Motivations and Enabling Factors for Faculty Engagement in Internationalization: Learning from Champions and Advocates

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By Nicole Paulette Sanderlin

ABSTRACT

The success of internationalization depends heavily on faculty support and engagement. Nonetheless, the motivations of faculty heavily engaged in international activities—described by scholars as champions and advocates—are not well understood, despite the fact that their efforts have been labeled as critical to advancing such efforts. This study examined the perceived motivating factors of faculty members heavily engaged in international activities at Virginia Tech, a university that created a strategic plan aimed at increasing such endeavors in 2004. Interviews with identified champions and advocates of internationalization in two colleges at Virginia Tech—the College of Liberal Arts and Human Sciences and the Pamplin College of Business—sought to explore the benefits and elements that led these faculty members to become and remain engaged in international activities. This study also investigated whether faculty members’ involvement in international concerns could be linked to the influence of factors proposed in the faculty engagement literature as commitment enabling. Specifically, this research sought to test Wade and Demb’s (2009) Faculty Engagement Model, which asserts that certain professional factors contribute to professors becoming involved in community engagement.

This analysis found that five of the professional factors in Wade & Demb’s (2009) model—discipline, status/rank, socialization, professional community and department support—are useful for examining faculty members’ willingness and ability to engage in international activities. However, it also found that faculty member involvement is shaped by a convergence of professional, institutional and personal factors. These together enabled faculty members to begin and remain engaged in international activities. In addition, despite the rationales offered by leadership and through strategic plans for becoming engaged in international concerns, the most common motivating factors identified by champions and advocates were intrinsic or personal influences that are not captured in institutional efforts to internationalize. These findings suggest that although universities may create mission statements, strategic plans and policies to guide internationalization, the motivations of faculty members who undertake and implement such initiatives in their classrooms and through their research and outreach play a large part in whether and how such efforts will be realized.
DEDICATION

To my late grandmother, Irene Jankowski Sanderlin, who never had the chance to pursue higher education, but would have loved every minute. I send you my love and deepest gratitude.
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CHAPTER 1
INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background and Purpose

Internationalization—the process of integrating an international, intercultural or global dimension into the purpose, functions or delivery of post-secondary education—has become an important issue (Knight, 2003). It likely comes as no surprise that the success of such efforts depend upon faculty support and engagement. Both the scholarly and practice literatures consider professorial involvement crucial to the realization of an institution’s goals for internationalization (Carter, 1992; Childress, 2010; Goodwin & Nacht, 1983; Green & Olson, 2003; National Association of State Universities & Land Grant Colleges [NASULGC], 1993).

Despite its posited importance, efforts to engage faculty members in internationalization activities have achieved only mixed success. In fact, the professoriate evidences a range of views on such efforts, from supportive and positive, to indifferent (Schoorman, 1999), unengaged (Ellingboe, 1998) and opposed (Green & Olson, 2003). These research findings suggest that although senior administrators may create mission statements, strategic plans and policies to guide internationalization, the perceptions of faculty members who will undertake and implement such initiatives in their classrooms and through their research and outreach, play a large part in whether and how such efforts will be implemented. Without a clear understanding of professors’ views concerning administrative efforts to create, promote and secure internationalization, such initiatives are unlikely to succeed.

Research concerning faculty perceptions of integration of international concerns into university curricula to date has tended to focus on understanding why professors do not engage in such activities rather than why they do. While various scholars have examined institutional and individual barriers to faculty involvement (Bond, 2003; Childress, 2010; Dewey & Duff, 2009; Ellingboe, 1998; Goodwin & Nacht, 1991; Green & Olson, 2003; Schoorman, 1999), very little research has explored faculty motivations for becoming engaged in international teaching,
research and service activities. In addition, universities tend to focus on barriers to stronger faculty involvement, even as they declare securing their increased participation a strategic goal.

Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University, or Virginia Tech, has embraced increased faculty participation in international activities as a priority goal. The University published an International Strategic Plan in October 2004, which outlined aims and outcomes to be achieved by 2011. Created by a committee of 24 senior administrators and faculty members over a year-long process, Virginia Tech’s International Strategic Plan was designed as a “blueprint for action” for the university. First among its five primary recommendations was “to identify obstacles that are working against broader faculty participation in internationalization in teaching, research, obtaining grants, and outreach” (International Strategic Directions Team, 2004, p. 22). Despite this stated aspiration, to date university leadership has not undertaken a formal survey of faculty perceptions concerning the nature of possible obstacles to internationalization at the institution. In addition, and in any case, such an approach would not help university leaders understand why the numerous faculty members who were engaged in international education activities at Virginia Tech before the plan was adopted and the additional faculty who have participated since have done so, perhaps even despite individual or institutional barriers.

The motivations and perceptions of these faculty members—described by scholars as champions or advocates for internationalization—are not well understood, despite the fact that their efforts have been labeled critical to advancing long-term internationalization efforts (Green & Olson, 2003). Although described as tenured faculty members with experience and interest in international issues (Green & Olson, 2003), very little other information exists about champions and advocates. In the literature and in practice, the scarcity of information concerning who these faculty are and their perceptions of not only barriers, but also of motivations and benefits, to engaging in internationalization is surprising, especially in light of increased efforts by universities to create strategic plans aimed at investing faculty in development programs to promote international scholarship and curriculum development (Childress, 2009a, 2009b, 2010; Green & Olson, 2003).
This work contributes to the literature concerning the internationalization of higher education by investigating faculty members’ perceived motivations and benefits for engaging in international activities. By developing an empirical model adapted from the literature on faculty engagement, this study examines the professional factors that influence professors to become involved in international activities. By focusing on faculty members already deemed to be champions and advocates of internationalization and investigating the reasons that have led those individuals to pursue and become heavily involved in international activities even in the face of professional or institutional barriers, this study also contributes to the literature on faculty development as it applies to internationalization.

1.2 Study Overview and Central Research Questions

I began this research with the hypothesis, based on anecdotal evidence, that faculty members who are heavily and visibly engaged in international activities—those who are often deemed champions and advocates for internationalization—exhibit individual motivations for doing so that are not captured in institution-level, administrative efforts to encourage such efforts. That is to say, the strategic plans, institutional policies and structures that are put in place to guide or urge faculty members to engage in internationalization activities do not always take into account the motivations of professors themselves. This study sought to explore this claim by investigating the perceived motivating factors of professors heavily engaged in international activities at Virginia Tech.

Two main research questions guided this inquiry. First, what do champions and advocates of internationalization identify as the benefits and motivating factors that led them to become and remain engaged in international activities? Second, can faculty members’ involvement in international activities be linked to the influence of factors proposed in the relevant engagement literature as involvement-enabling? As there is currently no model to explore faculty participation in internationalization, this study employed the professional dimension of the Faculty Engagement Model proposed by Wade and Demb (2009). This approach asserts that certain professional factors contribute to a faculty member becoming involved in community engagement; those professional factors include discipline, status/rank, socialization, expert community support, department backing and length of time in academe. Wade and Demb’s
model refers to engagement as public service with direct connection to the teaching and research functions of the professoriate. Given that internationalization also has specific ties to these functions, I sought to explore whether there is an overlap between the factors that enable a faculty member to participate in community engagement and those that enable involvement in international activities. What specific factors appear most significant in fostering faculty commitment to international efforts? This project aimed to shed light on the concerns and characteristics animating champions and advocates of internationalization and thereby to contribute to the literature on faculty development and planning for such efforts. In addition, because the relevant literature offers minimal descriptions of champions and advocates, this study also intended to provide insight into the activities and professional characteristics of champions and advocates of internationalization.

I employed qualitative methods to address these questions. Semi-structured interviews with faculty members in two colleges at Virginia Tech—the Pamplin College of Business and the College of Liberal Arts and Human Sciences—provided an avenue to explore the perceptions and insights of professors in colleges representing different disciplines. Interviews focused on exploring the professional factors highlighted by Wade & Demb as well as scholars’ perceptions not only of barriers, but also of the benefits and motivations of being involved in international activities.

1.3 Terminology

A few words about terminology may prove helpful. Because many of the concepts used here have multiple meanings or are understood in diverse ways in different national and international discussions concerning internationalization, it is important to be clear at the outset concerning how I use and interpret key ideas. The following section provides descriptions of key terms as I employ them in this analysis.

Faculty Engagement

A vast body of literature already exists concerning faculty activities understood as community or civic engagement. This research commonly defines the term engagement as “the partnership of university knowledge and resources with those of the public and private sectors to
enrich scholarship, research, and creative activity; enhance curriculum, teaching and learning; prepare educated, engaged citizens; strengthen democratic values and civic responsibility; address critical societal issues; and contribute to the public good" (Civic Engagement Benchmarking Task Force, 2005, as cited by Bloomfield, 2005, p.3). Engagement in this sense is often connected with the idea of engaged scholarship or connecting faculty expertise to public issues such as community, social, cultural, human and economic development (Holland, 2005, as cited in Stanton, 2007, p.6). In these analyses, the term community engagement is more specifically defined as “the application of institutional resources to address and solve challenges facing communities through collaboration with these communities” (Commission on Community Engaged Scholarship in the Health Professions, 2005 as cited in Stanton, 2007, p. 6). This may take the form of research, teaching or, as it is often termed, outreach and/or extension work. Although I employ the analytical construct of the Faculty Engagement Model (FEM) from this literature and recognize that some international activities may fall into this category, this type of engagement is not the focus of this study. Instead, this inquiry will employ the term engagement to denote involvement in international activities. Where the idea of engagement under discussion implies the specific definitions cited above, I will use the term community engagement to make that clear.

Globalization

The term globalization is fraught with much debate amongst interested scholars. As used here, globalization describes, “the process through which an ever-expanding free flow of goods, services, capital, peoples and social customs leads to further integration of economies and societies worldwide” (Sharma, 2008, p.1).

International Education

Historically, the term international education has been employed in the United States to describe the non-domestic focused dimensions of the nation’s higher education institutions (Green & Olson, 2003). Green and Olson (2003) have defined international education as, “an umbrella term for institutional programs and activities that have a recognizable international dimension, such as student and faculty exchange, study and work abroad, international development activities, foreign language studies, international studies, area studies and joint
degree programs” (p. 1). As those analysts noted, a major problem with the term is that it suggests that such activities are separate from the rest of education and exist as parallel or different undertakings. Green and Olson assert that in practice, “this term tends to suggest that international learning and experiences are not only disconnected from other aspects of the educational process, but also marginalized and poorly integrated into the institution’s mission, strategic plan, structure or funding priorities” (2003, p. 1). Therefore, despite the common use of the phrase in the United States, this study uses internationalization instead.

**Internationalization**

The term internationalization has occasioned a virtual torrent of commentary and controversy, a debate that will be explored further below. This study employs Jane Knight’s definition of the construct as, “the process of integrating an international, intercultural or global dimension into the purpose, functions or delivery of post-secondary education” (Knight, 2003, p. 2). As used here, internationalization suggests an integrative process involving multiple approaches and actors.

**1.4 Outline of the Dissertation**

Chapter 1 provides an overview of the dissertation: its objectives, its place within the broader relevant literature, methods and central research questions. Chapter 2 offers a review of the theory and scholarly literature most relevant to this research. Chapter 3 outlines the study’s methodology while Chapter 4 describes internationalization at Virginia Tech in order to acquaint the reader with the prevailing faculty engagement context at the university under study. Chapter 4 also profiles the two colleges that were the focus of this study. Chapter 5 examines data collected from interviews with faculty members, providing a detailed analysis of the professional factors identified in Wade & Demb’s Faculty Engagement Model that may influence professors’ ability and willingness to engage in international activities. It aims to explore the usefulness of the FEM in understanding faculty motivations to engage in internationalization efforts. Chapter 6 provides a detailed analysis of the motivating considerations that may influence faculty members’ ability and willingness to engage in international activities. Chapter 7 summarizes the study’s principal findings and offers conclusions. Appendices contain Institutional Review Board (IRB) approval letters and the interview questions used in the research.
CHAPTER 2
INTERNATIONALIZATION AND FACULTY ENGAGEMENT

2.1 Introduction
This chapter situates this research in the body of literature and theory related to internationalization and faculty engagement. In order to lay the groundwork for understanding the role of faculty in such initiatives, this section first analyzes the definition, history and rationales for such efforts. A review of the literature regarding the importance of developing faculty engagement in internationalization follows, examining the institutional and individual obstacles and challenges embedded in developing professorial support for such programs. The subsequent section examines relevant approaches to building faculty engagement in internationalization. As there is currently no model that identifies factors that may enable faculty to engage in these sorts of institutional change projects, this section analyzes the usefulness of Wade and Demb’s (2009) Faculty Engagement Model for examining them. The chapter concludes with a discussion of how the present research relates to, and builds upon, existing scholarship.

2.2 Internationalization of Higher Education
Literature concerning the internationalization of higher education is abundant. The most cited scholars on the topic come from the U.S., Europe and Australia, which undoubtedly lend a Western viewpoint to the literature as it reports trends, benefits and pitfalls. While research on internationalization does emanate from locations outside the West (Huang, 2003; Jowi, 2009; Mitra, 2010; Zolfaghari et al., 2009, among others), because my inquiry is limited to U.S. higher education, I have chosen to focus on relevant American and European literature to frame and describe the history primary rationales that underpin it.

2.2.1 Defining Internationalization
Internationalization is not new. It has been the subject of discourse in the field of higher education for almost 30 years. The term has long been used in political science and business, but its popularity in the education sector has soared since the early 1980s. Although
internationalization has become increasingly popular in higher education, there is still much debate about what it means. As de Wit noted in 2002, “over the past ten years a lively debate has taken place on the definition and meaning of the internationalization of higher education” (p. 104). For some, the concept implies a series of international activities such as academic exchanges, study abroad programs, international research collaborations and new academic programs. For others, it portends the inclusion of an international, intercultural or global dimension into university or college curricula. Some also employ the term in ways that include international development projects or new types of delivery of educational programs in other countries, including branch campuses or franchised degree programs using a variety of face-to-face or distance delivery methods. In all cases, definitions depend on the stakeholders and historical and socio-cultural context of the institution involved.

In defining internationalization, it is important to distinguish between publications produced by higher education institutions and the organizations that represent them and the scholarly literature concerning the phenomenon. In the United States, internationalization at the institutional and national levels alike tends to be practically oriented, focusing on process and outcomes. The American Council of Education (ACE), a coordinating body for American institutions of higher education, defines internationalization as, “the process of infusing an international or intercultural dimension into the teaching, learning, research, and service functions of higher education” (“Comprehensive Internationalization,” n.d., par. 1), a definition shared by the Association of Public and Land-Grant Universities, or APLU (formerly National Association of State Universities and Land Grant Colleges-NASULGC). This description captures the process of internationalization, but also assumes a tripartite mission of teaching, research and service—a mission common to many U.S. institutions of higher education, but not all.

Taking a different approach, the U.S. Department of Education has defined internationalization by means of specific types of institutional activities. These include:

- Multilateral, multi-institutional collaboration,
- Student mobility,
- Mutual recognition of credits and study activities,
- Development of shared and/or common curricula,
- Acquisition of host country languages,
- Development of apprenticeships and other work activities, and
- Faculty and staff cooperation and exchange
  (Office of Postsecondary Education, n.d., par. 5).

Scholars have expanded these definitions. Van der Wende (1997) has proposed a broader view of internationalization that looks beyond participating institutions as, “any systematic effort aimed at making higher education responsive to the requirements and challenges related to globalization of societies, economy and labour markets” (p. 18). Meanwhile, Jane Knight (2004a) has argued that Van der Wende’s definition includes the important dimension of globalization, but nevertheless, “only positions the international dimension in terms of the external environment … and therefore does not [contextualize] internationalization in terms of the education sector itself” (p. 10).

Meanwhile, Hans de Wit (2002) has posited that most analysts of internationalization examine the phenomenon through one of four approaches—activities, rationales, outcomes or process (p. 116-118). Indeed, the three definitions mentioned above each fit into de Wit’s categories. As already noted, while each of these approaches offers useful ways of viewing internationalization, I here employ Jane Knight’s (2003) process-focused definition of the phenomenon (p. 2).

Knight’s definition is widely accepted by practitioners and theorists alike and is useful for several reasons. First, considering internationalization as a process is important to understanding the phenomenon as a continuing effort. As Knight (2004a) has suggested, “the term process denotes an evolutionary or developmental quality to the concept” (p. 11). Internationalization is not just the addition of elements into the program portfolio of colleges and universities. It represents, instead, a process of organizational change. Ellingboe (1998) has described internationalization as, “an ongoing, future-oriented, multidimensional, 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” (as cited in Bartell, 2003, p. 45-46). In this view, internationalization represents a fundamental organizational adaptation, requiring the engagement of university leaders, co-curricular units, faculty members and students in a project of organizational change. As Bartell (2003) has observed, internationalization “requires its articulation by leadership while simultaneously institutionalizing a strategic planning process that is representative and participative in that it recognizes and utilizes the power of the [organizational] culture within which it occurs” (p. 43).

Second, this definition is useful because it incorporates “international, intercultural, and global” dimensions. Knight (2004a) has explained that she uses all three of these terms intentionally to reflect the breadth of internationalization, much as analysts use the phrase to describe relationships between and among nation-states (p. 11). However, this approach can be problematic, as many scholars have argued that the nation-state is increasingly less relevant as a central actor in international politics as a result of ongoing globalization. Thus, Knight’s addition of the term intercultural is helpful in describing not only institutional relationships across national boundaries, but also those that span the diversity of cultures that exist within countries, communities and organizations. In addition, the term global lends a worldwide scope to the definition (p. 11). The three concepts are complementary and together provide a comprehensive description of the phenomenon of internationalization.

Third, Knight’s use of “purpose, function and delivery” in her definition is useful not only at the institutional level, but also at the sectoral scale and for a variety of providers of postsecondary education. This rendering is far more helpful than the more narrow ACE definition noted above, that refers to “teaching, research and service.” Such nomenclature does not apply to some community colleges, many private providers of higher education programs, or companies and nonprofits that only provide study abroad opportunities. All of these programs and institutions play important roles in internationalization activities nationally.

2.2.2 The History of Internationalization in the United States

The academic literature on American higher education has addressed international questions throughout its history. In The American College and University: A History, Rudolph
identified and highlighted the presence of a global dimension in American universities since the establishment of higher education institutions in the original English colonies during the seventeenth century. Modeled after Oxford and Cambridge, the first colleges created in what is now the United States, “intended to recreate a little bit of old England in America” (Rudolph, 1990, p. 4). Focusing on these European roots, some scholars go further back historically to the creation of universities in the Middle Ages, arguing as does Peter Scott (1998), that “in a rhetorical sense, internationalism has always been part of the life-world of the university” (p. 123) (Altbach & Knight, 2007; Delanty, 2001; de Wit, 2002; Fallis, 2007; Kerr, 2001).

While historical accounts have identified elements of internationalization early in the evolution of the nation’s higher education institutions, most analysts also agree, as Hans de Wit has observed, that the international dimension of higher education prior to the twentieth century was more incidental than organized, consisting mainly of individual students and faculty moving across borders to study or to conduct research at other universities (de Wit, 2002). As a systematic activity, “international education” is a product of the twentieth century, beginning in an active way in the United States near the end of the Cold War. Such curricula originally leaned heavily on foreign policy and national security rationales for its legitimation.

Similarly, analysts have argued internationalization as a strategic trend to secure ongoing institutional change in the United States emerged in the late 1980s and early 1990s (Jones et al., 2005; Biddle, 2002; de Wit, 2002). Although there is no consensus on when globalization officially began in the academic literature on the topic, most authors do identify the 1990s and beyond as an era of noticeably more rapid economic, political and social changes across the world. Internationalization can be viewed therefore as the education sector’s response to global trends. This is especially true for U.S. government publications and for organizations such as NAFSA: Association of International Educators, the Institute for International Education (IIE) and the American Council on Education (ACE) that promote internationalization. These institutions tend to portray globalization as an “outside force” pushing higher education toward increased international activity and awareness. In addition, much scholarly literature has framed internationalization as a “coping strategy” in response to outside forces (Altbach & Knight,
While the authors mentioned provide excellent conceptual analyses of the process of internationalization, what is missing from these arguments is recognition that universities are not only subject to globalization, but are also active participants in and contributors to the global economy. As Scott (1998) has observed, “globalization can be thought of as the catalyst while internationalization is the response, albeit a response in a proactive way” (p. 6). Given the ongoing complex transformations of the nation’s and globe’s economic, political, scientific and social climate, it is important to frame internationalization in light of how institutions of higher education are redefining their role in a rapidly changing world political economy. Such efforts became far more strategic in the 1980s and 1990s when, “many universities opened international relations offices, designed new exchange and collaborative programs, institutionalized their international research networks, and began, in earnest, to pay attention to how they exposed their students to the shrinking outside world, which required such exposure and understanding” (Jones et al., 2005, p. 59).

Internationalization emphasizes specific types of activities, including student mobility and faculty and staff cooperation and exchange; cross-national research projects and networks; more academic courses integrating an extra-national perspective and an increased emphasis on how international cooperative projects, particularly with universities in developing countries, are mutually enriching for all participants (Jones et al., 2005, p.59). In this sense, internationalization constitutes a strategic process that contributes to a broad shift in university policies, structure and curricula. Several components must be in place for such efforts to succeed.

The literature of practice commonly refers to Ellingboe’s (1998) list of significant elements to outline factors key to internationalization. These include:

- College leadership;
- Faculty members’ involvement in activities with colleagues, research sites, and institutions worldwide;
- The curriculum;
The availability, affordability, accessibility and transferability of study abroad programs for students;

The presence and integration of international students, scholars and visiting faculty into campus life; and

International co-curricular units, including residence halls, on-campus centers, cultural immersion and language houses and student activities and organizations (p. 205).

In *Internationalizing the Campus: A User’s Guide*, Green & Olson (2003) summarized these factors as “leadership, resources, organizational structures, and partnerships,” indicating their broad acceptance in the literature of practice as key elements of successful internationalization (p. 79).

### 2.2.3 Rationales for Internationalization

Analysts continue to debate the extent to which universities have taken internationalization seriously. For some scholars, the construct is often not much more than “high octane rhetoric” used by education leaders (Scott, 1998, p. 111). As Carroll (1993) has argued, “Practically every college and university has the word *international* [emphasis added] in its mission statement” (p. 15). What is significant, however, is the strategic fashion in which those universities that are pursuing comprehensive internationalization are approaching the process and the rationales they have given for doing so. Indeed, it is useful to assay the motivations for incorporating an international or global dimension into higher education.

Although globalization is frequently cited as a main cause of internationalization, institutions, national governments, international bodies and increasingly, for-profit entities have provided numerous additional rationales for augmented international education activities. For their part, U.S. institutions of higher education have offered a variety of arguments—social, economic and educational—to justify internationalization. The Association for Public and Land-Grant Universities (APLU), representing land-grant colleges and state universities, has identified “four good reasons to internationalize … for our students, our communities, our nation, and the academy” (NASULGC, 2004, p. 7). NAFSA has also issued statements that echo this rationale, stating, “University and college administrators and faculty must prepare a new generation of
students and scholars who are engaged with the world and equipped with skills that will allow them to contribute to the social and economic development of the global community (NAFSA, 2010, p. 3).

The scholarly literature on higher education and internationalization, however, provides a much more complex picture of rationales for such initiatives. In the 1990s, books and articles on the topic presented several different justifications including national security, economic imperative, competitiveness and international understanding (Aigner et al, 1992; Scott, 1998). In Strategies for Internationalisation of Higher Education: A Comparative Study of Australia, Canada, Europe and the United States of America (1995), Knight and de Wit developed a conceptual structure for the various rationales and argued that stakeholders were an important factor linked to those justifications. They contended, “rationales and incentives for internationalization are influenced and to a large extent constructed by the role and viewpoint of the various stakeholders” (p. 84). These interested parties include national and regional governments, international organizations, the private (for-profit and nonprofit) sectors; and the educational sub-sector, including specific institutions, faculty and students (p. 84).

Building on this approach, Knight and de Wit later identified four main groups of justifications for internationalization—political, economic, socio-cultural and academic (de Wit, 2002; Knight & de Wit, 1997, 1999). Other scholars (van der Wende, 1997; Gacel-Ávila, 1999; Callan, 2000, among others) have adopted this taxonomy, indicating its broad acceptance in the literature. In 2002, Hans de Wit refined this conceptualization by adding subcategories (p. 85-101). Although his framework did not differentiate between national, institutional and sectoral level rationales, de Wit’s categorization is perhaps the most detailed in the internationalization literature. Knight (2004a) has argued that while these justifications all continue to be relevant, the lines demarcating each are blurring (p. 22).

These four types of rationales are broadly accepted in empirical studies as principal reasons for internationalization. In addition to these factors, however, some scholars add a fifth motivation, which I will term institutional benefits. This component points to reputation and income generation as important reasons that universities internationalize. Both factors are
important. Institutional reputation refers to how others at the national or international level view the university. Knight (2004b) describes this concern as “international branding and profile” (p. 22). Reflecting on justifications she has heard from administrators since her work in international education began in the 1990s, Biddle (2002) pointed out:

At home, the university must keep pace with its peers, many of whom had already put in place new international programs and institutional structures. There was an ever-present fear of falling behind. If the university was to remain a great university in the twenty-first century, it must move to meet the challenges of internationalization. In so doing, it would enhance its visibility and stature internationally (p. 6)

By focusing on internationalization, Biddle (2002) has argued, universities can enhance their reach to recruit international students and faculty and develop collaborative partnerships with counterpart overseas institutions (p. 22). In this way, internationalization can be seen as part of an ongoing process of strengthening an institution’s reputation. By raising its profile, a college or university can attract additional international opportunities, further enhancing its global presence and reputation in a sort of virtuous circle.

This rationale for internationalization is not one often mentioned in institutional publications or those from national organizations. However, in an era placing increasing importance on institutional rankings—not only nationally, but globally—its significance should be recognized. Virginia Tech’s International Strategic Plan mentions this justification, stating, “as Virginia Tech strives to achieve a top 30 ranking among U.S. research universities, we must recognize that international research and scholarship contribute tangibly to our ranking and reputation” (p. 1). National and global reputation should be recognized as one of many rationales present within institutions that prompt internationalization efforts.

In addition to reputation, income generation may also play a part in justifications to internationalize. As Knight has observed (2004a), the need to raise funds in an increasingly competitive landscape is important. As Biddle (2002) has suggested,
Beneath the rhetoric, the subtext was clear: universities must internationalize in order to raise money. The thread ran throughout the rationale, in the repeated references to opportunities that might otherwise be lost; the concern with maintaining a competitive edge to attract more students at home and increase recruitment abroad; and in the mention of establishing connections with international alumni, which translated into broadening the base of alumni donors (p. 7).

