characteristics
3. Research and grants
4. Curricular content
5. Organizational support

Research Question One: In What Ways is Internationalization of the Campus Being Implemented at San Jorge University?

USJ is a young university and therefore many internationalization programs and projects are still being created. However, now that certain important internationalization elements are established, developed, and running, as the rector in a personal interview affirmed, “we are ready to rethink the internationalization process of San Jorge University”. This same idea is also shared by other participants in personal interviews, and in the administration staff focus groups.

USJ today has 1,618 students, 1,520 undergraduates and 98 graduate students. The university personnel has also increased over these years, currently there are 302 people working at USJ, 212 faculty, and 90 administration staff (L. Baños, personal communication, June 10, 2012).

Student characteristics.

The first category on the Horn, Hendel and Fry (2007) Model adapted to the Spanish and to the USJ context focuses on students’ characteristics and reflects percentages of international students on campus, number of students Fulbright Fellows, percentage of study abroad participants and, percentage of non-Spanish language graduates.

International students on campus.

The total number of international students at USJ is 146, which is 9% of the total student population. This percentage includes Erasmus participants who study one semester or a full academic year and international students who study at USJ for a full degree program (I. Lázaro, personal communication, June 1, 2012; R. Espinosa, personal communication, June 12, 2012).

There are 103 international students registered in different degree programs at USJ, excluding the ones under the Erasmus program; these 103 students make up 6.42 % of the total student population which is above average for Spanish universities (Table 4). The countries of origin of these students varies: Andorra, Belgium, Colombia, France, Greece, Guinea, Mexico, Morocco, Rumania, USA and Venezuela (R. Espinosa, personal communication, June 12, 2012).

Table 4

USJ International Students

| Total % USJ international students | % Erasmus and extra EU members international students | % international students studying in a formal/full degree program |
|---|--|--|
| 9% | 2.6% | 6.42% |

It is worthwhile mentioning the case of international students from France, since most of them are studying the degree in physiotherapy. Currently there are 92 French students at USJ (R. Espinosa, personal communication, June 12, 2012).

Number of student Fulbright fellows.

No records or information have been found on this indicator. The youth of USJ as well as the culture trait (Spain has no culture of keeping in contact with their university alumni. There is no “alma mater” connection), has made it impossible to know if any alumni had been granted a Fulbright Fellowship.

Study abroad participants.

Currently about 3.27 % of USJ students study abroad. The only study abroad program at USJ is the ERASMUS Program (I. Lázaro, personal communication, June 1,

2012). As the vice rector of Academic Affairs in a personal interview recalls, USJ has been promoting study abroad initiatives such as the existence of a compulsory study abroad semester in the degree program for translation and intercultural communication during the fall semester of a student's senior year ("Conoce Universidad San Jorge", 2012).

Non-Spanish language graduates.

The last indicator under the student characteristics category is the percentage of non-Spanish language graduates. In June 2012, the first cohort of non-Spanish language students graduated from the degree of translation and intercultural communication program. This represents 1.03% of the total number of the undergraduate students. It was not until June 2012 that the first cohorts under the Bologna reform graduated (A. Nevado, personal communication, May 5, 2012). This is why only five undergraduate degree programs have a cohort who finished the newly established degree programs in June of 2012 ("Universidad San Jorge", 2012).

Faculty and scholar characteristics.

The following category in the Horn, Hendel and Fry (2007) modified model is faculty and scholars characteristics. Under this category there are four indicators: number of faculty who have been Fulbright and Erasmus scholars, number of Fulbright and Erasmus scholars and faculty from other countries, number of scholars and faculty participating in the CLIL Program and, percentage of international faculty, instructors, and research associates on campus (see Appendix C).

Number of faculty who have been Fulbright and Erasmus scholars and faculty.

Under this indicator I also include the total number of faculty who have completed undergraduate and/or graduate degrees abroad, as well as faculty and scholars who have been awarded with a European fellowship, like the Marie Curie Fellowship. Since those international experiences available and very common in Europe help faculty to teach more internationalized courses.

One associate professor in the College of Health Sciences, was awarded with a Fulbright Fellowship, although it was granted because of her research and work at the University of Zaragoza.

Only 1.88% of USJ faculty have been granted with an international research fellowship. There is one faculty member who is currently in Norway under the prestigious European Marie Curie Fellowships. Another faculty member was awarded the José Castillejo Fellowship, one of the most prestigious Spanish fellowships awarded by the Spanish Ministry of Education. In addition, two faculty members received a research scholarship from Caja de Ahorros de la Inmaculada de Aragon (CAI), an Aragonese bank institution to do research at Cambridge University and at the University of Bradford, Great Britain (C. Gonzalo, personal communication, June 15, 2012).

During the 2011-12 academic year, 4.24% of USJ faculty participated in the ERASMUS exchange program. Table 6 illustrates the number of faculty who have participated in the ERASMUS program since its first implementation at USJ (I. Lazaro, personal communication, June 1, 2012). Currently at USJ there is 9.43% of faculty who

have studied abroad, either during their undergraduate or graduate programs (L. Baños, personal communication, May 30, 2012).

Table 5

USJ Faculty Participants in the ERASMUS Program

| Year | Number of Participants |
|------------|------------------------|
| 2007- 2008 | 5 |
| 2008- 2009 | 7 |
| 2009-2010 | 5 |
| 2010- 2011 | 4 |
| 2011- 2012 | 9 |

Number of Fulbright and Erasmus scholars and faculty from other countries.

So far there have been no Fulbright scholars at USJ. According to the 2010 report of the Fulbright Commission in Spain, one of the 95 US grantees in Spain was hosted in Zaragoza (“Informe anual 2011/Estadísticas de los programas/Comision Fulbright”, 2012). Since the establishment of the Visiting Erasmus Scholars in USJ in 2007, a total of 13 participants have visited San Jorge University (I. Lazaro, personal communication, June 1, 2012). The number of Erasmus scholars and faculty visiting USJ is summarized in Table 6.

Table 6

ERASMUS Faculty and Scholars from other Countries

| Year | Number of Participants |
|------------|------------------------|
| 2007- 2008 | 1 |
| 2008- 2009 | 4 |
| 2009-2010 | 5 |
| 2010- 2011 | 2 |
| 2011- 2012 | 1 |

Content Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) project participants.

There are 15% of USJ faculty who voluntarily participate in the CLIL project (F, Crean, personal communication, April 15, 2012). This project is linked with the institutional language policy and it consists in introducing a number of hours in English in core courses of degree programs gradually.

Percentage of international faculty/instructors on campus.

There are 21 international faculty members on the USJ campus. They represent 9.9% of USJ faculty. Their countries of origin vary: China, Cuba, Egypt, Great Britain, Ireland, Palestine, Peru, the United States, and Venezuela just to name a few (L. Baños, personal communication, June 12, 2012).

Research and grants.

The following category in the Horn, Hendel and Fry (2007) modified model is research and grants. Under this category there are three indicators: the existence of an institutional language policy; the number of FIPSE international educational grants and Atlantis Program grants; and the number of research groups focused on

international/intercultural research as well as number of campus centers focused on international research.

Existence of a university language policy.

The USJ language policy states that all undergraduate students should acquire a B2 English level according to the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) before graduation. To measure the B2 level (see Table 7), during their 4th year (i.e. senior year) students take a standardized test: the International English Language Testing System (IELTS) (“Política Lingüística”, 2012). The USJ language policy was established in 2010 and was promoted by the IML and the board of directors of the university. The policy’s main objective is to have a university community that is able to communicate and work in English (“Política Lingüística de la Universidad San Jorge 2010-2014”, 2012).

The USJ language policy is based on the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) promoted by the European Council. The main objective of the CEFR is to promote cooperation and collaboration among European universities using English as a Lingua Franca. It was created at the threshold of the Bologna process and the Lisbon convention (“Council of Europe”, 2012). It covers all areas of the university. The policy was developed and organized by the faculty of the IML. In 2008, faculty from the IML did a baseline study and measured the level of English of USJ faculty and of freshman students. The average English level of the students was between A2/B1, and the average English level of faculty was B2. Table 7 illustrates how the levels are organized according to the CEFR.

Table 7

Levels of English according to the CEFR, (Council of Europe, 2012)

| Division | Level | Explanation |
|-----------------------|-------|----------------------------|
| A Basic User | A1 | Beginner |
| A Basic User | A2 | Elementary |
| B Independent User | B1 | Intermediate |
| B Independent User | B2 | Upper Intermediate |
| C Proficient User | C1 | Proficiency or Advanced |
| C Proficient User | C2 | Proficiency User |

Table 7 is divided according to the common reference levels and each level is divided into six levels. The table illustrates a connection to the foreign language levels that used to be used.

FIPSE international educational grants/Atlantis Program grants.

FIPSE includes collaboration programs with the U.S. Department of Education’s Office of postsecondary education and foreign government agencies. The Atlantis program is a collaboration with the European Commission, to provide grants to US and European institutions collaborating in exchange, joint, and double degrees between the

two continents. In 2011, the European application process had been cancelled “due to severe cuts in the 2011 US budget meaning that the funds needed to match the EU contribution [were] not available” (“Call for proposals”, 2011, p. 3). Therefore this indicator is not applicable at the moment.

Number of research groups focused on international/intercultural and/or foreign languages research and the number of campus centers focused on international research.

There are three institutes at USJ that work across the university and that focus on international research: the Institute of Environmental Sustainability which is part of two European research projects; the IML is in charge of the research group called “Research on Teaching and Learning Languages”; the IHS is in charge of a research group that focuses on Immigration “Society and Interculturalism” (“USJ Investigación”, 2012).

The faculty assigned to the degree of translation and intercultural communication is in charge of a research group that focuses on intercultural communication topics: “Society, Culture and Communication” (“USJ Investigación”, 2012). It is interesting to highlight that this research group is currently developing a project where the development of intercultural sensitivity amongst its first cohort (June 2012) is being measured using the Intercultural Development Inventory instrument (IDI). Participants took a pre-test before they took Intercultural communication and intercultural mediation courses followed by another IDI test. The following semester, participants then studied abroad for a whole semester and when they got back they took a post IDI (Sierra Huedo, Nevado Llopis & Baquedano Morales, 2012).

There are also two more European research projects in which the School of Computer Engineering is an institutional partner. “Swim in the Digital World” was one of the first European research projects that the USJ held and it was organized by the vice dean of audiovisual communication which brought different European professors and students to the USJ campus (C. Gonzalo, personal communication, June 12, 2012).

In 2011, the USJ presented its candidacy for the Center for International Excellence (CEI) award in alliance with the following entities (“Comunica con Ciencia, Campus de las Ciencias de la Comunicación”, 2011):

1. Universities: Francisco de Vitoria and Avila Catholic;
2. Communication and media groups: Antena 3, TeleMadrid, Radiotelevisión from Castilla y León, and Radiotelevisión from Aragón;
3. Association and technological companies and groups: AMETIC, Walqa Technologic Park, Cluster TECNARA, EVERIS; and
4. Foundation Universidad-Empresa.

Currently, the CEI has been suspended as part of governmental measures to deal with the economic crisis. However, the efforts invested in all the above projects show the degree to which USJ research activities are focused on intercultural topics and areas as well as “the international arena” (Horn, Hendel, & Fry, 2007, p. 341).

Curricular content.

The following category in the Horn, Hendel and Fry (2007) modified model is curricular content. Under this category the following indicators are included: Number of mainstream courses taught in non-Spanish language, number of LCTLs, language credit

requirements for the bachelor's degree and international perspective and core courses requirements for the bachelor's degree.

Number of mainstream courses taught in non-Spanish language.

According to Horn, Hendel and Fry (2007) modified model, the curricular content category includes different indicators that are all related. The number of mainstream courses taught in non-Spanish language is related to the USJ language policy through the implementation of the CLIL project. The USJ language policy also includes the CLIL project, faculty training in CLIL methodologies and faculty and administration staff development English training.

Table 9 illustrates not only the number of main stream courses in each degree program offered at USJ that are taught in a non-Spanish language, but also the number of main stream courses and the number of ECTS offered in English as part of the CLIL project.

Table 8

Number of Mainstream Courses Taught in Non-Spanish Language, Language

Requirements for the Bachelor's Degree and Number of Courses in the CLIL Project

| Degree Programs | Language Courses | Mainstream Courses Taught in Non-Spanish Language | Mainstream Courses Implementing CLIL |
|----------------------------------|-------------------------------------|--|--|
| Journalism | 1 | 2 | 7 implementing 1 ECTS |
| Audiovisual Communication | 2 | - | 6 implementing 1 ECTS |
| Journalism & Audiovisual Com. | 1 | 2 | - |
| Translation & Intercultural Com. | 8 Chinese French & English | 26 | NA |
| Advertising & Public Relations | 2 | - | 1 course 2 ECTS 1 course 1.5 ECTS 4 courses 1 ECTS |
| Computer Engineering | 2 | 11 | - |
| Pharmacy | - | - | 7 implementing 1 ECTS |
| Nursing | 1 | - | 3 implementing 1.5 ECTS |
| Physiotherapy | 1 | - | 9 courses 1 ECTS 1 course 3 ECTS |
| Architecture | - | 1 | 1 course 3 ECTS |
| Business Administration | 2 | 3 | 2 implementing 1 ECTS |
| Computer Eng. (online format) | 2 | - | - |

Number of least commonly taught languages.

As Table 8 illustrates, the only least commonly taught language offered at USJ is Chinese, which is being taught in the translation and intercultural communication degree program (“Grado en Traducción y Comunicación Intercultural”, 2012).

Language credit requirements for the bachelor’s degree.

The average of language requirements for a bachelor’s degree at USJ ranges between one core course (6 ECTS credits) to two core courses (12 ECTS credits) (“Estudios, Grados”, 2012). The number of mainstream courses in English varies greatly from one degree program to another. However, as Table 8 illustrates there are still some degree programs that do not have English language courses as a requirement for the completion of a bachelor’s degree, such as the degree programs in pharmacy and architecture. The language policy at USJ has a plan of action with specific objectives and actions to be accomplished from 2010-2014. One of those objectives is to gradually introduce a number of ECTS credits each year in core courses of each degree program. The number of hours is measured by ECTS credits, which measures USJ students’ workload; one ECTS credit is equivalent to 25 working hours. Since the CLIL project is being implemented gradually, currently it only applies to first and second year courses. The maximum number of ECTS credits introduced is two and only in certain courses. Those professors who decide to participate get personalized training by the IML professors (trained in CLIL methodology). The CLIL project participants attend workshops where they work on specific tasks that they develop for their classes, working not only on introducing English language in their classes but in the

methodologies used as well. The vice rector and head of academic affairs and the director of human resources agreed to give an incentive for faculty who decided to participate in the project by reducing participants' teaching workload (F. Crean, personal communication, May 5, 2012).

International perspective and core courses requirements for the bachelor's degree.

Included under this indicator are the number of university courses that are taught in Spanish and have an international or intercultural nature. U.S. universities generally have Liberal Education requirements, but this does not happen in Spain. Therefore Spanish universities, which are mostly private, have a set of courses that are required for all students.

Table 9 illustrates a comparative analysis of the international perspective in the core courses of all bachelor's degree programs offered at USJ. There are also some degrees, mainly the ones offered in the College of Health Sciences that have not been 100% implemented (the 2012-13 academic year will be the first time that senior year courses are offered). This is why some of the syllabi were not available on the web, although the names of the courses were analyzed for the purpose of this study.

Percentages of the international perspective in the core courses were calculated independently for each degree program because each one is composed of a different number of courses and has a different nature; the field of study for each program is different. For example, the degree in nursing has many courses for clinic visits and internships that the degree in journalism does not have. English language courses were

Table 9

International Perspective and Core Courses Requirements for the Bachelor's Degree

| Degree Programs | Core Courses with an International Perspective | Percent of course with international perspective |
|---|--|--|
| Translation & Intercultural Communication | 31/36 | 86% |
| Computer Engineering (online format) | 31/37 | 83.8% |
| Computer Engineering | 31/37 | 81% |
| Audiovisual Communication | 27/34 | 79.4% |
| Journalism & Audiovisual communication | 30/45 | 66.66% |
| Nursing | 14/22 | 63.6% |
| Journalism | 20/34 | 58.8% |
| Pharmacy | 22/39 | 56.4% |
| Advertising & Public Relations | 17/35 | 48.57% |
| Business Administration | 14/34 | 41.1% |
| Physiotherapy | 11/28 | 39.2% |

taken into account as courses with an international perspective and as core courses, since there are some degree programs that do not have language courses.

For this analysis there are three courses that are common throughout all degree programs offered at USJ: ethics and deontology, civic humanism, and internship/practicum. The latter has not been taken into account since it is difficult to measure the degree of internationalization of such a compulsory course due to its nature. There is some information that needs to be highlighted about certain USJ degree programs.

Degree in translation and intercultural communication.

The degree in translation and intercultural communication shows the highest percentage of international perspective in core courses requirements. The degree program includes a compulsory semester abroad and for this analysis the courses that students take abroad have been included as core courses with an international perspective. The researcher took the corresponding number of ECTS credits applied to the whole semester abroad, and transformed them into a certain number of courses (i.e. 6 ECTS credits corresponds to a core course at USJ).

There are certain elements that deserve to be highlighted about this degree program that illustrate its internationalized nature:

1. Compulsory study abroad semester during fall semester of the senior year;
2. The minors offered, which under the Bologna reform are called itineraries. The minors are related to culture (e.g. Chinese) and language as well as intercultural studies; and
3. Core courses in the degree program such as: intercultural communication (delivered in English), and intercultural mediation (“Traducción y Comunicación Intercultural/Grados/Estudios”, 2012).

Degree in computer engineering.

The second degree program with a high international perspective is the degree in computer engineering. In the computer engineering program (both formats: online and traditional), 81% of its core course requirements have an international perspective. Although the names of the courses are very technical, it is true that most of the courses are delivered in the 3rd and 4th years, are taught in English, and the content that appears on the syllabi show an important amount of international and/or global topics (“Estudios/USJ”, 2012).

It is also important to highlight two interesting cases, one is the degree in pharmacy and the other the degree in physiotherapy.

Degree in pharmacy.

This degree program is based on pharmaceutical care, which has its origins at the University of Minnesota. The degree program has 18 ECTS credits dedicated to pharmaceutical care, which are not found at any other Spanish university. This area of expertise can be found in Great Britain, the United States and Australia, which makes the USJ degree in pharmacy an innovative and unique offering in Spain (M. Gómez Barrera, personal communication, April 10, 2012). It is also important to highlight the global vision of two of the courses under this degree program, which are parasitology and pharma-economy. These courses bring the perspective and the situation of non-industrialized countries in the classroom where they use the case study methodology as well as service learning and role –playing (“Estudios/Farmacia”, 2012).

Degree in physiotherapy.

The case of the degree in physiotherapy is interesting because even though according to the Horn, Hendel and Fry (2007) model it has the lowest percentage of core course with an international perspective, it has more international students in its classrooms than any degree program at USJ. There are 92 French students studying the degree of physiotherapy at USJ (R. Espinosa, personal communication, March 10, 2012). However, even with this overwhelming 'bi-cultural' diversity, the courses do not show enough international perspective.

As I mentioned above, there are two core interdisciplinary courses offered in all USJ degree programs which are ethics and deontology, and civic humanism.

Ethics and deontology and civic humanism.

These interdisciplinary courses are a very unique characteristic of USJ. They are core courses of all degree programs since one of USJ's main objectives as an institution is to have graduates who are good and ethical professionals. These two courses focus on philosophical and civic questions analyzed from a theoretical standpoint. These courses place ethical issues and topics related to global citizenship at the core of their programs and contents ("Instituto Humanismo y Sociedad", 2012).

Minor in cultural patterns and contemporary society.

Faculty who teach these courses are assigned to the IHS, which is one of the interdisciplinary institutes that work across the whole university. They teach courses such as universal history and Spanish history. The IHS offers undergraduate students a minor (or free-standing courses, non-program courses) in Cultural Patterns and Contemporary Society (e.g. human rights, international development, history of

religions, family patterns and society, intercultural communication and research methodology) (“Instituto Humanismo y Sociedad”, 2012).

The IHS has organized five summer courses dedicated to current cultural, historical, intercultural and educational issues in the Aragonese community some of those are the following (“Memoria Academica Universidad San Jorge”, 2010 & 2011):

1. 2012 “Cultural Patterns and Family Structures” (“Instituto Humanismo y Sociedad”, 2012),
2. 2011 “Education and Interculturalism in the Aragonese Society,”
3. 2010 “Women Portraits of the Aragonese Immigration,” and
4. 2009 “Integration and Transculturalism: Challenges of a Plural Society”

Organizational support.

The following category in the Horn, Hendel and Fry (2007) modified model is organizational support. Under this category the following indicators are found: presence of a senior administrator for international activities, number of books in the university library’s international collection, and visibility of international content on institution’s websites and faculty and administration staff development.

Presence of a senior administrator for international activities.

There is no senior administrator position for international activities at USJ at the moment. The department of International Relations currently lacks a director and has two administration staff fulfilling all the duties (“organigrama/USJ”, 2012).

Number of books in the university library’s international collection.

The library of San Jorge University holds a total of 6,646 books, volumes and publications of which 1,416 are in a non-Spanish language (21.3%). 17.34% of these

books and volumes are in English follow by publications and books in French, Catalan, and Chinese (V. Lopez, personal communication, May 15, 2012).

Visibility of international content on institution's websites.

USJ main web page is only in Spanish. In addition, all the information and descriptions of the degree programs have been translated into English and the degrees offered in the College of Health Sciences have also been translated into French (“Grados”, 2012). On the main webpage there is a part specifically for international students with all the important information that they need while studying at USJ (“Universidad San Jorge”, 2012). Formal partnership programs with international institutions and the number of agreements with both foreign universities and with international and local NGOs are also included under this indicator. Currently there are 88 agreements with international institutions (I. Lazaro, personal communication, May 10, 2012), and 19 MOUs with international and/or local NGOs (E. Uldemolins, personal communication, April 9, 2012).

Faculty and administration staff development.

This indicator was not in the Horn, Hendel and Fry (2007) model. It was added to the Horn, Hendel and Fry (2007) modified model adapted to the Spanish and USJ contexts, since it shows the organizational support to promote international tools for USJ's employees. Under this indicator the number of internationalization trainings offered by the institution for the employees such as English and ICT courses were included. Since 2009, the department of Human Resources at USJ has offered the opportunity to all employees to register and take English courses. In addition, courses to

improve the use of Moodle and English academic writing were also offered to academic staff (L. Baños, personal communication, March 10, 2012).

Research Question Two: What are the Factors Influencing Campus

Internationalization at USJ?

The data collected related to the first research question was written in a descriptive way following the Horn, Hendel and Fry (2007) modified model, while in the second research question, the common themes that emerged from the focus groups and personal interviews and then the factors that influenced internationalization at USJ are analyzed. These factors come from the interviews and focus groups. Since this study has been developed using Mestenhauser's system's perspective, there are many themes that emerge from the data collected. One of the difficulties when using this framework is its wideness and inclusion of many different variables, since it is a study of a whole institution. The common themes mentioned below are the ones that were more repetitive.

The second research question focuses on the factors influencing USJ's internationalization process. It has two sub-questions: the first sub-question is about the institutional factors and the second is about the individual factors. In the two sub-questions, the drivers and barriers of internationalization are analyzed according to data accessible through the web page and data that emerged from the personal interviews and focus groups. In order to analyze what the factors influencing USJ's internationalization are, first the common themes that emerged from the data collected from the focus groups and personal interviews are presented.

The common themes found included: campus diversity, mobility programs

(exchange/study abroad programs), internationalized curriculum, the role of other language, an internationalized curriculum, teaching and learning (international research), co-curricular activities, as well as ICT.

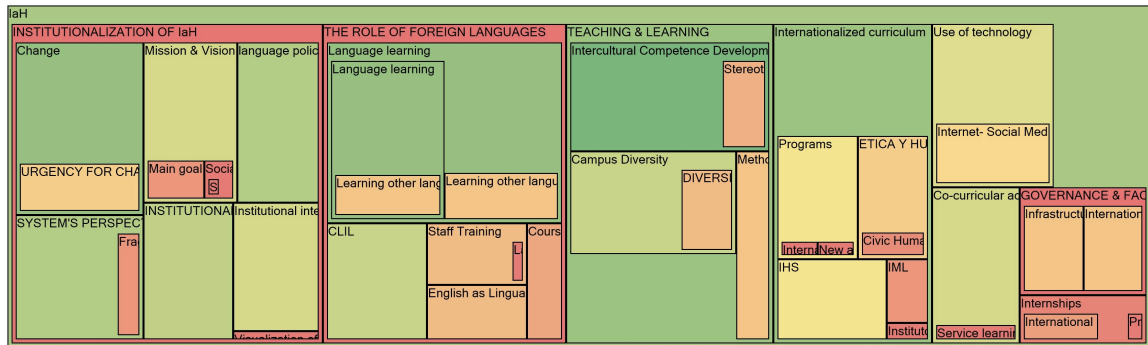


Figure 6. Clustered nodes compared by number of items coded according to NVIVO.

Campus diversity.

The first common theme that emerged from the data was campus diversity. The participants agreed that it was one of the most important internationalization elements.

As a faculty member holding a vice dean position stated:

In my masters for example I was with 40 students and it was my first experience with somebody who is not European and not Arabic, so there were people from Uganda, Tanzania (...); this is internationalization! Where in the same space you can find people from different backgrounds, different cultures, different ethnic origin, language, even body language come together in one space and being able to work in a professional way and experience in a very human way without prejudices. This is internationalization for me.

All participants in the study (i.e. faculty, management and administration staff) affirmed that the faculty is the group that is more internationalized and diverse than other groups in the USJ university community.

Table 10

Important Internationalization Elements for USJ Stakeholders

| Internationalization Elements Shared by Stakeholders | Management | Admin Staff | Faculty | Deans | Vice Deans | Students |
|--|------------|-------------|---------|-------|------------|----------|
| Campus diversity | X | X | X | X | X | X |
| Co-curricular & cultural activities | X | | X | X | X | |
| Courses taught in different languages | | | X | X | X | |
| Foreign language knowledge | X | X | X | X | X | X |
| Incentives promoting internationalizatn. | | | X | X | X | |
| Intercultural competence & culture | X | | X | X | X | X |
| Internationalized core courses | X | | X | X | X | X |
| International research | | X | X | X | X | |
| Internat. consciousness & philosophy | X | X | X | X | X | X |
| Institutional internationaltn. strategy | | X | X | X | X | |
| Internationalized degree programs | X | X | X | X | X | |
| Internationalized curriculum & syllabi | X | X | X | X | X | X |
| International students services | | X | X | X | X | X |
| Internationalized university community | X | X | X | X | X | X |
| Internationalized system: Information | | X | X | | X | |

(continued)

Table 10 (continued)

| Internationalization Elements Shared by Stakeholders | Management | Admin Staff | Faculty | Deans | Vice Deans | Students |
|--|------------|-------------|---------|-------|------------|----------|
| International students' integration | X | X | X | X | X | X |
| Internat. internships & employability | X | X | X | | X | |
| International marketing & website | X | X | X | X | X | |
| Language policy | X | | X | X | X | |
| Methodologies | X | | X | X | | |
| Mobility programs | X | X | X | X | X | X |
| Networking & collaboration | X | X | X | X | X | |
| Personal internationalization | X | X | X | X | X | X |
| Board directors' support: resources | | X | X | X | X | |
| Strong international relations office | | | X | X | | |
| Visual internationalization on campus | | | X | | X | |
| Scholarships & financial aid/support | | X | X | | X | X |
| Systems' perspective | X | | | X | | |

Table 10 illustrates a summary of all the most important internationalization elements that were shared by the various categories of participants who took part in both the focus groups and personal interviews of this study. Since many positions are shared, a dean or vice dean also teaches some courses, his or her opinion is included in the highest managerial position. Thus a dean or director of a school is included under dean. A dean and vice dean are also faculty so some of their opinions and/or views are about the courses they teach. For this table their views are included under a higher stakeholder position. The elements on the table have been unified under one name, since the

participants referred to them in many different ways. Some of the most important elements are:

1. Campus diversity and an internationalized campus,
2. International marketing,
3. Language competence as an important channel of communication, individual behavior towards internationalization,
4. Internationalized degree programs,
5. International research,
6. Student services and integration of international students,
7. Teaching (methodologies and an internationalized curriculum),
8. Visualization of internationalization on a campus,
9. Access to information to international programs and scholarships and/or funding and
10. Systems' perspective of internationalization as well as
11. Culture and intercultural competence development.

Table 11 is a summary of the current USJ internationalization elements, according to the stakeholders who participated in the focus groups and personal interviews. Although most of the participants agreed that there are certain important internationalization elements currently at San Jorge University, they all agreed that the institution is very young and that the internationalization process is incipient. Therefore the participants affirmed that there is still much to do in this matter. The rector and deans as well as some administrative staff think that now is the moment to move on and

Table 11

Existing Internationalization Elements at San Jorge University According to the Stakeholders

| Existing internationalization elements reported by Stakeholders | Management | Admin. Staff | Faculty | Deans | Vice Deans | Students |
|--|-------------------|---------------------|----------------|--------------|-------------------|-----------------|
| Campus diversity | X | X | X | X | X | X |
| Internationalized campus community | X | X | X | X | | X |
| Champions of internationalization | | | X | X | X | |
| CLIL | X | | X | X | | |
| Courses in other language than Spanish | | | X | X | X | X |
| Intercultural competence development | | | X | X | | X |
| Institutional structure | X | | X | X | X | |
| International research and cooperation | | X | X | | X | |
| Internationalized curriculum | | X | X | | | X |
| Internationalized degree programs | | X | X | X | X | |
| International internships | X | X | | | | |
| Language policy | X | X | X | X | | |
| Teaching -learning: Methodologies | X | | X | X | | X |
| Mobility programs | X | X | X | X | X | X |
| Personal willingness to internationalize | | X | X | X | X | X |

to improve the existing internationalization elements, and to strengthen the current internationalization strategy.

As Tables 10 and 11 illustrate, campus diversity is the first internationalization element that is shared by all stakeholders. The participants understand that a more diverse campus linked to visualization of international elements on campus help the process of internationalization and also is one of the key internationalization elements.

Almost 95% of the participants agree that hearing different languages on campus as well as the interaction between native Spanish speaking students with international students is a meaningful way of internationalizing a university. The case of the high percentage of French students in the degree of Physiotherapy was brought up by the rector, deans, vice deans, faculty and administration staff in different occasions as a good way to internationalize the campus and to bring diversity to it. This significant difference, especially in comparison with other degree programs on such a small campus, has promoted positive reactions towards that diversity. The institution would like to promote similar situations and interactions in other degree programs as the rector states. According to a participant from the administrative staff focus group, “I love walking around campus and listening to different languages”, which is shared by another participant also from the administration staff focus group, who also affirmed “I told some of my friends that there were so many French students and they would not believe that in USJ we had so many international students!”

Campus diversity is seen by the participants as a way of making national students develop group projects together with international students, which will help them once they graduate to work in a multicultural company or abroad. It is also seen as a way of

challenging national students and helping them to see different realities and considering participating in study abroad programs.

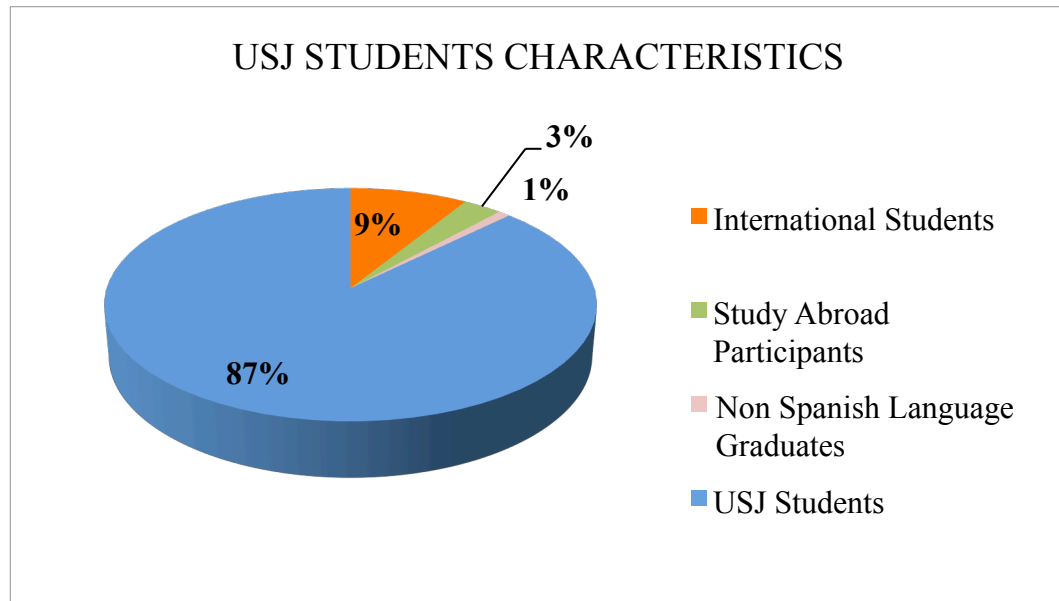


Figure 7. USJ students characteristics.

As Figure 7 illustrates, 87% of USJ students are not participating in study abroad activities and thus have no other means to “become” internationalized unless activities and programs are developed on campus.

According to all the participants in the study, more can be done in order to have a more diverse campus; they would like to see and feel more diversity. The participants show concern about visibility of internationalization symbols on campus. According to a vice dean of a degree program, more diversity among the university community with a greater presence of minorities is needed. More integration between international students and Spanish students is also seen as highly needed by faculty and administration staff.

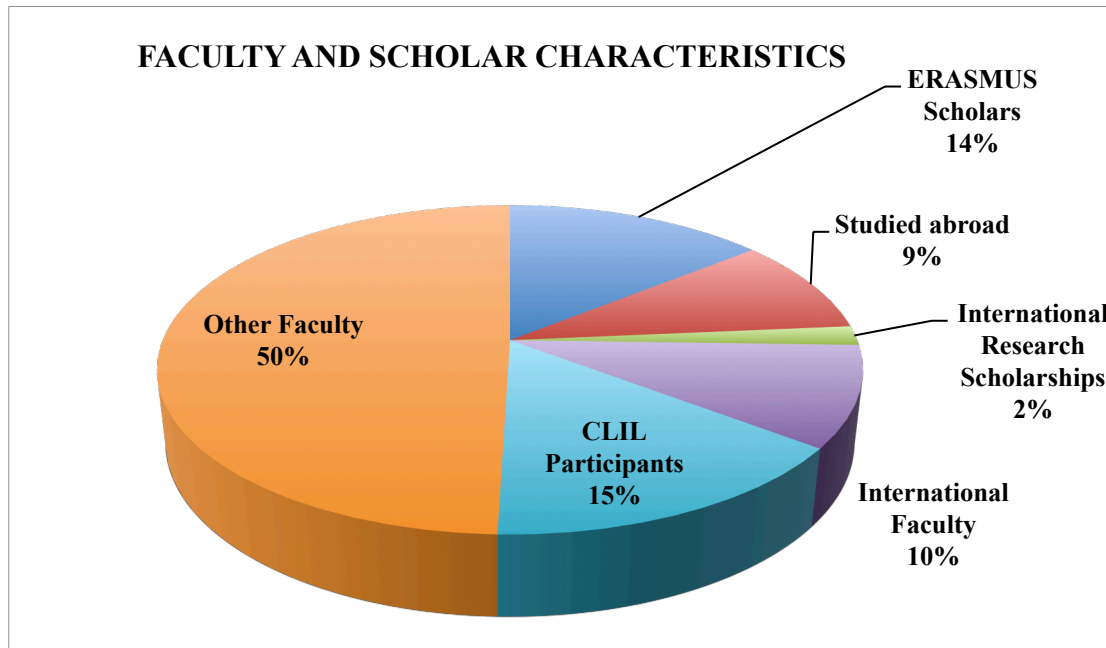


Figure 8. Faculty and scholar characteristics.

A comparison of Figure 7 and Figure 8 illustrates that USJ faculty are more internationalized than USJ students. At least 50% of USJ faculty have some international connection. They either are international, have an international background, or are CLIL participants. The students participating in the personal interviews affirm that one of the strengths of USJ is having international faculty or national faculty with an international background. They mention how nice it is to be able to compare cultures and to have easy access to talk about cultural differences and ways of doing things in other countries. One of the students, pointed out how the institution (human resources and board of directors) seem to be making a great effort to promote diversity among the faculty. A student stated, “for me a strength is to have people who are not from one country only, to have people from different countries, this way each one can bring their cultural part in order to create an intercultural university!”

Mobility programs (exchange programs).

Mobility programs represent a common theme that emerges from the data. The existence of mobility programs is seen as an important internationalization element present at USJ (see Tables 10 and 11). Faculty and deans affirmed that students today have more opportunities to study abroad than when they were university students. As one of the participants in the deans focus group asserted, “We did not have the opportunity that they have now with Erasmus. In our program that was not valid, in fact you had to look for your own opportunities given by other countries, so from there you could access those kind of scholarships”.

When talking about exchange programs, most of the participants referred to the ERASMUS Program since it is the only current international exchange program offered at USJ (I. Lazaro, personal communication, May 10, 2012). According to the rector, “it is undeniable that Erasmus has proved to be a great success and that it changed European exchange programs. In Spain it changed all the exchange programs. It is impossible to find something similar”. However, as some participants from the administrative staff, faculty, deans, and management focus groups and personal interviews state, it needs a revision. This revision is taking place at the moment through the new Erasmus program, which will be called “Erasmus for All” and will try to reach not only European countries but also countries in Africa and Asia among many other important changes.

Some of the participants in the faculty focus group also mentioned the idea that an Erasmus student decides his/her study abroad destination according to the location of the institution and not for the quality of the programs. Spain has an international

reputation for being a great country to party and have fun in. The participants in the deans and faculty focus groups see this as a reason why USJ does not attract many “incoming” Erasmus students because is not located by the sea like Granada and it is not in a big city like Barcelona, Madrid or Seville.

USJ mobility programs are focused on the ERASMUS program; the Agreement Letter to be a part of this program (this is a signatory agreement, in which the European Union approves the institution to be part of the ERASMUS program) was signed in 2007-08 and it was the beginning of the International Relations Department (M. Gómez & C. Callao, personal communication, March 4, 2011). The ERASMUS program is a well-established program and the whole university community is allowed to participate in it: faculty, students and administration staff. This is the fact that is most appreciated by the participants. However, as the rector and faculty in personal interviews mentioned, mobility programs should not be the only internationalization element of San Jorge University, it should help but it should encourage other internationalization initiatives and elements to be developed on campus.

Participants affirmed that even though the existence of mobility programs is an important internationalization element (Table 10), the internationalization of a higher education institution is not only based on mobility programs (i.e. exchange or study abroad programs). As participants in the administration staff focus group pointed out, at USJ, the ERASMUS program was extended not only for faculty and students, but also for administration staff. As the vice rector of academic affairs, in a personal interview stated when talking about the richness that mobility programs bring to the USJ campus:

International students, faculty and administration staff, are part of mobility programs that brings richness to a group of students that is formed by students from different countries, because they have to work together in projects, and planned learning activities. It brings another dimension to the specific learning that is the main objective of any activity. The interaction with students from different cultures and nationalities, with different ways of thinking and working is key in the learning process of our Spanish students and the international students can also learn from the Spanish students and the culture.

It is important to mention how participants saw the international students' integration into the campus and degree programs as key for both a successful stay and for the internationalization of the campus. Participants agreed that more student services in this area are highly needed, although there are some projects that have started recently like the "buddy program" that has its origins at the University of Minnesota (Mestenhauser, 2011). The week of languages and cultures is another activity which attempts to promote diversity on and outside campus. Ultimately, more student services are needed to integrate international and national students in the classroom and on campus, and to make sure that they work together and learn from each other (Allport, 1954; Pettigrew, 1998).

The role of other language study.

The following common theme that emerged from the personal interviews and focus groups is the role of other language study. Within this common theme, stakeholders also included teaching courses in English and the CLIL project, as well as USJ's language policy. According to Teekens (2003), the role of foreign languages,

which in Europe is mainly English, is also an important internationalization element for any internationalization at home process. The participants in the study affirm that it is a key element in any internationalization process and that it is currently present at USJ (see Tables 10 and 11). As a faculty member stated in a personal interview:

Well I think that in San Jorge we moved a little along the road of internationalization. But I say we still have a long way to go. As the university has grown individuals have come from different backgrounds and has lost a little bit its parochialism. It has become more diverse and more open to diversity. One of the factors is the use of English as well as the openness to other languages; English as an international language, scholar's and staff's attitudes towards that have become more opened I think than when I first came.

Number of mainstream courses taught in non-Spanish language.

Faculty who participated in the study in the focus group and personal interviews as well as some administration staff, saw the need to offer more courses in English in order to have more international students in the classroom. However, they agreed that it should be carefully analyzed and planned, and that the decision of which courses are taught in English should be made according to the nature of each degree program and to each course and the instructors who teach them. They affirmed that the most time consuming task is preparing activities in English, since it is not their mother tongue. They would like to see that part recognized somehow in their teaching workload. Even though the recognition in teaching workload of the use of English in their teaching is currently effective, they think that it is not enough. Overall, faculty and students are happy with the experience of teaching some ECTS credits in English, and some faculty

affirmed that the students even paid more attention to her when doing the activity in English than in Spanish, something that really happily surprised her.

Content Language Integrated Learning Project (CLIL).

All the participants agreed that English is the Lingua Franca and that it is a must have in order to be able to communicate with people from other countries. They see the CLIL project as an excellent idea, although some revisions are also encouraged. Faculty also affirmed that the idea, the work, the plan and training received by the IML are well accepted and that the CLIL project is seen as a unique element of USJ by faculty, deans and management.

Stakeholders in personal interviews and focus groups agreed that teaching a language implies learning a culture. Faculty also agreed that having CLIL trainings have helped them with their teaching methodologies in the classroom. The students who participated in the study thought that the use of English in regular mainstream courses has helped them a lot and that it is a way of bringing new ways of looking at things. As one of the students in a personal interview said, “having to read articles in English has helped me keeping up my English level, and I felt it when I went on an Erasmus exchange last year!”. A student from the translation and intercultural communication degree program suggested in a personal interview that more courses in English should be taught in other degree programs like it is done in hers.

The establishment of the language policy at USJ was seen as a milestone by faculty, deans, directors, vice deans and management and while they also noted that more work was needed along with some revisions, they affirmed that such a systemic wide language policy which included not only the IML, but the whole university

community is a differential element if you compare the USJ with the rest of Spanish higher education institutions. The policy was seen as a first step towards a more internationalized university and the participants made it clear that they were aware that this is not internationalization, but that it helps. As the rector stated, “the fact of having international faculty and a established and a planned language policy helps the process of internationalization, there is still a lot of work to do but it is a first step”.

An internationalized curriculum.