Indeed, in an increasingly competitive economic environment, no university would likely be willing to engage in international activities if they did not generate income. Transnational education, or education programs delivered by an institution based in one country to students located in another, is the most obvious example of a consumer-driven internationalization activity. McBurnie and Ziguras (2007) have described transnational programs—also referred to as the off-shoring of higher education—as “the most consumer-driven form of education delivery in the world today” (p. 1). Other international activities have also been shown to make marked economic contributions not only to institutions, but also to the national economy. NAFSA (2009), for example estimated that during the 2008-2009 academic year, international students and their dependents contributed approximately $17.6 billion to the U.S. economy (p.1).

In summary, when analyzing all of these motivations, the following points are important. First, there is a strong overlap of rationales within and between different stakeholder groups. Second, stakeholders typically do not embrace one exclusive justification, but instead consider a combination of arguments with at least an implied hierarchy of priorities (de Wit 2002, p. 100). Third, rationales are not static, but vary according to stakeholder interests and broader political and social currents/forces (de Wit, 1998, as cited in de Wit, 2002, p. 100). An understanding of these logics is salient for this study because it lays the foundation for why institutions may develop internationalization plans and why faculty may engage in such activities. These rationales shed light on the importance of considering the diverse motivating factors at work as universities implement internationalization plans.
2.3 Faculty Engagement in Internationalization

Internationalization’s proponents have long argued its success requires the broad participation of all members of the academic community to provide the human resources necessary to serve the goal. Faculty members are crucial players in the internationalization process, and research has concluded that professorial involvement throughout the institution is essential to the realization of an institution’s goals for expanding and deepening international activities (Carter, 1992; Childress, 2010; Goodwin & Nacht, 1983; NASULGC, 1993). This section discusses the role of faculty in internationalization, defining the types of activities professors pursue, different levels of faculty engagement and challenges and barriers they may face.

2.3.1 The Essential Role of Faculty

Faculty members play a critical role in efforts to internationalize any campus. As a NASULGC (1993) report has argued, they are essential to the process of creating and transferring knowledge through teaching students, conducting research and disseminating knowledge and information through outreach and community engagement activities. The literature of practice asserts, in fact, internationalization is unlikely to succeed without faculty committed to creating and sustaining it (Green & Olson, 2003, p.64). Childress (2010) has summarized a number of factors that account for this argument. As she has suggested, faculty have long been recognized as key forces in institutional change and the internationalization of knowledge, directly shaping the teaching, research and service missions of higher education institutions, “In particular, professors have direct involvement and authority in (a) curricular content changes, (b) research, scholarly collaboration and interdisciplinary engagement, and (c) international development and service” (Childress, 2010, p. 27). By virtue of the broad scope of their activities and contact with students, faculty members play a key role in the definition and implementation of internationalization on their campuses. As Carter (1992) has observed, “faculty serve in all capacities as the implementers of international awareness and competence” (p. 40). As a result, she argues, those institutions that have broad-based faculty support are more likely to experience a higher degree of success in their international initiatives compared to those that do not. Childress (2010) echoed this contention when she stated, “as faculty are stewards of an institution’s teaching, research, and service agendas, research indicates that widespread
faculty engagement in internationalization is not optional, but essential for an entire campus to be affected” (p. 27).

2.3.2 Defining Engagement Activities

The literature of practice clearly promotes increased faculty engagement in internationalization activities and efforts on their campuses. But of what does this engagement actually consist? What types of activities can faculty undertake in order to contribute to successful internationalization?

Much literature on internationalization focuses on curricula as a function in which faculty members play a critical role. Carter (1992) argued that through such activities as curricular development, area studies, comparative studies and internationally-focused courses, faculty stimulate student interest in the field of international relations and generally serve as a catalyst for the overall internationalization of an institution (Carter, 1992, p. 39). While Carter focused primarily on the role of faculty in the classroom, she also argued the faculty advisor role is equally important in developing student international competence. Since students tend to look to faculty counsel to provide recommendations regarding course selection and extracurricular academic participation, “a faculty advisor’s support or lack thereof can make the difference as to whether a student elects to include a study abroad experience or ... incorporates an international perspective in discipline-based degree programs” (Carter, 1992, p. 43).

This focus on direct personal contact with students, while important, does not negate the significance of the myriad of other activities that engage faculty members on their campuses. Indeed, Childress (2010) has offered a typology of three types of activities that faculty members undertake to further the goal of internationalization—teaching, research and service—which can take place in three different locations—on campus, off campus and regional, and off campus and abroad (Childress, 2010, p. 143). Since each of the three strategies can take place in three different locations, her typology yields nine distinct strategies for faculty engagement in internationalization:

- Teaching on campus,
- Teaching off campus and regionally,
- Teaching off campus and abroad,
- Research on campus,
- Research off campus and regionally,
- Research off campus and abroad,
- Service on campus,
- Service off campus and regionally, and
- Service off campus and abroad (Childress, 2010, p. 144).

Childress’ typology of activities is helpful for thinking about faculty engagement. However, its focus on the traditional faculty activities of teaching, research and service is somewhat misleading. Carter (1992), for example, has argued “it would be interesting to note the number of faculty who direct international education programs with the level of effort of a full-time administrator” (p. 40), a statement which seems to focus on the planning and implementation of a study abroad program as a managerial function, rather than one that fits into the categories of teaching, research or service. At Virginia Tech, the Faculty Activity Report that professors must use to report their annual activities categorizes this type of activity as *university service*, defined as “any activity, other than teaching and research, that facilitates the growth and development of the university as an entity.” Thus, designing and leading a study abroad program at Virginia Tech would fit into Childress’ typology as *service on campus*, but it would likely be viewed differently at another institution. Despite this potential weakness, Childress’ faculty activities framework will be used to categorize faculty members’ international activities in this study.

### 2.3.3 Levels of Faculty Engagement

Given the variety of internationalization activities afoot on campuses, it is perhaps not surprising that faculty may be involved at a variety of different levels of commitment (Carter, 1992; Childress, 2010; Ellingboe, 1998; Goodwin & Nacht, 1983; Green & Olson, 2003; Schoorman, 1999). Childress (2010) has neatly summarized this literature on degrees of faculty engagement by describing faculty members as falling into six different categories: champions, advocates, latent champions and advocates, uninterested, skeptics and opponents (p. 28).
First, *champions* are faculty with “vast knowledge of international issues in their areas of expertise and strong cross-cultural communication skills” (Childress, 2010, p. 28). Green and Olson (2003) assert that champions are likely to be proficient in a language other than English and have spent substantial time abroad (p. 28). Such faculty members also tend to demonstrate positive attitudes toward the value of international perspectives for their work (Childress, 2007) encouraging them to be committed to participating in their institution’s internationalization plans. Green and Olson (2003) also describe champions as likely to be tenured senior faculty, particularly in the case of departments that have not had a history of international engagement (p. 28), an important issue explored later in this study.

The second level Childress (2010) described is *advocates*. These are faculty who are passionate about a particular dimension of internationalization, such as language study or efforts within a particular discipline (Green & Olson, 2003, p. 27). This enthusiasm is often prompted by a faculty member’s international experiences and foreign language proficiency. As a result, “advocates are faculty to whom campus-wide committees and other internationalization leaders turn to for support in order to operationalize particular components of an internationalization plan” (Childress 2010, p.28).

The third level Childress offered is *latent champions and advocates* (Childress, 2010; Goodwin & Nacht, 1983; Green & Olson, 2003). Although these faculty members may seem uninterested when internationalization is mentioned (Goodwin & Nacht, 1983), through exposure to global issues connected to their scholarly and personal interests, such as teaching and research opportunities overseas or through hearing about the value of educational exchanges through family and friends, for example, these potential supporters may begin to internationalize their teaching and research. Green and Olson (2003) cite as examples faculty members who may talk to students about study abroad because of a personal experience, or who might befriend an international student and help her practice her English (p. 27). In other words, latent supporters may have a budding enthusiasm in international issues that has not yet been developed beyond a personal interest. However, scholars contend that if latent supporters are invited into the process and provided with experience and incentives, those opportunities could encourage their transition to advocacy for internationalization (Green & Olson, 2003, as cited by Childress, 2010).
The fourth level is the *uninterested*. Ellingboe (1998) describes faculty who are uninterested as “passive and unaware” of international matters (p. 214). Childress does not elaborate on uninterested faculty members, nor offer possible reasons for why they might be indifferent to engaging in international activities. It is difficult to know whether uninterested professors are thus *unaware*, as Ellingboe suggests, or are *silent resisters* who are actually opposed, as Green and Olson (2003) have hypothesized. The numerous barriers identified in the literature offer strong clues for why international activities may hold little interest for some faculty members.

The fifth and sixth levels Childress (2010) described are *skeptics* and *opponents*. Skeptics are faculty doubtful of the relevance of international issues to their disciplines and hesitant to participate in internationalization plans (p. 29). Finally, opponents are professors who openly disagree with and even make efforts to obstruct implementation of internationalization plans (p. 29). Green and Olson (2003) attribute this skepticism and opposition to a variety of factors. They explain that opposition may stem from a fundamental difference in philosophy, including a belief in national superiority, a lack of international experience or a fear of losing status or resources (p. 30). In addition, those faculty members whose viewpoints align with critical theory argue internationalization is simply a money-making endeavor rather than an activity that sincerely seeks to transform student experience and knowledge (e.g. Jones et al., 2005; Lyotard, 1984; Ritzer, 1998; Slaughter & Rhodes, 2004; Stromquist, 2002). These perspectives are explored in the following section on the challenge of securing faculty engagement in internationalization efforts.

Regardless of the level of faculty involvement, the literature of practice tends to label faculty champions and advocates as *good* and skeptics and opponents as *bad*. Descriptors such as *passive* and *unaware* (Ellingboe, 1998), coupled with reasoning such as that offered by Goodwin and Nacht (1991) that unengaged faculty are *know-it-alls* who see worthwhile research as only taking place in the United States, are patronizing at best, and do little to encourage an understanding of these faculty members’ viewpoints and experiences, nor to further internationalization efforts. Green and Olson (2003) offer a somewhat more judicious
perspective by encouraging internationalization leaders to resist the temptation to screen out dissident voices as “one’s opponents often provide useful input, raising legitimate questions that sometimes are not heard because the enthusiasts do not want to hear criticism” (p. 30). However they also assert “a more pragmatic and political reason to heed opponents is to avoid surprise attacks as the process advances” (2003, p. 30). This suspicious tone in the literature of practice toward faculty members who are not champions or advocates of internationalization should be borne in mind as the analysis proceeds.

2.3.4 Challenges of Developing Faculty Engagement in Internationalization

The literature suggests that to develop widespread faculty engagement in internationalization, the involvement of faculty members from across the university and of all sorts—including latent supporters, skeptics and opponents—is critical (Bond, 2003; Childress, 2010; Green & Olson, 2003). However, given that a variety of levels of faculty engagement exist, it is important to understand the sources of resistance to such efforts. Leading internationalization scholars have cited numerous barriers to such processes. These can be broadly organized into two categories: institutional and individual barriers (Childress, 2010; Green & Olson, 2003). The diagram below illustrates the challenges to internationalization identified by scholars to the time of this writing.

Figure 2.1 Barriers to Faculty Engagement in International Activities as Identified in the Literature
Institutional Barriers

Institutional impediments can significantly shape faculty engagement in internationalization. As Green and Olson (2003) have suggested, “only the most committed faculty will engage in internationalization in the face of significant institutional barriers; without sufficient support, even the enthusiasts may conclude that their energy might best be directed elsewhere” (p. 70). The literature of practice has identified a number of specific types of institutional obstacles that may prevent faculty from engaging in internationalization. These include lack of financial resources, disciplinary divisions and priorities, restrictive tenure and promotion policies (Green & Olson 2003), unsupportive administrative policies and procedures and lack of personnel to facilitate international initiatives (Dewey & Duff, 2009).

Lack of financial resources Lack of financial resources is one of the most often-cited disincentives for faculty to engage in international activities (Bond, 2003; Childress, 2010; Dewey and Duff, 2009; Ellingboe, 1998; Goodwin and Nacht, 1991; Green and Olson 2003). Childress (2010) has argued financial constraints prevent faculty from participating in teaching, research and service overseas for meaningful periods due to the significant costs embedded in traveling and working in other countries as well as filling teaching vacancies on the home campus while a professor is abroad (p. 30). Insufficient funding for faculty engagement in internationalization is further exacerbated by the marginal status of international activities on many campuses, as budget cuts often reduce available travel support first (Green & Olson, 2003, p.70). Childress has attributed lack of financial resources for internationalization to financial constraints placed upon institutions, combined with increasing expectations about the services they will provide, making internationalization “yet another undervalued, unfunded initiative” (Bond, 2003, p. 9, as cited in Childress, 2010, p. 30).

Disciplinary divisions and priorities Academic disciplines, which serve as the central organizing principle for universities as well as for scholarship, can also serve as an institutional barrier (Carter, 1992; Childress, 2010; Ellingboe, 1998; Goodwin and Nacht, 1983; Green and Olson, 2003). Childress (2010) offers an excellent summary of four overarching reasons why disciplinary orientations can impede faculty engagement in internationalization. First, disciplines shape faculty members’ exposure to and training in integrating international perspectives in their
fields (p. 31). In other words, while some disciplines are intrinsically international or global, others are largely constructed from a domestic point of view. She argues that since faculty members tend to teach in the way they themselves were taught, their participation in internationalization efforts depends largely on the level of international focus found in their disciplines and in their own education (p. 31). Ellingboe (1998) found that some faculty members believe “the amount of material is so great and time limit so stretched that international perspectives could not possibly fit in with the way they currently teach their subjects” (p. 212).

Second, Childress argues that professors tend to set their teaching and research agenda based on the current needs and issues of their disciplines, rather than their institutions (p. 31). Thus, “if department chairs and disciplinary associations do not emphasize the importance of international issues to their disciplines, faculty may lack motivation to focus on international teaching, research, and service projects, as these activities may not advance their publication and tenure opportunities” (p. 31). Third, divisions between disciplines can deter interdisciplinary collaboration, which is increasingly important in order to realize internationalization goals (Childress, 2010, p. 31). Finally, Childress argues that intra-organizational politics can also hinder the development of consensus and action on a department’s internationalization agenda (p. 32).

Restrictive tenure and promotion policies The importance of tenure and promotion policies to faculty willingness and ability to engage in international teaching, research and service cannot be overestimated. As Childress has observed (2010), “in general, the faculty reward system in contemporary higher education does not acknowledge the advantages and usefulness of faculty international experiences to advancing goals for internationalization” (p. 32). Childress cites Siaya and Hayward’s (2003) national report of internationalization efforts at U.S. colleges and universities. Those authors found that less than five percent of institutions overall reported they considered international work or experience in their faculty tenure and promotion decisions (p. 15). As a result, Childress argues that faculty participation in such activities, including internationalizing courses and applying for fellowships to teach overseas, tends not to be recognized and rewarded in tenure and promotion policies (p. 32). In fact, “the
development of widespread faculty engagement in internationalization is at odds with prevailing academic reward structures” (Childress, 2010, p. 32).

These restrictive policies can lead to what Ellingboe (1998) has described as public perception syndrome. Ellingboe states that “conducting international research, taking a group of students abroad, or teaching for a year in another university overseas may not be perceived favorably, particularly among administrators, who wonder who will teach those courses while that faculty member is away” (p. 212). In addition, administrators and some professors may view international work as “a luxury or an extra perk.” In short, he argues, “participating in international activities does not always translate well back in one’s tenure home” (p. 213).

**Administrative policies and procedures** Existing administrative policies and procedures can also serve as barriers and disincentives to faculty engagement, depending on the type of activity undertaken. In a case study of the School of Architecture and Allied Arts at the University of Oregon, Dewey and Duff (2009) found “bureaucratic processes and administrative red tape” were a hindrance to faculty members undertaking international research and scholarship (p. 497). Policy statements at the university level can serve as financial disincentives to faculty taking advantage of prestigious international research grants, including Fulbright fellowships. In addition, differences in domestic and international academic calendars can make it difficult for faculty to interface with institutions running on a different schedule. In the case of study abroad programs, Dewey and Duff found that a lack of useful templates, guidelines or vetting procedures for developing new initiatives made undertaking study abroad efforts confusing, unwieldy or unappealing (p. 497). Although often unintended, universities’ policies and procedures, or a lack thereof, can serve as a barrier to faculty engaging in international activities.

**Lack of support staff and personnel to facilitate international initiatives** Because of the already high workload of faculty members and time-consuming nature of some international activities, a lack of support staff who can assist with administrative procedures can serve as a barrier to faculty engagement. Dewey and Duff (2009) found that “staff support within the school to assist with international research and study abroad program coordination is vital” (p. 25).
A lack of personnel knowledgeable about administrative procedures associated with international research activities, who can navigate the paperwork necessary for international grants, and who can coordinate information across a college or academic unit, can create a burden on faculty who end up performing many of those functions individually (p. 498).

**Individual Barriers**

The literature points to four major types of individual barriers to faculty engagement in internationalization. Three heavily cited reasons include faculty attitudes towards international learning, personal knowledge and skills and what I will term *transferability skills* (Ellingboe, 1998; Childress, 2010; Green & Olson, 2003). To these I add a fourth category, personal cost (Goodwin & Nacht, 1991).

*Attitudes toward international learning* As described by Childress (2010), faculty members’ attitudes toward international learning directly affect their willingness and interest to engage in such activities:

Although champions and advocates of internationalization tend to demonstrate positive attitudes toward the value of international perspectives for their work, skeptics and opponents tend to view international learning as extraneous to their personal and professional goals, including their academic objectives for their students (Green & Olson, 2003 as cited in Childress, 2010, p. 33).

Faculty members who do not value international learning are therefore less inclined to participate in such education opportunities. Green and Olson (2003) assert that the value that professors place on international or intercultural learning often relates to their personal experiences in interacting with people from other cultures (p. 73). Based on the Bennett Model of Intercultural Sensitivity (Bennett, 1996 as cited in Green & Olson, 2003, p.73), these authors argue that faculty who exhibit the *ethnorelative* stage of intercultural sensitivity—or adapting to and integrating different ways of being—will be most likely to seek international or intercultural experiences for themselves or their students. In contrast, those who deny or defend against difference, fall into the *ethnocentrism* stage, will be less inclined to seek or support international
experiences (Green & Olson, 2003, p. 73). Another case would be faculty members who may consider international learning irrelevant for their students, an attitude that would also be “likely to manifest in dismissive or oppositional behavior” (p. 74).

In addition, Childress (2010) has argued the negative attitudes of some professors toward internationalization results from a concern that an institution’s focus on such curricula is symbolic of a shift towards a consumer-oriented approach to higher education, diverting attention away from the core knowledge valued within a traditional set of courses (p. 33). As a result, “these faculty may view the infusion of international perspectives into their course content or pedagogy as diluting the purity of their disciplines” (p. 33), a belief that also runs counter to interdisciplinarity.

**Personal knowledge and skills** According to some researchers, faculty who have not been exposed to and involved with different cultural perspectives may simply lack the knowledge and skills necessary to carry out their institutions’ internationalization plans (Bond, 2003; Childress, 2010; Green & Olson 2003). Building on the work of Bond (2003) and Green and Olson (2003), Childress has observed, “specifically, faculty members who have not (a) lived, worked, or traveled overseas or (b) had significant interactions with individuals from different cultures in the U.S. may lack the understanding necessary to integrate international and intercultural perspectives into their teaching and research” (Childress, 2010, p.33).

Ellingboe (1998) partly attributes a lack of international knowledge and skills to graduate school preparation, which may not adequately address international education. While some newly hired faculty members begin their careers with international experience or interests, “some have not yet traveled outside the country and may resist cross-cultural or interdisciplinary teaching because it goes against the way they were educated and how they currently view their own profession” (p. 213). While some graduate programs recognize the need for graduate students to acquire international experiences while they are degree-seeking students, others reserve academic mobility only for their undergraduates for short-term study abroad experiences (p. 213). In addition, graduate students whose tuition funding is tied to assistantships or grants
that require presence on their home campus often do not have the opportunity to spend time overseas.

Transferability skills A third type of individual barrier to faculty engagement mentioned in the literature Ellingboe (1998) terms cognitive competence. Although this term is frequently used (Childress, 2010; Green & Olson, 2003), due to the negative connotation built into this terminology, I prefer to use the descriptor, transferability skills. According to Ellingboe, some faculty members have had international experiences, but have not yet connected them with their teaching, or do not know how to infuse their disciplines with international perspectives (Ellingboe, 1998, p. 211). According to Ellingboe’s research with professors and administrators, “the best way to persuade them to make the cognitive shift … is to provide them with international experiences related to their teaching/research interests that are deeper and more culturally relevant than short travel seminars or conferences” (p. 211). Until an individual cognitive shift occurs, Ellingboe argues that resistance to internationalization will continue.

Personal Cost In addition to the categories above, which refer to attitudes, beliefs and knowledge, personal cost constitutes a fourth important individual barrier to faculty engagement in international activities. The fact that this barrier is not mentioned in the literature of practice is surprising, but it is important nonetheless. In a 1991 study commissioned by the Council for International Exchange of Scholars (CIES) to explore the international experience of U.S. faculty, Goodwin and Nacht (1991) found the personal cost of international travel and experience was a major factor in faculty members’ willingness and ability to participate. Personal costs included health and safety, finances and family situations, such as partners with jobs or children. It is possible that the literature of practice has omitted discussion of these obstacles because they are not directly in the sphere of influence of university policies and procedures. However, they are an important issue to mention in this research, which seeks to explore the experiences of faculty members deeply engaged in international activities.

2.4 Approaches to Building Faculty Engagement

Given the multitude of identified barriers to faculty engagement in internationalization, an important question is what strategies universities can develop to overcome those challenges
and encourage faculty participation. Analysts have developed various approaches in the literature of practice aimed at building faculty engagement in internationalization. These tend to focus on identifying institutional components that need to be in place to encourage faculty to participate in international activities and engage in curricular changes. At the heart of these theories is a focus on institutional, rather than individual, barriers and how to overcome or mitigate them.

Carter (1992) offered one of the earliest discussions of faculty engagement in internationalization. She identified three major strategies for increasing faculty participation in such initiatives, including expansion of development opportunities for gaining international competence; support for research on international topics, including access to communication technologies and resources that facilitate international networking and collaboration; and re-examining policies related to hiring, tenure and promotion as they relate to recognition and rewards for international activities (p. 44). While Carter’s analysis provided a starting point for discussing institutional strategies to support faculty in international activities, later authors have expanded her discussion.

For example, in 2003, Green and Olson offered a list of strategies to “internationalize the faculty,” arguing “a combination of well-crafted and well-supported faculty development options will contribute considerably to successful internationalization” (p. 78). These best practices were collected from a variety of institutions, and included seven strategies:

- Short-term faculty seminars,
- Collaborative opportunities with visiting international faculty,
- Technologically enabled interaction with faculty in other countries,
- Workshops on internationalizing the curriculum,
- International conferences and seminars,
- Faculty exchange opportunities, and
- Externally funded development contracts (p. 78).

For her part, in her book *The 21st Century University: Developing Faculty Engagement in Internationalization*, Childress (2010) offered a conceptual model that included five essential components, which she argued must be in place for faculty to engage in internationalization.
Childress’ analytic approach, which she dubbed *The Five I’s of Faculty Engagement in Internationalization*, was derived from case analyses undertaken at Duke University and the University of Richmond. The five components of Childress’ model are intentionality, investments, infrastructure, institutional networks, and individual support (p. 159).

![Diagram of the Five I's of Faculty Engagement in Internationalization]

**Figure 2.2 Childress’ (2010) Five I’s of Faculty Engagement in Internationalization.**

Childress (2010) summarized the relationship among these components as follows:

Colleges and universities seeking to internationalize should intentionally articulate their internationalization goals, make long-term investments to provide resources targeted for faculty engagement, develop infrastructure to create foundational programmatic support, develop institutional networks to enable faculty to gain awareness of international
opportunities, and provide support for individual faculty to connect institutional goals for internationalization with their personal scholarly agendas (p. 159).

Childress emphasized that no one variable leads to faculty engagement and that these components constitute an interactive system that encourages professorial involvement in international activities. *Intentionality* is described as the creation of multiple types and levels of internationalization plans, which formalize a university’s process and provide direction and resources for its faculty (p. 140). *Investments* refers to financial resources collected from a variety of sources given to faculty to undertake international efforts, including research and service projects and development of new or revised curricula (p. 141). *Infrastructure* refers to academic activities and organizational practices that supply faculty with resources through which to explore international perspectives within their teaching and research. These include such undertakings as faculty seminars, international degree programs and one or more campuses overseas (p. 141). *Institutional networks* include campus-wide committees, web portals, seminars and research centers that create communication channels for faculty to learn about international opportunities and resources (p. 142). Lastly, *individual support* refers to means by which professors can connect institution-wide goals for internationalization with their individual scholarly work. Childress provides such examples as the integration of internationalization into all schools’ strategic plans within a university in order to provide a link to disciplinary priorities as well as university-wide surveys to allow interested faculty members to connect with specific international opportunities (p. 142).

Childress’ model is an excellent conceptual tool for thinking about the institutional practices needed to encourage faculty to participate in international activities. However, this construct only allows analysis of the organizational factors leading to faculty engagement. Given that the literature also points to a variety of personal and professional barriers and benefits to becoming involved in international activities, a model that can take into account other factors would provide a more holistic view of the dynamics of faculty engagement in internationalization.
2.5 The Faculty Engagement Model (FEM)

Wade and Demb’s (2009) Faculty Engagement Model (FEM) sought to provide just such a perspective for public scholarship, public service and outreach and engagement (i.e., Holland, 1997; Kellogg Commission, 1999; Colbeck & Wharton-Michael, 2006, among others) by outlining the personal, professional and institutional factors likely to predict faculty involvement in such activities. Their model is used to frame this study. Wade and Demb focused on faculty engagement in service-learning, community-based research and certain forms of professional service and did not specifically address international activities. However, internationalization and community engagement activities overlap in that each has “direct connection to the teaching, research and service functions of the professoriate” (Wade & Demb, 2009, p. 5). Indeed, Wade and Demb’s (2009) components of engagement are analogous to the widely adopted view of internationalization as a process of infusing an international or intercultural dimension into the teaching, learning, research, and service functions of higher education (i.e., “Comprehensive Internationalization” n.d., NASULGC, 1993, 2004).

The FEM postulates that three sets of factors shape possibilities for faculty engagement. As in the literature on internationalization, these are organized into institutional, professional and personal dimensions. As a result, the Faculty Engagement Model provides a useful framework for examining the factors likely to affect the ability and willingness of professors to participate in internationalization initiatives.
Figure 2.3 Wade & Demb’s (2009) Faculty Engagement Model.