The following common theme is an internationalized curriculum. According to Mestenhauser (2011),

The heart of the institution is the curriculum. That is why students come to colleges and universities to learn, why the university hires teachers to teach these students (...) why the institutions are organized the way they are to produce research and new knowledge, why degrees are granted as evidence of attained educational objectives, and why institutions produce the talents and skills needed by various professions that are the backbones of modern societies. (p. 11)

It is a challenge to internationalize the curriculum of a higher education institution, mainly because in order to accomplish an analysis of the system, analysts break them down into pieces so the knowledge becomes fragmented and is no longer able to account for the ways in which different variables are all related and how they affect a system. In the case of higher education, the system is the university. Participants saw the importance of an internationalized curriculum; as one of the deans who participated in the study stated,

So then it is the best way to get a better world, to be connected with everyone and to share experiences, I am somehow an idealist. The world is showing us that we do not work in so different ways, or maybe yes there are different elements that come up in different projects, but that makes that those educational and academic projects to be better than other ones. Sometimes is not the knowledge per se what is being taught in the classroom but the methodology used and the values that are being taught.

There are many concepts related to the curriculum: courses, learning, teaching, fields of study etc. According to the stakeholders, deans, vice deans and faculty who participated in the focus groups, the international dimension of the degree programs depended on the area of expertise as well as the field of the courses taught. As the vice dean of the degree in audiovisual communication in a focus group affirmed, “internationalization is in the DNA of the degree program I coordinate, mainly because of its origins and its nature”. The degree in audiovisual communication includes a high percentage of its core courses with an international perspective, which according to the vice dean is part of its area of expertise. Such degree programs cannot be conceptualized without their international dimension. The degree in translation and intercultural communication shows the highest international perspective among all degrees offered at USJ, according to the Horn, Hendel and Fry (2007) model adapted for the Spanish and USJ contexts, under the indicator of percentage of core courses with an internationalized perspective. It offers a compulsory study abroad semester and according to the vice dean of that degree program in a personal interview,

this has been the first year that the compulsory semester abroad has been implemented (...) the students have enjoyed it a lot (...) I would like to think that all the previous effort and work required to set up this project in the degree program is a milestone. But all those efforts and work have been worthwhile.

When talking about an internationalized curriculum as a key element of internationalization at USJ, the director of the School of Engineering in a personal interview stated, “for us the computer engineering world is a global one and to talk about internationalization is to educate well (or train well) our students”.

One of the participants from the board of directors as well as directors, deans and some faculty in personal interviews mentioned the institutional curricula of teaching compulsory courses in ethics and deontology and civic humanism. According to a faculty member in a personal interview,

I think that currently any university degree in Spain should have a humanistic education, based on the Humanities, something that would make us think in the essence of the university, for me is universality no? To be able to see things in a universal/global way (...) To know where I stand in the world and to know how to relate with the other, this is very much needed.

In the same way the students in the personal interviews refer to the minor in cultural patterns and contemporary society, as one of the students affirmed,

since I took the Minor in Cultural Patterns and Contemporary Society, all those courses obviously give you more knowledge about not only your own culture but about other cultures. This is why I feel that I am very well prepared and knowledgeable about different cultures now that I am graduating.

According to faculty, directors and vice deans, these courses implemented service-learning projects in cooperation with NGOs and associations that work with the local community, thus bringing the multicultural community to campus with projects that include innovation and multiculturalism.

One student who participated in the study mentioned how transformational it was for her to be part in one of the summer courses organized by the IHS. In regards to the opportunity to talk directly with a person from Somalia about the Somali-Spanish fishing conflict, the student said, “Spanish media was given a very biased information (...) I could see how reality has many angles, and that you have to be able to place yourself in the others’ shoes (...) yes it helps you to see the situation in a different way, absolutely”.

Participants in the study saw not only the core courses mentioned above but also the Minor in Cultural Patterns and Contemporary Society as a way of placing “culture at the core” (Mestenhauser, 2011). As the students who participated in the study affirmed (all of them have studied the Minor in Cultural Patterns and Contemporary Society) that these courses have helped them to see other cultures in a very different way. As one of the students affirmed,

with the Minor in in Cultural Patterns and Contemporary Society uff! I have learned a lot! I could even say that it has been the best of my degree program! (...) It has a very social focus, that is what I really like about journalism (...) I like the kind of journalism that helps to improve the society you live in no?

One student also confirmed that having taken these courses helped her to be more open-minded, understand other cultures and to be empathetic trying to facilitate lives for people from other cultures and other countries,

yes totally! The Minor in Cultural Patterns and Contemporary Society is going to be my best memory when I graduate from USJ, and the courses were the best I have taken, maybe because I am a little bit weird!”

She also clarified that taking these types of courses has to be a personal decision, because it is very specific and it is not for everybody. This point came up more than once during the interviews and it seems as if there are two sides about ‘imposing’ or making internationalization compulsory through core courses in degree programs. One group of the participants as well as academics felt that an internationalized curriculum had to be compulsory. Another group of participants thought the institution should provide the access but let the individuals decide if they want to be ‘internationalized.’ This debate could also transfer to certain courses like human rights and intercultural communication, as well as to participation in mobility programs and co-curricular activities.

As Mestenhauser (2011) suggests, the challenge of placing ‘culture’ at the core is that culture should influence every academic discipline.

Moreover, culture is not only the major variable how we should understand other countries, but how our own culture influences what we know about them, as well. In other words, while ‘culture’ is something we cherish, protect, and celebrate, it is also a mental box that encloses and screens other pieces of learning and potentially distorts them. (Mestenhauser, 2011, p. 9)

Teaching and learning; intercultural learning and international or intercultural activities.

According to one participant, who was part of the administration staff focus group,

mainly you faculty, are the ones who can transmit experiences, you motivate them, you are their role models no? (...) Where does a student go when they have any kind of problem? To his/her professor; then that professor probably send him/her to the corresponding office...

The mission and vision statement of USJ states that one of its missions is “To be a consolidated university and recognized by: its educational model, its educational actions its personalized attention to the student (...)” (“Vision, Conoce la USJ”, 2012). All the participants in the study agreed that teaching methodologies as well as the personalized attention to the student are a strength and are unique at USJ. In the institutional strategic plan (2010-2014), one of the objectives is to have a recognized teaching model, including personalized attention to the student (“Plan Estrategico 2010-2014”, 2012).

One of the students in a personal interview, who had previously studied in a large public university, recalled how much she liked the small size classes and how many debates, interactive and group projects she was in and how much she was able to learn. Not only faculty, but all the participants in the study felt proud in saying that USJ was the first higher education institution to be 100 % Bologna integrated. When people at USJ said this, they were not only referring to the degree programs, accreditation and quality evaluation procedures, they were also referring to the ‘real change’ in the

classroom and in teaching methodologies that the Bologna process has required (Yopp, 2008).

The director of the IML, who trains faculty in the CLIL project affirmed, “working with faculty I have seen how they change certain methodologies and also how they are more conscious if they have international students in their classrooms, how they might feel in his/her class”. Most of the participants agreed that there is much hard work and effort in their teaching. Some of them saw this change in teaching methodologies as part of the Bologna plan and some saw it as their own goal/objective. All faculty participants mentioned their flexibility and their willingness to change, which in a way is promoted by the creation process and stage in which USJ is at the moment. As a faculty member in a personal interview saw it,

in part this degree program, I see it like a child to me, you know? It is a beautiful thing! (...) I wish that I have given something to my students, that they keep something from me as a person, not only as a worker no? I hope I have given them passion for what they are going to do, because at the end is the most beautiful thing that you can have... I think that is something that all faculty share here, I see it in my colleagues too.

Faculty affirmed that it has been hard work but that they have not done it only because of the implementation of the Bologna process but because they feel the students asked for a different way of teaching: not so teacher-centered but more student-centered and more hands-on learning. As one of the interviewees noted, the Bologna process is based on the UK model of teaching than what traditionally has been done in Spanish higher education institutions.

Teaching culture.

Teaching culture understood here, as to infuse a global vision in courses is a topic that emerges from the interviews and focus groups. As one of the vice deans in a focus group said, “it is easy to overcome the linguistic barrier but the cultural one is more important!”. The cultural variable as an aspect in each field was also seen as important. Some faculty said that it is part of their social responsibility to show different realities to the students. Others affirmed that internationalization in higher education involved teaching students to be able to communicate adequately across cultures, not only being competent in another language. This relates to Darla Deardorff’s definition of intercultural competence (2009).

Co-curricular activities on campus and in the community: Service learning programs and outreach programs.

As one of the directors in a personal interview explained, in 2010 the IHS was assigned by the board of directors the task of starting volunteer programs and cooperation with local and international NGOs with whom 19 MOUs have been signed. The main objective underneath this strategy was to promote multicultural activities with the local community and to connect students with NGOs promoting civic engagement (Horn, Hendel & Fry, 2012).

According to the directors of the IHS, this working cooperation has been increased and implemented in many compulsory courses, bringing the opportunity for USJ students to collaborate in projects like marketing and community management for NGOs. This approach has also provided the opportunity for NGOs to get closer to academia and be somehow part of it, as a means of connecting their activity with

innovation and research. To highlight some of these activities (“Instituto Humanismo y Sociedad”, 2012):

1. Contest and Campaign of NGO ‘Manos Unidas’ with students from journalism and advertising and public relations.
2. Analysis of different NGOs’ webs and logos with 2nd year students of advertising and public relations.
3. Green Campus campaign about important sustainability issues at the USJ campus which was developed by senior students in the degree of advertising and public relations.
4. Second Food collecting campaign for the Food Bank of Aragon.
5. Contest/Campaign ‘Stop Malaria Now’ with 4th year students of pharmacy in collaboration with the NGO Medicus Mundi.
6. “Maratón Solidario”, a marathon with NGOs in where marketing and advertising students and professors gave advice to NGOs in their marketing strategies.

One of the values of the institution is its social commitment. As it is stated on the university’s web page,

The university understands its work linked with social development, as part of its main institutional functions, the contribution to this development from different areas of its activity. Therefore, the university compromises to fight against social exclusion and to promote those values within the university community, thus in the society in general, cooperating with other institutions. (“Conoce la USJ”, 2012)

As one of the participants, who is one of the IHS directors in a personal

interview recalled, “Let’s do not forget that there are 170 different nationalities right now in Zaragoza”. The relationship with the community is very important. As part of the relationship with the community, the Quality Assurance Department in cooperation with Human Resources, have organized a training workshop for faculty in service learning because USJ wants to integrate service learning in the curriculum as a way to get students and faculty more involved in community service (A. Martinez, personal communication, August 17, 2012).

Cultural and co-curricular activities.

Faculty, deans and vice deans, who participated in personal interviews were concerned with the importance of increasing co-curricular activities at USJ. The promotion of cultural activities on campus is a field that is in an early stage of development at USJ, even though there are certain people who promote different cultural and co-curricular activities. In 2011, a new position was created—‘vice dean of students’—in order to help organize all the cultural and co-curricular activities that take place on campus. The main objective of this position is to promote more social life on campus and more integration between students from different colleges and schools. The main internationalized cultural activities that took place on USJ campus are the following:

- The Book Club,
- The Week of Languages and Cultures,
- 3rd Edition of Contest of Micro Compositions in Foreign Languages,
- Cultural trips from the School of Architecture to Porto and to Morocco,
- In 2011 a more established and organized Cultural Program was started,

- The College of Health Sciences has been organizing mini student conferences in English,
- An international conference entitled, “The European Union of the 21st Century: Ethical, Social and Cultural Challenges” was held. The main speakers (faculty, professionals and students) talked about challenges such as citizenship, Human Rights, higher education, culture and health challenges among others. This conference was organized by two faculty from the School of Communication Sciences and one faculty from the IHS along with students in their corresponding courses. The conference was held at USJ’s main campus but some presenters videotaped their communication and others who were abroad presented via streaming. The whole conference is available online via YouTube.

The use of streaming for this international conference relates to the next common theme: the use of new technologies.

The use of ICT.

The use of ICT emerges from the data as a common theme. The use of ICT facilitates and promotes international cooperation in the context of teaching and learning. This contributes highly to the internationalization of a higher education institution (De Gruyter, Kairamo, Beeck, Rintala & Van Petegem, 2012; Teekens, 2007). Distance is not a problem anymore and the use of the Internet and its access has changed how communication works (Cairncross, 2001). USJ is aware that in order to deliver and develop a 21st century education, access to knowledge about technology and the correct use of it in education is key. USJ provides freshman students with a laptop, since 90 % of all the information is posted on the Intranet and documents for courses are posted on

Moodle. While this might be seen as normal in the USA, public universities in Spain are still struggling trying to keep updated with these resources. Courses syllabi are elaborated by faculty using software (“GDWEB”, 2012); applications for staff training and holidays and research days are also online programs (“Portal del Empleado”, 2012) run by the Department of Human Resources. All purchases and reimbursements also go through an application online that is part of a software package (SIGES). In addition, any technical problem has to be directed through SITIC online (“Servicios TIC para PTG/PDI”, 2012). At the moment only one degree program is offered online: the degree in Computer Engineering. That said, the board of directors is trying to promote more these degree programs. One of the participants in the administration focus group affirmed that it is a unique characteristic (i.e. all the software and digitized system) when you compare USJ with other Spanish universities. One of the vice deans in the focus group also pointed out how important the use of ICT is in the classroom to connect and work with people from all over the world. One of the directors of the IHS in a personal interview stated that, “We are digital immigrants, as well as multicultural immigrants; our students are digital natives and they must be multicultural/intercultural natives as well. This is our job in the classroom”. Another faculty member affirmed that “we do not maximize our resources, more could be done in this respect, but first more training is needed”. As part of the staff development and training in year 2011 and 2012, the Department of Human Resources in cooperation with some faculty have organized trainings on the use of ICTs and Moodle, which could be seen as organizational support from USJ towards a better use of the accessible technology (L. Baños, personal communication, May 10, 2012).

What are the Institutional Factors Influencing Campus Internationalization at USJ?

The cultural variable is an important factor to take into account when analyzing different institutional internationalization strategies as their rationales are “filtered and contextualized by the specific internal context of the university and how they are embedded nationally” (de Wit, 2009, p. 3). Economic and socio cultural rationales for internationalization have been increasing during the last decade, although it would be too simplistic to state that the changing context for internationalization is occurring in similar ways around the world. Thus, there are some factors that influence the internationalization process in any university those are stated under this research question.

The first factor stated under the second research question is mission and vision of the institution, since an institution’s mission and vision reverberates throughout all of its objectives and actions it is important to analyze what is stated on USJ’s main web page and how that relates as a factor promoting internationalization.

Mission and vision.

The mission and vision of a higher education institution is the direction and aspirations of a university (Hudzik & McCarthy 2012). According to Hudzik and Stohl (2009), “Internationalisation needs to contribute to core missions and values of institutions or it will never rise above secondary status. The underlying implication is that internationalization must permeate the mission and ethos of institutions to be successful” (p. 9). Internationalization and its connection with the mission and vision of an institution is seen across cultures to be at the core of higher education institutions;

“the power of internationalisation which permeates an institution has the capacity to strengthen all its parts, just as the power of interdisciplinary work and perspective has the capacity to strengthen core disciplinary knowledge bases, and vice versa” (p. 9). Most universities mission and visions focus on knowledge creation and knowledge dissemination, even though some do not include teaching and learning (Hudzick & Stohl, 2009). On the USJ main web page, its mission and vision are stated along with the values they want to promote and be recognized by.

The mission and vision of USJ is “to serve society creating and disseminating knowledge, as well as to help in the education of ethical and good professionals” (“Conoce la USJ”, 2012). Its vision states how USJ wants to be recognized by “its educational model, and its educational actions, its personalized attention to students and for its educational degree programs that enable employability and international mobility, as well as long life learning for its graduates” (“Conoce la USJ”, 2012). USJ vision also mentions research capacity, innovation; cooperation in projects and the promotion of new projects that will help the improvement of the Aragonese society, as well as to be socially responsible (“Conoce la USJ”, 2012).

In order to face the new challenges of current times and based on the perspective of Christian humanism USJ wants to be recognized for, USJ aims to promote the following values: responsibility, social commitment, critical thinking, compromise and effort, entrepreneurship, spirit of service and, sense of belonging (“Conoce la USJ”, 2012).

The participants reflected on the idea that universities are ‘universal’ and that as such they are places where global knowledge should be promoted. This was found even

though many researchers have analyzed this idea and concluded that universities are national institutions because they are established under certain national laws and because the curriculum corresponds to national necessities.

Personalized attention to students.

Personalized attention to the students is understood here as part of the USJ educational model and an important part of USJ's faculty teaching and learning. Some of the participants mentioned this personalized attention to students as a way to help promote internationalization activities on campus as well as advising students to study abroad as well as to get to cooperate with NGOs either for their compulsory internship or for final class projects. USJ's advising program as well as small size classes help facilitate the contact between teacher and student. Therefore, international faculty and faculty with an international background as well as faculty with international research interest, help promote their students to study abroad, to develop intercultural research projects, and help with the inclusion and integration of international students in their classrooms. With less teacher-student contact, the information might not get to some students. One of the common themes that participants mentioned during the interviews was how USJ personnel take care of the students. In USJ's vision, the focus on personalized attention to the students is stated. All the participants saw this as a differentiation element in comparison with Spanish public institutions. When asked how USJ is different from other institutions, one faculty member affirmed in a personal interview,

the own internal functional dynamics. I think that if we were farmers we would talk about delicacy, extra care. It is not about having big fields but about the

delicacy and the care for the work. There is this personalized attention to the students.

According to the rector in his presentation to the senate in 2011, the ratio between students and faculty in 2009-2010 was 11.9 to 1 and in 2010-2011 was 11.76 to 1. Most of the participants affirmed that they like being in contact with the students and having small –class sizes helped with developing certain methodologies.

There is an advisors' program—which is rare to find in Spanish public higher education institutions—at USJ called 'Tutorial Plan.' This is similar to what US institutions do with advisors and advisees. USJ offers special training for new faculty in this matter and there are certain established actions in the plan that all 'tutors' (i.e. advisors) should follow as part of the USJ educational model and project mentioned in its vision and mission ("Modelo Formativo", 2012). Some of the participants considered it to be good, even though they think that some revisions are needed in order to improve it. Other participants also considered that sometimes the student and parents misunderstood the role of the 'tutor' as if it was an extension of the parent. Some faculty mentioned that being a private institution, and having small classes, and personalized attention is also abused by certain students. These faculty members felt that some students think that they are customers and they can complain and whine and they can demand certain things as if they own the place.

Educational model.

Most of the participants shared the ethos of the institution. As one of the participants from the management affirmed in a personal interview, "our objective, our responsibility and commitment with society is to educate good human-beings and good

professionals en each discipline”. All the values mentioned above are shared by most of the participants and have emerged from the data mainly when asked about the nature of USJ. Participants mentioned social responsibility and the need to educate good human beings and people who are responsible and active in their environment. The participants also shared a great concern for new reforms including revisions of degree programs and the implications of certain decisions. One of the directors of the IHS affirmed,

the degree programs are very tight and very technical, each reform and revision they become more technical; and I think that an international university is the opposite, it focuses on students’ education, so they become open-minded, more critical thinkers, and to have more initiative. The university is not only the place where professionals are trained. Universities as we have talked before, so many times have to educate leaders; this is the main objective, to educate creative people who think by themselves and who would become models and references for people because of how they behave, because of their actions, as well as for their way of talking and thinking.

Participants show concern about how to educate good human beings as a part of very technical degree programs. One of the directors noted that he has seen the

evolution of students from their freshman year until they graduate and he affirmed that,

the authentic educational transformation is impressive! I see it every graduation ceremony, that we educate in values and that we educate human beings. It is not just marketing! (...) we have been able to educate those students as autonomous good human beings, and we have educated them in values; this is not marketing!”

As Knight (2008) explains, universities are changing their missions and visions as they face the new challenges of the 21st century (e.g. globalization). Globalization is a major force and challenge for 21st century universities (Hudzik, 2011). USJ was created at the threshold of the Bologna process implementation in Spain. Mobility was one of the first elements implemented in USJ, mainly the signature of the Letter of Cooperation in which a European higher education institution is allowed to start sending and receiving students. By the time the mission and vision of USJ was written globalization was already a fact. It is also part of the strategic plan as the vice rector of academic affairs stated,

the future of internationalization at USJ is essential, because it is part of the strategic plan. It is a priority line and it is in its mission and values of the university, which is as rooted as the soul of this institution and in its educational project. Then it is a question of time!”

The participants in the administration staff focus group agreed on how important it was to get all the departments involved in the internationalization process and not just involving three departments—“Academic Affairs, International Relations and University Information/ Admissions”—as stated in the strategic plan (“Plan Estratégico Universidad San Jorge 2010-2014”, 2012).

The values stated in the USJ mission and vision are accepted and understood in a natural way and as an important responsibility by all members of the university community. As one faculty member affirmed in a personal interview,

at the end I look back and say I think this is very nice, what we do I mean, here we also are helping to improve. I would like to think that we are helping to

create a better world. Giving them (referring to students) directions so they can cooperate in that, because that is very important. We cannot forget that vision of the university; historically universities have been and they should continue being places of free thinkers, of visionaries, people who go further than the simple stated things right? They should promote people who change the world, and that is what I believe that the modern university is losing; in part maybe because of the lack of humanistic education like universities in the Renaissance used to have.

According to the participants, it can be affirmed that the main rationales for internationalization at USJ, are social/cultural, political, and economic. The social/culture rationale is seen as important for social and community development, citizenship development, and intercultural understanding (since Spain has gone through important immigration influx in the last decade). The political rationale is important because the Bologna process was implemented right when USJ was created. The economic rationale is important as the labor market is seen as a global one and as a way in increase revenue and campus diversity (Childress, 2010; Knight, 2008).

Institutional profile and history.

San Jorge University is a non-profit institution, “founded by San Valero Foundation, in cooperation with the Aragonese society and based on Christian humanism” (“Conoce la USJ”, 2012). USJ was created in 2005 it is the only private, Catholic university in the autonomous community of Aragon.

Since its beginnings USJ has been growing not only in the number of students and personnel, but also in accredited undergraduate and graduate degree programs,

although USJ's major concentration is in undergraduate programs. In Figure 9, the green color represents the percentage of students registered in undergraduate programs, which currently is by far the main concentration of USJ programs.

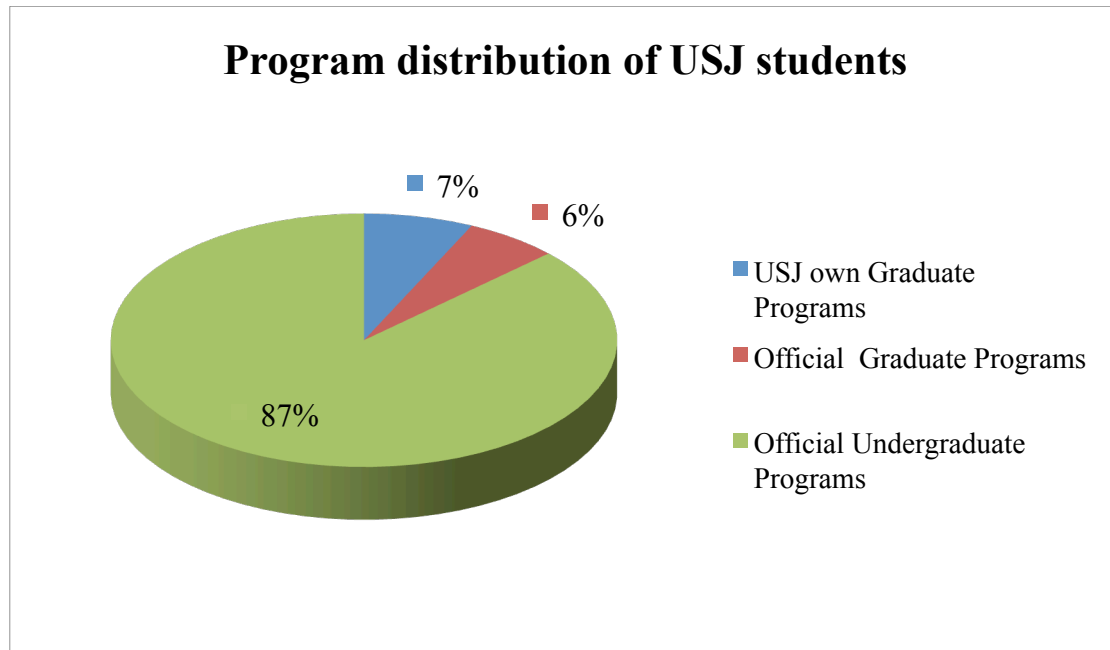


Figure 9. Program distribution of USJ students. Adapted from (Presentación Claustro, 2011)

Participants in the study saw USJ as a 'young' and private university and viewed this as a positive aspect. They mentioned how the creation process and the youth of USJ were motivation for implementing some key internationalization elements. According to the rector and other members of the board of directors, USJ has had its ups and downs over its short history mainly because of the University of Zaragoza. This public higher education institution had shown certain mistrust to this new educational project (i.e. USJ) in the region. However the board of directors has worked hard to cooperate more with their neighbor institution, trying to show that both institutions have a 'space' in the same city and region. This has also affected how the Aragonese society perceives USJ, although right now according to the rector it can be said that USJ has moved past the

time when it lacked an image and a reputation. This has affected the relations with the regional government as they feel they have to ‘protect’ the public institution. Their understanding of protection has entailed limiting USJ’s ability to implement accredited new degree programs. Faculty and vice deans in the focus groups mentioned how as a part of the decentralized government, the accreditation process is approved in Madrid, but the final decision of letting USJ implement a new degree program comes from the regional government. In many autonomous communities like Madrid, the regional government allows the accreditation agency to decide about new degree programs of private and public universities and does not interfere in that matter. Therefore, participants in personal interviews and focus groups saw this interference as one of the main barriers for USJ internationalization.

Leadership.

According to the Horn, Hendel and Fry model (2007), under the category of organizational support for internationalization there is one indicator for the presence of a senior administrator for international activities. At USJ, this position does not exist. According to Mestenhauser as well as Hudzik and McCarthy (2012), a senior administration position which also has a faculty role is needed in order to promote changes in internationalization in a higher education institution (J. Mestenhauser, personal communication, July 31, 2012). Middle management will help to implement the policy but someone at a policy decision-making level in the institutional structure is seen as needed (Hudzik & McCarthy, 2012).

Some of the participants—faculty and a vice dean in personal interviews as well as deans and administration staff in focus groups—agreed that more internationalization

leadership is needed with an international vision, since the international line in the strategic plan is seen as obsolete and that needs to be revised. The participants in the deans' and vice deans' focus groups as well as one of the deans in a personal interview, felt that USJ should give resources to a knowledgeable person in order to implement more actions and to expand the internationalization process across the whole university. As one of the deans in a personal interview stated:

Now is the moment to do a qualitative step forward in internationalization, now we cannot stay like we are currently. It is true that faculty, deans, vice deans and directors have to work and move on in this matter (...). In a short term period we have to be more ambitious and we have to multiple the resources with an organizational chart, a department and qualified personnel, because is that what it will allow us to expand internationalization at USJ.

An important work developed by the leadership at USJ has been the implementation of certain policies and strategies that have helped the development of important internationalization elements. These were seen by faculty, deans and vice deans, as evidenced in personal interviews and focus groups, as an important factor promoting internationalization at USJ. This was also similar to the CLIL project and the institutional language policy.

Policies and strategies.

USJ management has established important milestones in the internationalization process of the institution, such as the implementation of the language policy and related strategies (e.g. English language training for staff, CLIL project development, and faculty training) as well as some other strategies like increasing work with local,

national and international NGOs, and the beginning of the implementation of service learning as a methodology. The participants in the study stated that they realized how the effort to become an “updated” technological university can also be considered as a strategy towards internationalization. Thus, access to technology helps to promote international conferences on campus with a restricted budget, as well as having international speakers in class using Skype. According to one faculty member in a personal interview using technology for educational purposes and having access to it facilitates implementing internationalization elements on campus, such as having international speakers in conferences and classes on campus with a limited budget.

One hundred percent implementation of the Bologna process.

The first step towards many internationalization policies and strategies start with the willingness to implement the Bologna process. USJ was one of the first Spanish universities to have a hundred percent implementation of the Bologna process; this was certified by the ANECA. The Bologna process as well as the Lisbon Convention for the recognition of international qualifications, were key in the establishment of certain internationalization policies at USJ according to the vice rector of Academic Affairs. Since the Bologna process and its learning competencies framework were based on the British system it was confusing for many Spanish universities at the beginning of its implementation. This is why the Spanish Ministry of Education developed workshops focused on case studies of British, Irish and Dutch universities. A USJ representative was present at these workshops. As the vice rector of academic affairs stated in a personal interview, these workshops and higher education models were used as a way of developing the current Spanish accreditation framework of reference. It also helped to

configure how the educational model had to be at USJ along with the educational objectives of the undergraduate and graduate degree programs. According to this stakeholder, the Bologna process was seen as the needed educational change/reform in order to face the internationalization of higher education in every single aspect. The Bologna process is seen as the European framework that has helped to establish the referents and objectives of the internationalization of European universities. All participants in the study shared this idea. The vice rector of academic affairs also affirmed that all universities have made a great effort to meet the requirements under the Bologna process. The USJ established the Bologna process criteria in a way that must be present in all degree programs that have been established. This is why, as the vice rector explained:

A set of USJ interdisciplinary competencies were set and we agreed that had to be present in all degree programs, passing our educational legacy. Among those competencies apart from the holistic educational approach, the development of ethical principles, professional deontology to develop your profession with dignity and with a great importance of the education in values (...). We also considered vital and strategic the development of a second language competence, in this case English, that it had to be compulsory and a main part of the degree programs. This promoted the creation of the language policy (...). This was seen as the first step, since high school students do not get into university with an adequate level of English, and it is a must in order to promote mobility and employability. So it really set up the basis for this university to establish its own educational model without having to follow national directions in this matter.

USJ language policy.

As it was explained before, USJ language policy is based on the Lisbon convention for the recognition of international qualifications where the CEFR was established. As one of the faculty members from the IML in a personal interview explained, USJ language policy is more defined and developed than other language policies in different Spanish universities (“Política Lingüística”, 2012). It covers not only language requirements in degree programs, but also staff training and the implementation of the CLIL project. Although language competency was still seen by one hundred percent of the participants as the biggest barrier for internationalizing USJ, according to a faculty member from the IML, there has been an improvement in recent years. According to the rector in a personal interview:

Our strength is that this reflection has been made, and this at an institutional level is a lot! I believe there aren't many higher education institutions that have made that kind of reflection in such a deep and accepted way, being still so small.

However, some participants in the vice deans and faculty focus groups agreed that some revisions are needed.

Institutional internationalization strategy.

Two specific objectives are stated under the “international” heading in the USJ strategic plan. The first objective is “To develop a policy of agreements with international universities in order to offer joint degrees and in order to promote mobility” and the second objective is “To increase the number of international students” (“Plan Estratégico”, 2012, objectives 31 and 32). According to one of the deans, “so far we have enough MOUs, it is time we revise those agreements and establish academic

work alignments”. Thus, in internationalization at USJ, the first step has been taken but more needs to be done about its quality. Currently there are 88 signed MOUs with foreign universities 63 are with EU universities and 25 with non EU member states (“International Partners”, 2012).

Almost all of the participants in the administration staff, faculty and vice deans focus groups, as well as deans, vice deans, faculty, directors and management in personal interviews agreed that an internationalization strategy is needed with reachable objectives and a clear plan of action. This why it would help the whole university community to know which direction the institution is going in matters of internationalization. The indicators in the USJ strategic plan focus on mobility programs (i.e. exchange programs) measuring only quantity not quality, which is what the participants referred to (“Plan Estratégico 2010-2014”, 2012).

Although there is agreement that a more internationalized driven leadership is needed at USJ, some participants in the faculty focus group, and a vice dean in a personal interview, also recall the work done by the management of the university and how they have always felt that they were listening and open to new ideas proposed. These participants felt that as one of the directors of the IHS in a personal interview stated, “the board of directors consciously or unconsciously have already given the first steps in an internationalization process: the language policy, the directions to work with NGOs ... etc”. However, another director in a personal interview affirmed that there is a lot of work that needs to be done, mainly in terms of changing the mindset of the personnel from a local mindset into an international one, which includes *all* members of the university community.

Talking about the current internationalization process of USJ, one of the deans in a personal interview stated:

We only need a push, enough human resources, and a change in the conceptualization of the meaning of internationalization; It is from the top from where it has to be developed and they have to start creating those policies that have to be implemented in each one of the departments below. From the board of directors directed by the rector to the deans and school directors, to the faculty, administration staff and to the students; I think this is key!

A more clearly defined internationalization definition and strategy is seen as a way of strengthening the academic areas as well as strengthening international research and cooperation with other academic areas in international universities. As one faculty member in a personal interview said, “this will help to create a special plan for international and national students who come and study here”.

Implementation of the Bologna process.

According to Yopp (2008) “the Bologna process has opened or exposed the European higher education systems to the shaping forces of globalization and economic and social environments by removing the barriers of isolation, resulting in profound and rapidly occurring changes” (p. 2). He explains how the EUA “Trends V” report states that even though people think that new and revised degree structures are perceived as the most important goals of the Bologna process, the most important legacy of the whole process will mainly be the change of the educational paradigm across Europe;

Institutions are slowly moving from away from a system of teacher-driven provision, and towards a student-centered concept of higher education (...)

shifting from government actions, including legislation, to implementation of reforms within institutions, with broad support, for more student-centred and problem-based learning. (Yopp, 2008, p. 4)

This also is related to the mission and vision of USJ as well as the institutional values it wants to be known for. It is also a factor that is related to individual factors promoting internationalization, which is explained below.

Yopp (2008) sees the Bologna process as a convergent evolution (with the US American system) and as a force promoting change. USJ could be a clear example of that. One faculty member in the faculty focus group, when talking about the Bologna process and its meaning in internationalization, stated, “at the beginning of this university Bologna was very much enhanced! We used to have so many training sessions about the Bologna process! USJ was created being probably the 1st university implementing the Bologna process”. The implementation process and the change of minds and habits that this required were not questioned by USJ faculty. During the interviews, faculty members mentioned how it is something that you had to do and that’s it! They compared it with the new doctoral accreditation system by ANECA; you have to get the new accreditation and that is the new law. The implementation of the Bologna process is accepted in a very natural way in USJ. As another faculty member said, “that is great, and it is something that make us unique!”. According to a faculty member in a personal interview, “the fact of starting the degree in pharmacy under the Bologna process has been key for promoting its internationalization”. The structure of USJ and the fact that it is still small are also seen as positive aspects for the total implementation of the Bologna process.

Organizational structure.

USJ has an 'original' organizational structure when you compare it with other Spanish universities. USJ has no departments within the schools and colleges. It has departments and/or units within the administration areas. Faculty are assigned according to the degree program where they teach, like at Evergreen State College in Washington where a similar innovative academic and educational model is being implemented. This happens with physiology for example, which is a compulsory course in three different degree programs in the College of Health Sciences, the professor or instructor might teach in all of them, but he/she does not belong to any department he/she is assigned to the college of health sciences.

Another characteristic of the structure of USJ is the existence of the three interdisciplinary institutes that work across the whole institution, but mainly the IML, and the IHS. The IML is in charge of the English language courses and the IHS is in charge of teaching the courses in ethics and deontology, civic humanism and the minor in Cultural Patterns and Contemporary Society.

Figures 10 and 11 illustrate USJ's organizational structure. Figure 10 illustrates the general organizational structure and at the end there is the connection with the schools and colleges. Figure 11 is the School of Communication Sciences organizational chart and is an example of the positions and degree programs.

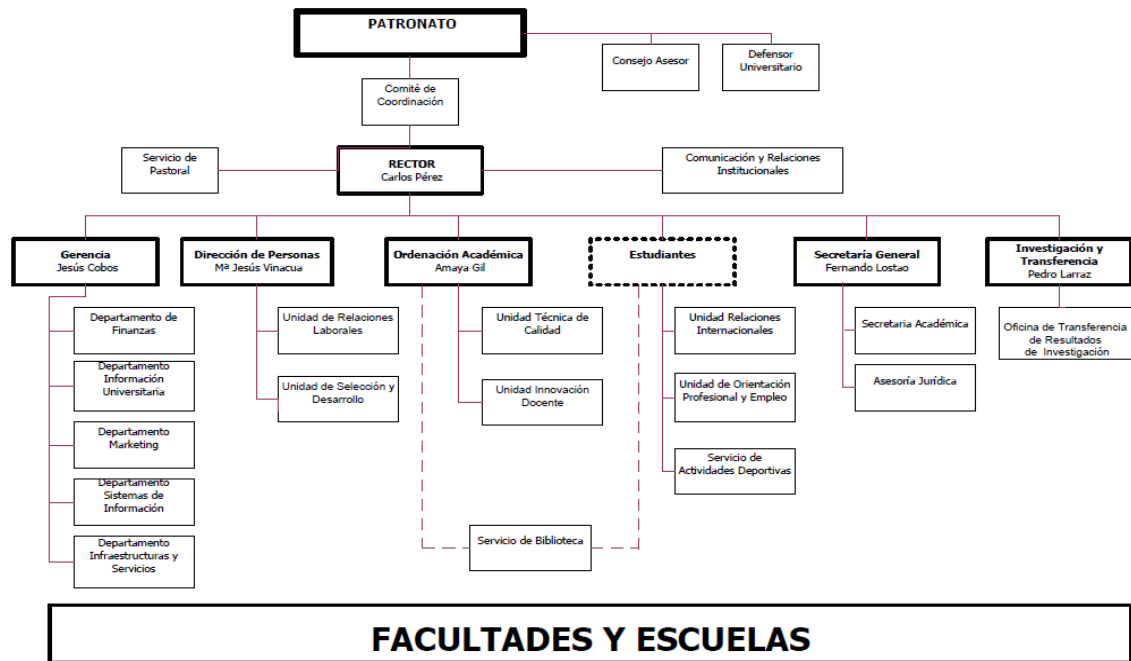


Figure 10. USJ organizational structure. Adapted from (“Presentacion Claustro”, 2011). Reprinted with permission.

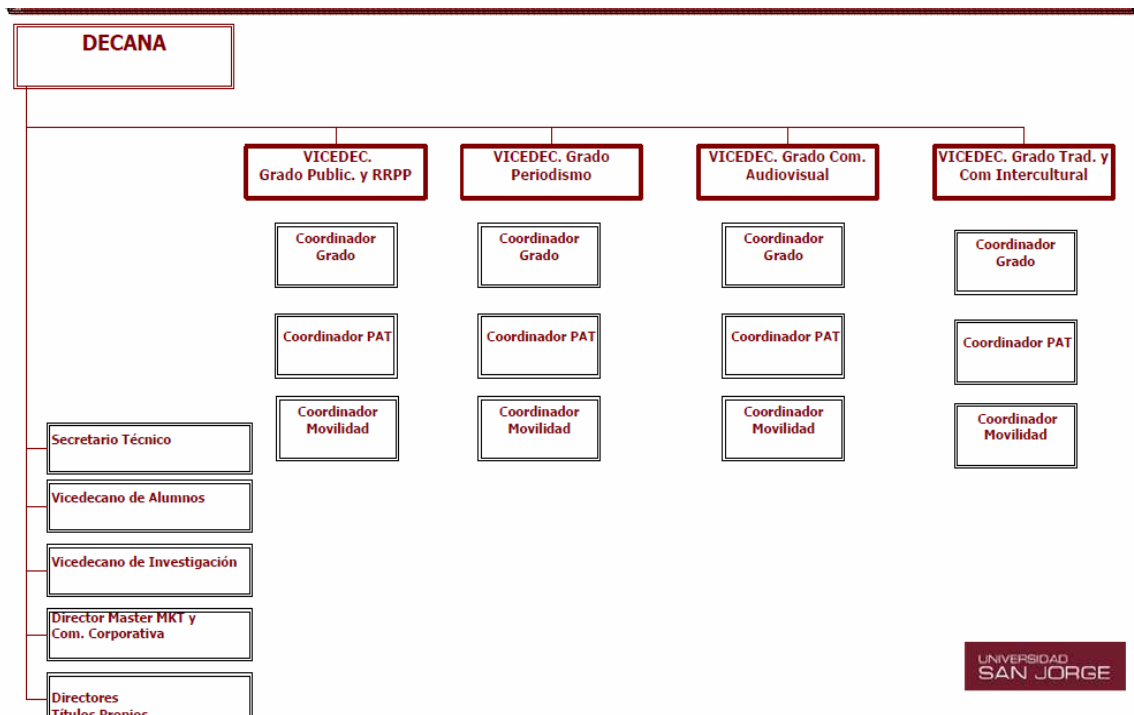


Figure 11. USJ School of Communication Sciences structure. Adapted from (“Presentacion Claustro”, 2011). Reprinted with permission.

This organizational structure was created at the beginning of the institution with a very clear objective: trying to avoid as much as possible the infighting between ‘little kingdoms of power’ (as have been called by many participants and researchers) that exists in other Spanish universities, particularly public ones. As a matter of fact, this objective is one of the recommendations suggested in the report developed about Spanish universities by Tarrach, Egron-Polak, de Maret, Rapp & Salmy (2011). The vice rector of Academic Affairs in a personal interview, explained how this was done in order to promote collaboration among faculty and to try and avoid all the power control that you find in Spanish public universities that destroy a healthy academic environment. At USJ this is seen as an endemic disease in Spanish higher education which damages the students’ learning. However, there are some participants who see this organizational structure as confusing and not allowing international expansion, because according to them, outsiders do not know which department they have to direct their inquiries and the fields of expertise are disperse within the degree programs and not centered around their areas of study and research. According to Yopp (2008), the report *College Learning for the New Global Century of LEAP* states that:

The traditional boundaries between liberal arts and the professional fields are not just a bureaucratic inconvenience. In practice, they have created academic silos that impede faculty and staff efforts to foster a more holistic and integrative approach to college learning. (as cited in Yopp, 2008, p. 7)

Most of the participants see the IML and the IHS as important internationalization elements within the USJ organizational structure because of their interdisciplinary work across the whole institution. Not only for the courses that are

taught by the faculty assigned to them, but also because of the staff training development and the research groups.

Resources.

Since USJ is a private university that currently depends one hundred percent on tuition income, that is seen as a barrier, not only for funding new projects and funding resources for departments such as International Relations. USJ is a non-profit foundation. Because it is private, that is perceived as not having as much diversity as a public institution. Deans, faculty and administration staff reported that although there are some scholarships being offered, at the moment people who belong to diverse ethnic communities in Spain would not even consider studying at USJ because of the cost factor.

USJ is a new university in a new campus located outside of Zaragoza with brand new modern buildings. According to a faculty member in a focus group, the students evaluate the university infrastructure as one of the best things of the university. USJ also has good access to WIFI and other important resources like laboratories, TV sets, and video cameras. All the classrooms are equipped with a projector and speakers that helps in the use of technology in multiple formats (Moodle, Skype etc.). This facilitates many local, national and international activities and encourages students to develop projects that are hands-on learning. Even though there are new buildings, the university community has increased rapidly and the participants mentioned the lack of space is a very near future problem.

Some of the participants mentioned the lack of economic resources due to the current situation, although they understand, they think that research is greatly affected

by this and that diminishes the opportunities to internationalize their courses and research. Some of them also mentioned that they feel the Department of International Relations has a lack of human resources and that of course affects all the projects that they implement. As one of the deans stated in a personal interview:

We need academic qualified personnel, who knows about academic structures, degree programs and all that (...) We are missing a person who has a global capacity and knows European universities, a person who knows the essence of internationalization in order to mobilize the existing team, we need that person!