Figure 2.2 illustrates the factors within each dimension hypothesized to influence faculty participation in engagement activities in the Wade and Demb model. Faculty participation is the center, or heart, of the model and is connected to, and encompassed by, the personal, professional and institutional dimensions. The arrows in the model highlight interactions among its elements. For example, a factor in the professional dimension, such as socialization during graduate school, may influence a personal factor, such as motivation to participate. On the other hand, a personal factor may shape professional factors, such as choice of academic discipline. For this reason, bidirectional arrows are used to demonstrate the interrelated causality of relationships among the FEM’s dimensions (Wade and Demb, 2009, p. 12).
The following section discusses the three facets of the Faculty Engagement Model and their utility for examining faculty involvement in internationalization.

2.5.1 Institutional Dimension

Wade and Demb argue that organizational characteristics influence faculty participation significantly. As they have observed, “understanding the role of institutional culture and the way institutions set priorities and create meaning are important considerations in the assessment of faculty behavior” (Wade & Demb, 2009, p.8). This focus on organizational attributes and culture is directly analogous to scholarly analyses that contend this dimension is an important indicator of a university’s trajectory of internationalization. For example, Bartell (2003) found “the orientation and strength of the university culture and the functioning structure can be inhibiting or facilitating of the strategies employed to advance internationalization” (p. 43). Indeed, the literature concerning internationalization points broadly to the need for appropriate and supportive administrative processes and policies to ensure success (Green & Olson, 2003; Olson, Green & Hill, 2006).

The FEM includes nine institutional factors that affect faculty engagement activity. Of these concerns, seven are also widely cited in the internationalization literature. These include:

- Mission,
- Leadership,
- Institutional policies,
- Budget and funding,
- Structure,
- Faculty involvement, and
- Community involvement.

The FEM mission and leadership components refer to institutional commitment and recognize administrative support for an initiative increases the likelihood faculty members will participate in it (Wade & Demb, 2009, p. 9). The literature of practice concerning internationalization argues that leadership and mission are essential to the attainment of such
goals (Green & Olson, 2003). Institutional policies, or, “policies and procedures, especially related to hiring, promotion, and tenure and time allocation” (Wade & Demb 2009, p. 9) are also cited in the literature as a primary barrier to professorial engagement in international activities (Backman, 1981; Carter, 1992; Ellingboe, 1998). Wade and Demb (2009) described budget and funding as the availability of internal fiscal support and a financing process closely related to the institution’s engagement mission (p. 9-10). In the literature of practice on internationalization, funding is also cited as a major predictor or impediment to faculty participation (Bond, 2003; Ellingboe, 1998; Green & Olson, 2003).

*Structure*, in FEM, refers to a centralized organizational framework to support engagement (Wade & Demb 2009, p.10). The need for “leadership from the top” to promote internationalization and the designation of a chief international education administrator to shepherd efforts is cited routinely by researchers as essential to successful internationalization (Green & Olson, 2003, p.28). The FEM factor faculty involvement is widely accepted among analysts as essential to internationalization as well. Lastly, the FEM element community involvement, or the support of external stakeholders, is also routinely deemed important to internationalization efforts. Green and Olson (2003) have suggested external sources of support for such initiatives include the public, the business community, government and relevant local communities, arguing these groups constitute important allies and sources of support and leverage for a university’s internationalization plans (p. 17-18).

The overlap of these seven factors suggests engagement and internationalization require similar institutional conditions for successful implementation. Although the literature on internationalization does not cite institutional type and prestige as affecting faculty participation, the very strong similarity in the organizational factors between FEM and internationalization otherwise is striking. Although these factors do not perfectly match, the shared focus of both literatures on the overarching theme of institutional characteristics makes the FEM framework a very useful starting place for examining organizational characteristics likely to affect faculty ability or willingness to participate in internationalization plans.
2.5.2 Professional Dimension

The professional dimension constitutes the second element of the Wade and Demb Faculty Engagement Model. This component incorporates six factors that may affect faculty participation, five of which are also cited in the internationalization literature. These include:

- Discipline,
- Status/rank,
- Socialization,
- Professional community support, and
- Departmental support.

As mentioned above, analysts cite academic discipline as a possible factor limiting faculty participation in international activities (Carter, 1992; Ellingboe, 1998; Goodwin & Nacht, 1983; Green & Olson, 2003; Harari, 1992). A professor’s status or rank refers to whether a faculty member is non-tenured or has achieved tenure (Wade & Demb, 2009, p.11). This element is pertinent to internationalization because, as Green and Olson (2003) have suggested, “tenured senior faculty are the most likely to be effective champions, while non-tenured faculty may hesitate to engage in any efforts that could jeopardize their prospects for tenure” (p. 29).

Wade and Demb (2009) define socialization as the “process which helps build disciplinary norms and which affects personal beliefs and motivation” (p. 11). This process begins in graduate school and is strongly reinforced within departmental settings. This factor closely ties to Ellingboe’s (1998) argument that graduate programs often do not provide international knowledge and skills. Socialization is closely aligned, in turn, to professional community and departmental support, which are deemed necessary to garner faculty participation in international activities (Ellingboe, 1998).

The factor length of time in academe is tied to status and rank, but refers more specifically to how long a professor has worked as a scholar. Wade and Demb include this factor because age and length of time is hypothesized to influence faculty decisions about how to allocate time (Finkelstein et al., 1998, as cited in Wade & Demb, 2009). They theorized that more experience in the field might influence whether a faculty member spends time on
engagement activities. Although this is not a factor directly mentioned in the internationalization literature, because it is closely tied to status and rank, length of time in academe will be explored in this study for its connection to faculty participation in international activities.

2.5.3 Personal Dimension

The personal dimension constitutes the third component of the FEM. Of the eight factors Wade and Demb identify in this category, four are frequently cited in the literature on internationalization, including:

- Values and beliefs,
- Motivation,
- Epistemology, and
- Previous experience.

Wade and Demb (2009) define values and beliefs as, “finding personal value in scholarship and service” (p.12). Literature describing champions and advocates for internationalization highlights this personal dimension, describing these faculty members as committed and passionate about one or more dimensions of international activity (Childress, 2010; Goodwin & Nacht, 1983; Green & Olson, 2003). Wade and Demb (2009) describe motivation as highly connected to values and beliefs, asserting that faculty members are more likely to be motivated to engage when they find personal significance in these activities. They differentiate between intrinsic and extrinsic motivations, arguing that faculty may be extrinsically motivated to participate in community engagement because of potential professional rewards, while others see mostly intrinsic rewards (p. 12). The literature describing internationalization champions and advocates highlights this personal dimension, describing these professors as committed and passionate about one or more dimensions of international work (Childress, 2010; Dewey & Duff, 2009; Goodwin & Nacht, 1983; Green & Olson, 2003). However, as mentioned earlier, this literature has not explored the reasons for this motivation. This question will be explored below.

*Epistemology* refers to a person’s understanding of the nature and development of knowledge. This factor mirrors references in the internationalization literature that faculty
members’ attitudes toward international learning directly affect their willingness to rethink their course materials and emphases, engage in research collaboration with international partners and participate in overseas service projects (Bond, 2003; Ellingboe, 1998; Goodwin & Nacht, 1983; Green & Olson, 2003). Scholars of internationalization also cite previous experience as a factor in whether a faculty member engages in such activities. Wade and Demb (2009) limited the definition of previous experience in the FEM to work outside of academe, such as prior professional experience in government, industry or nonprofit organizations. In contrast, these authors included previous experience in the academy in the FEM as part of professional socialization (Wade & Demb, 2009, p.12). Previous experience is pertinent to internationalization because the personal knowledge and skills of faculty members have been widely cited by interested scholars cited as determinants of involvement in international activities (Bond, 2003; Green & Olson, 2003).

Wade and Demb’s (2009) other personal factors—race, gender, family college attainment status and age—are not broadly cited as contributing to faculty participation in international activities. What is noteworthy, however, is the shared focus of the FEM and internationalization on the overarching theme of the relevance of personal characteristics to engagement. For this reason, the FEM is very useful for examining the personal concerns likely to affect faculty ability or willingness to participate in international programs and scholarship.

Although the individual factors associated with the FEM’s three dimensions do not correspond perfectly to those offered concerning internationalization, the model is nonetheless useful for conceptualizing how faculty members’ decisions regarding international involvement are affected by institutional, professional and personal dimensions.

2.6 Building on Existing Scholarship

As illustrated through the literature reviewed, research on faculty perceptions of internationalization to date has tended to focus on understanding why faculty members do not engage in international activities, rather than why they do. While individual and institutional barriers to professors’ involvement have been extensively explored (Bond, 2003; Dewy & Duff, 2009; Ellingboe, 1998; Goodwin & Nacht, 1991; Green & Olson, 2003; Schoorman, 1999), very
little research has explored perceived benefits and motivations for being engaged in internationalization from the perspective of individual faculty members.

Much of the literature of practice argues that professors will engage in international activities when administrative mechanisms are in place to encourage it (Green & Olson, 2003; Olson, Green & Hill, 2006). Some of these steps include strategic plans, mission statements, and administrative leadership. However, this perspective does not take into account the voices of faculty members themselves. In short, the literature does not address what faculty members perceive to be the benefits and motivating factors for engaging in internationalization activities.

Of the little research conducted, Goodwin and Nacht (1991) have examined the benefits of faculty experience abroad through research and teaching, although this is only one of a host of internationalization activities in which professors may engage. These authors identified four personal benefits to time spent overseas teaching or engaged in research. First was the development of self-understanding (p. 50). This outcome refers not only to learning more about oneself through immersion in another language and culture, but to a heightened level of sensitivity, tolerance and empathy for the problems of others (p. 50). A second benefit was the development of strengthened bonds should a faculty member travel abroad with family (p. 50), although this has become increasingly rare due to its associated costs. A third benefit identified by participating professors is the chance to serve a sense of personal mission by teaching or through research. Faculty members who have offered technical assistance in foreign nations frequently mention this benefit. In these situations, a professor’s expertise allows him or her to “share their knowledge with those who want to learn” (p. 51). A fourth benefit is developing a wider personal horizon, “the chance to get away” from the college community of which they are a part, and to look “beyond their walls for standing, prestige, credentials and validation” (p. 52).

In addition to personal benefits, Goodwin and Nacht (1991) highlighted four main professional benefits accruing to faculty members engaged in international activities. First is the ability to gather needed data and test ideas (p. 45). This value refers to the objective of gathering materials important for research, sharing ideas with overseas colleagues and learning about and from them as well as trying out methodologies, modes of thought and hypotheses in a different
physical and social environment. Second, work abroad can improve teaching by providing materials and comparative perspectives (p. 46). A third benefit is unexpected consequences as a result of travel and time away from the home campus. This includes events such as unpredicted shifts in career direction and the development of new cooperative relationships (p. 48). A fourth professional benefit is adding to one’s curriculum vitae and to “professional prestige” (p. 49).

In addition to benefits, Goodwin and Nacht (1991) also examined motivating factors for international engagement. They found that faculty members who engage in international activities overseas tend to become involved as a result of one or more of the following motivations. First, they are working in disciplines or sub-disciplines considered “international.” In other words, their scholarship includes subjects that by their essence require materials, data or specific experiences that can be found only overseas (p. 19). Second, faculty members reported they were motivated to take advantage of international teaching or research activities to “recharge the batteries” and as a method of intellectual and emotional stimulation in the midst of “mid-career burnout” (p. 23). Third, faculty members in the sciences pursued going abroad to be “where the scientific action is” (p. 24). Faculty members who reported this benefit were generally working in an applied science discipline where foreign counterparts are perceived to have surpassed U.S. expertise and are at the forefront of the field (p. 24).

Last, Goodwin and Nacht found that faculty members took part in international teaching and research activities to pursue personal goals. This motivation included exposure to a different intellectual outlook, cultural environment and short-term personal and professional challenges, often in the face of “boredom, discouragement, disillusionment, or simply the midlife crisis that is not associated exclusively with academe” (p. 28). Although not often explored in the internationalization literature, the personal reasons faculty members espouse for international activities are an important factor when discussing their engagement in international concerns and are therefore salient to this study.

Goodwin and Nacht’s (1991) study provides a good starting point for exploring professors’ perceptions of benefits and motivating factors to engaging in international activities. However, based on data regarding U.S. faculty who traveled abroad in the late 1980s, this study
begs additional exploration now that university internationalization has become so widespread a process nationally, and increased global connection via information technology has changed the cultural, political and economic landscape of universities.

Very little research concerning benefits to engaging in other types of internationalization activities beyond Goodwin and Nacht’s initial study exists. Ray and Solem (2009) examined the experiences of geographers in the internationalization of their campuses. Through a national survey of geography professors belonging to the Association of American Geographers, Ray and Solem sought to determine how and why these American professors have pursued international collaboration in their work and incorporated global learning outcomes into undergraduate geography curricula. They identified four main motivations for faculty engaging in such endeavors:

- When such efforts were perceived to enhance the quality of teaching and research,
- When professors were rewarded and recognized for doing so,
- When incentives, such as funding for travel and research and course releases exist, and
- When departmental and institutional incentives to do so are put in place.

Following Goodwin and Nacht’s (1991) categories of personal and professional benefits to overseas teaching and research, these four factors could be categorized as personal and professional motivations. However, because Ray and Solem (2009) surveyed only geographers, their study did not examine the perceptions of faculty in different disciplines, nor did it provide a contextual analysis of the portent of outcomes of administrative efforts to internationalize a particular campus.

In summary, despite the importance university leaders routinely attribute to internationalization, the literature points to significant institutional and individual barriers that routinely impede faculty involvement in such initiatives. Scholars have documented far fewer benefits of international activity to faculty members than to their affiliated institutions. Nonetheless, the literature calls on university leaders to identify and solicit the assistance of champions and advocates in their internationalization plans as well as to encourage more faculty to engage in international activities, even without a clear sense of the professional benefits.
professors will receive for doing so. In the literature and in practice, the relative scarcity of information concerning faculty members’ perceptions not only of barriers, but also motivations and benefits, to engaging in internationalization is surprising, especially in consideration of increased efforts by universities to create strategic plans to secure it (Childress, 2006) and to invest in related faculty development programs (Green & Olson, 2003). A better understanding of professors’ perceptions of benefits and motivating factors for involvement in internationalization initiatives is needed. Utilizing the Faculty Engagement Model as an analytical framework, this dissertation employs qualitative interviews with faculty in two colleges at Virginia Tech to begin to address this gap.
CHAPTER 3
METHODS AND RESEARCH DESIGN

3.1 Conceptual Framework

I employed qualitative methods (Marshall & Rossman, 2006) to address this study’s central questions. The first research objective was to discern what champions and advocates of internationalization identify as the benefits and motivating influences for engaging in international activities. The project sought to identify specific factors that have led these faculty members to become engaged in international activities, barriers they have faced and their perceptions of benefits and motivations for being so involved. The second objective was to explore whether faculty member participation in international activities can be linked to the influence of factors proposed in the Faculty Engagement Model (FEM) developed by Wade and Demb (2009) as specifically participation enabling. The study focused on the professional factors proposed in the FEM that purportedly influence faculty member willingness to engage.

Qualitative methods provided a useful framework for conducting this study as such inquiry is pragmatic, interpretive, and grounded in the lived experiences of people (Marshall & Rossman, 2006). This research approach was appropriate for my analysis because this study seeks to understand a complex issue or process within its natural environment (Marshall & Rossman, 2006). The perceptions and experiences of faculty members—essential actors in the university environment—are best captured through qualitative methods.

3.2 Paradigm of Inquiry

The role of the researcher as the primary instrument of data collection in qualitative research requires the identification of personal values, assumptions and biases related to the study (Bailey, 2007). Paradigms are a “basic set of beliefs that guide action” (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005, p. 245). As Bailey (2007) has observed, a researcher’s beliefs influence the entire process of inquiry, including the purpose(s) of the investigation, how the investigator will conduct it, how she will assess the role of values and ethics in her work, formulate relationships with
participants in the setting, how her study will be presented, and many other dimensions of the study” (2007, p.50).

I approached this research through an interpretive-constructivist lens, viewing social reality as highly complex, multi-faceted, inter-subjective and constantly shifting (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). In this view, reality is constructed; there is no single, observable reality but rather multiple realities or interpretations of a single event (Bailey, 2007; Denzin & Lincoln, 2005; Merriam, 2009). The social world is therefore not an entity separate from the researcher, where knowledge can be “found” but is instead temporally and historically situated, fluid, context-specific and shaped in conjunction with the researcher (Guba & Lincoln, 1994, p.109, as cited in Bailey, 2007, p.53). As a result, any attempt to explain reality is fashioned by a set of embedded assumptions that constitute the researcher’s lens (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005). In other words, the analyst’s perspectives are her primary tool for observing and examining phenomena, although these affect what she seeks to understand as well as how she views it. As a result, research is inevitably selective and this can lead to incomplete or even misleading views of reality, particularly if presented as “truth” supported by study. This phenomenon demands the researcher engage in ongoing reflexivity.

The key elements of a researcher’s paradigm are ontology, epistemology, and axiology (Bailey, 2007; Denzin & Lincoln, 2005). Ontology refers to the researcher’s assumptions about reality (Bailey, 2007). Following the interpretive-constructivist paradigm, I assumed no objective social reality existed, but instead multiple realities. My ontology is best described as relativism, which views reality as local, specific and individually constructed (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005).

Epistemology refers to “the relationship between the knower and the known” (Bailey, 2007). Following the interpretive-constructivist paradigm, my epistemological stance is subjectivist, as I believe understandings are co-created by the researcher and participant and what is learned does not exist independently of the people involved, but is shaped by their status, values and behaviors. As Bailey has suggested, this does not mean the researcher can use the interpretive paradigm as an excuse for injecting personal bias or manipulating data. Instead, the analyst must continuously and actively reflect on how her interpretations may affect the
knowledge generated through research. The upshot of the ontological and epistemological stances I have adopted is a view of the research findings presented below as an interpretation of a particular phenomenon rather than a “fact” or “truth.”

Guba and Lincoln (2005) have defined axiology as the “basic beliefs” of the researcher, including her ethics and values, embedded throughout the research process. These underpin the analyst’s paradigm (p. 197). Following the interpretive-constructivist paradigm, I do not pretend objectivity in research design or implementation. The central research questions and hypotheses explored here were born from my experiences, passions, curiosity and hunches. My analytic lens was shaped in part by the experience of working at Virginia Tech on internationalization activities over a period of six years, first as a graduate assistant in the Office of the Vice President for International Affairs, working in part on initiatives to promote faculty development in internationalization, and now as Director of International Programs for Virginia Tech’s College of Engineering.

In addition, my experiences with international education have shaped my axiology through intercultural encounters throughout my life, including participation in study abroad programs as an undergraduate student. As a result of these experiences, I highly value international programs and intercultural learning. I also tend to agree with higher education researchers who critique the American education system for its routine inability to equip its students with a global perspective. Like many others, I favor an increased emphasis on geographical, political and cultural perspectives and foreign languages in higher education curricula. This view leads me to favor the development of international programs that have the potential to provide such knowledge. Second, while I agree with critical theorists who see powerful macro-level structures shaping the trajectory of higher education, I also see such institutions exercising agency in how they deal with those external forces and take actions in an increasingly global environment. In addition, I see individual faculty members as important agents in the internationalization process whose voices are not often represented in the scholarly literature of practice concerning the phenomenon.
This research presents one perspective and set of findings concerning institutional internationalization. While not claiming to represent the “truth,” this analysis nonetheless makes validity claims based on careful adherence to systematic research and analysis methods, including procedures designed to verify evidence, minimize researcher bias and support continuous self-reflection during the investigative process.

3.3 Strategy of Inquiry

This study utilized qualitative methods to conduct an interpretive study, as Merriam (2009) recommends, because a focus on constructed meaning was my goal. My choice of a basic interpretive study grew from my interest in the way faculty members actively involved in international activities perceive the benefits to engaging in that work.

3.3.1 Data Collection

I gathered primary data via semi-structured interviews with faculty members in two colleges at Virginia Tech who were recognized as champions and advocates of internationalization by relevant officials with purview over international activities of their respective units. Interviews provided important potential benefits for this study. First, they can offer opportunities to gain in-depth insights into the perspectives of key actors concerning the phenomenon or issues under investigation (Merriam, 1998; Patton, 2002; Stake, 1995; Yin, 2003). I sought to employ interviews with faculty members to come to understand more fully their views on, and engagement in, internationalization. Second, interviews enable the researcher to ask targeted questions (Yin, 2003). Interviews allowed me to collect information tailored specifically to my research concerns.

Semi-structured interviews consist of a set of questions grouped by topics or issues, but not necessarily asked in a predetermined order. In this case, “the flow of the interview, rather than the order in a guide, determines when and how a question is asked” (Bailey, 2007, p.100). In contrast to structured interviews, semi-structured interviews enable the researcher to ask follow-up questions to explore ideas or issues raised in participants’ answers. In addition, semi-structured interviews are useful in eliciting unanticipated findings and encouraging participants to provide rich details (Merriam, 1998).
However, a weakness of interviews in general—and semi-structured interviews in particular—is their reflexivity (Yin, 2003). In particular, through interviews, it is possible that participants will only share the information for which they believe the researcher is looking. To compensate for this weakness, triangulation of data was imperative and will be discussed below.

3.3.2 Study Population

This study focuses on the perceptions of faculty members at Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University (Virginia Tech), a land-grant university in Blacksburg, Virginia, of efforts to “internationalize” that institution. I chose faculty interviewees from two colleges of the university—the Pamplin College of Business and the College of Liberal Arts and Human Sciences. The rationale for my selection both of Virginia Tech and of specific faculty respondents at the university follows.

Choice of Virginia Tech

Three specific criteria contributed to the choice of Virginia Tech as the sample for this study. First, according to the Carnegie Classification of Institutions of Higher Education, Virginia Tech is a research university with very high research activity (RU/VH) (Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, 2010). Carnegie has assigned 96 public and private institutions with that classification in the United States, of which Virginia Tech would be a representative or typical case (Yin, 2003, p. 48). As such, information gleaned from studying this institution may be helpful for understanding the responses to internationalization of other universities with high levels of research.

Second, this institution was selected because of its relatively recent adoption of an international strategic plan to shape the university’s internationalization efforts. Completed in 2004, the timing of Virginia Tech’s international strategic planning process allowed for interviews with participants roughly five years after the university had signaled a strong commitment to internationalization.

Last, I chose faculty members at Virginia Tech because of my work experience at the institution and access to interviewees and related documents. The year I began studies at Virginia
Tech I also began working as a graduate assistant in the Office of Outreach and International Affairs. That office spearheaded creation of the university’s International Strategic Plan. When I began work in my position it had been approximately six months since the Office began efforts to implement the plan. Some of my initial job duties were tied to projects that resulted from the plan. As a result, I developed an understanding of the history and dynamics of the institution’s efforts in this domain that an outside researcher would not likely possess. I also developed rapport with a number of administrators and faculty members across various colleges and disciplines involved with international initiatives on campus, thus allowing me access to key participants necessary to undertake this study. My contacts with both university officials and professors also allowed me opportunities to test ideas and validate findings from interviews. In addition, the ready availability of Virginia Tech’s International Strategic Plan as well as the linked college strategic plans as public documents made undertaking a qualitative study possible. I discuss possible limitations of this familiarity below.

Choice of Colleges

Several specific features contributed to my choice of the Pamplin College of Business and the College of Liberal Arts and Human Sciences as the sample for this study. First, each college had the highest number of faculty-led study abroad programs in the university during the academic year this study took place, indicating strong faculty engagement in international teaching activities (Education Abroad Office, 2011a). That involvement directly affects the curriculum and learning opportunities that reach students in the classroom. Second, the two colleges selected represent different academic domains of study. By purposefully seeking variation or diversity in sample selection, I sought to allow for a greater possible range of application of this study’s findings (Merriam, 2009, p.229). Divergent cases can provide clues that help explain what is happening in a larger sample (Bazely, 2009).

3.3.3 Sampling

Sampling for this study was purposeful in order to select individuals who could provide information-rich perspectives (Patton, 2002). I began by contacting the administrator in each college who oversees and supports international initiatives. In the Pamplin College of Business, this was the Director of International Programs and in the College of Liberal Arts and Human
Sciences, the Associate Dean for Academic Policies and Procedures. I requested a list of faculty members whom these individuals considered “champions” or “advocates” for international activities in their college. It was important to my study that responsible college officials identified these professors directly in order to ensure access to faculty members whose work was visible to administrators, as well as to garner perspectives from faculty from a diversity of disciplines. This sampling strategy also sought indirectly to shed light on the types of international activities deemed valuable by university administrators, based on whom they selected.

Each administrator sent my invitation to 19 faculty members in their respective colleges. In addition to interviews with these faculty members, I also interviewed each of the administrators who provided the faculty contacts for their respective colleges. I sought to use those opportunities to gain insight into the criteria officials used to select champions and advocates, to confirm faculty member understanding of relevant policy and procedures information, and to garner additional contextual understanding of internationalization efforts in each college.

### 3.3.4 Interview Procedures

Although semi-structured interviews allow flexibility in the content and sequence of questions asked, it is important to maintain consistency of procedures across all interviews. Before I began my data collection, I conducted a pilot interview with a faculty member in the sample to test the clarity and efficacy of my interview schedule (Weiss, 1994; Creswell, 1998). I adjusted several questions following that test. I then scheduled one primary interview for each responding faculty member. Each lasted between 60 and 90 minutes.

In addition to interviews with the responsible administrator in each college, I interviewed a total of 13 faculty members in the Pamplin College of Business and 12 in the College of Liberal Arts and Human Sciences. Table 3.1 summarizes the sample interviewed.
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<th>College of Business</th>
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<tr>
<td>Instructional Faculty</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Administrative Faculty</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td><strong>14</strong></td>
<td><strong>13</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 3.1 Summary of Interview Participants**

Thus, I interviewed 13 and 12 faculty members from each college respectively from the initial contact lists of 19 professors for each. I conducted all conversations with interviewees in a professional, yet informal, manner. I emailed interview consent forms, which summarized and explained my research goals and interests, to interviewees prior to our meeting to allow each time to read them and to ask any questions before our conversation took place. In cases in which consent forms had not yet been read or signed at the time of the interview, they were presented once more, read and signed before the session began.

Following the recommendation of numerous qualitative research experts, I audio recorded all interviews to capture a complete record of the discussions and as a reference for voice inflections and other nuances not captured by field notes taken during or after interviews (Merriam, 1998; Patton, 2002; Stewart, Shamdasani & Rook, 2007). I minimized note-taking during the interviews as recommended by Merriam (1998) and Patton (2002) in order to focus on listening to the interviewees and to encourage a more natural conversational flow. Each session concluded with an invitation for participants to share any additional comments related to the topics discussed as well as to raise any questions they had about the study. By opening the door to additional insights and participants’ concerns, I sought to maximize the benefits of the semi-structured interview format.