Since there is a lack of a more systems oriented internationalization strategy at USJ, there are IaH and other important internationalization elements that are being implemented. The first internationalization milestones have been developed, but the participants in the study thought that is time to move the internationalization process to the core of the institution and start thinking more about quality indicators. The lack of an internationalization leadership position, as well as a bigger and stronger International Relations department was seen by most of the participants as a sign that more could be done to promote and support a better internationalization process at USJ, by the board of directors and management. Thus, what are the individual factors influencing internationalization at USJ? And also who are those individuals, the champions of internationalization at USJ?

What are the Individual Factors Influencing Internationalization at USJ?

One of the common themes that came up from the data is change. Under this common theme the participants referred to change in different ways. One way was how the youth of the institution plus the youth of the personnel in general, plus the creation

stage of USJ, in which all the personnel are involved, required a high degree of flexibility from faculty, and administration staff. All those factors together are seen as promoting change, constant change. This was also related by the constant sense of urgency. As one of the participants in the administration staff focus group explained:

At the beginning it called my attention, the people who work here are very young, I like the willingness and energy that everybody has to promote this project (...) maybe because is a recently founded university so people take it as if it was their own no? Most people work hard and invest a lot of energy and work.

Most of the participants affirmed that they would sometimes prefer that the idea of change was not so urgent. They affirmed that it seems there is not enough time to do everything. Change is seen as one of the major forces shaping internationalization in higher education (Knight, 2008; Mestenhauser, 2011). It is also seen as one of the things that people are more resistant to. Some of the participants, mainly faculty and vice deans in focus groups and personal interviews, affirmed that even though faculty are flexible and always volunteer for many new projects, this does not let them get enough time to see “the whole picture” of what is going on at USJ. Constant change and the sense of urgency do not allow them to get a more holistic idea of the institution, which diminishes their strategic capacity and their ability to set long-term goals or objectives (Bolman & Gallos, 2011; Hudzik, 2011; Hudzik & McCarthy, 2012). Faculty and vice deans in focus groups and personal interviews agreed that more could be done if more time was allowed to work on this area. Even though some faculty complain about the larger class loads and the little time for research or for developing other projects, they also affirmed that they want to make this effort because they believe in the

USJ educational project. Faculty members affirmed that seeing the results of so much work on the students is the best reward they can get. They also suggest that more incentives should be established to promote the current work load and pace. They see how USJ is still growing and how some degree programs are not 100 percent established. They see how that affects the constant change in the courses that one faculty member teaches, for example. Faculty who are assigned to more established degree programs stated that it is about time that certain courses get assigned and that some restructuring is needed in order to assign correct courses according to faculty research and expertise. Some faculty also stated that the larger class load was also one of the reasons why faculty did not apply for an Erasmus scholarship.

Previous international experience.

Almost 95% of the participants have had previous international experiences; some of them were academic experiences and some others were not professionally related. All of these participants mentioned how important their experiences were. Some participants explained how their research and vocation started because of those international experiences. They decided to continue their graduate programs after being abroad. They also recalled how currently it is so easy to study abroad and how they regret that students do not maximize more of these opportunities. Most of the participants studied when the Erasmus program was not established yet or when it was at a very incipient stage. For faculty members, those experiences helped them to be more careful with international students in their classes, to try and make them feel as a part of the class, to make sure they followed along, and that they integrated with national students. Some faculty said that they had developed empathy during their international

stays as students (undergraduate or graduate). Some administrative staff in a focus group affirmed that they just think it is their duty to pay special attention to international students, since they come from a different system and they do not know the educational laws and institutional policies; one participant said that she thought it had more to do with working at a private university than thinking the students are international students.

Faculty members and vice deans, who participated in a focus group and in personal interviews, talked about having more incentives in order to continue expanding their international academic experiences, such as the inclusion of sabbaticals. Since attendance is compulsory at USJ, classes have to be taught by another colleague if a professor is in a conference or they must plan accordingly for those hours of classes. However, there are some participants who affirmed that those who really want to have international experiences go abroad in spite of the difficulties and/or barriers that they may encounter such as teaching classes or attending international conferences. This is a concern as not all of the available spots to participate in the Erasmus program for faculty are currently filled. The vice rector of Academic Affairs thinks it might have to do with the lack of interest from the faculty in being internationalized. However, some of the faculty stated that the application process was too arduous and long and that they felt overwhelmed by changing their classes during that week and having to ask a colleague to teach their courses. Some faculty also added that they consider one week a very short period of time and wonder when longer research periods will be also established and approved at USJ.

For faculty members and administration staff in focus groups who have enjoyed those 'mini' international stays, they affirmed it was a wonderful experience and that it

helped them see their job in a different way. They saw it as an incentive. For administration staff, these short international experiences helped them to see how different procedures are done and they affirmed that they have come back feeling so proud of USJ, thinking “we do not do it that bad after all!”. The faculty said it helps them with their classes and with the content. They also saw it as an incentive for their work.

Faculty syllabi: Class projects, teaching and learning.

As one of the faculty members in a personal interview stated, “I think that my course has a strong social emphasis then, I would like to believe that I help them to see things from another perspective, in that matter it is a very internationalized course”. The individual willingness and attitude to internationalize is seen as key to promoting internationalization at USJ. Many of the participants who hold administrative positions mentioned how some faculty are very active and always willing to participate and cooperate with international research projects or with the International Relations Department. When asked about internationalized courses that she took at USJ, one of the students in a personal interview mentioned how it was not so much about the topic of the courses but the professors who taught those courses. This student said that she thought that an internationalized course had to do more with the instructor’s individual attitude.

A faculty member in a personal interview explained how in her course she prepared a service-learning project about malaria with her students, because her course must have an international focus due to the topic. She affirmed that the topic was so global that she must do it; there is no other way. Even though Mestenhauser (2011) and

Cogan (1998) argue that all courses can be internationalized, maybe this is only possible for just some parts of the content. Some faculty in the focus group, highlighted how important it was to teach students to be critical thinkers and to promote reflection as well as the importance of focusing on empathy. This was possible because of small size classes in comparison with Spanish public universities. This allows faculty to try new methodologies and to use a more student-centered methodology. All the faculty agreed that an important internationalization element present at USJ was the use of innovative methodologies.

The connection between teaching, learning and research has been a constant during the study. Faculty saw a direct correlation between being able to do international research with the internationalization of their courses.

Faculty international research.

Due to the current economic situation, the idea of looking for international research funds comes out constantly over the personal interviews and focus groups. National and regional governments are cutting funds so the only solution according to one of the vice deans and to one of the directors was to look for European funding. During the 2011-2012 academic year, USJ faculty were working on four international (i.e. European) research projects, and there were also three research groups focused on intercultural and international language topics. One of those projects was centered on measuring the development of intercultural competence amongst USJ students using the IDI (C. Gonzalo, personal communication, May 11, 2012; “Memoria Académica 2011-2012”, July, 2012).

According to one of the vice deans in a focus group, international research was

directly linked with the internationalization of the course content. Faculty saw research as a fundamental part of their teaching. As they stated in a focus group, attending international conferences was key to internationalize their research projects as well as to introduce USJ to international work/research groups and this had an effect on USJ's international reputation. Therefore, a direct link between collaborating with international universities and the international market is perceived. According to Teichler (2009), this is one of the key thematic areas in internationalization where teaching, learning and research all nurture each other in very different ways. Another key thematic area for Teichler is the attitude towards internationalization, usually promoted by what Mestenhauser (2011) refers to as champions of internationalization.

Champions of internationalization.

Although there was no institutional internationalization strategy and no planned incentives for promoting internationalization across USJ, there were still some participants who worked hard, planned, developed group projects and cooperated among themselves to strengthen their internationalization actions across the USJ campus. These champions of internationalization are those who have a vision, a willingness to create and to promote internationalized activities for several different reasons. For some of the faculty, vice deans and directors participating in the focus groups and personal interviews, this motivation was their research, teaching and learning interests, such as intercultural communication or mediation, diversity, innovation in education, cultural issues, human rights, cultural patterns, etc. For some other faculty and administration staff participating in the focus groups and personal interviews, their motivation was linked with their previous international experiences. Others yet just came along for the

‘ride’ of promoting internationalization because they thought it had to be good. If there was something that was shared by all of those champions of internationalization, it was their belief that internationalization can be done. These people thought that USJ was the right environment and setting for so many good international projects, programs and activities. They felt internationalization helps USJ students to become better people and good professionals. Developing internationalization projects was seen as their duty to help educate USJ students to be global citizens with a high social responsibility. However, they also felt that USJ lacks an internationalization objective and a clear internationalization strategy due to a lack of a knowledgeable person in charge in a leadership position, and to the lack of a vision for where the institution should go. This was said at a moment in which higher education was no longer viewed as a commodity, as it did not lead to better paying jobs, and in a moment where global, world history, and cultural knowledge is needed more than ever in order to understand how the current Europe and world wide interactions were constructed and how hard it was to get where we stand today. As one of the directors of the IHS in a personal interview stated:

I tell my students how much we owe to the French Revolution, and to the civil rights movements (...) I am sure that Europe will be able to stand for what it is, for what has been and we will become stronger, a unified Europe that acknowledges its founded civilizations.

These champions of internationalization were found in USJ’s colleges, schools and institutes as well as in different departments. They were found and thanks to their willingness to work together and to cooperate, many things got done at USJ, many things that would have not have been done, and the USJ students see, recognize, and

appreciate this. The participants in the study might have referred to this willingness to internationalize, personalized attention to students, good advising or even as an educational model, but the students knew who these champions of internationalization were and how much they could count on them. At the end of the day, what makes quality in a higher education institution is when you look back and know that the students are ready to be leaders in whichever community they find themselves in and that they will be positive leaders, ethically educated and well-prepared because they are critical thinkers and doers. As the rector stated:

My dream, my vision for USJ in some years, is a university where the international component, in English language teaching as in competencies and possibilities is that all will be well-integrated in all degree programs. I would like that those degree programs have a high percentage of international students at all levels. I would like to have an important percentage of international faculty or an important mobility character (...). This will be what will make USJ different, unique, I think we should try to get there because it is important and because we can do it.

Also a faculty member in a personal interview stated:

those who are already convinced that the internationalization of USJ is important they are OK, the importance here are on those who think that internationalization is not a priority, or maybe they think is a priority but for many other reasons or problems like, structure or human resources....Maybe we do not have enough infrastructure yet to do it, even though, it would help persisting on creating more awareness about it and letting people know that internationalization is important

and it should be the norm.

Summary

This chapter reviews the findings of the study answering the main research questions posed in chapter I. Therefore, the data gathered with document analysis, personal interviews, focus groups and participant observation were used. The first part is a description of the internationalization status and main internationalization elements present at USJ. This first part of the chapter shows that the main elements of IaH are found at USJ, as Table 12 illustrates, even though there is no IaH strategy. Thus, other internationalization elements like campus diversity and mobility programs are also an important element of the internationalization scenario of USJ that complement and nurture the main IaH elements.

Table 12

IaH Elements Present at San Jorge University

| IaH Elements |
|--|
| The role of other language study: learning and instruction and staff development and training |
| An internationalized curriculum |
| Teaching and learning: intercultural learning and international or intercultural activities |
| Co-curricular activities on campus and in the community; service learning programs and outreach programs |
| The use of ICT for teaching and learning and organizational management |

In this part of the chapter the main activities and programs that might not be included in any other document have been highlighted as well as the perceptions and realities of the different university communities that coexist.

The second part of this chapter is an analysis of the second research question proposed. The common themes that emerged from the data, as well as the main factors that influence USJ as a private Spanish higher education institution and the individual factors that promote the internationalization process at USJ are analyzed. The common themes that emerged from the data were: campus diversity, mobility programs (exchange/study abroad programs), an internationalized curriculum, the role of using and learning other languages, teaching and learning (international research), co-curricular activities and the use of ICT.

According to the data the Bologna process is a major factor driving change, which has highly affected USJ from its beginnings in its structure, teaching and learning as well as certain policies and strategies such as the language policy, the CLIL project and the cooperation with NGOs. To answer this research question, I have tried to include all the views and opinions from the participants as well as much data as it was available.

Table 13

Summary of Major Findings RQ1

| Horn, Hendel & Fry modified Categories | Key Indicators |
|---|--|
| | Full degree: 6.42% |
| Students | International Students: 9% |
| Characteristics | ERASMUS & Extra EU Members: 2.6% |
| | Fulbright Fellows: No records |
| | Study Abroad Participants: 3.27% |
| | Non-Spanish language graduates: 1.03% |
| | USJ Faculty granted with an international scholarship: 1.88% |
| Faculty & Scholar | USJ Erasmus Scholars/Faculty: 4.24% |
| Characteristics | USJ Faculty who have studied abroad: 9.43% |
| | International Fulbright Scholars: 0 |
| | Erasmus Scholars & faculty: Since 2007 13; 2011-12: 1 |
| | CLIL participants: 15% |
| | International faculty/instructors/research associates: 9.9% |
| | Institutional Language Policy: YES |
| Research & Grants | FIPSE grants/Atlantis Grants/ <i>Campus de Excelencia Internacional</i> : 0 |
| | Research groups internationally focused: 3 |
| | European research projects: 4 |
| | Number courses taught in non-Spanish lang.: between 1 & 2 per degree |
| Curricular Content | CLIL implementation: Between 1 & 3 ECTS per degree program |
| | Language graduate requirements: Between 6 & 12 ECTS |
| | International courses: + internationalized: translation intercultural com. 86% |
| | - internationalized: physiotherapy 39.2% |
| Organizational | Presence of a senior administrator for internationalization: NO |
| Support | International book collection: 21.30% |
| | Visibility international content USJ website: Only in Spanish |
| | Faculty & Admin. Staff development: Trainings in English & Use of Moodle |

Table 14

Summary of Major Findings RQ2

| RQ2: What are the factors promoting internationalization at USJ? | |
|---|---|
| Institutional | Individual |
| Profile | Previous international experience |
| Private, non-profit, small & young | Important & high impact |
| Mission & Vision | Faculty syllabi: class projects; teaching & learning |
| Mobility & social responsibility | Area of expertise |
| Based on Christian humanism | International research |
| Educational model & values | Bologna: student-centered methods. |
| | Personal willingness/attitude |
| Leadership | Faculty international research |
| Top-down+ bottom-up = org. change | Important more needs to be done |
| | Affects: teaching & learning and USJ int. marketing/promotion |
| Policies & Strategies | Champions of internationalization |
| 100% Bologna implemented | Leadership for change |
| Language Policy & NGOs cooperation | Transformational leadership |
| | Top-down+ bottom-up = org. change |
| Organizational Structure | |
| 3 institutes | No departments |
| Promotion teamwork /cooperation | |
| Resources & Infrastructure | |
| + Human & economic resources needed | |
| Good infrastructure: new buildings and new campus setting | |
| USJ main webpage: lack of international languages | |

Tables 13 and 14 illustrate a summary of the major findings described in chapter IV. The following chapter presents the conclusions, recommendation and further suggestions for research and practice.

Chapter V

Conclusions, Implications and Recommendations

In this chapter I first restate the research problem and research questions, then a brief summary of the results is presented, after which I will review the implications of the results for leadership, policy and practice. Lastly, the limitations and recommendations for future research are presented.

Statement of the Problem

As stated in Chapter I, the internationalization of higher education is one of the most important challenges that Spanish higher education institutions face at present (Peach, 2001; Silla, 2010). The implementation of the Bologna process has proved that Spanish higher education institutions are not as international in their teaching, learning and research as many other European universities (Haug & Vilalta, 2011; Rubiralta, 2010; Tarrach et al., 2011).

The purpose of this study was to identify the factors influencing campus internationalization of a Spanish private university. Therefore, the following research questions were addressed: (a) In what ways is internationalization of the campus being implemented at USJ? (b) What are the institutional and individual factors influencing campus internationalization at USJ? To answer the research questions, I used the Horn, Hendel and Fry model (2007) adapted to the Spanish and USJ contexts as a descriptive framework to describe the current internationalization status at USJ. I then analyzed the common themes that emerged from the collected data in order to analyze the individual and institutional factors that influenced internationalization at USJ.

To ensure construct validity and data source triangulation multiple sources of evidence were collected and analyzed (Yin, 2009). Additionally, using mixed data collection methods including focus group interviews, personal semi-structured interviews, document analysis and participant observation brought detailed vision and a better understanding of the process of internationalization in USJ. The conclusions of the study are presented in this chapter.

Summary of Findings

The basic assumption for this study was that even though no IaH strategy existed at USJ, the main IaH elements were being implemented and developed. The results of the study corroborate that. Since the concept of IaH is barely known in the Spanish context, the participants did not relate certain elements to internationalization, like the importance of culture, intercultural learning, the use of certain methodologies, the degree structures, the nature and content of certain courses, as well as the development of certain activities.

The main objective of IaH is that all graduates will leave the university as “professionals who are competent to work and live in a globalized world” (Beelen, 2012, p. 1, in press). This is shared by all the participants in the study as one of the main reasons to internationalize. The other rationales that emerge from the data were the economic and academic ones. Bringing international students to USJ will make the classes more diverse and international and will also help to increase the number of students at USJ. Thus, educating global ethical professionals who are able to live in a multicultural society was an objective also shared by most of the participants.

The Horn, Hendel and Fry (2007) modified model, was used as a descriptive framework to answer the first research question. According to this framework, the current internationalization process at USJ is still in a creation stage and it needs more organizational support and more investment in research and grants, as well as in international research. However, certain milestones have been established such as the institutional structure and language policy, the student-centered methodologies, and the wide use of ICT for instruction. A more diversified and/or internationalized student body is needed, since most of the international students are European. More study abroad destinations and programs for USJ students are needed as well as some motivation to study abroad for national students as over 50% of USJ national students do not study abroad. USJ faculty, scholars, and researchers are more internationalized (Figures 6 and 7) which helps to promote and implement IaH projects.

The common themes that emerged from the data to help answer the second research question were: campus diversity, mobility programs, role of language study, internationalized curriculum, teaching and learning (international research), and the use of ICT. The main institutional factors promoting internationalization at USJ are the implementation of the Bologna process, the institutional profile and current institutional policies. The individual factors that promote internationalization at USJ are the implementation of the Bologna reform, the current institutional creation stage and personal motivation. The first conceptualization of USJ was based on the then incipient implementation of the EHEA in Spain. This has affected degree programs and its structure, faculty syllabi, teaching and learning and the role of English as the *lingua*

franca throughout USJ. Figure 12 illustrates how the Bologna reform has affected important changes at USJ.

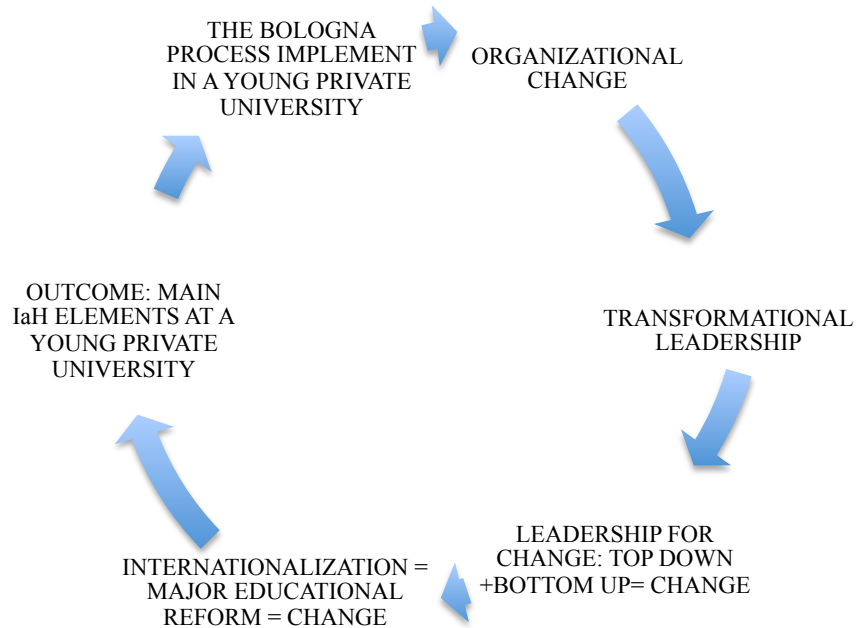


Figure 12. Consequences of the implementation of the Bologna reform at USJ.

Implications for Leadership, Policy and Practice

The first common theme as well as one of the most important internationalization elements that participants mentioned was campus diversity. The results show that USJ’s had a higher percentage of international students on campus than the average of Spanish universities (9% compared to 2%). Campus diversity was understood as the best way for national and international students to interact, to learn about other cultures and to promote understanding and more peaceful relations. According to Allport (1954) and Pettigrew (1998) contact with people from different cultures reduces prejudices. However, just having international students and faculty will not reduce prejudices; interaction between national and international students must be promoted to increase knowledge about different cultures and reduce those prejudices (Pettigrew, 1998). As

Nesdale and Todd (2000) affirm, four conditions must take place for this to happen: equal status, common objectives, intergroup cooperation and external support, which can be found in a classroom setting when developing group projects with students. If learning about other cultures is promoted in the classroom and interaction between international and national students is also encouraged it is likely that prejudices will be reduced. Personal relations have been hypothesized to be an important element in the reduction of prejudices as well as in the development of intercultural sensitivity (Deardorff, 2009; Lou & Bosley, 2008; Paige, 2003). Campus diversity is an important internationalization element that helps the implementation of internationalization at home (Beelen, 2011). According to Mestenhauser's systems perspective approach to internationalization, knowledge about other cultures and contact should be promoted as much as possible on campus, in and outside the classroom.

The results of this study verify that internationalization cannot be held in one department, like international relations, and cannot concentrate only in mobility programs (exchange/study abroad programs). An internationalization process needs to be systemic and supported throughout the institution (Hudzik, 2011; Hudzik & McCarthy, 2012).