**3.3.5 Document Collection**

I also used documents as a secondary means of data collection to amplify, augment and cross-check data collected in interviews. Following the guidelines of qualitative research experts, the documents I examined included a wide range of materials, including websites, meeting
agendas and minutes, institutional policies and memoranda, annual reports and strategic planning materials (Miles & Huberman, 1994; Patton, 2002; Stake, 1995).

Documents served important purposes for this study. First, as Yin has noted (2003), written records provide exact information. Organizational processes in higher education institutions tend to leave behind a paper trail that can be mined for empirical research (Patton, 2002). Analyzing such documents permitted me not only to confirm, but also provide complete details on evidence presented in interviews in an unobtrusive way (Creswell, 2005; Merriam, 1998; Patton, 2002; Yin, 2003). Written records also enabled me to make inferences about the development of faculty engagement in internationalization at Virginia Tech (Yin, 2003).

3.4 Data Analysis

I used the qualitative data analysis software NVivo to organize, code and analyze the interview data. I transcribed interviews continually throughout the process and imported them into the software. In order to capture the context of the observations fully, I wrote field notes within one day of each interview, including detailed descriptions and observations concerning the setting and interactions that characterized each (Bailey 2007, p. 136).

Analysis occurred simultaneously with data collection (Merriam, 2009, p. 171). Coding data proved a crucial aspect of analysis (Basit, 2003, p. 145 as cited in Saldaña, 2009), allowing the capture of essential elements of the research that, when clustered together according to similarity and regularity, actively facilitated the development of categories and thus examination of their connections (Saldaña, 2009, p. 8).

Following Saldaña (2009), I undertook several cycles of coding to interpret the data. Saldaña has stressed that coding is a heuristic, exploratory technique and a cyclical process, allowing not only labeling, but also linking ideas. He splits coding techniques into two processes—first cycle coding, which is an initial technique of identifying main themes, and second cycle coding, which allows classifying, ranking, integrating, synthesizing and theory building from the array of first cycle codes (p. 45). For the first cycle in this process, I employed two types of techniques: structural coding and initial coding. Structural coding (Mac Queen et al,
2008; Namey, Guest, Thairu & Johnson, 2008 as cited in Saldaña, 2009) is a primary approach to analysis in which the researcher applies a substantive idea or conceptual phrase representing a topic of inquiry to a segment of data that relates to a specific research question used to frame the interview (MacQueen et al, 2008, p. 124 as cited in Saldaña, 2009). Utilizing this method, I arranged large segments of text on broad topics according to themes, allowing in-depth analysis within or across topics. I then employed initial coding (Charmaz, 2006; Corbin & Strauss, 2008; Glazer, 1978 as cited in Saldaña, 2009) to synthesize data further into discrete parts for examination and comparison. Because two colleges were the focus of this study, I employed this technique to identify analytic leads for further exploration and to examine similarities and differences between the internationalization efforts of the two entities.

I examined the data afresh in a second cycle of coding to develop categorical, thematic, conceptual and/or theoretical organization from the initial codes. I used elaborative coding (Auerbach & Silverstein, 2003 as cited in Saldaña, 2009) to scrutinize textual data. Because this study sought to test and build on Wade and Demb’s Faculty Engagement Model, this method in which the theoretical constructs from a previous study are used to develop codes, allowed me to test the FEM model. As described by Saldaña (2009), with this coding approach, the investigator selects relevant text and develops analyses with a previous study’s constructs in mind, so as to support, strengthen, modify or disconfirm findings from previous research (p. 168). I also employed focused coding to undertake more detailed analysis of interview data (Charmaz, 2006 as cited in Saldaña, 2009). This technique examines codes developed during the first cycle of analysis for frequency and significance, seeking to ascertain “which initial codes make the most analytic sense” (Charmaz, 2006, p. 57 as cited in Saldaña, 2009, p. 155).

3.5 Quality and Evaluation of the Research

Researchers, regardless of the methods of inquiry they employ, must be able to defend the quality of their inquiry. Validity, reliability and generalizability are essential to understanding whether the results of qualitative research are trustworthy. Because these terms are grounded in positivist or post-positivist research paradigms, however, some qualitative researchers argue these concepts are inappropriate for qualitative methods. They propose the terms credibility, dependability, confirmability and transferability instead (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005; Bailey, 2007).
Because my qualitative research is grounded in an interpretive/constructivist paradigm, I have elected to employ these terms to discuss my research.

Credibility refers to whether what is reported corresponds to the phenomenon under study. In other words, it must be believable, authentic and the results must be plausible (Miles & Huberman, 1994, as cited in Bailey, 2007, p. 182). Following Bailey’s recommendations (2007), I made use of several strategies in this study’s design to ensure the credibility of its findings:

- **Data triangulation**—I employed multiple sources of information to increase the likelihood of producing reasonable and judicious interpretation(s) of the phenomena under investigation (Maxwell, 2005)

- **Thick, rich description**—I worked to contextualize the study through descriptions of the settings, participants and evidence. I also employed quotations from interviews and relevant documents to equip readers with the information necessary to make judgments concerning the extent to which their own situations matched the research context and thereby concerning whether findings might be transferable to their own situations (Merriam, 2009, p. 229).

- **Reflexivity**—I strove to include a full accounting of assumptions, biases, theoretical orientation and relationship to the study to allow the reader to understand how I arrived at particular findings (Merriam, 2009, p. 229).

- **Maximum variation**—I purposely sought variability or diversity in my sample to allow for a greater range of application of the findings. Although all interviewees were based at Virginia Tech, the choice of faculty in two colleges represented a deliberate attempt to incorporate variation in the characteristics of study participants (i.e., disciplinary backgrounds and types of activities) (Merriam, 2009, p. 227).

In addition to credibility, transferability of findings is also important. Transferability refers to the applicability of results beyond the setting, situations and participants included in the research (Stake, 1995). Bailey (2007) has argued that the strength of field research lies in its focus on local conditions, in-depth accounts and highly contextualized understanding of a setting (p. 182). However, these very strengths can also make it difficult to make generalizations beyond the specific circumstances of the inquiry. Because this project was a qualitative study of faculty
members at a specific institution at a particular point in time, the ability to generalize from this analysis to the experiences of other institutions may be limited. However, it will nonetheless be possible to develop analytic generalizations from this study. Yin (1993) describes analytic generalizability as generalizing to a theory instead of to a larger population. In other words, such an effort involves identifying concepts and social processes that have theoretical implications or significance (Bailey, 2007, p. 193). This project aimed to provide context that could provide understanding beyond the specific setting. It seems clear differing faculty perceptions of internationalization initiatives are not unique to Virginia Tech, but their views, taken together with the research of others in the field (including Knight, 2004a; Ellingboe, 1998; Shoorman, 1999; Childress, 2010), have important implications for the design and implementation of such efforts. My goal in this research was to contribute to the broader discussion of faculty involvement in internationalization.

Dependability connotes internal consistency among the core elements of the research project. This includes the interview questions, data collection, analysis and conceptual understanding. I strove to achieve dependability by providing a detailed account of my investigative process and by clearly stating my axiology (Bailey, 2007, p. 184). Confirmability does not require objectivity, but it does suggest that by centering her values and engaging in reflection about their place throughout the research process, the analyst is in a better position to prevent bias (Bailey, 2007, p. 184). I sought to attain confirmability by engaging in reflexivity throughout the research process.

3.6 Ethical Considerations

Ensuring that research participants are treated with respect and are well informed of any risks associated with any inquiry in which they are asked to participate is critically important. The Virginia Tech Institutional Review Board granted expedited approval for this research. All interview subjects were informed of the voluntary nature of participation in the study and were reminded of their right to refuse to participate. Participants granted written permission in each case before interviews were undertaken and conversations were recorded.
Given the circumstances of my research, it was not practical to guarantee my respondents anonymity or complete confidentiality. However, I sought to be as discreet as possible by using pseudonyms to protect the confidentiality of participants to the extent feasible and, where possible, removing descriptive elements in quotations that might allow respondents to be recognized readily. Due to the visibility of my participants as champions and advocates in their colleges and departments, it is still possible that descriptive elements in the analysis could reveal details that would allow interviewees to be identified by a reader familiar with the colleges in question. For this reason, care was taken to avoid reporting data that might be considered highly personal or sensitive.

Overall, I attempted to balance my interviewees’ desire for confidentiality while also ensuring the integrity of my research. Pseudonyms are used extensively in Chapters 5 and 6, both because interviewees used names of other members during their interviews and because without aliases it would have been difficult to make distinctions about the specific relationships under discussion. Although each interviewee signed a consent form regarding confidentiality (see Appendix), I sought actively to do more to protect interviewee identity than I originally promised and to design and adopt a balanced approach that retained the integrity of the research while shielding the identity of participants to the maximum extent feasible.
CHAPTER 4
INTERNATIONALIZATION AT VIRGINIA TECH

4.1 Introduction

This chapter orients the reader to Virginia Tech and its ongoing process of internationalization and outlines the principal characteristics and context of the two Virginia Tech colleges examined in this study.

4.2 Internationalization at a Land-Grant University

Understanding the context for internationalization at Virginia Tech is important to appreciating the perceptions of its faculty members of those initiatives. Virginia Tech’s international activities are not new, but have traditionally been tied to the university’s creation as a land-grant college. In accordance with the Morrill Land-Grant Act that enabled Virginia Tech’s founding in 1872, the university provides curricula in such “practical arts” as agriculture, military tactics and engineering. These subjects were selected originally so citizens of rural communities and members of the working classes might obtain a practical education. The Smith-Lever Act of 1914 expanded the mission of land-grant colleges to include cooperative extension—the practice of placing trained agents in farming areas to bring the results of agricultural research to farmers and rural community residents. As a result of these formative policies, Virginia Tech’s mission is now composed of three primary elements: “teaching and learning, research and discovery, and outreach and engagement” (“About the University,” n.d.). The last listed is a direct outgrowth of the aims of the Morrill Act.

Virginia Tech is now a comprehensive university with eight colleges and more than 30,000 students (see Appendix A). The Carnegie Classification of Institutions of Higher Education (2010) categorizes Virginia Tech as a higher education institution with very high research activity. The university’s original land-grant mission has shaped the essential foundation of its international activities. Attracted to Virginia Tech’s programs in agriculture and “mechanical arts” (engineering), international students—albeit in small numbers originally—have attended the university since its first years (“The First International Students at Virginia
Virginia Tech welcomed its first international faculty in the 1960’s (Wallenstein, 1997). Throughout the university’s history, professors in various departments on campus have undertaken research on international topics; however, none of these activities was on a scale large enough to warrant strategic organizational or policy changes.

In 1975, the university established the Office of International Programs, signaling a shift towards organizational changes aimed at supporting such activities. This organization provided services to foreign students and scholars and provided information to domestic students concerning study abroad opportunities. In 1984, Virginia Tech decentralized the office’s functions as the university further formalized its international activities by creating four new entities whose main functions still exist today. These include the Cranwell International Center, serving international students; the Office of International Development (later renamed the Office of International Research, Education and Development), which manages overseas research and outreach projects mainly related principally to agriculture; the Office of International Students and Scholars for processing visas; and the academic department of International Studies (“Record Group 33,” n.d.).

This restructuring to attain a more internationalized campus mirrored broader trends of the 1980s and 1990s that Jones et al. (2005) mark as a turning point in the salience of internationalization in higher education. At Virginia Tech, this trend coalesced especially in the 1990s around the significance of globalization. As Wallentstein (1997) has observed in his history of the university, “one of the buzzwords of Virginia Tech in the 1990s was ‘globalization’” (p.256). During that decade the History Department began offering a course on the Modern World, a consortium of graduate programs created an Area Studies program and university leaders encouraged faculty to add international dimensions to their courses (Wallenstein, 1997, p. 256). In addition, in 1991-1992, the Virginia Tech Foundation acquired a facility in Europe for faculty and students. The Center for European Studies and Architecture (CESA) in Riva San Vitale, Switzerland, rapidly developed into a residential center for overseas teaching and travel and remains an important location for Virginia Tech study abroad programs today (Wallenstein, 1997). However, despite these steps, it was not until 2000 that Virginia Tech began to develop strategies to realize its international priorities in earnest.
4.2.2 Strategic Planning for Internationalization at Virginia Tech

While the restructuring of Virginia Tech’s international offices in 1984 represented a visible shift towards internationalization, these changes had not yet become integral to the university—central to its mission, strategic plans or overarching objectives. Just such a change began to occur, however, with the appointment of Charles Steger as President of Virginia Tech in January 2000. Steger initiated significant changes in the rhetoric and policies of the university that reflected a broader, more strategic approach to internationalization. Within a few months of his installation as president, Steger initiated a dialogue on internationalization, arguing, “We must expand the international and multi-cultural perspective in our curricula and in the life of our campus community if we are to function successfully at the global level” (Steger, 2000). In 2001, Steger presented a revised Strategic Plan that challenged the Virginia Tech community to aspire to become one of the Top 30 research universities in the United States. To realize this goal, the new plan called for Virginia Tech to develop a significant global presence. Soon after the proposal’s release, the Steger administration undertook several administrative changes designed to develop and steer the university’s increased internationalization efforts.

In the summer of 2001, the President formed a Steering Committee on International Affairs, made up of a small group of six faculty from across the university and “charged (it) with the task of formulating a reorganization plan for the University’s international efforts that would provide a measure of visibility and unity while fostering otherwise diverse efforts across the University” (Steering Committee on International Affairs, 2002). In accordance with this committee’s recommendations, the name and functions of the Office of the Vice Provost for Outreach was changed to the Office of the Vice Provost for Outreach and International Affairs in October 2002, reflecting already existing efforts to expand Virginia Tech’s collaboration with universities overseas. In addition, the Office of International Research and Development, along with the Office of International Education (formerly the University Office of International Programs and responsible for education abroad) and the Center for European Studies and Architecture (CESA) became part of this expanded unit (Steering Committee on International Affairs, 2002). According to the Steering Committee, the reorganization aimed to “spin out” already existing international efforts “into a more highly visible and authoritative organizational role” (Steering Committee on International Affairs, 2002).
In 2003 following this reorganization, in an effort to build on the original Steering Committee’s efforts, the Vice Provost for Outreach and International Affairs formed an International Strategic Directions Team of 24 faculty members (International Strategic Directions Team, 2004). Representing a cross-section of the university and all eight colleges, this faculty group engaged in a year-long effort to create an International Strategic Plan to guide Virginia Tech’s internationalization effort. The final strategy laid out 15 goals to be addressed between 2004 and 2011 that sought to increase the university’s international presence in four areas: undergraduate education, graduate education, international support services and research and scholarship. The Plan provided specific objectives and approaches for each of these aims as well as recommendations for initial steps and investment priorities.

4.2.3 Planning for Faculty Participation in Internationalization

Echoing the literature of practice on internationalization, Virginia Tech’s International Strategic Plan recognized faculty involvement as an integral part of such processes. The plan’s mission statement affirmed, “Achieving our international goals can transform Virginia Tech into a world-class university, but none of these goals is achievable without a campus-wide commitment of faculty, staff, and students encouraged by central administrative leadership” (p. 2).

Childress’s (2010) model of the Five I’s of Faculty Engagement in Internationalization, discussed in Chapter 2, is useful for examining the plan’s specific intentions to increase faculty participation in internationalization. According to Childress, successful professorial engagement in international activities requires five components: intentionality, investments, infrastructure, institutional networks and individual support. Virginia Tech’s International Strategic Plan contains strategies that fit all five of Childress’ components of successful participation in internationalization, although to varying degrees (see Appendix B).

Intentionality refers to formalizing internationalization as an institutional priority. Virginia Tech’s plan outlined three strategies to reach that goal. These steps included developing college plans that outline curriculum internationalization, developing inventories and plans that better position education abroad opportunities in the context of degree programs, and identifying
the university’s strengths and weaknesses in internationalization as compared to peer institutions. These strategies recognized the importance of planning on the college level, yet only addressed teaching activities rather than research or engagement. In the case of intentionality, the plan therefore only provided strategies for two of the nine types of activities to further the goal of internationalization posited by Childress (2010) and discussed in Chapter 2.

Investments, or financial support, are an important component of successful internationalization. Virginia Tech’s plan offered six strategies for investing in and therefore incentivizing faculty to engage in international activities. These investments included curriculum development funds, travel support, economic incentives to seek external funding and participate in education abroad programs and reward through merit raises and promotion and tenure to engage in international activities. Broadly writ, these investment strategies could potentially encourage all types of international activities depending on how they were operationalized.

Virginia Tech’s International Strategic Plan includes a number of strategies for building infrastructure and institutional networks. The plan outlined nine approaches to augment infrastructure, or organizational and programmatic resources for faculty. These strategies can be broadly categorized as bolstering faculty development and training (including foreign language, cross-cultural understanding, immigration policies and best practices in internationalization) and providing infrastructure including information technology and personnel to support faculty members’ international activities. The plan also included four tactics to increase institutional networks. These communication channels to learn about opportunities and resources included the development of teams of faculty from across the university to identify funding sources and potential resources to increase the quantity and quality of international activities. The University Council on International Affairs (UCIA) is one such network that grew out of this strategic planning process. Composed of faculty representatives from each of Virginia Tech's colleges as well as the directors of university international centers abroad and representatives of units that have responsibility for managing international matters, the UCIA serves as one important network for faculty (UCIA, 2010). In 2005, the Office of the Vice President for Outreach and International Affairs also organized Regional Strategies Teams designed to connect faculty
members with shared interests in specific world regions (“Welcome to Virginia Tech’s Regional Strategies,” 2010).

The university’s strategic plan also provided support to connect institution-wide goals with faculty members’ individual scholarly agendas. The plan outlined five strategies to meet this goal. These included creating a cluster hire of international professorships across the colleges, providing incentives for creating collaborative teams to secure external funding, creating support services for grant-writing and language learning and matching faculty and institutional strengths with international opportunities. The new approach aimed to encourage faculty members to develop their specific scholarly agendas in line with the university’s internationalization goals through these strategies.

The inclusion of Childress’ components for increasing faculty engagement in internationalization in a strategic plan does not guarantee their successful operationalization. Nor does their incorporation ensure they will be reviewed and reinforced, as described in Knight’s (1994) internationalization cycle. Faculty participation in internationalization at Virginia Tech mirrors the findings of the relevant literature of practice, which describes a range of attitudes and views towards such initiatives and various levels of individual engagement. An indication of this diversity of views is the plan’s first standout recommendation to “identify obstacles that are working against broader faculty participation in internationalization in teaching, research, obtaining grants, and outreach” (p. 22). As of this writing, the institution has not undertaken a formal survey of faculty perceptions of international activities. This study’s focus on two colleges at Virginia Tech begins to examine just such faculty perceptions and whether (and how) those might differ by college.

4.3 Internationalization at the College Level

In addition to strategic planning at the university level, the college and discipline of the faculty members undertaking international activities play an important role in determining the trajectory of internationalization. This section outlines the unique characteristics of the two colleges analyzed and examines international strategies in each.
4.3.1 Pamplin College of Business

Business has been part of Virginia Tech’s curriculum for nearly 90 years. The university offered its first bachelor's degree in business administration in 1925 and its first such master's degree in 1931. In the 1950’s, Virginia Tech consisted of the School of Agriculture, the School of Engineering and the School of Applied Science and Business Administration. As the business school grew and divided, a separate School of Business was formed in 1961 to house all business-related courses (Wallenstein, 1997, p. 201). The new school employed 28 faculty members and enrolled 823 students in its first year (“Record Group 12,” n.d.). The remainder of the previous school became the School of Science and General Studies and then, in 1963, was renamed the School of Arts and Sciences. In 1964, each of these components became a “College” instead of a “School” (Wallenstein, 1997, p. 201). Four years later, the building housing the College of Business was named for Robert B. Pamplin, a 1933 business graduate who later became chairman and chief executive officer of the Georgia-Pacific Corporation. The college itself was renamed in 1986 to recognize a $20 million gift from Pamplin and his son, Robert B. Pamplin Jr., who also attended Virginia Tech and is president of the R. B. Pamplin Corporation (“A Brief College History,” n.d.).

The Pamplin College of Business currently consists of six departments. These include:

- Accounting and Information Systems
- Business Information Technology
- Finance
- Hospitality and Tourism Management
- Management
- Marketing

In Fall 2011, Pamplin’s on-campus enrollment was 3,656 undergraduates and 512 graduate students sorted in the Master of Business Administration (MBA), Master of Accounting and Information Systems, Master of Hospitality and Tourism Management, and Ph.D. programs. The College employs 152 total faculty members, including tenure-track, non-tenure-track, administrative and professional faculty, of whom 1.5 percent are foreign nationals (see Appendix C). In addition to offering academic programs at the Blacksburg campus, the college also enrolls
125 evening MBA and 55 executive MBA students at Virginia Tech’s Northern Virginia Center near Washington, D.C. These individuals account for roughly 23 percent of the graduate students at the Northern Virginia Center (“National Capital Region,” 2007). In addition, 50 professional MBA students take classes that alternate between Roanoke and Richmond, Virginia (“Facts,” n.d.). According to the College’s website, the Pamplin College of Business accounts for about 20 percent of all business degrees awarded by Virginia's fourteen senior public institutions (“A Brief College History,” n.d.).

Pamplin College degree programs have been accredited by the Association to Advance Collegiate Schools of Business (AACSB) since 1961, a fact that has played a significant role in the development of the College’s international programs. In 1974, the AACSB included in its accreditation standards the requirement that business curricula include a global dimension. Five years later in 1979, the AACSB approved an interpretation of the standard that stipulated, "every student should be exposed to the international dimension through one or more elements of the curriculum" (AACSB, 1979, as cited in Nehrt, 1987, p. 83). This mandate required business schools to undertake a systematic process of curriculum assessment to track knowledge and skills in general areas such as dynamics of the global economy and multicultural and diversity understanding. The AACSB decision “essentially mandated the internationalization of curricul[a]” in U.S. business schools (Kwok, Arpan & Folks, 1994, p. 605).

**Strategic Planning for Internationalization**

The Association’s requirement to incorporate and assess international and global activities as part of its accreditation led to a number of programmatic efforts that have brought Pamplin’s international programs to their current standing. In spring 2005, the College developed its *Strategic Plan 2006-2012*. Consistent with AACSB requirements, the plan set as a priority, “preparing students for global business challenges, including providing opportunities for global experience before graduation” (Pamplin College of Business, 2005, p. 2). The strategy set a number of goals for increasing student enrollment in Pamplin’s international programs, including the undergraduate International Business minor, study abroad, internships and dual-degrees. It also set goals to offer scholarships for international experiences and to increase minority student participation.
Pamplin’s 2010-2011 Annual Report provided evidence of the strides the College had made toward its international goals. The International Business minor enrolled 187 students that year, while nine study abroad programs led by College faculty members attracted 189 participants. Six of the programs led by Pamplin faculty took place in Europe and two of those used CESA. These students accounted for roughly 73 percent of the 259 business students that studied abroad that year (Education Abroad Office, 2011a). The College was thus one of the top two colleges at Virginia Tech in number of student participants studying abroad that academic year along with the College of Liberal Arts and Human Sciences. The College also created joint MBA/Master of International Management (MIM) degree programs with universities in the U.S. and France in 2010-2011, thereby offering additional international opportunities to graduate students.

Only one goal in the strategic plan directly mentions professors’ involvement in internationalization, namely to “achieve participation by at least 60 percent of the faculty (measured over a period of five years) in an activity related to international teaching, scholarship or outreach” (p. 7). Although no strategies are listed in the plan to realize this goal, Pamplin has made organizational changes and put in place several mechanisms to encourage and recognize faculty engagement in international activities. In January 2007, for example, the College created a new position of Director of International Programs to help to achieve its international goals (Pamplin College of Business appoints director of international programs, 2006). The incumbent supports internationalization in a variety of areas, including programmatic support of faculty-led study abroad programs, publicity and promotion of those offerings and coordination of international internships and the International Business minor (Mark, personal interview, 2011).

The Director also coordinates the International Programs Committee. Comprised of faculty members appointed by each of the College’s departments, the group also includes ex-officio participants from the university’s Office of Education Abroad and Department of Foreign Languages and Literatures. The committee vets proposals for new international programs, reviews policies in support of study abroad options, and provides input on relevant College international strategies (Mark, personal interview, 2011). In terms of Childress’ (2010) model of the Five I’s of Faculty Engagement in Internationalization, the committee serves not only as
infrastructure and a source of organizational support, but also as a network by means of which faculty members can learn about international opportunities or resources. The Committee’s revision of the compensation structure for study abroad in 2010 also contributed to the College’s investment in faculty participation in international activities.

The College has also established several additional organizational mechanisms to recognize faculty engagement in international activities. Although created in 2003, before adoption of the most recent strategic plan, the Excellence in International Programs Award continues to recognize faculty international activities. Consistent with efforts across the university, Pamplin added a new section to its annual Faculty Activity Report in 2010 to allow professors to report their international scholarship, teaching and outreach efforts. In the first year, 44 percent of the College’s faculty reported being involved in international activities of some sort in 44 different countries (Sorenson, 2011, p. 18).

4.3.2 College of Liberal Arts and Human Sciences

The liberal arts at Virginia Tech have a unique history due to the university’s founding as a land-grant institution whose original mission mandated the provision of education in agriculture and mechanical arts. Nonetheless, many liberal arts courses existed long before such offerings were grouped and organized by departments and into one college. Indeed, some trace their roots to the university’s founding. For example, courses in art, English, foreign languages and literature, history, sociology, geography and philosophy have been offered at Virginia Tech since 1872 (“Record Group 15,” n.d.). However, due to the school’s land-grant mission, “courses such as history and English continued to be viewed as ‘service’ courses, as necessary evils perhaps, but not to be too warmly embraced at a technical school and certainly not to offer degree programs” (Wallenstein, 1997, p. 198). Although many land-grant schools throughout the United States had early in their histories broadened their curricular offerings and become full universities, Virginia Tech in contrast—then named Virginia Polytechnic Institute—did not do so. In fact, a movement by state officials in the late 1920’s had pushed to exclude all liberal arts courses from the university’s curriculum in an effort to avoid duplicating academic programs among the various publicly supported colleges and universities in the state (Wallenstein, 1997, p.198).
By the 1960’s, these concerns had diminished substantially and then President Thomas Marshall Hahn began to speak of Virginia Tech as “a land-grant university” (Wallenstein, 1997, p. 198). Until then both liberal arts and business courses had been housed in one School of Applied Science and Business Administration. As noted above, the existing school was split in 1961 into separate Schools of Business and Science and General Studies ("Record Group 15," n.d.). With creation of the new entity and the State Council of Higher Education’s subsequent approval for Virginia Tech to grant degrees in English, history and political science, the university began awarding its first diplomas to undergraduates with majors in those fields.

In 1964, a university-wide renaming of all schools created the College of Arts and Sciences. By the time Virginia Tech became a full university in 1970 and adopted its current name, Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University, departments of Performing Arts and Theatre, Psychology and Sociology existed in Arts and Sciences. The College also offered master’s degrees in various liberal arts disciplines (Wallenstein, 1997, p. 199). However, an organizational restructuring of the university in 2003 moved several departments, including physics, statistics, geological sciences, biology, chemistry and economics to the College of Science, while established programs in the liberal arts, social sciences, education, communication and human development were combined into a newly named College of Liberal Arts and Human Sciences (CLAHS) (Kirk, 2004).

Multiple restructuring efforts have regrouped the liberal arts disciplines during the past four decades. Taken together, these have resulted in a college with numerous departments. In contrast to the Pamplin College, which houses six departments, CLAHS currently consists of 15 departments and two schools (see Appendix C). Despite its diversity of disciplines, CLAHS enrolls roughly the same number of undergraduate students as Pamplin College. In Fall 2011, for example, CLAHS enrolled 3,494 undergraduates in comparison to 3,656 students in the business school. However, the college also enrolls more than twice as many graduate students as Pamplin, with 1,330 master and Ph.D. students enrolled in 36 academic degree programs. CLAHS also utilizes Virginia Tech’s Northern Virginia Center to offer graduate programs and its offerings account for roughly 11 percent of the graduate students enrolled at that location (“National Capital Region,” 2007).
CLAHS may be distinguished sharply from the Pamplin College by the fact that it offers a number of courses and undergraduate majors and minors that serve a broad cross-section of the university community. Mostly notably, all undergraduates at Virginia Tech are required to fulfill courses in the Curriculum for Liberal Education (CLE). As that program’s statement of purpose articulates:

Through the study of the Sciences, Mathematics, Social Sciences, Histories, Languages and the Arts, the CLE is designed to foster and develop intellectual curiosity and critical thinking; strong analytic, communication, quantitative, and information literacy skills; the capacity for collaboration and creative problem solving; the ability to synthesize and transfer knowledge; intercultural knowledge and understanding; and ethical reasoning and action (“Curriculum for Liberal Education,” 2011).

To meet these goals, all students must complete courses that address seven areas, with required credit hours determined by the student’s major department. These are listed in the table below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CLE Area</th>
<th>Credit Hours</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Area 1: Writing and Discourse</td>
<td>6 credit hours</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Area 2: Ideas, Cultural Traditions and Values</td>
<td>6 credit hours</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Area 3: Society and Human Behavior</td>
<td>6 credit hours</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Area 4: Scientific Reasoning and Discovery</td>
<td>6 or 8 credit hours</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Area 5: Quantitative and Symbolic Reasoning</td>
<td>6 credit hours</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Area 6: Creativity and Aesthetic Experience</td>
<td>1 or 3 credit hours</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Area 7: Critical Issues in a Global Context</td>
<td>3 credit hours</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Of the classes offered to meet these requirements, 69 percent are provided by CLAHS, with the remaining 31 percent divided among the university’s other seven colleges (“2011-2012 Alphabetical Listing of CLE Courses,” 2011). As a result, nearly all undergraduate students at Virginia Tech will take at least one course offered by CLAHS during their academic careers. With more than 23,600 undergraduate students enrolled in academic year 2010-2011, CLAHS employs a number of faculty members to serve those students’ curricular needs. In comparison to the Pamplin College, which employs 97 tenured or tenure-track instructional faculty members, CLAHS employs 284. The College also employs 300 non-tenure track instructional faculty in comparison to the Business school’s 36, a significantly larger number of professors whose career trajectory, and thus international efforts, are not necessarily tied to research activities (see Appendix C).

In addition to CLE courses, the college’s interdisciplinary International Studies program and Department of Foreign Languages and Literatures offer undergraduate majors and minors, many of which are undertaken by students also enrolled in other colleges. In Spring 2011, for example, 335 students were enrolled in International Studies as a first major and 60 students were enrolled as a minor (“International Studies Program,” 2011). The Department of Foreign Languages and Literatures serves 3,600 students annually (Department of Foreign Languages and Literatures, n.d.). However, the majority of the Department’s students are not majoring in foreign languages, but instead pursuing minors or courses in which degree options are not available. The Department’s website reports that roughly 300 students per year major in a language (Department of Foreign Languages and Literatures, n.d.). Department majors offered include Classical Studies, German, French and Spanish. Meanwhile, some 600 students are pursuing minors in Department curricula. Foreign Languages also provides courses in Arabic, Chinese, Hebrew, Italian and Japanese at beginning and intermediate levels.

**Strategic Planning for Internationalization**

The College of Liberal Arts and Human Sciences most recent planning effort took place in 2009 when the College developed its *Strategic Plan 2009-2012*. Similar to the College of Business, that effort included a statement of commitment to global issues. Indeed, the CLAHS mission statement suggested, “The College creates works of lasting scholarly, cultural, and
aesthetic value, and empowers individuals to engage critically with the complexities of a diverse, global society” (CLAHS, 2009, p. 3). In accordance with this purpose, the plan articulated a number of goals and strategies for international activities under the headings of undergraduate education, discovery (an alternate term for research) and engagement. These included efforts to increase student participation in study abroad experiences and foreign language courses, but also a number of strategies for encouraging faculty engagement in international activities. Goals included providing support and reward for faculty participation in study abroad programs, enhancing the national and international reputation of faculty members’ research through increased publicity and visibility and promoting international collaborations and multicultural exchange among the college’s constituencies.

The College’s 2010-2011 Annual Report documented a number of steps taken toward achieving its goals for international activities and programs. In addition to those students enrolled in the College’s foreign language and International Studies programs, during that academic year, CLAHS faculty members led 13 study abroad programs. These included two semester-long programs in Europe and the Caribbean, two short-term programs during winter and spring breaks, and nine summer programs in various locations in Europe and Africa (CLAHS, 2011, p. 26). Four of these utilized CESA as either a primary location or a destination during the program. Faculty-led programs accounted for 136 of the 311 students in the college who studied abroad that year (“Education Abroad Office,” 2011b).

In addition to study abroad programs, CLAHS also embarked on creating curricular infrastructure for its international programs. In June 2011 the Vice President and Dean for Undergraduate Education approved the creation of a new Center for 21st Century Studies designed to promote interdisciplinary undergraduate learning (CLAHS, 2011, p. 25). With a focus on contemporary global issues, the Center offers a minor featuring a “nomadic international immersion experience” as part of a yearlong course of study. The first cohort of students began in January 2012 with an introductory course; they will travel to Morocco, Istanbul and Sri Lanka over a five-week period in Summer 2012 (“University's Center for 21st Century Studies,” 2011). The new option embeds an international experience into a curricular framework that awards students a minor when completed.
Like the College of Business, a number of organizational changes in the College since its most recent round of strategic planning have enhanced its ability to expand its international programs. In 2009, CLAHS established the Dean's Advisory Committee on International Initiatives (DACII), whose first priority was “to strategically advance study abroad opportunities in the college” (CLAHS, 2009, p. 9). Comprised of 19 faculty members representing ten departments and one school, the committee expanded its original mission beyond study abroad to include a variety of activities during the 2010-2011 academic year. These included hosting a lecture series, two symposia, a panel discussion and accommodating international visitors to the college. Activities were supported by a variety of sources—a competitively awarded CLAHS Departmental Diversity Grant; two Women and Minority Artists and Scholars Lecture Series awards; financial assistance from centers, departments and programs within the college as well as across campus; and an operating budget from the Dean (CLAHS, 2011, p. 25).

In addition to the advisory committee, CLAHS also employs a faculty member who provides leadership for international activities. Unlike the College of Business, which created a director position specifically focused on promoting international activities, this responsibility is part of a larger portfolio of duties assigned to the Associate Dean for Policies and Procedures in CLAHS. The Associate Dean not only oversees study abroad funding and procedures, but also College programs at CESA and memoranda of understanding with other universities that involve CLAHS faculty (Jane, personal interview, 2011).

Until two years ago, CLAHS also appointed two faculty members to direct the college’s annual spring semester program at CESA. The co-directors provided logistical and academic course planning, student recruitment and travel arrangements, reducing the burden on faculty members teaching abroad and serving as an important source of individual support for the professors involved (Jane, personal interview, 2011). However, in 2010 the university changed the CESA reservation procedure to require that programs be proposed two years in advance, at which point the college’s spring semester residency was discontinued and the co-director positions eliminated. As of academic year 2010-2011, only one semester-long program is still offered at CESA, while all other programs linked to the Center are short-term summer offerings.
In comparison to the Pamplin College, CLAHS has fewer funds available to encourage faculty members to engage in international activities. The College currently does not provide stipends to faculty in addition to their regular salary when they lead a study abroad program. And while several internal programs are designed to supplement external grant funding, these grants and fellowships are not earmarked specifically for international programs. The Niles Research Awards and Fellowships, South Atlantic Humanities Project Grants and Fellowships, and Summer Humanities Stipends, for example, have been awarded to faculty to support international research, but are not offered specifically for that purpose (CLAHS, 2011, p. 13).

Like the Pamplin College, CLAHS has embraced the goal of increasing professorial engagement in international activities in its strategic plan. The DACII faculty committee provides an infrastructure for a variety of international activities and an institutional network for professors who are members. However, investment in faculty compensation for study abroad, in particular, is low. In addition, with the elimination of the co-director position that supported semester-long programs at CESA, the College now offers reduced individual support for international initiative logistics. Nonetheless, champions and advocates of international activities still exist in the college, indicating the utility of exploring additional factors that affect faculty willingness and ability to engage.

4.3.3 The Importance of Disciplinary Norms

The two colleges that provide the backdrop for this study differ substantially in their historical trajectories and disciplinary make-up and characteristics. In addition, their disciplinary organization has played a large role in the international strategies adopted by each. As Ellingboe (1998) has argued, the nature of the disciplines in each college or professional school helps to explain its direction and intracollegiate and attitudinal splits (p. 218). In other words, the values and expectations of the fields involved play a large role in how a department or college will approach internationalization.

As discussed above, the standards of the Pamplin College of Business’s accrediting organization, the AACSB, have played a large part in the College’s incorporation of international perspectives into its curricula and programs. Additionally, disciplinary norms have contributed to
the College’s approach to international activities. In a comparative study of the rhetoric of internationalization, Schoorman (2000) found that faculty members in a college of business at a Midwest university frequently described the discipline as “in need of” internationalization. In the context of business, the nature of the field itself was viewed as the primary impetus for such curricular change. Participants cited three factors that had contributed to the priority accorded international concerns: corporate employer demand for graduates knowledgeable in such issues, accreditation pressures and the need to maintain department prestige in order to recruit students (p. 11-12). In short, business school internationalization generally, and Pamplin efforts particularly, have been market-driven, the result of demands by employers, students and accreditation standards.

In contrast, the internationalization literature has historically described the liberal arts as inherently “international.” In a 1991 study of the international experience of American faculty, Goodwin & Nacht described two categories of disciplines and subdisciplines as innately global in character. The first group includes subjects that “by their essence require materials, data or specific experiences that can be found only overseas” (Goodwin & Nacht, 1991, p.18). These fields include linguistics, geology, literature, anthropology, biology, architecture, soil science, music, and art history (p. 18). The second category includes “subjects and fields that have decided they require an international dimension to be meaningful” (p. 19). These include such disciplines as business administration, schools of education, library science, public administration, social work, professional schools and other applied fields (p. 19-21).

Based on these descriptions, the specialties included in the College of Liberal Arts and Human Sciences fit both categories. Departments such as Foreign Languages and Literatures, History, Political Science and Religion and Culture fit the first category of requiring interaction with materials or experiences overseas. In contrast, departments such as Communication or the School of Education have incorporated international perspectives relatively recently. Regardless of the category, however, because of the College’s provision of a major share of courses required for the CLE, its departments are called on to provide global and international perspectives to a majority of the university’s undergraduates. For some students, this exposure may be minimal, provided they do not test out of or transfer credits for such courses upon entering as freshmen.
However, because the College serves students across the university, it plays a pivotal role in the internationalization goals of the university.

4.4 Summary

This chapter has described Virginia Tech’s strategic planning processes for internationalization at the university and college levels. Those initiatives have put in place a variety of mechanisms to encourage faculty international engagement. Nonetheless, the two colleges from which professors were sampled for this study differ substantially in their historical trajectories, characteristics and disciplinary norms. This intellectual and institutional context constitutes important background for examining the perceived benefits and motivating factors of champions and advocates for engaging in international activities.
CHAPTER 5
FINDINGS AND ANALYSIS: ACTIVITIES AND PROFESSIONAL CHARACTERISTICS OF CHAMPIONS AND ADVOCATES

5.1 Introduction

A primary goal of this study is to broaden understanding of the activities and professional characteristics of champions and advocates of internationalization. This chapter first discusses the types of international activities with which champions and advocates were involved in each college under examination. The analysis then presents findings on these faculty members’ characteristics related to the six professional factors incorporated in Wade and Demb’s model as contributing to faculty engagement: discipline, status/rank, socialization, department support, professional community support and length of time in academia. The chapter then discusses the usefulness of the professional dimension of the FEM for understanding faculty engagement in internationalization.

5.2 International Activities of Champions and Advocates

This study relied on an administrator in each of the two colleges to identify faculty members who they considered to be champions and advocates of internationalization. Because each administrator used slightly different criteria to select these individuals, there were differences in the character of the international activities of the faculty interviewed.

In the Pamplin College, the Director of International Programs identified champions and advocates as faculty who had led study abroad programs and one who was coordinating a highly visible outreach program overseas (Mark, personal interview, 2011). As a result, all professors interviewed but one mentioned study abroad programs as a significant part of their international activities and often discussed this experience first when asked about their current transnational experiences. In addition, when discussing benefits and barriers, these professors most often talked about factors related to their experiences with study abroad. In the case of the professor who coordinated the international outreach program, this activity played a similarly significant
role, serving as a reference point for his experiences with and perceptions of international activities in the College and university.

While these professors referred most often to their experiences with study abroad or outreach programs when discussing their international activities, they were highly engaged with a variety of other related endeavors. Faculty members also undertook research overseas, taught internationally focused courses on campus, and led short-term courses and seminars at institutions abroad. They were also vigorously engaged in a number of transnational service and outreach activities. On campus they served on a number of college or university committees focused on global issues and served as external examiners for graduate committees at institutions overseas. Several also worked on outreach activities funded through grants and mentored junior faculty at institutions in other nations on an informal basis.

Despite involvement in many types of international activities in the college, the administrators’ and faculty members’ focus on study abroad as a defining activity of champions and advocates is notable. When examined in the context of the College’s accreditation history, this is not surprising in light of the AACSB requirement that business schools incorporate global perspectives and experiences into their curricula. The College’s reward structure, which includes additional salary compensation for faculty leading study abroad programs, reflects Pamplin’s efforts to address the accreditation requirement of offering a variety of global experiences to its students. In addition, the administrator’s selection of faculty involved in study abroad may also be related to his own role in supporting the leaders of these programs, which would result in familiarity with these professors’ efforts.

When asked about international activities, faculty members’ focus on study abroad or outreach was often connected to a sense of personal meaning for this particular type of activity. One faculty member, Michael, who had led 17 programs overseas over the course of his career, said that while he did not enjoy the research aspects of his job all that much, he did gain meaning from his work with study abroad, stating, “I still get excited when I get over there with the students” (Michael, personal interview, 2011). Six faculty members in Pamplin and four in CLAHS suggested they valued study abroad programs more than other types of international
activities with which they were involved.

The CLAHS associate dean employed a slightly different set of criteria to identify champions and advocates. While this administrator identified faculty who had led study abroad programs in the previous academic year, she also selected members of DACII (Jane, personal interview, 2011). As a result, while a large percentage of the faculty interviewed had led study abroad programs (nine of 12 interviewed), others were involved in international research and outreach activities.

Although involved in activity types that were as varied as those in Pamplin, CLAHS professors who had led study abroad programs referred most often to their experiences with those efforts when discussing their international activities. The three faculty members who had not undertaken this type of activity, but served on DACII, most often referred to international research and outreach activities as well as their experiences serving on the committee. It is important to note that DACII members are self-nominated rather than appointed, constituting a committee of faculty who identify as international advocates rather than being selected for their interest or activities. Thus, when exploring the work of these professors, there was slightly more variety in the types of efforts in which they were involved. For two of these, international research was a main focus, while for the third it was such inquiry coupled with development of an outreach program.

Regardless of their college affiliation, champions and advocates were involved in a wide variety of international activities. However, the two college administrators’ focus on study abroad activities when selecting possible interviewees for this study lends this analysis a decidedly strong focus on international teaching activities as represented by study abroad programs.

5.3 The Role of Professional Factors

As outlined in Chapter 2, Wade & Demb (2009) hypothesized that six professional factors influence faculty participation in engagement activities, including discipline, status/rank, socialization, department support, professional community support and length of time in
academia. This study sought to analyze the role of these elements in the activities of champions and advocates of internationalization in two colleges at Virginia Tech. This section discusses findings related to each factor.

5.3.1 Discipline

Wade and Demb (2009) asserted that disciplinary norms, more than institutional expectations, determine the way faculty carry out service work as well as their beliefs concerning its relative value (p. 10). As discussed in Chapter 4, such expectations play an equally important role in international activities. The faculty members interviewed in both colleges represented a variety of disciplines. As summarized in Figure 5.1, regardless of the college, champions and advocates of internationalization exist in a diverse array of departments.

![Figure 5.1 Disciplines of Champions and Advocates](image)

Pamplin interviewees represented all six of the college’s departments, allowing a broad-based exploration of faculty attitudes in all of the subdisciplines of the college. All faculty interviewed echoed the literature of practice describing the necessity of incorporating international perspectives into their disciplines because of the globalization of the business field. As William observed,
I believe that the world is becoming more globalized and there's no escaping the fact that we are becoming a global marketplace. And as such, we need to prepare our students to become not only educated and aware of international issues, but corporate issues and cultural issues. … Students, in order to assume their place in society, they need to be exposed to the international arena … they cannot function in today's business without having an international lens, an international frame of mind (William, personal interview, 2011).

Pamplin faculty members described the necessity of global perspectives in the business disciplines as closely intertwined with the trajectory of globalization and its effects on trade and commerce. Several senior faculty members said they remembered relatively little attention being paid to international issues when they were studying their disciplines in graduate school in the 1970s or 1980s, but had noticed their fields focusing more on international and global issues over the years. One professor in the college, Sean, recounted how he had not taken any courses with a global focus in graduate school, but taught himself international finance in order to teach a course that the College began offering (Sean, personal interview, 2011). These descriptions of changes in disciplinary norms are reflected in arguments in the literature, which describes globalization, and thus internationalization, as gaining momentum in the early 1990s. All Pamplin faculty members interviewed described international and global issues as having become increasingly important to their fields over the years, and crucial to the preparation of their current students to function successfully in the business world.

Despite agreement on the importance of international perspectives to their disciplines, not all faculty members interviewed believed that global perspectives had been fully integrated into the business curriculum. One professor, Sean, described international perspectives as separate and partitioned from the standard curriculum,

[The college] think[s] of international courses as a separate kind of entity instead of looking at it as every course has an international component to it. So when you’re talking about corporate finance, it’s international corporate finance. When you talk about banking, it’s also international banking. These could be components in each course,
modules in each course ... there are [other] schools that have centers for international studies within the college and things of that nature, but we don’t have that. In terms of coursework, every department has just one course in the international arena, like international marketing, international finance, one course each (Sean, personal interview, 2011).

Faculty interviewees expressed differing viewpoints concerning whether the incorporation of international and global perspectives into the curriculum has been successfully operationalized in the College, or treated merely as an “add-on.” Nevertheless, regardless of their disciplinary background and current department, all suggested that an understanding of international issues is critical to their current field.

This was not surprising in the fields of hospitality and tourism management, marketing and management, where faculty members described their international interests as “the nature of the field.” However it is interesting to note that even in disciplines such as accounting or business information technologies, which do not fall under Goodwin & Nacht’s (1991) categorization of “international” fields, faculty members interviewed believed it important to incorporate global perspectives into their work. One accounting professor, Robert, described his ideas for involving students in creating an accounting system for a nonprofit organization overseas and a micro-lending program that would combine expertise in accounting and interest in development work. As he said, “… that's the sort of thing that if you can show the students, here's an opportunity to really make a difference, then it energizes them in the classroom and they want to be prepared to participate in that process” (Robert, personal interview, 2011).

Even though trained in disciplines that are not typically classified as “international,” these faculty members had developed a connection between their fields and wider global issues through their personal experiences. In these cases, academic background was not as important as the faculty member’s desire and ability to connect his or her professional expertise with a personal interest in international issues fueled by the motivation to “make a difference” for their students or the communities with which they worked. But this took effort. As Robert explained, he was still discovering “how to bring these areas together” (Robert, personal interview, 2011).
Nonetheless, the experiences of these professors are noteworthy because of their efforts to connect their discipline to a broader global perspective in a fashion that is personally meaningful to them.

Discipline played an equally important role among faculty in CLAHS, although its significance was determined by the norms of each subdiscipline. The twelve professors I interviewed represented nine of the fifteen departments and two schools that comprise the College. As such, they represented a diversity of subdisciplines. Although the internationalization literature has described many of the liberal arts as essentially “international,” faculty members in the College said they encountered a variety of attitudes towards international perspectives in their disciplines. For some, international concerns represented a central focus of their discipline, as in foreign languages and literatures, religion and culture and political science and history. For other professors, a challenge they faced was not so much incorporating global perspectives, but including current global concerns in their work. A faculty member in history, Adam, described his discipline as in the midst of an evolutionary process to incorporate more contemporary issues,

We do have this sense that we need to be connected with current events more … we talk politics a whole lot more at these conferences. It's ever-present. … So I think from the very beginning, there was a sense that as scholars we had a political, not necessarily a political commitment but there was a subtext to a lot of what we do that there's an importance to our research, that, you know, I can read a book on ancient Greek history, it might be interesting but I don't feel that real strong connection to what's going on today. But when we do [area] studies, I think there really is. There's much more of a sense of “we need to be speaking about contemporary issues in some way” (Adam, personal interview, 2011)

For others, the incorporation of international perspectives into their disciplines had evolved much like in the business fields, following the changes that globalization had occasioned in their areas of practice. Communications fits into Goodwin & Nacht’s (1991) categorization as an applied subject whose members have decided to incorporate an international dimension to stay
relevant and meaningful. A faculty member in Communications, Ryan, described changes he had seen in the field since he had completed graduate school fifteen years earlier, explaining that “there wasn't a lot of major call for comparative research at that time,” an attitude that had since drastically changed in the discipline (Ryan, personal interview, 2011).

Still others faced significant barriers within their disciplines to incorporating international perspectives into their research. Despite the fact that Goodwin and Nacht (1991) described the study of literature as innately global, one English professor, Keith, depicted a very different experience,

"There is always in conservative fields like mine the sense that there is less value to non-canonical projects, so if I'm a Shakespeare scholar nobody thinks twice about what I'm doing. But if I'm writing about someone sitting in [a non-Western country], it's like, "who is this person?" I have to say it’s better now than it used to be, but I can also say that my first two books … were more highly regarded locally than the one on [international] fiction. So there’s a little of that going on. It's better now than it used to be. It's slowly shifting, but still, if I were doing work on Dickens, it would be much easier to get the work paid for, it would be much easier to get it published. In the profession at large it would be much easier to score points on the great scoreboard (Keith, personal interview, 2011).

Discipline thus plays an important role in CLAHS faculty members’ international efforts, but in a more nuanced way than described in the literature of practice. Liberal arts disciplines and subdisciplines cannot all be said to be inherently international or global in nature. Although all CLAHS faculty members interviewed expressed the view that international perspectives were important to their fields, the norms of their disciplines created a variety of contexts within which they were conducting international research, teaching and outreach activities.

5.3.2 Status and Rank

The internationalization literature asserts that tenured senior faculty are most likely to be effective champions of internationalization (Green & Olson, 2003). As noted in Figure 5.2, the majority of professors I interviewed in each college were indeed tenured faculty members.
However, the inclusion of tenure track, untenured and non-tenure-track professors in this study allows a much more nuanced exploration of the role of status and rank in faculty engagement in internationalization. The figure indicates tenured positions in various shades of blue, and untenured positions in shades of yellow.

**Figure 5.2 Status and Rank of Champions and Advocates**

In the Pamplin College, all faculty members interviewed except one were either full professors or tenured associate professors. As mentioned earlier, faculty in this college were originally selected as champions and advocates because of their involvement with study abroad programs. Without exception, when these professors talked about when they first became involved with these programs, they stated that it was after achieving tenure. Sean, an associate professor in Pamplin, said,

I was just tenured when I started [getting involved with study abroad programs]. If I were untenured, no way! And I would tell everybody who’s untenured to get out of it if you’re even thinking about it because it’s just not the right thing to do. Because although international is part of the performance assessment, it does not substitute for the research requirement. It doesn’t even get valued in terms of performance evaluation. People will
talk about it, but when it comes to real weight, there’s very little (Sean, personal interview, 2011).

Interviewees in CLAHS also argued that faculty members should possess tenure before becoming engaged in international activities outside of research. As summarized by Keith,

It's a really difficult thing. We keep upping the ante for tenure to the point that unless a piece of travel has a body-count kind of payoff, it's really not that smart to do. A little vacation trip, that's fine, but it's a close race against the tenure clock to get enough stuff in good enough places of the right kind to hold the dogs off. So I think that untenured faculty can't be very adventurous. They can't afford it (Keith, personal interview, 2011)

Regardless of the college, the pressure to meet the publishing requirements for tenure was cited repeatedly as a barrier to becoming involved in international teaching and outreach activities, so much so that even despite interest years earlier, many had consciously postponed any international involvement (outside of research) until they became tenured. Several of these professors mentioned that mentors and colleagues had advised them to “stay away” from these activities, and accordingly, they mentioned they would give the same advice to junior faculty. Repeatedly, faculty members stated that because they worked for a research university, their research and publishing took precedence in the promotion and tenure process. William in Pamplin said, “Let's face it, this is a research university and we get recognized and rewarded for publishing, publishing, publishing” (William, personal interview, 2011).

In the context of the tenure process, international activities were thus accorded a hierarchy of value, with research holding the most importance, followed by teaching and outreach activities. David, an associate professor in Pamplin, described this perceived value system for international activities this way,

Research is rewarded, and if you do international research, that's great … but the service work in certain international-oriented committees or doing study abroad, leading groups of students to other countries, or teaching [overseas], … the fact that you're doing these
things can't take away from your research. Most of the people I've seen doing that have either been sort of mavericks or renegades, or they don't care or are satisfied with the publishing they've already done. They're not trying to do more publishing … and they’re not worried that it will impact their research (David, personal interview, 2011).