Since internationalization can only be understood if it is analyzed "through the perspectives of several frames" (Mestenhauser, 2011, p. 126), a systems approach is preferred to understand how this process works and how it changes organizations, including universities. Internationalization of higher education is a major educational reform that promotes change in universities (Hudzik & McCarthy, 2012). Therefore "that cannot be accomplished, as is often common, with a few cosmetic adjustments or

by assuming that any one part of the field is the field” (Mestenhauser, 2011, p. 126). Thus, only a systemic approach making internationalization be part of every department of a university will promote real change. All elements of internationalization are related to one another, therefore establishing and implementing an internationalization process following a systems’ perspective can be very complex. The results of the study illustrate the difficulty of implementing change across a higher education institution. Thus, it is critically important to have a “shared” leadership that promotes constant change, from top-down to bottom-up (Hudzik & McCarthy, 2012; Kotter, 2007).

Implications for leadership.

Promoting and leading organizational change is one of the most important and challenging tasks of leadership responsibilities. Leaders need to promote change to keep up with external demands and contextual factors (Kotter, 2008). In this case the contextual factors are globalization, the implementation of the Bologna process, and the creation of a new university.

The study results presented demonstrate that top-down leadership is important but that alone would not have promoted change at USJ. A combination of leadership at decision-making positions, with faculty (key change agents), and with the help of supportive administration staff is needed to promote change in a higher education institution (Bolman & Gallos, 2011; Harari, 1992; Hudzik, 2011; Hudzik & McCarthy, 2012). Since a top managerial/academic position in internationalization is missing at USJ, it can be inferred that a systemic, holistic, institutional vision of internationalization at USJ is also missing (Hudzik & McCarthy, 2012). This affects any internationalization strategy and project that is implemented and may reduce

internationalization to a fragmented sector of the higher education institution, located in either the International Relations Department, the Institute of Modern Languages, the Institute of Humanism and Society, or a single degree program, which is currently the case.

Promoting change in a higher education institution: transformational leadership.

The Bologna process along with the Lisbon convention are major factors promoting change in European universities. This supranational context created the right moment for important changes at USJ, involving the institutional structure, certain policies and strategies, as well as internships and degree programs. Within this institutional profile, faculty members are the ones who promote change at USJ.

Faculty and administration staff: Agents of change.

According to Childress (2010) and Harari (1992) faculty are key for implementing internationalization processes in universities and are key agents for change. Although they need the support of administration (Bolman & Gallos, 2011; Stearns, 2009), faculty members are the ones who move forward all of the initiatives for global education in a higher education institution. The results presented in this study exemplify how some faculty developed projects and worked on internationalizing the content of their courses in different ways. Fifteen percent of USJ faculty participated voluntarily in the CLIL project. According to Harari (1992), to expect 100-percent faculty participation in the internationalization process of a higher education is unlikely to happen and unrealistic, thus; he affirms that approximately 15% is enough to pursue the internationalization of an institution. Faculty are leaders, they promote change every

day in their syllabi, their classrooms, in their teaching, as well as in the projects and co-curricular activities that they promote and develop (Hudzik & McCarthy, 2012).

Leadership for change among faculty is key in a university to promote change and to pursue internationalization (Hudzik, 2011). The success of implementing an internationalization process in a systemic way (following Mestenhauser's systems perspective) resides in the work of multiple agents of change that work across the institution as what he calls 'champions of internationalization.' This study illustrates that what Kotter calls 'bottom up' leadership does exist in USJ, but also that USJ needs 'top down' leadership in order to implement policies and strategies (due to culture trait). Spanish culture as a collective culture respects vertical hierarchy (Hofstede, Hofstede and Minkov 2010; Hudzik, 2011). Top-down decisions are needed in a higher education institution within the Spanish context. Change is fostered not only with individual faculty intentionality, but it also needs faculty engagement and institutional involvement (Childress, 2010). Teekens (2007) and Bolman and Gallos (2011) call this innovation and/or change at a micro level. To promote change at the macro level or top level, USJ needs a higher managerial position focusing on internationalization, which it lacks at the moment. Not having a higher managerial position centered on internationalization leaves internationalization issues and perspectives out of important decision making meetings. Thus, this does not help the promotion of internationalization in a systemic way, although IaH elements are taking place at the moment, it lacks the right support and planning (Hudzik & McCarthy, 2012). When Mestenhauser (2011) refers to as deans or any top administrative position (vice rector of international programs, as in many other Spanish universities), he is referring to those who can make change happen,

who can influence policy, and who would be at the decision meetings in which deans, administrators or board of directors make important institutional decisions (Hudzik, 2011). Since the value of internationalization is not limited to only a department or a school or a college, but rather affects the whole institution, it needs to be present in all academic areas, staff training, and administrative areas.

Since USJ is in constant change due to its being at the creation stage, this has promoted an organizational culture based on flexibility and multitasking of personnel. All the participants in the study recalled how great it was to be part of the creation of a new university, and how much work they had, but how they accepted teaching more courses and tasks voluntarily because they felt they were helping in the development of a great project. As a faculty member in a personal interview said, “I started working here in 2008, it is incredible to be part of the creation of a degree program, it feels as if it were somehow yours”. However, too great a workload might lead to a decrease in other areas such as international research and innovation. The adaptation process to the new and demanding challenges such as globalization, the implementation of the Bologna process, and the implementation of new degree programs and new courses, “present formidable leadership challenges” (Malm, 2008, p. 615). Leadership should be divided and shared at the different layers of an organization, since leaders are the main element for any successful change. Institutional policies and incentives should thus help the constant promotion of change in any learning organization such as a university (Hudzik, 2011; Hudzik & McCarthy, 2012). To keep up with external and internal pressures and to assure that change is implemented, USJ as an institution needs to promote more institutional support to individual initiatives promoting internationalization (Hudzik &

McCarthy, 2012). Most participants in the study agreed that internationalization should be understood as a process and in order to be a successful one it must be seen as a shared responsibility by all members of the university community. Internationalization at USJ should be present in every degree program in every school or college as well as in any administration unit.

Implications for policy.

The implementation of the Bologna process, as a supra-national policy, has affected certain Spanish higher education policies. The current situation and outcomes of such an educational reform are somehow still unclear (Aunion, 2012). Some Spanish universities have implemented most of the new policies and some have not due to both national and institutional contextual factors (Tarrach et al., 2011). This study shows that a revision of the structure of degree programs, an in-depth focus on teaching and learning that shifts from teacher-centered to student-centered methodologies, and more hands-on learning with the inclusion of compulsory internships and service learning is promoting internationalization at USJ (Yopp, 2008). If the directions and the recommendations stated under the Bologna process and the Lisbon convention are followed, Spanish universities in general would promote the right environment on campus to establish a more holistic internationalization strategy and policy. Policy at a national and regional level should give more freedom to Spanish higher education institutions to promote their own internationalization policy, helping to differentiate among Spanish higher education institutions (Haug & Vilalta, 2011). National policies should help to promote access to higher education for Spanish minorities (Tarrach et al., 2011), which would also help to reach one of the goals of the Bologna process on

accessibility to higher education while increasing campus diversity. National policies need to be less restrictive in the national entrance exam for higher education in Spain (e.g. the Selectividad exam, national entrance exam), allowing universities to manage their own accredited entrance exam. It would be possible to encourage more international students from outside the EU to study for a full degree if a similar national entrance exam from their countries of origin were not also required. The participants in this study complained about this lack of flexibility at a national and regional policy level.

This study showed that at an institutional level, an internationalization policy and specific strategic plan are highly needed. This plan should include stated goals that are both clear and reachable with a plan of action that is well known by all members of the university community and that is developed according to the nature and culture of each institution (Childress, 2009; Hudzik, 2011). In this way, institutional support to individual initiatives and differentiation among Spanish universities can be promoted (Tarrach et al., 2011; Childress, 2010; Hudzik & McCarthy, 2012).

Implications for practice.

Based on the results of this study a 'best practices' model of internationalization of USJ will be presented based on the Horn, Hendel and Fry (2007) modified model that was utilized to answer the first research question and the common themes that emerged from the data under the second research question.

What is the Current Status of Internationalization at USJ?

Student and faculty characteristics.

More effort should be placed on promoting a more diverse campus. Since most of the international students are from EU countries, it is highly recommended to increase international marketing and recruitment to try and bring students and faculty from outside Europe and to encourage faculty and staff to attend international forums and conferences such as the EAIE, NAFSA, the FORUM on Education Abroad, etc (Hudzik & McCarthy, 2012). However, the participants also emphasized that more work is needed in promoting integration. A department focused on student services is an important one in any university, so a plan to integrate international students, faculty and staff should be developed. More study abroad opportunities for USJ students and faculty are also needed.

One of the barriers for a more diverse campus is the fact that USJ is a private non-profit organization, which means that full tuition is paid by the students and that national and international students pay the same tuition rate. Access for immigrants and other underserved groups can be limited, since the student loan system is only now beginning in Spain. Traditionally, 'higher education is free' has been the case in public universities in Spain so there is a lot of work that needs to be done in this respect for private universities. Another important improvement is needed in changing the image of USJ in the community. Locally, USJ is seen as a private institution that is only for people who can afford its tuition fees. Therefore, there are certain people who would never consider seeking information to study at USJ. According to Tarrach et al. (2011), insufficient incentives are being promoted at a national and regional level to promote

“equitable access to and successful participation (...) from students of low socio-economic status and from immigrant families” (p. 6). This access of minorities and/or low socio-economic status to Spanish public universities is hard but it is harder their access to Spanish private universities, since tuition rates are much higher. As for recruiting international faculty and personnel in higher positions, there are no postings of USJ openings on any international web lists or educational journals like Higher Education or the Chronicle of Higher Education. According to Tarrach et al. (2011), one of the major barriers to the promotion of internationalization in Spanish universities is the difficulty in hiring internationally high -ranking administrators. They affirm that the impact will be high in spite of the difficulty. However, in the same report Tarrach et al., also affirm that for faculty, hiring internationally is less difficult and has a high impact. As Figure 8 illustrates, USJ faculty are internationalized more so than the management and top leadership positions at the institution. Tarrach et al. (2011) state that the recruitment net needs “to be cast wider” (p. 3) in order to reduce “inbreeding,” which is actually one of the major problems of the hiring system in public Spanish universities. The rector of USJ was very concerned about this matter and as he said during the interview, he does not want to encourage a system of inbreeding, because it is very unhealthy and it does not allow an organization to grow and to reach excellence.

Mobility programs (exchange programs).

The original concept of IaH has a strong emphasis on intercultural issues and on diversity, which implied that IaH was a phenomenon that somehow could be detached from outgoing mobility and concentrate on what was being developed on campus. However, it was acknowledged that some relation exists between

internationalization at home and exchange programs in the development of civic engagement (Horn, Hendel & Fry, 2012). Beelen (2012) states that,

in the sense that international experience at home could promote outgoing mobility and enhance the quality of a study-related stay abroad; international experiences at home would equip students with skills that would allow them to make more of their study or placement abroad. (in press)

USJ has only one mobility program: Erasmus. As one of the students who participated in the study suggested, less-common study abroad locations should be provided more often, as well as the opportunity of going abroad not only in their third and fourth year but even earlier. When ‘outgoing’ students come back, they can then help to promote study abroad programs and international students’ integration at USJ (Hudzik & McCarthy, 2012). The percentage of outgoing students from USJ is not very high, as data show in chapter IV. Most of the participants agreed that more USJ students should study abroad, but they see culture as the major barrier. Spanish culture is family-bounded and people like to study and work where their family lives. The fact is that the majority of university students will choose to study in their hometown if there is a higher education institution there. If the degree of their choice is not offered in a nearby university, then they will consider moving to a bigger city, which usually means Barcelona or Madrid since they have more universities there than other cities in Spain.

Competence in the English language is another major barrier for students to consider studying abroad. Faculty affirmed how hard it is for students to feel at ease speaking English, even though they have been studying English for over nine years (in primary and secondary school). As one of the faculty members in the focus group said,

“this is like starting with simple sums every time we had a Math class in school - we did the same with English, we always started with the verb *to be*”.

Research and grants.

According to the findings of this study, more efforts and investment is needed at USJ in research and grants. There is lack of resources to promote and enhance the ability of faculty to conduct international research, which is directly linked with an internationalized teaching and focus. This lack of international research neither helps to promote USJ internationally nor does it enable USJ faculty to participate in international research projects. Faculty and scholars see international research as an incentive, but due to their class workload and lack of resources, this incentive is being diminished.

Curricular content.

English language competence and the promotion of other languages.

According to Polo (2011), 72 % of Spanish youth between 18 and 24 do not study other languages. There is 24.2 % in the same age range do not speak, write or read English.

Spanish universities try to value second language competence and promote its learning in many different ways. This includes exchange programs and scholarships promoting study abroad. Federico Gutierrez Solana, president of the Spanish Conference of Universities Rectors (CRUE), affirmed that after the implementation of the EHEA, Spanish universities have decided to look for a solution to this problem since it is a priority under the Bologna process (Polo, 2011). Many Spanish universities lack an established and written language policy, as well as lacking foreign language requirements for graduation. As Tarrach et al. (2011) report, mastering English is one of

the recommendations characterized by low difficulty, low cost and high impact. Haug and Vilalta (2011) also recommend promoting language courses for faculty and staff as a major institutional strategy in Spanish higher education institutions. They also recommend treating the domain of other languages as an important factor when hiring and promoting internally. However, despite those recommendations Spain is behind in many international circles due to the average low level of English competency. As one participant in the vice dean's focus group noted, you just have to look at the Spanish presidents and their foreign language proficiency: among the six presidents in the Spanish democratic period, only two spoke English (Polo, 2011).

As a faculty member in a personal interview described it:

Which language do we read in? In English! The scientific community, I see everything from that side, but it is the same in other areas, we have great information coming in but we are bad in getting information out. We produce (research) as the rest of our European colleagues but we have certain inferiority complexes, even though Spanish scientific production is highly valued, right?

This is one of the main reasons why USJ has promoted the implementation of a language policy. Even so, some faculty members have shown resistance to the implementation of the language policy, mainly because it is understood as a way of giving preference to teaching in English over Spanish. It is seen as a way of imposing globalization to the detriment of the Spanish language, which is also spoken worldwide. According to Polo (2011), this is one of the major resistance factors for learning other languages in Spain. However, since the beginning of its implementation there has been an improvement in the acceptance of the language policy and the CLIL project. More

promotion of the language policy and more support from the university leadership could help to improve its general acceptance. Childress (2010) refers to this as more institutional support towards internationalization projects. Also, if some incentives were established faculty would feel compensated for their efforts and increase their willingness to cooperate. To promote excellence, certain public rewards must be established.

One faculty in a focus group also mentioned that, “more languages are needed” like German and French. As a vice dean in a personal interview clarified, there are not any less commonly taught languages at USJ, such as Arabic, and Chinese is only taught in one degree program. This study shows the importance of culture when learning another language. Currently, Arabic and Chinese are languages widely spoken among recent immigrants in Spain and it would be a good way to get to know the newly arrived communities in Spain better.

I will discuss later how 90 % of the participants highlighted the importance of having the institution’s web page in at least the following languages: English, French, and Chinese. All of these participants saw the institution’s web page as a window to the world and they all think that more attention to this matter is urgently needed.

International perspective and core courses requirements for the bachelor’s degree.

According to Teekens (2007) and Ellingboe and Mestenhauser (1998), an internationalized curriculum is key for an internationalization process of a higher education institution. As analyzed in chapter IV, the extent of an internationalized curriculum, as described according to the Horn, Hendel and Fry (2007) model, varies

greatly among USJ degree programs. Even though most of the deans in the study said that their degree programs and areas of expertise were internationalized, the study shows that the syllabi do not indicate this internationalized nature, neither in the title nor in the contents of most of the courses.

The titles of courses offered in each degree program need some revision in order to make them more international, as do their contents. A clear statement about the nature of certain courses as international or as implementing any ECTS credits in English (under the CLIL project) is also highly advisable. Since many degree programs have started their revisions to ANECA, these revisions should also be taken into account.

Some degree programs have a high percentage of internationalized courses, but still more work is needed on their core courses, their titles, and the content posted on the institution's web page. At USJ many elective courses seem to be more internationalized than core courses (at least in most of the degree programs). Researchers affirm that if an institution's internationalization is to be an important aspect of the educational curriculum, then more internationalized core courses should be offered. Offering internationalized courses as electives is not enough since the institution is letting the students decide if they want to acquire that knowledge or not (Mestenhauser, 2011).

Even though USJ has made a commitment by offering civic humanism and ethics and deontology as core courses in all degree programs, more can be done in certain areas to establish interdisciplinary courses such as world history, human rights, intercultural communication, world literature etc. that are more international in their content and that are part of the main educational curriculum of the institution (Mestenhauser, 2011;

Stearns, 2009). Again institutional support is needed here in alignment with middle management (vice deans, deans and quality assurance unit) and individual faculty members' initiatives (Childress, 2010; Hudzik & McCarthy, 2012).

A holistic and global vision of the whole institutional curriculum will place internationalization at the core of the curriculum. A micro vision of the curriculum of just one degree program or one area of expertise would place internationalization and learning cultures in a secluded side of the curriculum, which it is what was found to be currently happening at USJ. This is why such an important decision has to be taken by a group of people who have holistic institutional vision and knowledge (Hudzik, 2011; Hudzik & McCarthy, 2012).

Since the minor in cultural patterns and contemporary society is just an elective minor, it is recognized as an institutional effort to promote this kind of interdisciplinary learning, but more can be done in this area. The students who are interested in this kind of learning and topics register for these courses, but there are few who actually do that. This minor used to be part of the core electives program at USJ before the Bologna reform. After a revision of the programs it was excluded as a minor and used for extra credits. One of the students who participated in the study said, "this minor is not for everybody, it is just for people who have these specific interests in social justice and intercultural issues". Are those 'interests' not part of the learning objectives and values at USJ? If so, why is it then that those courses are offered as an elective and not as core courses in all USJ degree programs?

The recommendation is that courses like the ones offered in this minor should be placed as part of the electives and core courses (or at least in the School of

Communication Sciences where they were before). In this way, USJ will promote core internationalized courses and will help more students to access more internationalized courses.

These decisions should be made by the deans of colleges and schools at USJ, but also helped by the board of directors and the vice rector of Academic Affairs as they are the ones who have a holistic institutional vision and are very aware of the educational model and values that is being promoted at USJ since its beginnings. If internationalized core courses are neglected and left as a minor and not even as an itinerary, if most of USJ's students never study abroad, then USJ as an institution is neglecting to provide its students access to a more internationalized vision of the world, including social justice issues and current integration and immigration topics.

When talking about the courses that faculty from the IHS teach (e.g. ethics and deontology, civic humanism and history), one of the deans in a personal interview stated,

I think that the IHS should have more influence on not only the student body but with faculty training. If the IHS promotes the values of USJ then it should work like the IML, training faculty in ethics, human rights and a more global dimension of their courses. Right now the students only have two core courses taught by faculty at the IHS, which I think is not enough.

According to Stearns (2009), the debate of curricular options needs more attention and could develop into a new, different study. Curricular options represents one of the most important aspects for distinguishing higher education institutions and Spanish universities, including USJ, tend to lack this at the moment (Tarrach et al.,

2011). Therefore, Stearns (2009) points out some important aspects that should be taken into account:

adaptation of general education to include more explicit global components and the role of world history figures into this mix as a particular topic; recasting foreign language instruction, an old subject with some important new twists; figuring out to move global content and competency into a wide variety of subject matter areas; building a course on general education but extending into an ‘across the curriculum’ approach. (p. 43)

According to the participants it seemed that belonging to one of the institutes at USJ that work across the institution was not seen as very clear for the rest of the institution. Most of faculty, deans and vice deans were not very clear about the roles and what the institutes did at USJ, mostly because the institutes work across the whole institution and do not belong to one college or school in particular. The fragmentation of higher education institutions to which Mestenhauser (2011) refers when explaining his system’s perspective on internationalization appears to be present at USJ. In this way, a great opportunity is missed by USJ to distinguish itself amongst Spanish universities by having an interdisciplinary and very internationalized curriculum with English core courses as well as internationalized courses such as human rights, world history, international development are taught across the whole university.

Individual support.

Even though there is evidence that the integration of international perspectives into teaching and learning, research and co-curricular activities is carried out by certain individual faculty members, more institutional support is needed (Hudzik & McCarthy,

2012). Thus, some of these initiatives are being carried out because the good will of faculty, vice deans and deans. Therefore, to operationalize the internationalization of USJ, a line in the USJ Strategic Plan needs to be revised in order, “to provide support for faculty to connect institution-wide goals for internationalization with their individual scholarly agendas” (Childress, 2010, p. 142). Connecting faculty teaching and learning with their international research, since those areas nurture one another is an important step that needs to be developed. Showing institutional support towards those individual faculty members who promote and develop internationalization projects and activities in turn promotes excellence (Hudzik, 2011; Hudzik & McCarthy, 2012). In this same way, USJ should help create institutional networks. Childress (2010) explains, “as collaboration is a critical component of internationalization, institutional networks are essential to create the communication channels for faculty to learn about international opportunities, resources and their colleagues’ areas expertise and regional interests” (p. 142). Although the institutional structure helps to promote collaboration with the three institutes working across the university (e.g. the Environmental Institute, the IML, and the IHS), and to a certain degree the Department of International Relations, there needs to be a stronger academic focus, training in human resources, and budget support in order to work in a more interdisciplinary way. In this way a more systemic approach towards internationalization can be established at USJ, reaching all schools and colleges as well as administrative units, helping and supporting those individuals who support internationalization.

Organizational Support.

In terms of organizational support, more needs to be done at USJ. Although faculty and administration staff development has started with internationalized trainings, there are important indicators in this category that need to be taken into account. USJ needs to improve the number of books in the university library's international collection and thus more resources are needed in this area for this matter. There is no presence of a senior administrator for international activities. There is lack of visibility of international content on USJ websites, and lack of different languages in which you can access USJ information.

Conclusions.