Indeed, an assistant professor interviewed in CLAHS, Laura, held a similar view, seeing international research as holding primary importance for her aspirations for tenure. She also described the department as “sheltering” untenured professors from becoming involved in other types of international activities, such as teaching and service on committees that could distract them from publishing goals. However, unlike some professors, who talked about research as a separate entity, she saw her scholarship as intrinsically connected to other types of international activities such as teaching and outreach,

We tend to talk about these things as research, teaching and outreach in such neat categories. I wasn't even aware of those categories when I first came here because I just did what I did, and all these things are connected. Your research inspires your teaching, your teaching inspires your research, and then outreach is, to me, oftentimes just an extension of what you're already doing in your research or in your teaching anyway. So parsing it up into these neat little categories is an artifact of what is asked from us to document. I could not do my research without international involvement so it's almost a bonus to get credit for that counting as outreach, but really what I'm doing is just what I'm doing anyway. But then again it leads to other cooperation for future research projects or possibilities for students that I can sort of shepherd through a study abroad program of some kind or another. So they're all connected (Laura, personal interview, 2011).

For Laura, who had not yet been tenured, the ability to make connections between her international research and other types of activities allowed her to be involved in a variety of different efforts while still prioritizing publication for tenure. This may have been due to the nature of her research, which she described as inherently international, but also to her ability to connect her international experiences with her teaching. These “transferability” skills allowed her to maximize the benefit from her activities in order to meet the requirements of the tenure
Based on these insights, faculty members fell into several different categories in relation to their status and rank and the international activities to which they accorded priority.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Status</th>
<th>Non-tenure track</th>
<th>Tenure-track</th>
<th>Tenured</th>
<th>Tenured</th>
<th>Retired</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rank</td>
<td>Instructor</td>
<td>Assistant Professor</td>
<td>Associate Professor</td>
<td>Professor</td>
<td>Professor Emeritus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>International Activities</td>
<td>Focus on teaching</td>
<td>Focus on research with connections to teaching and outreach</td>
<td>Focus on research with connections to teaching and outreach or focus on personally valued activities</td>
<td>Focus on research, outreach or teaching or focus on personally valued activities</td>
<td>Focus on personally valued activities</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5.1 Status, Rank and International Activities of Champions and Advocates

Although not mentioned in the internationalization literature, non-tenure-track faculty members play an important role in the international initiatives of their respective colleges at Virginia Tech. Instructors are defined as non-tenure track teaching faculty members with substantial responsibilities for undergraduate and graduate instruction, research and outreach at the university (“Types of Positions”, 2008). These positions typically require at least a master’s degree in the field, although the senior instructor I interviewed in CLAHS held a Ph.D. In both Pamplin and CLAHS, the instructors interviewed were heavily involved with study abroad programs, with one having led programs for fifteen years, and one for four. While both were involved in research, they were not subject to the same publishing requirements as tenure-track faculty, and in the words of one instructor, study abroad was as additional activity “that I decided to do” (Daniel, personal interview, 2011). While both instructors also served on their respective college’s committee for international initiatives and participated in research, the lack of publication requirement for tenure allowed both faculty members to put time and energy into an
activity that they enjoyed, in this case international teaching in the form of study abroad.

For Laura, the CLAHS assistant professor I interviewed, the international activity given the most focus was research because of its importance in achieving tenure. However, as discussed earlier, this assistant professor had discovered ways to connect her research with teaching or outreach activities, thus getting the most “mileage” out of each for the tenure review process. A number of tenured faculty members in both colleges also described their efforts to bridge their research and other international activities so they could continue to pursue both simultaneously.

Once tenure was achieved, the priority interviewees assigned to certain types of international activities depended partly on the faculty member’s professional aspirations. While many associate professors continued to engage in international research, their focus on this activity depended on their aspirations for further promotion in the faculty ranks. Those professors who aspired to become a full professor continued to focus on international research while connecting such efforts to their teaching and outreach activities. In contrast, several faculty members who had achieved tenure had made a conscious decision not to pursue further promotion. These associate professors observed that while they were aware they would not be promoted without further focus on publications, they were content with their current position and the latitude it provided to invest time into international activities they enjoyed, and said that held more meaning for them than writing. In the words of Michael, an associate professor in Pamplin,

Colleagues warn you that you shouldn't do study abroad until you've got full professor because if you're really deep into study abroad, you won't have the time to do research to become a full professor. And that was a conscious decision I made. I mean, I wasn't that excited about the research kind of stuff anyway, and I tell you, even now after 10 or 11 years in all these programs, I still get excited when I get over there with the students (Michael, personal interview, 2011).
These faculty members had discovered an international activity they enjoyed and at which they excelled. They chose to focus their energy on that effort rather than on the research that could lead to advancement in the academic ranks.

The activities of tenured faculty who had become full professors followed a similar trajectory, with some individuals still focused on international research. However, several expressed a sense of relief from research and publishing expectations because of the ability to shift priorities and invest in other activities that held meaning for them. Robert, a full professor in Pamplin explained,

Tenure is great because it enables you to do what you want to do so long as you don't expect to be paid for it. So as long as what I'm doing is in the university's best interest and the students' best interest … then I’m okay with it (Robert, personal interview, 2011).

Free from research and publishing expectations, these faculty members were able to invest their time and energy in study abroad, service on committees or outreach activities overseas. This was also the case for professors emeriti in both colleges, who had retired, but were still involved with international activities through either coordinating study abroad or outreach programs, or mentoring junior faculty members. Unencumbered by tenure and promotion requirements, they were able to focus on activities that held the most meaning for them. Brenda, an associate professor emeritus in CLAHS noted, “I can do what I want to do in international [activities] without hurting my career” (Brenda, personal interview, 2011).

Although the majority of faculty champions and advocates were tenured, the experiences of instructors and professors emeriti who fall outside the tenure track provide insight into the full range of faculty ranks and their international activities. While the internationalization literature focuses on tenured faculty members, there are distinctions in the sorts of efforts faculty undertook according to their rank and their desire to pursue further promotions. In addition, professors clearly distinguished between international activities valued in the tenure process and those that they found personally valuable, a distinction that has important implications for efforts to encourage engagement in international activities.
5.3.3 Socialization

Wade & Demb (2009) found that socialization for engagement behavior begins in graduate school, shaping personal beliefs and motivations which are then reinforced within department settings through structures and processes that define acceptable practices and extrinsic rewards (p. 11). Their focus was thus on professional socialization and the messages faculty receive throughout their careers, beginning with graduate training and continuing in their current departments and colleges. For champions and advocates of internationalization, graduate school and career experiences played a variety of roles in their engagement in international activities.

Regardless of their current college, faculty members described a broad range of experiences with international activities in graduate school. For some, post-baccalaureate study had served as an impetus for international research interests. One faculty member in each college described a major professor or graduate committee member who had provided an introduction to the global or comparative aspects of their respective disciplines. James, a professor in Pamplin, described this type of relationship with the chair of his dissertation committee, whom he characterized as “the god of cross-cultural [work],” who had provided an introduction to thinking about such issues. Although his research did not presently focus on such concerns, he had pursued these lines of research earlier in his career. For Ryan in CLAHS, his advisor’s research activities served as a catalyst to pursue an already existing interest in international matters.

It really wasn't until the doctoral program where I, as an adult, was able to make that happen for myself in a conscious way and work with people who I knew were doing international work. So I did gravitate toward [Eileen] as an advisor. I remember she brought in books of hers that were translated into different languages and she had done a lot of comparative work. And at the time in [my field] there wasn't a lot of major call for comparative research, so the field was making that appeal as well. So as a young scholar, you kind of gravitate toward the areas that carry possibility to carve out a niche (Ryan, personal interview, 2011).
In Ryan’s case, his advisor provided an introduction to an international research area that intrigued him as international issues were becoming more salient in his discipline.

Other professors described having been exposed to international issues and topics during their graduate studies through other avenues, including friendships with students from other nations in their graduate program, courses or study opportunities. However, despite the presence of research opportunities abroad, many had not considered them seriously because of cost or personal circumstances that would not allow spending long periods of time overseas. Several faculty members who had come to the U.S. to study from other countries saw their graduate school experience as “international” in and of itself. For professors born in the U.S., especially senior faculty members who had attended graduate school several decades ago, many international opportunities were either not affordable or not available. Five of the faculty members interviewed in Pamplin and three of those in CLAHS had completed their doctoral work before 1980. As a result, these senior faculty members said that during the time they were in graduate school, international opportunities were simply not a part of their curriculum. As one full professor, David, said, “I didn't have any hope of traveling overseas. That was a whole different era” (David, personal interview, 2011).

For some faculty members, then, graduate school had played a role in introducing international concepts or ideas that were then pursued or addressed in later research. This was especially true for professors who had completed their degrees since the 1980s at a graduate school that offered international courses or opportunities that allowed them to pursue an already existing interest in research abroad. For the majority of faculty members who had completed their graduate work in the late 1960s and 1970s, however, international perspectives and issues were simply not a part of their discipline. Regardless of college affiliation or discipline, professors who had attended graduate school during this time period described their disciplines as not having had a strong international component, if any. In the words of James, a senior faculty member in Pamplin, “There was nothing in graduate school that would have oriented me towards doing international work” (James, personal interview, 2011). The introduction of international or global perspectives thus seems to be a more recent phenomenon regardless of discipline. This echoes the academic literature on the topic, which sees globalization, and thus
internationalization of higher education, as occurring since the 1980s. Overall, the importance of graduate school training to professors’ engagement in international activities depended on when the faculty member attended graduate school, the availability of opportunities to pursue such interests and their desire and ability to take advantage of those possibilities.

5.3.4 Departmental Support

While Wade and Demb’s (2009) model marks graduate school as the beginning of a faculty member’s career, it also recognizes that the department and college where a faculty member is housed constitute an important source of professional socialization (p. 11). Professors described a number of structures and processes in their respective colleges and departments which reinforced norms and the value placed on international engagement activities. In both colleges, the majority of these occurred at the college level. While faculty members described their departments as a source of some administrative support for such items as travel paperwork and student registration for study abroad programs, they characterized their colleges, and especially their deans, as providing the strongest leadership and support for international initiatives. David in Pamplin explained this dynamic this way:

The departments, who are operating on budgets and limited staffing, don't have the same setting as the college as a whole. The college is made up of departments, but there's a layer of some funding and interest at the college level by the dean in terms of the overall policy that students should be encouraged to do study abroad programs or exchange programs or internships, and that we should have funding to do that (David, personal interview, 2011).

In both Pamplin and CLAHS the college managed policies and structures to encourage or fund international initiatives. The two colleges also managed awards programs to recognize the transnational achievements of faculty. When asked if they received support from their departments for international activities, faculty interviewed described college leadership as setting the priorities for such involvement, with their departments as neutral as long as they were fulfilling research and teaching expectations on campus. Sandra, a faculty member in Pamplin, said,
I don’t think I get a major message [from my department]. I think the college is very supportive of study abroad because it’s part of the strategic plan and therefore it’s happening. I think that from a department standpoint, they support my activities. I’m not seeing a positive like, “why we want you to go in that direction,” or a negative “don’t do that.” I just think they’re supporting what I do just as part of my regular, what I do here. I think it could be a problem if I wasn’t performing my main duties properly, but since my publication record is there, my teaching is done, then it’s not a hindrance so then they support it (Sandra, personal interview, 2011).

Faculty members in CLAHS described a similar relationship between their college and respective departments, with international research garnering the most recognition and value, and other activities treated more neutrally. Adam said,

The current chair seems very supportive on those issues. But really, I don't get a sense one way or the other whether people know or, if they do, if they have an opinion on anything other than the research aspect of it. That's what gets you recognition. That's what gets the department recognition (Adam, personal interview, 2011).

Department support thus did not play as large a part in the international engagement of faculty members as did the structures, processes and leadership at the college and university levels. Interviewees indicated that such officials gave preference to international research over other activities in the tenure process.

5.3.5 Professional Community Support

Although Wade and Demb (2009) include professional community support as a contributing factor to faculty engagement, they do not define the concern in their model. In this study, this influence was interpreted as faculty members’ perceptions of support received for international activities from the professional organizations they belong to and from their colleagues.
Borden (2007) has described professional organizations as promoting the occupational interests of their members and the effectiveness of the existing body of knowledge in the field, thereby playing an important role in professional and academic identity formation. Because individuals can pick and choose which types of networks to join and can move in and out of these networks as desired to pursue interests and enrich learning and experience, one can interact with colleagues as needed to gain advice and guidance on daily tasks and activities (p. 143). These organizations serve a range of functions for their members, including professional development activities, research and trade journals, codes of ethics, conferences, and in some cases, licensure or certification (Borden, 2007, p. 142). They therefore play a considerable role in defining disciplinary norms that can influence faculty engagement in international activities.

Regardless of college or department, all faculty members interviewed belonged to professional or academic organizations and associations. Professors’ descriptions of the support they received from these organizations for international activities were varied. Several business faculty members mentioned they belonged to interest groups within their professional organizations specifically focused on international issues and topics. These allowed them to present their research at international conferences. John, a Pamplin faculty member, noted that such membership could result in positive incentives to engage in international inquiry: “[membership] has provided an inducement for me to do research and write papers on things with an international focus” (John, personal interview, 2011).

One faculty member in Pamplin, Linda, said a professional association she belonged to had linked her with and an opportunity to teach a seminar at an institution overseas. This experience was her first visit to that country and a first step towards “recognizing the area of the world that I found really interesting and was an area that was not being duplicated in any of the other study abroad options that were within the college” (Linda, personal interview, 2011). This experience seemed to be the exception, however, as most professors described their professional organizations as providing a forum for presenting research or networking, but not travel opportunities outside of attending the organization’s conferences. While faculty members in both colleges described their organizations as having small grants available to support research and conference travel, only one professor in each college described having received such support.
Most faculty members described their professional associations as having international membership, but reserving financial support for graduate students or scholars based in developing countries. Laura in CLAHS observed,

> Not for people at my stage in their careers. I belong to two professional organizations … both of which hold annual meetings and typically at least one in three years is outside of the U.S. So they have travel grants but it's typically limited to graduate students. I was very fortunate getting support from them while I was a graduate student. But once you have a job, they assume that you can pay your own way (Laura, personal interview, 2011).

While the faculty interviewed did not generally see their professional associations as a source of financial support, the majority of those professors interviewed in both colleges said they were an important forum for networking, meeting collaborators and keeping abreast of what was happening in the field. As Adam in CLAHS said,

> I mean, it's great because we're all there; that's the place you go and meet scholars in the United States and Canada and the UK and Europe and Africa … that's where you can do the networking and find out who's doing what and where to go, and actually online … the listservs are a great resource. But whatever funds they have they try and focus on helping those on the continent (Adam, personal interview, 2011).

Overall, faculty members saw their professional organizations as valuing international research and providing a forum to meet other scholars and to forge collaborations. However, for international activities outside of research, colleagues served a more important role in the professional support system of champions and advocates in their teaching and outreach activities. When I asked faculty leaders of study abroad programs how they first became involved in these efforts, several in each college described an existing interest in international work that was then made possible by a colleague in their department or college who invited them to collaborate on a program and thus opened up an opportunity to participate. For many this happened informally, as Paul in Pamplin said:
A faculty member in Pamplin, [Tom], was the key individual who really influenced me to get into the study abroad programs ... early on he got into some of these USAID projects and had spent time in several countries ... and we were just talking, and he served on a couple of graduate committees because we have good ties with [his department], we got to know him, and one thing led to another, just informal chat and talk. Those are the more effective ways of getting people excited ... that’s how I got interested in this, really, through [Tom’s] encouragement (Paul, personal interview, 2011).

For Paul, who had already been involved in international research, an informal connection with an enthusiastic colleague provided the impetus for becoming involved in a different type of international activity. Pamplin College had also created a formal mechanism to connect colleagues around study abroad, creating a structure to pay faculty members to accompany other professors leading study abroad, allowing them to “shadow” other faculty members “so you know what you're really getting into” (David, personal interview, 2011). Up until the year prior to this study, CLAHS also had in place a formal mechanism to support professors leading study abroad programs, appointing a faculty member to provide planning support. This removed the logistical burdens of the program and allowed professors to focus on teaching. A faculty member in CLAHS, Angela, who had led programs for more than ten years attributed her involvement to this colleague who recognized her interest:

The very first one we did ... our college had a regular spring program, and the person in charge of the program, his name was [Jack] ... he called us and said, "I need somebody to teach." And I actually think he talked to us in the summer and he said, "I'm about to change your life. Would you like to teach [abroad] this spring?" And we said, "Yes." He said, "I will do everything for you, all you have to do is teach." So he did. He recruited the students, he bought the plane tickets, he did all the budgeting sort of stuff, he did that all, he said, "We usually go on two trips, north and south. Where do you want to go?" We sat with a map. We said, "Really?"... That's what we did (Angela, personal interview, 2011).

In addition to providing opportunities and logistical help, faculty members also said their
colleagues served as mentors for international work. Brenda in CLAHS attributed her first foray into international work at Virginia Tech to a colleague in her department:

[Mark], he was the one … he has really taught me. I watched him whenever we went abroad, how he operates … he always does courtesy calls and he never forgets a name and it's, again, very difficult for me because the names are so hard. I'm getting used to it and they all make sense now but it was a learning curve. He was really my mentor because he's sharp and knows how to operate. And I listen to him a lot, and you don't listen to him at your peril because he's traveled with a couple other people and he'll say, "Don't say such-and-such." … There are certain ways you do it, you know? So you don't go into another culture unless you've had experience or someone that you're willing to really tag along and learn from, and I can do all of this [now overseas] … but I learned from [Mark] (Brenda, personal interview, 2011).

The support, encouragement and enthusiasm of colleagues served as a catalyst for a number of faculty members in each college. However, interviewees also described a number of colleagues in their departments whom they felt didn’t understand, appreciate, or support their international teaching. For example, John in Pamplin described associates who lacked understanding of the amount of work and level of educational rigor that study abroad programs require:

There is oftentimes this sort of stigma associated with study abroad. … I remember one time I got back from this trip, which is particularly grueling because traveling from company to company sometimes two, three meetings a day, having to make very precise connections, all sorts of student problems, jet lag, writing 40 thank you letters when you get back, two days back and trying to submit documentation to get reimbursed $18,000 that was out-of-pocket, and American Express was going to be sending people to break my legs (laughter) and I mentioned to someone that I'm going to go with my family to Myrtle Beach, and they said, "You just got back from vacation" (John, personal interview, 2011)
As a result of these attitudes, faculty members tended to distinguish between colleagues who understood their international activities, and those who “just saw the picture on the wall” when they returned to campus after international travel (Daniel, personal interview, 2011).

Professional community support played a variety of roles in faculty members’ activities. While a few faculty members attributed their international endeavors to opportunities provided by their professional organizations, for most the value of these affiliations was as a forum for presenting research and networking with others in their field for scholarly pursuits. In contrast, colleagues provided introductions and mentoring for engagement in teaching and outreach activities.

5.3.6 Length of Time in Academia

Wade and Demb (2009) included *length of time in academia* in the FEM, which they hypothesized influences faculty decisions about how to allocate time. Although highly related to tenure status and rank, Wade and Demb highlight this factor based on the community engagement literature, which has described faculty work in terms of lifecycles. Based on this view, academic life changes over time as faculty work evolves, with “faculty dedication to teaching, research and outreach activities experienc[ing] different highs and lows in terms of time spent on responsibilities over the span of a career” (Wade, 2008, p. 128). Engagement scholars have found that expanded views of scholarship can help reignite faculty interest in research, with non-research activities providing a means for trying something new (Ward, 2003, as cited by Wade, 2008, p. 128).

Champions and advocates of internationalization also described a change in dedication to particular international activities as they progressed in their careers. However, this shift seemed to have less connection to length of time working in academia than it did to tenure status. Based on Wade and Demb’s focus on graduate school as a starting point for the academic career and significance attributed to the norms of the current department and college, this study measured length of time in academia based on the year faculty members received their terminal degrees and when they began working at Virginia Tech, with the career starting point determined by whichever event occurred earlier.
In all cases except for one senior instructor in CLAHS, faculty members had received their Ph.D. or terminal degree before taking faculty positions at Virginia Tech. In Pamplin, faculty members’ length of time in academia ranged from 44 years, with the individual with the longest
career receiving his Ph.D. in 1967, to ten years for the faculty member who received a Ph.D. and began at Virginia Tech in 2001. In this college, where professors were identified as champions and advocates based on involvement in study abroad or outreach programs, professors became involved in these types of activities between 10 years and 44 years into their careers. In CLAHS, length of time in academia ranged from six to 39 years, also representing a very broad span. In both colleges faculty members who are heavily engaged in international activities represent a full range of years of experience in academia and are not clustered at any specific length of experience. Instead, faculty members referred to tenure status as a determining factor of their becoming engaged in international activities outside of research, rather than how long they had worked in their careers. Robert in Pamplin said the following about tenure,

> It sort of frees you up to say, “you know, I'm going to do what I want to do” … so there's a blessing there that says, really, “focus on intrinsic value” (Robert, personal interview, 2011).

As discussed earlier, faculty members attributed the ability to shift attention from research to other activities such as teaching or outreach to having achieved tenure, thereby freeing them to pursue concerns in which they were personally interested or found rewarding.

### 5.4 Summary Conclusions

Based on faculty interviewees’ perceptions of the six characteristics outlined, the professional dimension of Wade and Demb’s (2009) Faculty Engagement Model has important applications for understanding faculty ability and willingness to engage in international activities. The data indicates clear connections between five of the professional factors listed in the FEM and the international engagement of champions and advocates.

Faculty members’ educational background and the norms of their disciplines played an important role in the perceived value of international work and what types of activities would be rewarded. Pamplin College faculty members described clear messages within their disciplines that international research was encouraged, while in CLAHS some faculty described their disciplines as still in the process of an evolutionary change to incorporate non-Western
perspectives and contemporary global issues. This was especially the case in the departments of English and history.

Tenure status and rank played a crucial role in the types of activities faculty members undertook, and when they chose to do so. Regardless of college, international research was given first priority among international activities for any faculty member on the tenure-track. Once faculty members achieved tenure, they then spent time on the international activities deemed to have the most personal meaning, which for many included teaching and outreach. The determining effects of tenure on faculty members’ engagement were reinforced by every other professional factor examined, including messages from colleagues, the department and college and any professional communities to which the faculty member belonged.

Overall, socialization through graduate school had varying effects on faculty engagement, as some interviewees described their graduate experiences as pivotal to their international research and others perceived no connection between their current international work and their doctoral preparation. These experiences varied depending on the time period of graduate school attendance, with those who had attended graduate school since the 1980s more likely to mention international opportunities and global perspectives as part of their graduate experience. The influence of graduate school training was thus contingent upon availability of international opportunities and faculty members’ interest and ability to take advantage of those opportunities.

In both Pamplin College and CLAHS, professors involved with international efforts described their college as a main source of support for administrative assistance, funding and structures and processes, rather than their departments. Although departments had input on faculty members’ teaching loads which would influence their ability to engage in activities abroad, interviewees saw their Deans as playing a much larger role in leadership and support for international initiatives. Faculty members’ professional communities, as embodied by both organizations and colleagues, also played an important role. While professional associations provided opportunities to network, learn about international opportunities, and present research, for international activities outside of research, many faculty members mentioned the importance colleagues had played in their becoming involved. By introducing them to opportunities,
providing administrative support, and mentoring, colleagues served an important role in faculty members first becoming, and staying, engaged in international teaching and outreach activities.

The role of length of time in academia was less clear than the other professional factors, because this factor is so closely related to tenure status and rank. While tenured faculty members mentioned a change in the types of international activities they were engaged in as they progressed through their careers, most notably becoming involved in study abroad and outreach programs after tenure, it is not clear whether this shift is related to length of career or to tenure status and rank. Faculty themselves focused on the effects of their tenure status more often than how long they had been working in academia. However, exploration of this factor was useful because it further confirmed that champions and advocates exist at all stages of their careers with an evolving set of priorities related to their international activities.
CHAPTER 6
FINDINGS AND ANALYSIS: BENEFITS, MOTIVATIONS AND ENABLING FACTORS FOR INTERNATIONAL ENGAGEMENT

6.1 Introduction
This chapter examines faculty members’ perceptions of benefits, motivations and enabling factors for engaging in international activities. While relevant scholarship has presented a number of institutional and individual barriers to faculty engagement, this analysis focused on exploring the reasons champions and advocates offer for undertaking international activities. The second portion of the chapter discusses five personal enabling factors identified by faculty to becoming and staying engaged in international work. The analysis concludes by discussing the usefulness of these identified benefits and enabling factors for understanding the motivations of faculty engaged in internationalization.

6.2 Benefits to Engaging in International Activities
Based on the numerous impediments described in the scholarly literature to being engaged in international activities, the question of why faculty members might choose to engage is important. Faculty champions and advocates identified a variety of benefits to engaging in international activities. The first category they offered is advantages they received themselves, including professional and personal ones. The second and third categories are student and institutional benefits.

Figure 6.1 provides a model of these positive factors. The figure demonstrates the complexity of understanding and representing the benefits identified by faculty members. While professors in both colleges discussed the majority of the items listed, where benefits were only noted in one college, they are categorized as such. The arrows in the model denote the various interactions among the variables within the categories. For example, global knowledge and experience may affect other student benefits, such as personal and intellectual growth. On the other hand, it is possible that a professional value, such as professional meaning and purpose,
may be shaped by a personal benefit, such as personal connection to students. For this reason, bidirectional arrows are used to demonstrate the intricacy of the categories noted.

Figure 6.1 Benefits to Engaging in International Activities
6.3 Individual Benefits to the Faculty Member

Faculty members in both colleges identified a number of benefits they received by engaging in international activities. They can be grouped into two types: professional and personal. This section discusses these advantages.

6.3.1 Professional Benefits

Professors in both colleges identified a variety of benefits to their professional lives as a result of undertaking international activities. Faculty described six professional advantages including contributions to academic identity, improved teaching and research, professional connections, intellectual broadening and a sense of professional meaning and purpose. In addition to these, Pamplin faculty members attributed two additional benefits specifically to study abroad programs, the opportunity to put business concepts into practice and financial support.

**Academic identity** Four faculty in Pamplin and seven in CLAHS described their international activities as an integral part of their identity as scholars. As described by William in Pamplin, “Faculty do things because they see themselves as academicians and it's part of their repertoire of who they are, their personal identity” (William, personal interview, 2011). Indeed, for several faculty members, especially those who were born in other countries, but were now living and working in the United States, a personal background that involved travel and international interests was very closely intertwined with an academic identity also characterized by a focus on global issues. Of the faculty interviewed, six in Pamplin and two in CLAHS had been born and raised outside of the U.S. As one of these professors, Carlos observed, “My domestic focus is international; … it’s my life” (Carlos, personal interview, 2011). Personal and academic identity were thus closely connected. William in Pamplin described this relationship this way:

Because of my background I think of myself as an international person … in some ways I really think I’m an immigrant at heart. I think of myself as an American but nevertheless not 100 percent. I still have this international streak in me, so when you're talking about why I’m interested in international, it’s because I'm an American and also a patriot at
heart. Nevertheless, I still feel that I've got this part of me that has an affinity to other cultures, and I do have this understanding, this perspective of appreciating other cultures because I was born and raised outside of the United States … so because of my frame of mind and my background, I've always been interested in international. So … at least one of the courses that I teach is international and it's one of those courses that I stay interested in (William, personal interview, 2011).

In William’s case, it is difficult to extrapolate whether an academic identity characterized by international interests was a consequence of engaging in such activities or a reason for engaging. Nonetheless, the importance of this connection between academic and personal identity cannot be overestimated, especially in the case of faculty members originally from outside the U.S. Several of these professors also described their personal and academic self-understanding as creating an affinity for connecting with other faculty who also had international backgrounds or interests. A faculty member in Pamplin, Paul, explained, “It takes a really special person to do this,” describing how he and several other faculty members also heavily engaged in international teaching and research had become close colleagues and spent time together socially each month (Paul, personal interview, 2011). Their shared international experiences and interests thus contributed to a sense not only of scholarly identity, but also academic community.

**Improved teaching** Regardless of the types of international activities in which they were involved—teaching, research or outreach—all faculty members in both colleges suggested their activities improved and enhanced their teaching. These individuals thus exhibited the transferability skills discussed in Chapter 2 and the ability to connect their international experiences with their instruction by infusing their courses with international perspectives. Paul in Pamplin described how professors’ international experiences could greatly enhance teaching effectiveness:

You bring so much from outside into your classroom where you interact with students. Students will really pick up on this if you get connected to the place you’re talking about, if you’re connected to the concept you’re analyzing. Otherwise it’s a just a matter of transferring information. … So having seen [these places] and just sharing this with
students really impacts them more than, yeah, in the textbook I’m reading this and I’m trusting that information. So to me, one of the real advantages is you connect students to those places that you visited, attended, etc. To me, that’s priceless (Paul, personal interview, 2011).

While Paul was involved with many teaching, research and outreach activities and saw all types of international activities as beneficial to his teaching on campus, other faculty members differentiated between their activities and the benefits these brought to their teaching. Several professors discussed how teaching abroad had enhanced their courses on campus, allowing them to “talk more intelligently about the challenges [abroad] … when I've actually been there and spoken with the folks from those businesses (Linda, personal interview, 2011). In addition to enriching pedagogical examples, Linda, a Pamplin faculty member, described how leading a study abroad program each summer also enhanced her teaching by allowing her to stay current in her discipline:

Although I had some work experience of my own before I hit the academic life, since I finished my degree I've been an academic, and you know, the ivory tower thing, … if you've been in this environment long enough, you really don't know the things going on outside in the business world. And in a business school, that's critically important because that's where the students either now live and work or will eventually live and work if they're undergraduates. So I find that it makes me a better instructor because I am out there and learning right alongside them (Linda, personal interview, 2011).

In addition, faculty members who had not been involved with study abroad programs saw their teaching as greatly enhanced by their international research and outreach activities. Laura, an assistant professor in CLAHS, described, “always includ[ing] one or two meetings that have a component where I can bring in my own research and … try to push them in that direction and then use or find resources with a more international context” (Laura, personal interview, 2011). Adam, also in CLAHS, explained that although he didn’t include specific examples from his research, broad topics from his international scholarship were, “always implicated in various ways” in his teaching (Adam, personal interview, 2011).
While these faculty members were able to connect their research and teaching, for a number of professors in both colleges, the two activities were “parallel tracks” (Dale, personal interview, 2011). Dale, a CLAHS faculty member, observed that although the content of his research and teaching activities had little overlap, he saw leading study abroad courses as being valuable to students in and of itself:

I think it's a little bit unfortunate when there becomes too much emphasis on talking about how [study abroad] feeds into your research, because it doesn't in my case but it's still a good thing to do. It feeds into my teaching and it affects the students here much more than it would if it were feeding into an article I was writing (Dale, personal interview, 2011).

Regardless of the type of international activity in which they were involved, faculty members stressed the benefits of those activities to their teaching and pedagogy. This emphasis was no doubt closely related to the selection criteria used by each college, which were largely based on international teaching activities.

**Improved research** While the majority of faculty members interviewed for this study were heavily involved in international teaching activities, only a small number described their study abroad activities as augmenting their research. Two professors in Pamplin described having been able to “get some research mileage out of study abroad programs” (John, personal interview, 2011). One faculty member, John, accomplished this by including industry visits that established contacts for later research:

Given my interest in international business, I was able to structure a program to focus on company visits along that line. So we went to [a number of companies], and contacts I had or I developed through the study abroad program I was able to utilize in terms of research. … I went back while I was on a sabbatical and used the contacts that I had developed (John, personal interview, 2011).
This professor attributed the ability to utilize these professional contacts to the nature of his research, which was “more interview-oriented as opposed to doing number crunching” (John, personal interview, 2011). Only one other faculty member in Pamplin, Michael, described inquiry stemming from his study abroad experiences. In his case, he was applying his background in “modeling and theory” to undertake a study on the effects of international education on students (Michael, personal interview, 2011). While he had been able to develop a research project out of his international teaching activities, the ensuing study was not in his core discipline.

For three faculty members in CLAHS, disciplinary background and norms determined how their international teaching activities and research were connected to one another. One Classics professor, Angela, argued that leading study abroad programs allowed her to visit the originating countries of the texts she studied. As she noted, “It brings you credibility if you've been to these places” (Angela, personal interview, 2011). Nathan, a Theater Arts professor, suggested, “our productions are publications, essentially,” in which case his international research was encompassed by the productions he directed and acted in overseas (Nathan, personal interview, 2011). A third faculty member, Brenda, who had led study abroad programs, described her experiences as having changed the trajectory of her research and publishing:

Whenever you're going for promotion and tenure, you need to keep your line of research pretty consistent. … I was already on this track. … The only thing that changed was I started an emphasis on [foreign literature]. … I hardly read anything American now. I only read Middle Eastern, Afghanistan, there's an awful lot out of Africa and Central Asia, but I shifted that and my writing has been all on that (Brenda, personal interview, 2011).

These faculty members were the exception, however, as most professors described their involvement in study abroad as separate from their research agendas. As described by Alan in Pamplin, “My research is not really connected to what I did on those trips, so I never got any research benefit” (Alan, personal interview, 2011). However, given the academic norms of
waiting until after tenure to lead study abroad programs, producing scholarship from these activities was never discussed as a main goal.

Several faculty members in each college not involved with study abroad programs, but heavily engaged in international research, saw their inquiry as benefitting from the unique perspectives gained by working in different cultural contexts overseas. Sharon, a faculty member in CLAHS, said,

There are things I see that they don't see, and there are things that I see that I think become critical elements in why their outcome was so different than ours…when you see somebody else's culture you see all these little things and it starts to give you a new view back into your own. And I think that's actually the value added for an American scholar going abroad (Sharon, personal interview, 2011)

While a number of professors described their research as separate from their teaching activities, some faculty in each college argued their international experiences yielded benefits for their inquiry. One of these was the cultivation of professional connections, as discussed below.

**Professional connections** Six faculty members in Pamplin and nine in CLAHS described their international activities as creating professional connections that in turn benefitted their research. These ties were not dependent on the type of international activity the professor pursued. Whether created through teaching, research, outreach activities or attending professional conferences, benefits were related simply to having personal relationships with other professionals around the world. These individuals served as research collaborators or contacts for future grants.

Faculty members in CLAHS described an additional benefit to professional connections: a sense of belonging to a disciplinary network and broader academic community. Ryan, an associate professor in CLAHS, described the importance of these ties this way:
I like to talk in analogies. When I play tennis, I like to play tennis with somebody who's better than me because I get better. Internationally I feel like I'm linked up with people who are really stars in their home country and I feel just honored to be a part of their email inbox, that kind of thing. So that's really nice to then have them introduce you to people who are even bigger stars in the academic world. So that's really nice. And then you go to an international conference and you see them, and they say hello to you by name and you know, it's just feeling a sense of belonging, to be in that group is a nice feeling. And I know that seems somewhat esoteric, but you feel like you're being included in the academic environment. You know, charging ahead, trying to solve the problems of the world (Ryan, personal interview, 2011).

For this professor, the people with whom he developed professional relationships served not only as possible research collaborators, but also as an academic community that provided professional purpose and meaning. These relationships were especially important to Alan in CLAHS, who described feeling disconnected from other scholars interested in similar topics and ideas. He underscored the value of belonging to a broader network of international scholars:

Just the few [meetings] we've had, it was interesting to get people together and be able to talk about [our research interests]. I mean, if I give a paper to [scholars in my discipline] about [regional studies] there's a whole set of issues that I have to explain, just stuff that people who are [regional scholars] already know … you know, certain books or ideas that we all more or less share in common, or what it's like to do research in [that region], or the difficulties of connecting with scholars there, or getting books, or any of those kinds of things. … So it was great to see what people are doing…there's a lot going on. When I was at [my previous job], there were a couple of us doing stuff on [the region] and it could feel kind of isolated at times, so this is good, it has been good to find out how many of us there are out there (Alan, personal interview, 2011).

For this faculty member, the interdisciplinarity of his field coupled with a geographic region of interest that was not a main focus of his department or college led to difficulty in connecting with other scholars doing similar research. However, the fact that only CLAHS faculty members
mentioned this benefit of belonging to a larger global community of scholars is noteworthy as it lends possible insights into the organizational culture of a liberal arts college at a land-grant university with a historical focus on technical fields. For these CLAHS professors, international colleagues served not only as research collaborators, but a broader role of providing a sense of belonging to an academic community larger than their department or college.

**Intellectual stimulation** Faculty in both colleges suggested a benefit of being involved in international activities was intellectual stimulation. In a profession centered on teaching and learning, professors highly valued this attribute regardless of the types of activities in which they were engaged. Alan in Pamplin described the importance of intellectual stimulation to the academic profession:

> Having a broader exposure is always good for an intellectual. If you have a limited view or tunnel vision then you’re missing a lot. And as an intellectual I think there is value in being exposed to variety, which international [work] really provides (Alan, personal interview, 2011).

In fact, the opportunity for intellectual stimulation and learning was not only a benefit of international activities, but for many faculty members it was a main reason they had chosen to work in academe. As Linda in Pamplin observed:

> Part of the reason that I find myself drawn to this particular profession is the learning aspect of it. You really never stop learning because it's an academic environment. That's huge to me … so every semester I feel like if I don't learn something during this semester then I haven't been listening, because [the students] always bring their own experiences to the classroom discussions and [study abroad] is just a further extension of that (Linda, personal interview, 2011).

Faculty members described the ability to learn “alongside the students” as benefitting not only their scholarly pursuits, but also them personally. A Pamplin faculty member said that in addition to learning about other cultures while abroad, “you are also growing” (David, personal interview,
2011). Nancy, a CLAHS faculty member who had been engaged in a variety of international research projects over the course of her academic career explained:

I think it makes me feel fully alive and it invigorates my teaching, it invigorates me as a person. I'm learning new languages—I’m 55 so it's not something that's easy for me, you know, it's harder—but I think it's a way to … it keeps you young. And I think that's a benefit for not only yourself but for your students and the communities in which you do research. You stay open-minded (Nancy, personal interview, 2011)

Champions and advocates saw both professional and personal value in the intellectual stimulation provided by international activities through travel and exposure to different cultures and languages. Their international work not only contributed to intellectual growth that enhanced their teaching and research, but just as importantly, led to personal growth that enhanced their effectiveness as scholars.

**Professional meaning and purpose** Interviewees mentioned professional meaning and purpose often as a key benefit of involvement in international teaching, research and outreach activities. Faculty engaged in teaching and outreach with direct contact with students described deriving professional meaning and purpose from that involvement. This benefit was closely related to student experiences and learning in that faculty members described a key rationale for engaging in these activities arose from, “seeing the rewards for students” (Ryan, personal interview, 2011). Ryan in CLAHS described the value he received as being directly related to the benefits he saw accrue to his students:

I teach a really great capstone class, and so students apply their knowledge in that class and they're rewarded in the application of seeing all the things they've learned put to work. But then when we put that class in an international setting, everything becomes exciting and new, and they're figuring out the [system] and how different it is from the U.S ... and the "aha" goes off, that discovery that they find. And I can see that's it's more rewarding for them, makes it more rewarding for me because I can see it's making a bigger impression on them. So yes, it becomes more valuable to me because I think the
rewards for them are bigger, too. And I think the effort I put in to make an international project possible, I get dividends back from the students who participate, … so I think the reward is knowing that you're not doing this just for yourself (Ryan, personal interview, 2011).

This intrinsic motivation among faculty to make a difference in the lives of their students was also prevalent in outreach activities. Robert, a Pamplin faculty member who has led such activities both on campus and overseas, described seeing the difference in students as a primary motivation for his engagement:

After I see the impact that this project had on them, I hunger for the opportunity to facilitate that kind of impact for more students because it's very fulfilling as a professor to be able to do that. As compared to my undergraduate lecture, where positive feedback is when the student doesn't immediately rush from the room when the class is over (laughter). … So I think at a certain level, that's what all professors want, right? ... And the reason I left [industry] to go into academics was because I wanted to make a difference (Robert, personal interview, 2011).

Faculty also described gaining a sense of professional purpose and meaning from their international research. Sharon in CLAHS captured this sentiment when she described a professional society she belonged to being consulted by the national government of a country in the wake of a nuclear disaster. As she observed, “Having that kind of relevance in society is incredible,” an impact that she took “very seriously” in her own research (Sharon, personal interview, 2011). The ability to influence students through teaching and outreach and to make a difference in the global community through research provided professional meaning and purpose to these faculty members. This intrinsic motivation was a primary motivating factor in their decision to engage in international activities.

**Putting business concepts into practice** In addition to the benefits discussed above, Pamplin faculty members described two additional professional advantages specific to study abroad programs. The first of these was the ability to put business concepts into practice. Two
professors in the college compared the skills needed to design and lead a study abroad program to those needed to run a business. David suggested, “You have to be an entrepreneur; you have to conceive the idea and have the vision for the program yourself” (David, personal interview, 2011). Another faculty member, Michael, described his study abroad programs as an opportunity not only to practice these skills, but also as tools for teaching key concepts to students:

To me, it's just so fun because I'm running my own business. And that sounds kind of corny because I'm in academia because it's nice and safe and secure, and here I am sticking my neck out running a business. But it fits perfectly with my course because, okay, we've got an idea for a product. Well, will it sell? What do we include and don't include? How do we design this product that we're offering? And this study abroad, it's a service that you're providing, but what's [included] in the service? What isn't in the service? … And there are different things you can put in or take out. And then the whole managing the budget thing. You're doing accounting work and financial work, you're doing marketing work, you're doing operations work, which are the three main parts of a business. So it really is fun to do that and to relate some of that to your students, explain to your students how these things work (Michael, personal interview, 2011).

For this faculty member, managing a study program thus provided a sort of laboratory to practice business concepts, a disciplinary benefit unique to business faculty.

**Financial Benefits** Pamplin faculty also viewed study abroad programs as yielding financial benefits. As described in Chapter 2, the Pamplin College provides stipends to faculty members leading or co-leading international study programs. As a result, professors who had led these courses discussed these stipends as an advantage. However, while there was “some financial incentive,” none of these professors described the payments as a primary reason for being involved in international activity. Daniel in Pamplin explained:

We get a stipend, a small stipend, but we don't do it because of the stipend, the stipend is too minimal compared to the amount of time and energy that one spends on developing [a
program]. I had to develop the program from scratch, and I had to recruit students, and I had to administer the program myself (Daniel, personal interview, 2011).

For faculty members who worked “on a weekly basis all year long to plan a program,” the stipend was seen as beneficial, but hardly sufficient to cover the true costs of the time and energy they had invested to plan and administer these programs (Daniel, personal interview, 2011). Sandra observed,

I’m not sure if it’s enough to be an incentive, necessarily. I would not do it for the money if I didn’t see the results in the students. I wouldn’t do it for free, though. Not anymore, because it’s a lot of work. And so it’s kind of a combination of, I wouldn’t do it for free because it’s too much work, but I wouldn’t do it for the money if I didn’t enjoy it. So it’s kind of that balance (Sandra, personal interview, 2011).

Thus, while compensation played a role in faculty decisions to engage in leading study abroad programs, it was not perceived as a primary benefit and was combined with others as reasons for such engagement.

6.3.2 Personal Benefits

In addition to professional advantages, faculty members identified a number of personal rewards they received through their international activities. For the purposes of this study, personal benefits are defined as those that held value and meaning outside of professors’ professional capacities. Interviewees described three personal advantages: personal connections to students, enjoyment and value to family and children.

**Personal connection to students** Although taking place in a professional capacity, individual professorial connection to students is included under personal benefits because of the meaning faculty members ascribed to this benefit. Linda, a Pamplin faculty member based at the Northern Virginia campus who has led study abroad programs each summer, described this attribute of international engagement this way:
I get to know the students in a completely different way. Once again you have to remember that in our environment up here—night school, part-time students—they drop in after work, they come for three or four hours, and we all go home exhausted at 10 o'clock at night. And so the ability to travel with them, which if you've done any travel at all you realize that the shared experience that you get when you travel with someone is significant. You always have those common experiences and memories. And so getting to know the students on a deeper basis, to me, is very valuable. …This year I’ll have 21 students that I’ll get to know better. To me that’s very worthwhile (Linda, personal interview, 2011).

This professor valued the relationships created through overseas travel and teaching, as she did not normally get to connect on a personal level with students. While this professor was based at the Northern Virginia campus, professors in Blacksburg also described this benefit. Brenda in CLAHS explained that traveling with students allowed a more personal connection than teaching in a classroom normally allows:

A lot of [the students] keep in touch … and I can say, "I have seen this person literally 24 hours a day, I really know how they act, and I've seen them in classrooms handling 250 kids, really making a difference and how they care [about their students] and everything." … It's nice because I do know them, not just as a teacher (Brenda, personal interview, 2011)

For these faculty members, getting to know their students on a deeper level was a meaningful benefit to engaging in study abroad programs in particular.

**Enjoyment** Several faculty interviewees described, “really loving” the activities in which they were engaged. Sandra in Pamplin summarized the reasons for her engagement in international activities:

Because I enjoy it. Pretty much the bottom line is because I enjoy it. All of it. The teaching, the research, all of it is because I enjoy it. Because if I didn’t enjoy it I wouldn’t
do it. Travel is not easy. Travel gets to be challenging at times. They cancel flights on you, you miss connections all the time, they lose luggage, I’ve had it all … and travel is really not fun anymore. But the experience is fun. So that balances it out (Sandra, personal interview, 2011).

Tom, another faculty member in Pamplin, echoed this sentiment when he described his motivations for long-term involvement in study abroad programs:

It was fun. Without fun, life is not good, and fun is pleasure in what you're doing, fun is being able to meet new people and relate to them (Tom, personal interview, 2011).

Because the majority of champions and advocates were leading study abroad programs in their respective colleges, they most often referred to such experiences when describing their enjoyment of international work. In fact, the majority mentioned they would recommend that other faculty get involved with study abroad only if they felt this same passion and enjoyment. Linda in Pamplin explained:

You have to love it, you have to love international travel and love working with the students because that's really what you get out of this, and if that's not something that you're passionate about, it's not going to be very satisfying for you. … I happen to love putting together an itinerary, contacting businesses and putting all the things together. And then travel to me is an adventure. It's not a logistical nightmare. When I say "travel," I mean missed planes and lost luggage, which inevitably will happen if you travel enough. If those things bother you, then this is not your thing. But for someone who is interested in international activities, I would say that it's definitely worthwhile and I would recommend it (Linda, personal interview, 2011).

For these faculty members, their international activities offered experiences they valued and enjoyed—the opportunity to travel, meet new people, learn about other regions of the world and to feel they were making a contribution to the lives of their students or to others in the places
they visited. Not surprisingly, personal enjoyment of these experiences translated into professional enjoyment. Linda, quoted just above, suggested,

“I love it. I really do love it. It is one of the things about my career with Virginia Tech in particular that I value very, very much—more than a lot of things. So as long as I’m allowed to do it, I’ll probably continue to do it. And I do feel like it's one of those "get to" rather than "have to" things. Not everybody gets to do this. … It's an adventure. I really do love it, and I find that it adds so much to the students' education as well as mine (Linda, personal interview, 2011).

/value to family and children/ A small number of faculty suggested their international work was valuable for their children and families. While not all professors interviewed had children or had included family members in their international travel, three professors had been successful in devising ways to include their spouses and children and highly valued the shared experience and global exposure international travel provided. Linda in Pamplin noted,

My family has traveled with me before. I'm bringing up my two girls. … Their passports are well-stamped, they've been a variety of places and I think, "How great for them in the world that they will come up in." I just sort of see [the world] as not so big, not so foreign. I hope that it's a legacy I'm leaving for them, as well. … We blow the entire budget; anything that I've made in salary is down the drain and then some to take the family along. But again, it's a shared experience that we will always have (Linda, personal interview, 2011).

The benefits to children include not only gaining a global perspective, but seeing connections between people and cultures as well as gaining exposure to foreign languages. Angela in CLAHS described bringing children and her parents on study abroad programs and watching one of her children later reading popular fiction in a foreign language. As she observed, “it's all sort of self-learned, … but she's just doing that herself, which is one of the things that I encourage the students to do; … if they don't learn the language, at least do some more work on their own later” (Angela, personal interview, 2011).
For these faculty members, the ability to bring children on overseas travel arose in part from the youngsters' ages at the time of the program. William in Pamplin observed that if professors had children who were old enough to travel easily and absorb the potential learning experiences inherent in participating in it, this could be a benefit to the faculty member and his or her children, “because they can take advantage of having the kids also visit and it's their way of inculcating an international perspective in their own kids, too” (William, personal interview, 2011). Indeed, a number of faculty described waiting until their children were older before becoming engaged in international activities that would take them away from their families for long periods. David in Pamplin noted:

I had a young family and children and I didn't want to be out of the country for an extended period of time and leave my wife and the kids at home. Or her going and leaving us at home, either way. So the most travel that we did before [my children were grown] would be to an international conference for three or four days. So I didn't do much (David, personal interview, 2011).

Thus, while having young children and family members to care for was a barrier for some faculty to becoming involved in international activities, those whose children and family members were able to travel with them saw the shared experience of international travel as a valuable benefit of their engagement in it.

6.4 Student Benefits

A third category of benefits important to champions and advocates alike in both colleges was the learning they saw occur in their students. Although not all faculty interviewed were involved with study abroad programs specifically, all were engaged in international teaching through integrating global topics and materials into their courses. Through this contact in the classroom, whether it occurred on campus or abroad, faculty saw their work as contributing to students’ global and cultural knowledge. In addition, professors who led study abroad and outreach programs in which they traveled with students overseas also mentioned personal and career development and intellectual growth as important benefits to students who participated.
These benefits are consistent with academic literature that describes the benefits of global experiences and study abroad programs for students. In a large-scale survey to explore the long-term impacts of study abroad on student’s personal, professional and academic lives, Dwyer & Peters (2004) found that such experiences positively influenced students in four areas: intercultural, personal, and career development and academic commitment. The faculty interviewed for this study uniformly embraced this view, expressing the sentiment that overall, they were contributing to a “life-changing” experience for their students.

**Global and cultural knowledge** All professors interviewed, regardless of college, expressed their belief in the importance of global and cultural knowledge for their students. Faculty saw such preparation as serving both a utilitarian function, specifically the need to be prepared to work effectively in the global marketplace, while also contributing to students’ personal character and growth. These views parallel what sociologist Robert Bellah (2009) has described as crucial components of higher education—a pragmatic function integrated with “education for the development of character, citizenship and culture” (p. 19-20). Faculty members in both colleges saw these goals as equally important for their students. As Nancy in CLAHS observed:

> I've placed my students in a couple of classrooms where none of the children speak English. I want to prepare my students to be elementary teachers here in the United States, and you need to know how to deal with this sort of thing. But I also want their eyes to be open globally (Nancy, personal interview, 2011).

William in Pamplin articulated a similar sentiment:

> I truly believe that the world is becoming more global and the fact that students, in order to assume their place in society, they need to be exposed to the international arena. They need to be educated about international governments; history, politics, economics [and] culture. They cannot function in today's business without having an international lens, an international frame of mind. I truly believe that. That's [what drives] me to put in the extra time and energy to do it (William, personal interview, 2011).
Developing students’ cultural knowledge thus served two equally important functions—preparing them to operate successfully in a diverse workplace as well as contributing to their personal and intellectual development and ability to think critically about their own perspectives. Laura in CLAHS had integrated international perspectives into her courses and described the ability to be reflective about culture as imperative to students:

A lot of these kids have not really thought about much outside of the U.S. … It's very U.S.-centric and they don't really know what's going on in Europe, for instance, and the gas supply or what cap and trade means in terms of the global issue if you really look at consumption worldwide. Getting them to realize that the United States is actually this extremely wasteful society that uses tremendous amounts of energy compared to other countries … and seeing that more from some other regions' perspectives [is important] (Laura, personal interview, 2011).

Overall, faculty sought to ensure that students possessed not only knowledge about other cultures, but the ability to think critically about their own perspectives and possible biases. Another CLAHS professor, Adam, discussed the difference he felt he could make in the perspectives of his students by teaching about other cultures and geographic regions in the classroom:

When students go out into the world, they need to know how to interact with other cultures … part of it is breaking these students out of what they know. And I get that in the teaching, too, because when they come in, there's maybe one or two students who've had a class on [this region], but generally in a class of 40 students, maybe one person knows something that's correct. … And I tell them at the beginning, “Forget everything you know, forget the Discovery Channel and all that, start fresh,” and they often do. I get it even from the teaching about international issues—they come out thinking differently. They get some information, but more it's trying to get them to think about things a little bit differently. Most students, obviously, aren't going to go abroad … but I can help prepare the students, and in a good way, making sure they’re not, “We're off to save the
“[poor people],” but “We're off to do some kind of good,” and then come back and say, “Now what are you going to do?” And I think that's the essential part of it … not just send them there, you know, but put it in context. If it's done properly, I see that as a chance to get them and then others thinking more about how these worlds are connected. It's great to go over and help people, but then let's look at how that connects with our daily lives and our government and the lives of your family and friends (Adam, personal interview, 2011).

These faculty members found professional and personal meaning in seeking to nurture open-mindedness, tolerance and cultural understanding among their students.