According to some of the conclusions of the Horn, Hendel and Fry (2012) study, it was found a correlation between the existence of IaH elements such as a high percentage of international students on campus (minimum 7% of the student body) as well as the infusion of some international content on the institutions' curriculum to the rate of international volunteerism,

This is consistent with past research demonstrating a positive impact of domestic student and curricular diversity on civic development during college (...).

However, after controlling for the potential influence of domestic diversity, this study indicates that extensive IaH exerts a unique effect on international civic engagement. This finding supports both the contention that international students can be a valuable asset for the intercultural learning of domestic students. (p. 168)

Increasing diversity of international students and promoting the already existing IaH

elements could help USJ national students in their global learning and civic engagement. An internationalized curriculum combining co-curricular and extra-curricular activities shows that students develop global competence (Mestenhauser, 2011; Stearns, 2009; Leask, 2007).

The study illustrated that participants wanted more individual and institutional support in their internationalization activities. Whether in the classroom, on campus or abroad, participants wanted more support in collaborating together and better internal institutional communications. This is linked with a specific internationalization strategy with clear objectives and an established plan of actions that will involve the whole institution in a systemic way. This approach will help to focus on a concrete and reachable internationalization objective shared and known by all of the university community (Coelen, 2008; Hudzik, 2011; Hudzik & McCarthy, 2012). Thus the individual actions and to a certain extent sporadic or scattered projects that individual faculty members have already started do not disappear or diminish over time. These practices need to be institutionalized, if they are left to the good will and good doing of the faculty, they will disappear over time for different reasons (Hudzik & McCarthy, 2012). Linking all those practices with academic innovation and research will help the international marketing and promotion of USJ and its teaching and learning practices.

It can be concluded that the main IaH elements are being implemented at USJ in a mixed way. There are individual initiatives, a willingness to promote activities on campus, change in the classrooms and intercultural activities and projects. Meanwhile, the administrative staff has expressed an institutional willingness to establish certain key internationalization elements that have helped the promotion of IaH. There are two

converging directions and sets of energies that have come together and produced what currently is the internationalization status of USJ.

From the beginning of the study until one of the last general meetings that I attended, I have been able to see an increase of awareness towards internationalization in the speeches and how certain people have changed their perspectives towards certain topics, related mainly to degree programs. Palmer & Zajonc (2010) describe the situation well:

The institution of higher education is notoriously slow to change. (...) There are good reasons and bad reasons for the slow pace of institutional change. One of an institution's key functions is to conserve the best of the past over time, serving as collective memory bank to protect us against historical amnesia, cultural erosion, and the seductions of the merely new. (p. 20)

Higher education institutions are learning organizations which are difficult to manage and change. Different communities 'live' and work in universities among the students, faculty and administrative staff, each one of them with very distinctive characteristics (Mestenhuser & Ellingboe, 1998). According to Bolman and Gallos (2011), higher education leaders must understand the university structure and its own three interconnected different levels of structure, which are: structuring leaders' own time, being able to manage their own unit's structure, and "structuring the change process to enhance the likelihood that the organization can adapt to a demanding, fast-changing environment" (p. 67). In structuring change initiatives, they add, "it is vital to honor the three Ps of academic change: patience, persistence, and process" (Bolman and Gallos, 2011, p. 67).

The main factors promoting change and internationalization at USJ were presented and analyzed in Chapter IV. The major implications of those factors are explained next.

What are the Institutional and Individual Factors Promoting Internationalization at USJ?

Contextual factors.

The context in which USJ was created as well as where it is located seem to be the major forces promoting change as well as the major barriers. Contextual factors are important in the internationalization of higher education institutions; each case is unique and different from other universities (de Witt, 2009; Hudzik, 2011; Hudzik & McCarthy, 2012), determined by regional and national educational systems, the institution's response to international reforms, and by the nature and profile of each institution.

The existence of IaH elements in a Spanish university without an IaH policy is mainly taking place for a variety of factors that emerged from the data collected. This study contends that contextual factors were important to the creation of USJ, which was influenced by the national policies and international educational reforms of the moment. The structure and certain institutional policies of the institution were the result of a strategic response to those forces.

Institutional background and context.

USJ is a private catholic university, still small in size (approximately 1,600 students and 300 faculty and administration staff) and with a public research university competing in the same city: Zaragoza University. As Figure 13 illustrates, the momentum for internationalization through the main events of the internationalization process at USJ since its foundation.












| | | | | | | | |
|---|----|---|---|---|--|---|---|
| Creation of USJ | | Creation of the Internat. Relations Unit. | CLIL Project | Draft of Language Policy | Lang. Policy implem. | 1 st Compulsory Study Abroad semester of Non-Spanish Language students | |
|  | |  |  |  |  |  | |
| 2004/05 | 06 | 2007 | 2008 | 2009 | 2010 | 2011 | 2012 |
| | |  |  |  | |  |  |
| | | Erasmus Signatory Letter signed | 1 st faculty & students English level base line 1 st year of the establishment of the Bologna Reform | 1 st Inter. Orientation for Outgoing Students Free Spanish courses for intern. students | | The Buddy Program starts | 1 st Cohort Non-Spanish Lang. Graduates |

Figure 13. Timeline USJ Internationalization Process.

International contexts.

USJ was created seven years ago at the beginning of the implementation of the Bologna process. Europe was rethinking how to converge its diverse higher education

systems (which are as diverse as its member countries), and was looking at an important change in the quality of its degree programs in order to be able to promote higher standards and to compete with US American universities in world rankings (Yopp, 2008).

The Erasmus Program that started in the mid 1980s and the ECTS Project, developed in the early 1990s under the Socrates Program, had been successful. The EU was encouraged to continue with a further and deeper reform that would standardize the higher education systems so a certificate from one European university would be valid in another European country. In this way, the employability and the movement of workers were promoted, and a revision of learning outcomes and student workloads resulted in the ECTS project (Teichler, 2008). This was an economic rationale for internationalization (Childress, 2010; Knight, 2009).

It was in this context that USJ was created, with a mission and vision focused on national and international employability and an educational model based on the education of ethical global citizens. USJ's values emphasize critical thinking, ethical and social responsibility and international mobility ("Conoce la USJ", 2012).

National context.

While public and private Spanish universities were struggling to understand what the Bologna process meant and what types of change it implied, many workshops took place at a national level to help explain the main changes that the Bologna process entailed and what this meant for Spanish higher education institutions. Representatives of USJ attended those workshops and started moving ahead with remodeling and reconsidering important aspects of higher education in the 21st century. They were

developing an institutional structure that would promote cooperation and team work among faculty that would highly benefit the students, involving the institutional educational model, the use of ICT in instruction, English language competence in order to promote mobility and exchange programs, and international research,

Contextual barriers.

Although the international and national contexts were seen by the participants to be adequate for the creation of an internationalized institution, they also affirmed that the regional context had been placing impediments for the expansion of USJ. The Aragonese regional government (DGA) has interfered with the implementation of new degree programs and it was a major barrier towards any kind of institutional expansion. As Tarrach et al.'s (2011) state in their report,

An excessive use of successive new regulation, laws and decrees, might seriously jeopardize the possibility of future modernization (...) 'We have to be prudent' was also heard too often; reform requires will and courage more than prudence. Universities should be given the freedom to succeed and to fail. Being held on a short leash by Government will not lead to excellence. Some Spanish universities are in fact already showing remarkable improvement, in spite of all the difficulties; this should be publicly acknowledged and they should serve as role-models-mutatis mutandis- for others. (p. 4)

USJ, as a private non-profit higher education institution has external pressures, as does any university (Stromquist, 2007). However, USJ's main funding is from student tuition so the control exercised by the regional government does not help USJ to move forward, to grow, and to innovate as it might. When talking about the excessive control

of the Spanish government and how bureaucratic Spain is, one of the faculty who participated in a personal interview said, “Spain is like driving a Ferrari with the hand brake on”. The human capital is ready and well trained but the system is very controlling, tight with regulations and offers little flexibility, even with private institutions. However, private universities have more freedom in hiring staff than public universities and as Tarrach et al. (2011) affirm in their report, “recruiting outstanding staff will always be the crux of the matter” (p. 4).

According to the participants one of the main institutional factors promoting internationalization at USJ is the implementation of the Bologna process. That point also seems to come up as an individual factor promoting change not only in the structure of the degree programs but also in teaching and learning. In addition, this also impacts the implementation of certain internationalization policies and strategies such as the USJ language policy and the cooperation with NGOs.

Promoting change at USJ.

The main factor promoting change at USJ has been the implementation of the Bologna process. Even though it has been studied, most Spanish universities are far behind in its implementation. USJ was one of the first Spanish universities to implement 100 percent of the Bologna Process. This has affected everything from institutional structure, to policies, to teaching and learning. There are also individual factors that promote IaH elements at USJ, especially certain faculty and administration staff who are ‘champions of internationalization,’ and they are those promoting constant change.

Champions of internationalization: personal willingness and attitude.

This study confirmed the existence of what Mestenhauser (2011) calls “champions of internationalization” and shows how faculty are major agents for change. USJ’s structure promotes faculty teamwork and factors like previous international experience and personal willingness make a difference. Thus those faculty and agents of change should be nurtured and supported by the institution (Hudzik & McCarthy, 2012). It seems that certain projects just happened naturally, but they are not. There are excellent programs and activities that are implemented because of the vision and good will of some USJ faculty, vice deans and administration staff. Most of those ‘champions of internationalization’ are moved because of their passion and belief that what they are doing is good for the students (socio-cultural rationale). Thus, all this is being implemented in a fragmented way, which does not help to maximize scattered human and economic resources, as well as it diminishes their positive impact. However, an internationalization strategy is highly needed along with more resources and the creation of a leadership position that would be at the decision-making level and be supportive (Hudzik, 2011).

Limitations of the Study

The major limitation of the study was that it focuses on one case as its unit of analysis. This was a case study of only one institution. Therefore, even though more detail has been offered for many of the elements described, the study might not be useful for other Spanish higher education institutions. The fact that it was a qualitative case study has the limitation of being time consuming; much time was dedicated to doing the interviews, transcribing, and coding them. The use of focus groups was time consuming as well and it took a long time to get the participants together, and some participants

were confused about what a focus group was and needed an explanation about why they were there.

Another limitation of this study was that the information for the document analysis was very fragmented, if recorded at all. One of the participants helped out with information that she had collected since she personally thought that it was important. It would be good for USJ to centralize information on internationalization elements and data that can help in many different circumstances.

The fact that only students from the School of Communication Sciences met the requirements to participate in the study was another limitation of the study. For instance, no students from the College of Health Sciences, the School of Architecture, nor the School of Leadership and Governance participated in the study, since there were no senior students: their first cohort has not graduated yet.

The last limitation was the fact that the main researcher works at USJ and was and continues to be one of the faculty who is assigned at the IHS, which may have affected the study. However, triangulation was carefully planned and taken into account at all times. The use of different methods: document analysis, focus groups, in-depth personal interviews and participant observation for collecting data helped in this matter.

Future Research

More research in this area, such as a comprehensive study of internationalization in all Spanish higher education institutions, including a comparison between public and private universities is needed. More research is needed on the outcomes and assessment of internationalization as well as an in-depth analysis of internationalization plans and strategies in Spanish universities. Spanish universities cannot improve their

internationalization status due to the lack of research and analysis about what they already have and are currently doing. A base line study would be suggested before planning any internationalization strategy and plan of action. Spanish universities need to research more about the involvement of faculty and an internationalized curriculum in their internationalization processes. So far the main interest and focus has been on administration staff and the activities and projects they develop.

Another area that is lacking research is internationalization at a graduate level. Therefore, more research is needed in the internationalization of graduate programs. Measuring quality outcomes is also needed in Spain such as measuring the development of intercultural competence among faculty, administration staff and students.

Finally, more experimentation with different IaH practices also need more research. For example, the effect on international students' integration when certain co-curricular activities are implemented (like international coffee hour or the buddy program), service learning in ethnic communities in Spain, or international film festivals are all topics for future research.

Final Reflections and Recommendations

If competent and responsible citizens are those who are able to think critically, promote dialogue with others, and those who should be concerned for the rights and wellbeing of others (Ladson-Billings, 2005; Rosen & Digh, 2001), much work needs to be done in higher education. Currently, students who arrive to university from secondary schools are used to passive learning. This encourages compliance and obedience as well as studying a parochial/local curriculum that lacks attention to global issues.

The responsibility to educate good ethical global professionals requires an extra effort in the type of education USJ is offering to its students and future graduates. A global education includes: an internationalized curriculum, exchange programs, intercultural learning activities and co-curricular activities, among many others aspects. An internationalized curriculum should concentrate on global issues and global learning, with core interdisciplinary courses (Mestenhauser, 2011). These courses, along with teaching and learning and specific methodologies centered in the student, should promote critical thinking, reflection, dialogue and debates in the classroom (Teekens, 2007). They should be linked with current issues and realities that the student can connect with in practice, through internships and service learning projects (Mestenhauser, 2011; Stearns, 2009; Suarez-Orozco & Sattin, 2007). McIntosh (2005) defines global citizenship as,

the ability to see oneself and the world around one, the ability to make comparisons and contrasts, the ability to see ‘plurality’ as a result.... and the ability to balance awareness of one’s own realities with the realities of entities outside of the perceived self. (p. 23)

This kind of education is an integrative education that begins with the premise that since we are part of a plural community, the following epistemological assertion of Palmer and Zajonc (2010) applies: “we cannot know this communal reality truly and well unless we ourselves are consciously and actively in community with it as knowers” (p. 27). To promote and follow this epistemology of learning it is important to first acknowledge that not all learning takes place in the classroom and that experiential learning is key for

the development of intercultural sensitivity and/or competence (Bennett 1993; Deardorff, 2009; Lou & Bosley, 2008; Mestenhauser, 2011; van Rensburg, 2007).

In the 21st century university graduates have to be able to work anywhere in the world and they will have to see themselves as part of a bigger picture than their local and personal realities (Rosen & Digh, 2001). The great immigration influx that has taken place in Spain in the past ten years should be actively acknowledged by Spanish higher education institutions. Spain is a multicultural society now and university students face a different reality than 15 years ago. Spanish graduates should be able to embrace diversity and see the richness that it brings to Spanish culture and society. Students should be able to understand the challenges that this diversity brings to national systems. The first step in intercultural education is to recognize oneself as a cultural being, acknowledging the different cultures that surround us. Peaceful relations should be at the heart of any internationalization process of any higher education institution (Bennett, 1993; Deardorf, 2009; Mestenhauser, 2011; Paige, 1993).

This study has shown that IaH takes place in USJ along with some important internationalization elements like exchange programs. According to Horn, Hendel and Fry (2012) there is a direct connection among IaH elements, study abroad and students' international civic engagement. There is also a connection between IaH on campus and students' civic engagement. As one of the students who participated in the study said, "certain classes from my degree program, along with the Minor in Cultural Patterns and Contemporary Society, have helped me see cultures in a different way; I understand better my own culture and I look at different cultures in a very different way".

In order to keep promoting this kind of learning among USJ students, there are some improvements and recommendations that need to be made.

Policy advances.

The implementation of the Bologna process not only in the revision of the degree programs but in student-focused teaching and learning is promoting key changes at USJ and it should be promoting change in all Spanish higher education institutions. Certain important institutional policies and strategies were planned and elaborated at USJ due to the Bologna process and the main recommendations of the Lisbon convention.

National and regional policy contexts.

In the study, too much control over private institutions at a national and regional level is seen as one of the major barriers for internationalization. USJ should be accountable for the main decisions that concern its institutional expansion and growth. If all the accreditation procedures are followed and ANECA approves new degree programs that meet their requirements and recommendations, the Aragonese regional government (DGA) should not interfere with that process. On the contrary, the DGA should help promote quality higher education in the region by supporting different initiatives, public and private. The government could help in this way to create a more innovative and competitive context in the region through promoting high quality research and internationalization initiatives. The DGA should be also concerned with the creation of educational foundations that help with scholarships and grants to support outstanding students. Limiting the existing resources to only one public institution does not help healthy competition and it limits accessibility to private universities for Aragonese students who do not want to study in the public university. The DGA should

be concentrating their efforts in helping Aragonese universities to expand their horizons to different continents like Africa or Southeast Asia, and using their international regional offices outside the Autonomous Community to promote international fairs and congresses in Aragon. Also important is supporting internationalization marketing as other Spanish autonomous communities do, helping Aragonese university representatives to attend important and costly international conferences in which recruitment and marketing is done, such as the European Association of International Education (EAIE), NAFSA and the FORUM on Education Abroad.

Less rigid bureaucratic control from the regional government will help to expand and move towards excellence at all levels, in degree programs offered, in teaching and learning and in research.

USJ policies.

USJ institutional policies that promote internationalization need more leadership support and need more promotion. If the USJ language policy is an element that differentiates USJ from other Spanish universities, it needs more support and revisions in order to be more publicized. Institutional support should also be offered to different internationalization strategies that are in the creation-stage level, such as the collaboration with NGOs, service learning projects and co-curricular intercultural activities. In sum, support the values that the institution wants to be recognized by in its USJ educational model.

An IaH strategy should be developed, since the most important IaH elements are already found at USJ. This internationalization strategy should have general and specific objectives, as well as a plan of action that would involve the whole university.

In order to assess its implementation and to help with the development of institutional policies and practices, a position at least at the level of dean should be created in order to be at the decision-making level. The internationalization strategy should not be some marginal document for which compliance is assigned to the International Relations Department, with duties and practices at an administrative level. If USJ would like to have graduates who are global ethical citizens, faculty should be involved in this process as well as the three institutes that work across the institution.

Leadership Recommendations

Transformational leadership and leadership for change are always needed in a learning organization like a higher education institution. Important elements of IaH would not be taking place at USJ if it were not for individual faculty initiatives with the support of certain encouraging administrative staff. It is true that the first steps and milestones were initiated by top management positions of the institution. However, in order to help promote this change and ensure that these individual initiatives do not diminish with time (as can happen as faculty who started them move away, or because they get tired of all the hard work and effort and the lack of any type of recognition and/or incentive), institutional support is highly needed (Childress, 2010; Hudzik, 2011; Hudzik & McCarthy, 2012). USJ has great faculty engagement towards internationalization, as it was shown in Chapter IV. As one faculty member in a personal interview said, “I truly believe that this is a great project, and that we will become a very good university, we are working very hard for that! I think that the quality in the classroom is very good. I am convinced of that!”

More recognition towards those champions of internationalization is recommended through best practice awards, some reduction in their course workload, and the establishment of international research semesters or sabbaticals (Hudzik & McCarthy, 2012). Still, a well-trained person in internationalization should work with these champions of internationalization, helping to assess the progress of an established IaH strategy, as well as documenting the best internationalization practices that would help to improve practice and international marketing of the institution (Hudzik, 2011). As Kotter (1996) and Fullan (2008) affirm, change is promoted when two convergent directions and initiatives are met, from top down to bottom up. Managerial staff who visibly support their personnel promote innovation, good practices and excellence in their efforts.

Practice Recommendations

More institutional work is needed in different areas, as has been mentioned above, but it is worth focusing on one of the most important IaH elements, an internationalized curriculum. An in-depth revision of the titles of courses in different degree programs is needed to reflect their internationalized content. Some work also needs to be done in the content of the syllabi where internationalization statements can be included. The web page of each degree program should be standardized, offering information in Spanish, English, French and Chinese. The page “How to Study in Aragon” should also be in at least English, French and Chinese. The international elements that differentiate some degree programs and make them unique should be highlighted on the web page. However, more core interdisciplinary courses across USJ are also needed in order to promote the kind of education the institution is trying to give.

A more emphasis on Humanities courses is also encouraged. These core courses should be offered in all degree programs at USJ, promoting USJ's educational model and values. Having only two core internationalized courses offered across the entire institution was seen by the participants as not enough.

More visualization of internationalization elements on campus (international symbols) as well as on the main institutional web page are recommended. Freshman students who go to USJ for the first time to have their entrance test and personal interview, along with their parents, should see that USJ promotes internationalization, encourages diversity on campus, and recognizes and celebrates that diversity among students, faculty and administration staff. The use of different flags, world maps and signs in English could help. USJ needs to maximize its current diversity. There are no references to that diversity on the main web page or on the campus, and campus diversity is seen by students to be one of the most important internationalization elements.

Within an institution, internationalisation has many component parts and involves many people; some connected in obvious ways and others in not so obvious ways. Consequently the people involved do not necessarily understand how what others are doing is connected to what they do or to the institution's internationalisation goals. (Leask, 2007, p. 35)

At the practice level some details or activities might not be perceived as promoting internationalization but they do. Everything is connected, and the visual internationalization elements, such as maps and flags give an idea of an institution. People at the same institution conceptualize internationalization in quite different ways,

which this study analyzed to show the development and the current status of internationalization and key elements of IaH at USJ by examining the main institutional and individual factors. A holistic view of a higher education institution implies an understanding of the whole picture and must help connect different parts of the puzzle (Hudzik & McCarthy, 2012). This view can lead to a shared understanding and cooperative collaboration, connecting all the different parts of the big picture that is the internationalization process of a Spanish higher education institution.

Conclusion

This study informs that the main elements of IaH are being implemented at USJ. The complexity of the analysis of an institutional internationalization process is found in how each one of those internationalization elements are connected to each other affecting the implementation of the whole process. Internationalization elements are all connected in a systemic way and are contextualized to a certain reality in an international, national, regional and local context which makes each university a unique case. USJ has the great opportunity and challenge to be innovative in promoting excellence in IaH practice and policy. The institution should not miss this great opportunity for its current and future students who deserve that excellence and quality in teaching and learning, for the community where USJ is located, and for the institution and all its personnel who work so hard and with so much enthusiasm in the creation of a great international university.

This study shows that the main IaH elements are already found at USJ, mainly because of two key factors. The main change factor is the one hundred percent implementation of the Bologna process in a small private higher education institution.

The second factor is the faculty and their individual initiatives being promoted and developed at USJ. The first part of the internationalization process and its milestones are found at USJ. However, since internationalization is understood as an on-going process (Knight, 2008) that affects all areas of the university (Mestenhauser, 2011), a carefully planned IaH or internationalization policy and strategic plan are needed in order that current internationalization initiatives do not diminish over the years. Furthermore, an assessment should be made to measure the ongoing impact and outcomes of internationalization projects currently taken place at USJ (Hudzik, 2011).

USJ was created as a 21st century university and as such it should educate students to be 21st century ethical, global citizens. Internationalization is a key element for higher education institutions and it should be placed at the core of an institution and not at the periphery. Europe is currently going through a critical moment of economic and social uncertainty. Recent European history shows that during a major economic crisis, centuries of civil rights advances and great human achievements can be all too easily destroyed. The lack of general cultural and global knowledge among university students is a painful fact, but history and culture can teach us all, now more than ever, how important it is to live in peace and harmony with one another. This is why higher education institutions have a responsibility to internationalize and offer opportunities for students to become interculturally competent global citizens.

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Appendix A

Original Categories and Indicators in the Horn, Hendel, and Fry (2007) Model

| CATEGORIES | INDICATORS |
|---|--|
| Student Characteristics | 1. Percentage of international students on campus |
| | 2. Number of Marshall and Rhodes scholars |
| | 3. Number of student Fulbright Fellows |
| | 4. Number of Peace Corps volunteers |
| | 5. Percentage of study abroad participants |
| | 6. Percentage of foreign language graduates |
| Faculty and Scholar Characteristics | 7. Number of Faculty who have been Fulbright Scholars |
| | 8. Number of Fulbright scholars from other countries |
| | 9. Percentage of international faculty, instructors, and research associates on campus |
| Research Orientation | 10. Number of Title VI centers |
| | 11. Number of FIPSE international education grants |
| | 12. Number of Ford Foundation international project grants |
| | 13. Number of campus centers focused on international research |
| Curricular Content | 14. Number of Least Commonly Taught Languages (LCTL) |
| | 15. Language credit requirements |
| | 16. International perspective credit requirements |
| Organizational Support | 17. Presence of a senior administrator for international activities |
| | 18. Number of books in the university library's international collection |
| | 19. Visibility of international content on institutions' websites |

Appendix B

Review of Categories and Indicators existing/applicable in the Spanish and USJ

Contexts

STUDENT CHARACTERISTICS

1. Percentage of international students on campus / YES;
2. Number of Marshall and Rhodes scholars / NO
Marshall scholarships are only given to US students to complete a term of study in the UK, their main objective is to strengthen “the enduring relationship between the British and American peoples” ("Marshall scholarships," 2011). Rhodes scholarships were established in the early 20th century to recruit excellent students from several countries, providing them with the resources to attend Oxford University. Spain is not a part of either of these programs, so this item has been found not applicable to the Spanish context;
3. Number of student Fulbright Fellows / YES
According to the Fulbright Spain 2010 report, 2 graduates from Aragon were awarded scholarships, through this program, to complete graduate studies in the United States. This indicator applies to the Spanish context as it suggests which universities have graduates who meet the selection criteria of the Fulbright foundation; Although it is important to take into account that as San Jorge University is a very young university there are some European exchange programs and fellowships that are being established and are a priority over an US exchange program. The two students granted with a Fulbright grant were from Zaragoza University, a research university with a long tradition in research.
4. Number of Peace Corps volunteers / NO
The Peace Corps volunteer program does not exist in Spain, and there is not an equivalent in the Spanish context, so this indicator is not applicable;
5. Percentage of study abroad participants / YES
The indicator “study abroad participants” is applicable in the Spanish context, especially as mobility has been one of the objectives of the European Higher Education Area (EHEA). Different types of undergraduate study abroad programs include: ERASMUS, exchange programs, language programs, and internship programs, where students enrolled in Spanish higher education institutions complete courses abroad approved by their home institutions for either one semester or a full academic year;
6. Percentage of non-Spanish language graduates / YES
This indicator is applicable to the Spanish higher education context. However, San Jorge University was created in 2005 so only two promotions have

graduated so far. Accordingly this indicator would not be applicable for this specific case and at this moment but it would be in a near future.

FACULTY AND SCHOLAR CHARACTERISTICS

7. Number of Faculty who have been Fulbright an Erasmus Scholars and faculty / YES

This indicator would apply best in Spain if it included, not only Fulbright scholars but, the total number of faculty who have completed undergraduate and/or graduate degrees abroad. The majority of the Spanish Fulbright scholars use their awards to complete degrees in the USA, but there are also faculty members who have completed graduate studies in other countries or in the USA but under sponsorship of other organizations, such as Cajamadrid, La Caixa, Banco Santander, Ibercaja and many other entities or financing their degrees on their own. Scholarships awarded by the Fulbright Commission do not exceed 125 per year for Spanish candidates, but there are many more graduates completing work abroad, likely to return to Spain and teach or work at Spanish universities. My suggestion is that this indicator be modified to include the total number of faculty who have completed degrees abroad including participants of Marie Curie Fellowships, which are European grants. Under this indicator it could also be included the number of scholars and faculty from the Spanish higher education institution that have participated in the Erasmus exchange program.

8. Number of Fulbright and Erasmus scholars and faculty from other countries / YES

According to the Fulbright Commission in Spain 2010 report, 1 of the 95 US grantees in Spain was hosted in Zaragoza; it would be convenient to add here the number of Erasmus scholars from other countries. In the Spanish and European context many scholars and faculty visit European universities for one week or two and teach and visit different classes. There is as Knight (2008) explains an “integration of visiting researchers and scholars into academic activities on campus” (p. 14).

9. Number of scholars and faculty participating in the Content Language Integrated Learning Program (CLIL).

This indicator is not in the Horn, Hendel and Fry (2007) Model. However, one of the main objectives of the European Higher Education Area (EHEA) is to have European graduates who are able to communicate in at least two foreign languages apart from their mother tongue (“Nancy Declaration”, 2006). CLIL is created in the 1990s in order to include more languages in the compulsory number of credits of each degree program and in a way to combine academic knowledge and languages. In Spain some regions have started to implement this

methodology in primary and secondary education. Some Spanish universities have started to follow this methodology (Férrandez Romero et al, 2010). For implementing CLIL in a higher education institution faculty need specific training not only in English but in the methodology as well. According to Paige (2003) and Teekens (2000) an international classroom requires faculty trained in order to implement international elements in their courses and research. Spanish higher education institutions are working hard to comply with the Bologna Process requirements. Faculty training and development is key for any change to happen. Are there trainings being offered to scholars and faculty to improve their skills as for example: CLIL training, academic writing in English, English language? Would be an excellent question to ask Spanish higher education institutions.

10. Percentage of international faculty, instructors, and research associates on campus / YES

RESEARCH AND GRANTS

11. Number of Title VI centers / NO

This is a specific program sponsored by the US Department of Education, to support the teaching and learning of “less commonly taught languages” (“International education programs service,” 2011, p. 1) at US universities. While knowledge of foreign languages has been one of the goals of the Bologna Process, in Spain the national government has focused on promoting German, French, English, Italian, and Portuguese. Spanish researchers highlight the lack of resources as one of the major obstacles in the achievement of foreign language fluency goals. There is no equivalent, in Spain, to US Title VI centers, so this indicator is not applicable;

Since one of the priorities of the European Higher Education Area (EHEA) for the year 2020 is “that at least 20% of its graduates study or receive formation outside their home countries” (Férrandez Romero, Crean & Cíercoles Pereta, 2010, p. 205) makes the learning of a foreign language a key issue in European higher education institutions. The guidelines for the teaching and learning of European languages in higher education is found in the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFRL), which was created in 2001 with the same objective as the EHEA. Since nowadays English in Europe is the lingua franca, what Latin was in the Middle- Ages, it would be convenient to analyze if a European university has a language policy. For the Spanish context would be more appropriate:

- i) Existence of a Language Policy in the higher education institution/ YES

12. Number of FIPSE international education grants / NO

FIPSE includes collaboration programs “among the U.S. Department of Education's Office of Postsecondary Education and foreign government agencies to fund and coordinate federal education grant programs” (“Fund for the improvement of postsecondary education (FIPSE),” 2011). One of these collaborations, with the European Commission, is Atlantis, a program providing grants to US and European institutions collaborating in exchange, joint, and double degrees. Some Spanish institutions are participating in Atlantis programs, and more are expected to apply even as the 2011 European application process has been cancelled “due to severe cuts in the 2011 US budget meaning that the funds needed to match the EU contribution are not available” (“Call for proposals,” 2011, p. 3); Therefore is not applicable for the moment but it would be in a near future.

13. Number of Ford Foundation grants / NO

Ford foundation grants are available to organizations and institutions in the Andean Region and Southern Cone, Brazil, Mexico and Central America, and China (“Fordfoundation,” 2011), but not to Spanish institutions; This indicator is then not applicable for the Spanish context.

14. Number of campus centers focused on international research / YES

There are several Spanish universities that have international centers and or international faculties. Even though the focus on research in Spain is far behind the US is still part of a university, and a job done by scholars and faculty. Spanish universities in the past have not been investing enough in research. However, lately there have been increasing efforts in establishing and funding (public and private) research groups. Therefore, a more focused indicator for the Spanish context would be Number of research groups focused on international/intercultural and/or foreign languages research. The campuses and or centers having received the “Certificado de Excelencia Internacional” (CEI) award would be also included in this indicator. In the year 2008, the Spanish Ministry of Education launched a program to recognize internationalization efforts at Spanish public and private universities. Selected universities would be awarded the CEI seal, receiving funding to sponsor their international campuses and or centers. In the following years several universities have obtained the award, receiving a part of the 590 million euros allocated by the national government to this program. The CEI is an indicator that a university has created a campus, faculty, and or center focused on internationalization, aligned with government’s objectives, including (“Convocatoria 2011, CEI,” 2011): (a) increased mobility of students and university staff; (b) increase the percentages of foreign students, professors, and researchers at Spanish universities; (c) increasing the number of international

graduate degrees; and (d) increasing the excellence and international allure of the best Spanish universities.

CURRICULAR CONTENT

15. Number of mainstream courses taught in non-Spanish language.

The programs and courses offered in each degree program is accredited by the National Accreditation Agency (ANECA) that as well follows what has been called libro blanco (white book) referring to all compulsory credits and courses with the competences needed to acquired in each degree program. Therefore, on the contrary of US universities the Spanish ones have little choice and freedom to choose what to offer as mainstream/compulsory courses. The number of courses in where one European credit transfer system (ECTS) which corresponds with 25 hours of class and students' work, or more integrate English (CLIL) in regular mainstream courses taught in Spanish.

16. Number of Least Commonly Taught Languages (LCTL) / YES

17. Language credit requirements for the bachelor's degree / YES

In the Spanish context it will be mainly English as it is the Lingua Franca.

18. International perspective and core courses requirements for the bachelor's degree / YES

This indicator should also include the number of university courses that are taught in Spanish and have an international or intercultural nature. The way that it would be analyzed is if in the name of the course appears international, intercultural or global/universal.

U.S. universities generally have Liberal Education requirements, which do not exist like that in Spain. Even though there are some, mostly private universities that have a set of courses that are required for all students regardless of their degree program and specialization. These compulsory courses may vary in the names they are given by each institution but conceptually they reflect knowledge areas considered to be key to a university education and for future university graduates. As Paige (2003) explains in his article about IaH at the University of Minnesota a revision of its liberal education, the U of M resulted in "course requirements in four themes areas: the environment, cultural diversity, international perspectives, and citizenship/public ethics" (p. 57). It would be then adequate to see if there are any of these courses in Spanish higher education institutions that are required for graduation in any of the degree programs offered at the institution and also contribute towards a global ethical citizenship education.

ORGANIZATIONAL SUPPORT

19. Presence of a senior administrator for international activities / YES
20. Number of books in the university library's international collection / YES
21. Visibility of international content on institutions' websites / YES

Formal partnership programs with international institutions the following:
Number of agreements with foreign universities and also number of agreements with local and international non-governmental organizations (NGOs) and foundations. Since activities with local NGOs that work with minorities promoting integration and diversity in the community is a key element of IaH. The institution's vision and mission as well as the strategic plan.

22. Faculty and administration staff development.

This indicator was not in the Horn, Hendel & Fry (2007) Model. Even though, it shows the efforts that the institution is making in order to promote international tools for the employees. Number of internationalization trainings offered by the institution for the employees: English courses, ICT courses, academic writing...etc. As well as promoting staff administration to participate in the Erasmus exchange program specific for university administration staff.

Appendix C

Modified Horn, Hendel, and Fry (2007) Model listing only indicators that exist in Spain and in USJ with the information of where I can find this information in San Jorge University

| CATEGORIES | INDICATORS |
|-------------------------------------|---|
| Student Characteristics | 1. Percentage of international students on campus; (International Relations Office; Archives) 2. Number of student Fulbright Fellows; (Alumni Office and/or General Secretary) 3. Percentage of study abroad participants; (International Relations Office; Archives) 4. Percentage of non-Spanish language graduates; (General Secretary, Archives) |
| Faculty and Scholar Characteristics | 5. Number of Faculty who have been Fulbright an Erasmus Scholars and faculty (International Relations Office, Research Office) 6. Number of Fullbright and Erasmus scholars and faculty from other countries. (Human Resources Department & Research Office) 7. Number of scholars and faculty participating in the Content Language Integrated Learning Program (CLIL); (Institute of Modern Languages) 8. Percentage of international faculty, instructors, and research associates on campus (Human Resources Department) |

(continued)

Modified Horn, Hendel, and Fry (2007) Model listing only indicators that exist in Spain and in USJ with the information of where I can find this information in San Jorge University (continued).

| CATEGORIES | INDICATORS |
|------------------------|---|
| Research and Grants | 9. Existence of a university's Language Policy (Institution's web page) |
| | 10. Number of FIPSE international education grants / Atlantis Program Grants (Research Office) |
| | 11. Number of research groups focused on international/intercultural and/or foreign languages research; (Institution's web pages; electronic documents) |
| Curricular Content | 12. Number of mainstream courses taught in non-Spanish language; (Institution web page) |
| | 13. Number of Least Commonly Taught Languages (LCTL) (Institution's web page; electronic documents) |
| | 14. Language requirements for the bachelor's degree (Institution's web page; electronic documents) |
| | 15. International perspective and core courses requirements for the bachelor's degree (Institution's web page; electronic documents) |
| Organizational Support | 16. Presence of a senior administrator for international activities (Institution's web page, intranet, organizational chart; electronic documents) |
| | 17. Number of books in the university library's international collection (Library catalog; electronic documents and database) |

Appendix D

USJ Authorization Letter for Conducting the Study

UNIVERSIDAD
SAN JORGE

D. Fernando Lostao Crespo, Secretario General de la Universidad San Jorge mediante el presente documento CERTIFICA

Que el Consejo Rector de la Universidad San Jorge ha autorizado a la profesora D^a María Luisa Sierra Huedo a realizar las entrevistas y estudios de campo que considere oportunos, tanto a los miembros del Personal Docente como al Personal Técnico de Gestión que deseen libremente colaborar, en aras de culminar su Tesis Doctoral en torno a "An exploratory Analysis of Internationalization at Home: a case of study of San Jorge University".

En Villanueva de Gállego, a 14 de diciembre de 2010


Fernando Lostao Crespo
Secretario General


VºBº Carlos Pérez Caseiras
Rector

UNIVERSIDAD
SAN JORGE

Appendix E

Letter of Invitation to Participants

8/29/13

Estimada/o,

Estoy realizando mi tesis doctoral en el Departamento de “Organizational Leadership and Policy Development” de la Universidad de Minnesota. El estudio que estoy completando está enfocado en el concepto de “Internationalization at Home” desde la perspectiva de la dinámica de sistema propuesta por el Dr. Joseph Mestenhauser (2002) en la que todos los departamentos y programas de la universidad y los elementos que los integran se consideran factores interdependientes que deben incluirse en el proceso de internacionalización.

Me gustaría contar con su colaboración, como _____(position)_____, y así conocer su perspectiva en algunos de los aspectos de “Internationalization at Home” en la Universidad San Jorge. Estoy a su disposición para cualquier información adicional que necesite. Le agradecería me confirmase si puedo contar con su participación, para que le envíe información sobre posibles fechas y horas para realizar el grupo focal.

Espero sus noticias.

Gracias por su atención y un cordial saludo,

María Luisa Sierra / Doctoral Candidate/ EDDIE
Department of Organizational Leadership and Policy Development
UNIVERSITY OF MINNESOTA, Twin Cities

Instituto Humanismo y Sociedad, Universidad San Jorge
sier0018@umn.edu; mlsierra@usj.es
Tel. +34 618 703 979

Appendix F

Informed Consent Form for Stakeholders and Participants

You are invited to be in a research study to analyze the factors of internationalization at home at San Jorge University, analyzing its elements as well as the strengths and weaknesses of the process from your perspective and experience. You were selected as a possible participant because of your professional experience and expertise. We ask that you read this form and ask any questions you may have before agreeing to be in the study.

This study is being conducted by: Ms. Maria Luisa Sierra Huedo, doctoral candidate at the Department of Organizational Leadership and Policy Development of the University of Minnesota.

Procedures:

If you agree to be in this study, I will ask you to participate in a focus group with other colleagues who have similar positions and responsibilities at the institution. The questions will try to get your own opinion about certain elements of internationalization at home, according to your experience. Participating in the focus group will take approximately 1 hour and 30 minutes. The interview will be transcribed and coded in order to analyze and draw common themes.

Risks and Benefits of being in the Study:

There are no risks associated to participation in this study, to the knowledge of this researcher.

Compensation:

There is no compensation associated to participation in this study.

Confidentiality:

The name of the participants will be kept confidential. In any sort of report we might publish, we will not include any information that will make it possible to identify the responses in the interviews.

Voluntary Nature of the Study:

Participation in this study is voluntary. Your decision whether or not to participate will not affect your current or future relations with the University of Minnesota, with San Jorge University and or with the Principal Investigator (PI). If you decide not to

participate, you are free to withdraw from the study without affecting those relationships.

Contacts and Questions:

The researcher conducting this study is: Ms. Maria Luisa Sierra Huedo. You may ask any questions you have now. If you have questions later, **you are encouraged** to contact Maria Luisa Sierra Huedo at +34 618 703 979, mlsierra@usj.es. Maria Luisa's Advisor at the University of Minnesota is Dr. Gerard W. Fry, who can be contacted at gwfry@umn.edu.

If you have any questions or concerns regarding this study and would like to talk to someone other than the researcher(s), **you are encouraged** to contact the Research Subjects' Advocate Line, D528 Mayo, 420 Delaware St. Southeast, Minneapolis, Minnesota 55455; (612) 625-1650.

You will be given a copy of this information to keep for your records.

Signature of Investigator: _____ Date:

Appendix G

Focus Group Interview Protocol

Time of interview:

Date:

Interviewer:

Interviewees:

Seats of participants:

Thank you very much for being here today. I know it has been a long day at work and I really appreciate your time. As I already told you I am conducting a research project for my dissertation about internationalization in a Spanish University. Before we start I would like to assure the confidentiality of this focus-group interview. No names will appear in any document and following the Institute Review Board (IRB) at the University of Minnesota, this interview will be transcribed, analyzed, and afterwards coded for research purposes. The transcriptions will be securely kept and will not be shared to anyone but the main researcher. I would also like to ask for the participants' confidentiality. This interview will not take longer than two hours, and as part of the procedure I would like you to read and sign the IRB consent form.

1. What have been some of your best international experiences?
 - 1.1 How do you think that those experiences affect your daily work?
2. How would you define internationalization?
3. When you hear internationalization in higher education what does it mean for you?
4. When you hear internationalization in higher education, what does it mean for you in the context of San Jorge University?

5. What do you consider to be the most important elements of internationalization?

5.1 Why?

6. In your opinion what are the main factors (institutional & individual) that affect internationalization in San Jorge University?

7. From your point of view, what are the main drivers of promoting internationalization at San Jorge University?

8. What are the major barriers when trying to promote internationalization at San Jorge University?

9. Is there anything else that you would like to add?

Thank you very much for your time.

I would use some probes to get more information from the responses as for example (Krueger & Casey, 2009):

- “Would you explain this point further?”
- “Can you give an example?”
- “Please, tell me more about this”

As a conclusion I would summarize the main points of the group discussion and ask for their confirmation (three to five key points). I would review the purpose and ask if I have missed anything they consider important.

Appendix H

Personal Interview Protocol

Time of interview:

Date:

Interviewer:

Interviewee:

Thank you very much for being here today. I know it has been a long day at work and I really appreciate your taking time to do this. As I already told you I am conducting a research project for my dissertation about the internationalization of a Spanish University. Before we start I would like to assure the confidentiality of this interview. No name will appear in any document and following the Institute Review Board (IRB) at the University of Minnesota, this interview will be transcribed, analyzed, and afterwards coded for research purposes. The transcriptions will be securely kept and will not be shared to anyone but the main researcher. This interview will not take longer than two hours, and as part of the procedure I would like you to read the IRB consent form.

2. What have been some of your best international experiences?
 - 1.1 How do you think that those experiences affect your daily work?
3. How would you define internationalization?
4. When you hear internationalization in higher education what does it mean to you?
5. What do you consider the most the important elements of internationalization?
6. What do you see as the major factors, which foster and facilitate internationalization?

7. In the Spanish context how do you see internationalization?
8. When you hear about internationalization of higher education what does it mean for you in the context of San Jorge University?
9. In which ways is San Jorge University unique or distinctive if you compare it with other Spanish private universities?
10. What are our strong points?
11. What are our weak points where we could improve?
12. What would you suggest are the major obstacles and barriers, which make it difficult to internationalize our campus?
13. What do you see as the future of internationalization in San Jorge University?
14. Is there anything else that you would like to add?

Thank you very much for your time and valuable information.