**Personal development** Interviewees discussed a variety of ways that global experiences and knowledge contributed to students’ personal development, thereby “opening their eyes.” As James, a professor in Pamplin noted, “They come back changed; they come back much more grown up” (James, personal interview, 2011). In addition to global and cultural knowledge, personal development included growth in self-confidence, maturity and open-mindedness. Daniel in Pamplin summarized personal growth as the development of a variety of skills and abilities that cultivate in students the desire to continue learning and the necessary self-confidence to pursue their goals:

Growing in terms of understanding that there’s a different world outside of the U.S. The ability to do things. They become aware of their own ability to do things, to face challenges, … it gives them strength. And I really see that a lot. The desire to go, not necessarily abroad, but further. And I think that’s the one main message that I get the most is knowing they can do anything they want if they decide to … I really think that’s the most important one. That’s what I see (Daniel, personal interview, 2011).

The argument that study abroad and international experiences contribute to students’ personal growth is popularly marketed as a reason for why students should participate in study abroad programs (Dwyer and Peters, 2004). However, Keith in CLAHS described this benefit as a “by-product” of gaining global and intercultural experience:
I'm really unhappy with the notion of study abroad as a way of learning about yourself. Many students say, “I learned about myself. I learned I could do things.” Well, study abroad is to learn about others and not about yourself. That's a byproduct. You learn that you can get on a train and you can read the timetable and you can manage on only $5 a day because you've run out of money, that sort of stuff. I think that's fine learning about yourself, but it's learning about yourself because you've actually learned about others, because you've witnessed and begun to understand and appreciate other cultures and other people. That's really what I'm trying to look for them to see, to learn—not about themselves so much (Keith, personal interview, 2011).

By providing the opportunity to learn about other cultures and perceptions, several faculty members expressed the hope they could contribute to students becoming more open-minded and understanding of people different from themselves. For Paul in Pamplin, this potential impact of study abroad was important:

It does help them think differently. The worst thing would be for someone to remain prejudiced by default. So the idea is to create an environment where someone can have a choice. Once they know what it is, then they can be prejudiced by choice and it’s easier to deal with them than if you’re prejudiced by default. So a lot of kids from rural areas, southwest Virginia—I was born in a small rural area myself—they just have never been outside. And so the idea is create an environment where they can see it. You don’t influence them. They just learn it on their own, and I think it changes their life (Paul, personal interview, 2011).

Providing students opportunities for personal growth was thus an important motivator for faculty who led study abroad programs and international outreach programs in particular.

**Intellectual growth** Professors also sought to provide students opportunities for intellectual growth through exposure to global and cultural knowledge. Faculty members who had led study abroad and outreach programs and had traveled overseas with their students were
most apt to mention this aspiration. These interviewees emphasized the importance of applying book knowledge to real-world problems and the intellectual growth they saw in their students as a result. Linda, who has led a study abroad program for Pamplin graduate students for several years, described this benefit this way:

First and foremost, I think, is that it adds something to the students' education. I recently saw a quote that I really liked that said “Education begins with a degree.” And I think the possibility of seeing some of the business ideas that we talk about in the classroom played out on this international stage, which of course in the business arena is so much more important these days … until you walk through a distribution center in Sweden or talk to a design engineer in Finland, it's all textbook learning. But getting out and really seeing how it's done, I find that incredibly valuable for the students, and the feedback I get from them seems to indicate that that's the same for them (Linda, personal interview, 2011).

Linda saw the benefit of leading study abroad programs as adding contextual knowledge to classroom learning, creating a much deeper, richer knowledge and experience for students. Dale in CLAHS observed that students who had participated in a study abroad program he led returned from the experience with a different way of thinking and learning:

The students that have done these programs have a different feel for the texts we're reading, and this is just from my texts, my classes. They have … not necessarily an understanding of the contexts because the contexts are so varied, but an understanding that there is a context and it's important, and I think that is good. Not only a geographical context, but also a historical context. And I think that's the kind of sophistication that they have. It's not a sophistication of knowledge as much as a sophistication of what kinds of things they think they need to know. It's sort of like meta-knowledge. They're asking different questions, and they know the kinds of things that would make these texts make sense. They may not know what they are, but they know what kinds of things they are. It keeps them from doing what I did as an undergraduate, where we were really isolated
from the texts. They didn't have anything to do with people or places or times, they were just there (Dale, personal interview, 2011).

For this faculty member, an important benefit of leading study abroad programs was contributing to the intellectual growth of his students and providing them an opportunity to gain a frame of reference he had not attained when he was a student himself.

**Career Development** Faculty also saw career development as a benefitting from study abroad. Interviewees saw study abroad and outreach programs in particular as contributing to preparing students for working in a global marketplace by boosting their resumes, but also exposing them to new ideas and experiences that have caused them either to look at their future work choices differently or to change their minds about the careers they wish to pursue. Michael in Pamplin described the changes he had seen in some students over the course of several years of leading study abroad programs this way:

Some of them change their career paths. One student came back, she was in finance and she worked for a couple of years, and she decided to go to law school and study international law. One person had a minor in Spanish and she was working in the corporate sector and she completely switched her career into teaching English as a second language … so there are quite a few examples like that (Michael, personal interview, 2011).

Several faculty interviewees saw career development as a long-term benefit of study abroad and outreach programs. As Dale in CLAHS noted:

The biggest thing, I think, is what happens after the students get back here. That's what I really like to see. I like to see the payoff after they come back here and they realize the things that they are interested in now that they weren't before. They’re expanding … but one of the reasons I really like to push them in the sophomore year and junior year is because then they've got two full years to take advantage of learning what they now know they want to learn about after they come back (Dale, personal interview, 2011).
Watching students learn, grow and change direction in their academic paths and career aspirations was particularly rewarding to these faculty members who felt they had catalyzed just such possibilities for their students.

**“Life-changing” experience** Faculty interviewees frequently suggested they found personal and professional value in their international teaching activities because they perceived they had contributed to creating a “life-changing” experience for their students. This belief motivated many respondents to participate repeatedly in international teaching activities. Daniel in Pamplin expressed this sentiment when he observed:

What made me do it again is what I read in their final reports the first year. And when I read that we really changed their lives, and I’m not talking about everybody, but you know, 80 percent of the kids, 90 percent of the kids, you read those reports and I almost cry sometimes. I mean, it’s just amazing how much it’s changed their lives, and then when you see them again, those who were there four years ago, they keep in touch. It’s a completely different relationship than you would have here [on campus]. And that’s why I keep doing it. Because frankly I don’t need to go spend a month with students, although it’s [Europe], it’s very nice, but it’s not a need that I have. If I want to go spend a month [in Europe], I can go on my own and do it. But I’m returning to that, or I’m doing this again because of what I’ve read (Daniel, personal interview, 2011).

Four of the faculty members interviewed for this study shared with me personal letters, photo albums and email correspondence they had received from students who had participated in programs they had led. One Pamplin professor, Alan, described being motivated afresh each year by the feedback he received from students, even though he had considered discontinuing the study abroad program he led because of the time commitment involved:

It was extremely time-consuming—every year when I did the program, I said “never again”—and then you get something like this and students start asking “Are you going next year?” And usually this was at the end of the program when I said “Well, this may
be it,” but the students said, “Well, what does it take for you to do it? Aren’t you excited about what we got?” And that kind of thing. So they keep asking and then I got emails from potential students, and then I thought, “Well, I should do it again.” I changed my mind (Alan, personal interview, 2011).

Another faculty member in Pamplin, Daniel, described a similar experience:

When we came back and read the report, because we asked students to fill out a report on the study abroad, we were shocked by the change in the lives of students, by the appreciation they had for what they did—not us, but what we exposed them to … we were told by students, this is changing my life—not us [personally], but in fact the program that exposed them to different activities that challenged them, taught them. We facilitate something that is inside of them. So the student reaction is the greatest motivation and inspiration (Daniel, personal interview, 2011).

Faculty interviewees saw the professional benefits for their students resulting from their international teaching activities, but contributing to the development of students’ character, personal and intellectual growth seem to hold far more intrinsic value for them.

6.5 Institutional Benefits

While faculty members interviewed did not offer benefits to the institution as a main focus or reason for engaging in international activities, two professors in each college discussed this outcome, which consisted of enhancing and broadening the university’s reputation. Laura in Pamplin described international work as “good for the university,” referencing benefits to students as well as the university’s global reputation in research. In contrast, Nancy, a professor in CLAHS, saw her international activities as benefitting the university by bringing global awareness of the liberal arts to the institution. Because of the university’s history as a land-grant institution focused on agriculture and engineering disciplines and its renown as a “Polytechnic Institute,” these faculty members saw their international activities as augmenting Virginia Tech’s reputation as something more than a bastion of technical excellence. As Nancy argued,
From the university standpoint, it's good just on the basest form of propaganda. I think because we're called Virginia Tech and things called "tech" abroad are very often [thought of as] trade schools. I think having people see us engaged in this kind of academic work with that name helps to break that stereotype and helps to make people see us differently (Nancy, personal interview, 2011).

As such, these professors saw their international work as benefitting the university by helping to redefine the university’s reputation as well as the perceived standing of its various disciplines. A second CLAHS faculty member who mentioned this institutional benefit, Adam, also focused on enabling the university to fill a need in the local community, in this case providing services to refugees in the surrounding geographic area:

That's the kind of thing that would be great both for the students, but then also be a niche that Virginia Tech can fill … we can link up [with the local community] and get kind of a network going through that and focus on that issue. That would be great. I'm excited about it (Adam, personal interview, 2011).

For these two CLAHS faculty members, at least, the benefits of international work to the university went beyond its specific impacts for students and for research to broadening the scope of Virginia Tech’s activities and reputation.

6.6 The Importance of Personal Enabling Factors

In addition to the various benefits just described, faculty members identified a number of personal factors that encouraged them to become and remain engaged in international activities. These included values and beliefs, motivation and intrinsic value, epistemology, previous experience, personality traits and personal life. The first four of these match the personal factors mentioned in the FEM as enabling faculty engagement. This section discusses each of these factors and their contributions to faculty involvement in internationalization.
6.6.1 Values and Beliefs

Wade & Demb (2009) argued that faculty members find personal value in their international activities. Professors interviewed for this study saw a number of benefits arising from their work abroad. These provided interviewees both intrinsic and extrinsic value. The nature of this value depended largely on the type of activity in which the faculty member was engaged. While international research and resulting publication contributed to professors’ efforts to achieve tenure or promotion, it also provided intrinsic value by providing a number of other professional benefits. These included contributing to academic identity, improving teaching, increasing professional connections and offering intellectual stimulation, meaning and purpose. For some faculty interviewees, international research also involved students, and so, they were able thereby to incorporate their scholarly interests into their teaching.

In contrast, interviewees largely described international teaching and outreach activities as providing intrinsic value because Virginia Tech faculty members, working at a Research 1 university, “get recognized and rewarded for publishing” (David, personal interview, 2011). While faculty described them as not holding as much weight in the tenure process, professors nonetheless highly valued these activities for their personal and professional benefits and the opportunities they represented for their students. In addition, champions and advocates believed their international activities contributed to the communities with which they worked, and took comfort in the fact of “knowing that you're not doing this just for yourself” (Ryan, personal interview, 2011). As David in Pamplin mentioned, “somebody has to do this. In spite of the barriers and difficulties and challenges, it's important work; it's what I should do” (David, personal interview, 2011).

6.6.2 Motivation and Intrinsic Value

Wade and Demb (2009) described motivation as highly connected to values and beliefs, asserting that professors are more likely to be motivated to engage when they find personal value in activities they undertake. A number of faculty members interviewed characterized this intrinsic motivation as passion. As Nancy, a CLAHS professor suggested, “I really think it is heartfelt passion for changing the world and making it a better place” (Nancy, personal interview, 2011). Champions and advocates described this intrinsic motivation as a critical
motivating factor for why they pursue international teaching and outreach. Robert in Pamplin described its importance this way:

I think if you're going to get faculty involved in doing this sort of thing, there's almost no amount of extrinsic motivation that is sufficient in getting the sort of commitment that you need to make it happen. You really have to find a way to appeal to the intrinsic motivation. … I think it's a calling, not just a choice. It has to be a choice to fulfill the call, but it's not what everybody ought to be doing because getting back to the incentive thing, you're going to have to rely on the intrinsic motivation, and if the intrinsic motivation isn't there, then you just have someone who's in it for the wrong reasons (Robert, personal interview, 2011).

Several respondents saw the focus on research necessary to secure tenure as a barrier to becoming engaged in activities. Robert, quoted just above, commented:

I've had a couple of opportunities in the last year to talk to incoming Ph.D. students at national conferences and I think what they want when they leave [industry], where they’re making more money, to go into a Ph.D. program, where they're making a lot less money, and to give up the opportunity to be a partner of a big firm where they’re making half a million a year or something, what motivates them to do that is they want to have an effect on people. But when they get into the Ph.D. program, moving on to a tenure track position that is not how we measure performance. And it changes you. I see this in my own experience. … I wanted to make a difference. But what I ended up doing was making publications that made no difference. But the incentive structure and the penalty structure, if you don't do that, is so great that it becomes your responsibility as a professor—and as a parent, in my case a father—because your family's security is tied up and your productivity is measured by the publication process. And I think that this, for many people, can have a very negative effect in drawing that person farther away from what their real gift and source of interest and motivation is (Robert, personal interview, 2011).
Indeed, all of the champions and advocates I interviewed now engaged in international teaching and outreach, and especially study abroad, waited until they had achieved tenure before they became heavily involved in these activities. Wade and Demb (2009) described this same phenomenon in community engagement, explaining that faculty act on their intrinsic, personal motivation for public service once the extrinsic motivation (tenure) has been addressed successfully (Jaeger & Thornton, 2006, as cited in Wade & Demb, 2009, p. 11). This reality served as a barrier to younger, untenured faculty to become engaged. William in Pamplin explained:

The young faculty are the ones that are much more energetic. And we have a lot of young faculty who are not only energetic, but they are immigrants. … Ask them and they're very excited about doing [international programs]. But can they do it? No, they can't, because they're young … and they don't get recognized for it. They have to spend a lot more time and energy to be developing those programs, and then when it comes time for promotion and tenure, they face the same set of expectations, the standards are the same. “You didn't publish. You didn't publish in the top peer journals of the field.” It takes a lot more time and energy to begin to get involved in those programs. So from that perspective, we discourage, I mean, that essentially is our policy. We discourage our younger faculty from participating in those programs because we know that the cost, the human cost, of engaging in those programs, is significantly high (William, personal interview, 2011).

Intrinsic motivation was thus critical to faculty becoming and staying engaged in international activities, especially in teaching and outreach, but was closely connected with status and rank and the ability to act on that motivation without failing to satisfy tenure requirements.

6.6.3 Epistemology

Faculty members’ epistemology, or understanding of the nature and development of knowledge, was an important factor in their ability and willingness to participate in international activities. Wade and Demb (2009) argued that faculty members with a “solidarity approach” were more likely to participate in service-oriented activities, where solidarity is defined as a belief that knowledge is constructed through experience with an emphasis on multiple ways of
knowing and sources of knowledge (p.12). Champions and advocates of internationalization exhibited this epistemology, particularly through the benefits they identified for their students. The personal value they placed on providing global knowledge and experience, contributing to students’ personal and intellectual growth and creating the possibilities for a “life-changing” experience for their students directly affected their willingness to engage in international activities.

The benefits they saw for their students were thus a critical motivating factor for these faculty to make the effort to internationalize their courses and organize study abroad and international outreach activities, even when there were few extrinsic rewards for doing so. Robert in Pamplin suggested:

To me, a study abroad program that simply teaches the class what we would have had here in a different location doesn't take full advantage of the international educational opportunity. You have to be willing to do the extra effort to sort of adapt that course so that what you're doing takes full advantage of the different context you're in. And that's work. So you're probably not going to get paid much extra for that. That's just going to have to come out of your hide because you want to really do what's going to be most engaging for the students and the best learning experience for yourself, as well (Robert, personal interview, 2011).

Epistemology was inextricably linked to faculty members’ values and beliefs and intrinsic motivation.

6.6.4 Previous Experience

Faculty interviewees often cited experience gained before beginning work in academia as one reason they had become involved in international activities. Wade and Demb (2009) argued that previous experience inside and outside of academe is likely to shape faculty beliefs about their capabilities to take part in community engagement activities (Wade & Demb, 2009, p.12). This was certainly the case with champions and advocates of internationalization, who very often
attributed their first interest in international issues to experiences that occurred long before they began their academic careers.

As mentioned earlier, eight of the 25 faculty interviewed were born outside of the U.S. and several described themselves as “international” by nature because of being from a different country. As Laura in CLAHS put it, “I'm from a small country and when you go for vacation, you go abroad; you grow up with at least one, usually two or more, foreign languages, so it's much more natural. It doesn't even feel like, ‘Oh, I have to reach out and become international’” (Laura, personal interview, 2011). One interviewee, Carlos, was born to American parents living overseas and spent a significant portion of his childhood abroad, “It was kind of there from the beginning, this international focus” (Carlos, personal interview, 2011). As a result of these early life experiences, these faculty members described becoming involved in globally focused activities as “second-nature.” William in Pamplin described the relative ease he felt with becoming involved with study abroad programs:

That didn't bother me that much because of my international orientation. I didn't spend that much more time and energy. It was also almost like natural to me, second nature, to get involved in those programs. But for a person who hasn't been abroad and doesn't have my perspective, I can see that it would take an enormous amount of time and energy for them to become acclimated to the point that they can do a good job and feel comfortable doing it (William, personal interview, 2011).

Faculty members who were born in the U.S. described a long-standing interest in international or cultural issues stemming from a variety of experiences throughout their lifetimes. Nine of the faculty interviewed described personal experiences during childhood or early adulthood that had sparked an interest in global and intercultural issues. These ranged from exposure through family members who had traveled, childhood experiences with cultural diversity in the geographic locations where they grew up or trips overseas during high school where they developed “awareness of how different the world is out there, and that I wanted to experience that world” (Ryan, personal interview, 2011). One CLAHS faculty member, Nathan,
served in the Peace Corps in his early adulthood and that experience led him to pursue graduate work with an international focus (Nathan, personal interview, 2011).

Four Pamplin professors attributed their international interests to previous work experience in industry or the military before beginning work in academia. Tom suggested:

[I was a] small-town, insular kid, military sent me to Europe, and I got to see the world as far as I was concerned. I was stationed in [Europe] ... and I got to travel to about ten countries during that year. Well, that opened my eyes and it made me decide I wanted to do something international (Tom, personal interview, 2011).

These experiences then led these faculty members either to pursue international research in graduate school or later in their careers. In the words of Linda, whose previous work in industry had included international travel, “Before my graduate work, even, I was already involved internationally in some other ways and it just really appealed to me to involve two of the things that I love very much—teaching and international work” (Linda, personal interview, 2011).

Other faculty members described global interests early in their lives that they had not pursued until later in their academic careers. Interestingly, six of the professors interviewed had received Fulbright grants during their academic careers, with four in CLAHS and two in Pamplin. Most of these individuals described these grants as pivotal to their current international interests. John in Pamplin explained:

Aside from Canada and Mexico, I had never gone overseas until I was about 33 with a Fulbright Fellowship. That's when I started this research ... with a European focus. And, you know, I enjoyed myself. So prior to going [on Fulbright], my research was mainly U.S.-based. ... Fulbright was really key (John, personal interview, 2011).

Although champions and advocates described a broad range of international experiences at various points in their lifetimes, a common theme among all of them was the importance each attributed to those events as part of developing an “international orientation” (William, personal
Whether their first exposure occurred during childhood or later in their academic careers, these faculty members saw this familiarity with and interest in issues of culture, language and global issues as providing base knowledge that not only predisposed them, but enabled them to pursue international activities in their professorial roles. For specific types of activities abroad for which they did not have this knowledge, many looked to colleagues who had the required previous experience for assistance and advice. David in Pamplin described the difficulty of beginning new activities in unfamiliar countries and the importance of colleagues’ assistance to get started:

> For the first few years we didn’t have that much information to figure it out, so that comes with experience. So newcomers have to be accommodated. … They need as much help as they can get, unlike others who have done this for a number of years and know how to do it, where to go. But it is difficult to get a program started (David, personal interview, 2011).

Previous experience was thus a critical factor in enabling faculty members to engage in international activities, first by sparking an interest, and then by providing knowledge, which shaped faculty beliefs about their capabilities to pursue initiatives successfully.

### 6.6.5 Personality Traits

Faculty interviewees suggested specific personality traits had enabled them to engage in international activities. These included a willingness to take risks, adaptability and desire for adventure. A Pamplin faculty member, Paul, applied a term from tourism research to summarize these traits, arguing that such individuals evidenced an allocentric personality type. The professor contrasted these people “who are adventurous or enjoy flying” with psychocentric personalities who “enjoy family-oriented, nearby places” (Paul, personal interview, 2011). He explained the importance of an allocentric personality type to faculty members engaged in internationalization:

> There’s something about the person … why would I go there and make all these arrangements? I don’t know, maybe it could be your personality, how you look at the
whole world. … I think maybe restlessness. … So your personality may have a lot to do with this, so who you are. Are you a follower or a trendsetter? No one wanted to do a study abroad program, I did it. I took the time, the risk maybe, went there. So I think someone can inspire you, can move you a little bit, but in the end it is really you who will make it. So your personality type, who you are, how you look at the whole world, how much you care or don’t care about your surroundings or people; all that may have something to do with this motivation. It has to be more intrinsic than extrinsic, really. So as I look at the people who do this thing I think that’s what I see in them. … That’s what they are looking for—more. Others who are very internally focused, they are still wonderful, they do a lot of good things, but they don’t see themselves getting out and just exploring those things (Paul, personal interview, 2011).

Other professors interviewed also differentiated themselves by personality type and the ability and willingness to take risks and put themselves in the unfamiliar situations that overseas travel requires. Nancy in CLAHS explained:

You have to be willing to take some risks and put yourself out there. I'm not very brave; I'm a really scared person. But some of my colleagues, I don't think they would put themselves out there like that (Nancy, personal interview, 2011).

In addition to this willingness to take risks, professors mentioned adaptability and desire for challenge and adventure as personality traits needed to undertake activities overseas. Keith, a CLAHS professor whose family had joined him on a Fulbright-funded project suggested:

There's a personal challenge to it, probably not for everybody. I mean, I was running around [overseas] with a four-year-old and a seven-year-old and we were packed into these little three-wheeled scooters going on back roads because there was a curfew or because there was rioting. And so you have to be okay with that (Keith, personal interview, 2011).
These personality traits were summarized by David in Pamplin as the ability to be entrepreneurial, not only “to conceive the idea and have the vision for the program yourself,” but to have a desire for challenge and the ability to see the idea through to completion (David, personal interview, 2011). Regardless of the type of international activity they were involved in, champions and advocates exhibited personality traits which not only enabled them to navigate the ambiguity involved with international travel successfully, but motivated them to pursue these activities because it brought them personal value and satisfaction.

6.6.6 Personal Life

A last but important enabling factor for champions and advocates was personal life. For all faculty members involved in international activities, including travel, personal life factors played an important role in their ability and willingness to engage. As mentioned earlier, some faculty with children had devised ways to include them in their travels, depending on their ages and the location and duration of their trips. These professors found value in sharing such experiences with family members. Many faculty interviewees, however, described postponing international activities until their children were older or until other conditions in their personal lives allowed them to feel free to be overseas for extended periods of time. As Brenda in CLAHS noted:

Women who have young children, they really have to put their lives on hold. So I have one who will go [overseas with a study abroad program] this time because she told me that her children are older and her husband can keep them now (Brenda, personal interview, 2011).

The need for their personal lives to be congruent with overseas travel was an important factor even for faculty members who were unmarried or did not have children. As Nathan in CLAHS recalled:

There’s a cost on a personal level. I'm not married, so that's not too much of a problem but you have to take care of your house and all that. I waited until my dog had passed on
to do it … and then there is the impact on your relationships. [My partner] came to stay with me for a while, but that's always a challenge (Nathan, personal interview, 2011).

When their personal lives allowed them the freedom to spend time overseas, that fact was enabling. As Nancy in CLAHS observed:

Obviously, people face challenges. It just so happens that at this time in my life I'm single and I don't have any children and I have great passion, especially for work in developing countries, and I'm ready to go almost any time almost anywhere (Nancy, personal interview, 2011).

In addition to relationships, faculty members mentioned additional factors in their personal lives that had played into their decisions to spend extended time overseas. Keith in CLAHS mentioned several practical concerns:

So then, of course, what do you do with the house while you're gone, who mows the lawn? How do you pay the mortgage when you're paying rent [abroad]? All those kinds of issues are sort of off-the-scope-of-the-official-funding etceteras. So it's an interesting challenge and I think you just sort of have to have your wits about you to do it. You have to put up with a lot of slightly dysfunctional etceteras (Keith, personal interview, 2011).

Factors in faculty members’ personal lives played an important role in their ability and willingness to engage in international activities. Whether professors were married or unmarried, had children or did not, personal life factors played a critical role in the types of activities they engaged in, the duration of those efforts and in many cases determined whether they were able to participate at all.

6.7 Summary Conclusions

When exploring faculty members’ perceptions of benefits and motivations for engaging in international activities, it becomes obvious the two are very intertwined. For champions and advocates, the benefits to participating—including professional, personal, student and
institutional advantages—provided the motivation both to become and stay engaged. Many of these factors were closely linked, with student benefits directly tied to personal and professional concerns, and advantages within each category closely connected to one another. This makes differentiating between types of benefits challenging, but it also illustrates the inextricable links among the different sorts of positive outcomes identified. For example, a faculty member could not gain professional meaning and purpose without also seeing personal benefits or benefits to students. In addition, the institutional advantages of augmenting and broadening university reputation would not be possible without enhanced teaching and research. The factors leading to involvement in international activities thus form a sort of web of intrinsic value that motivates faculty members to become and stay engaged. In addition, the more professors perceived these advantages, the more they described wanting to engage, creating a self-perpetuating cycle of engagement.

A variety of personal factors also played a critical role in enabling engagement. Personal values and beliefs, motivation and intrinsic value, epistemology, previous experience, personality traits and personal life all enabled faculty members not only to participate in international activities, but also to stay engaged. The importance of these factors in the ability of champions and advocates to become involved in programs abroad provides important insights for universities seeking to understand differing levels of faculty engagement as well as their ability and willingness to support internationalization plans.
7.1 Summary of Results

A primary objective of this research was to examine the factors that motivated faculty members heavily engaged in international activities in two colleges at Virginia Tech, a university that has created a strategic plan aimed at increasing internationalization.

This study found that champions and advocates were motivated to become involved by a variety of perceived benefits. These factors overlapped and were highly dependent on one another, with personal, professional and student benefits given the most weight in faculty members’ decisions to participate. Faculty in the Pamplin College of Business and the College of Liberal Arts and Human Sciences differed little in how they perceived these factors. Among professional benefits, Pamplin faculty members highlighted the opportunity programs abroad provide to put business concepts into practice while CLAHS faculty members particularly valued the ability to belong to a disciplinary network through international activities. Liberal Arts faculty also saw such efforts as burnishing and broadening the university’s reputation for excellence.

Most significantly, the majority of these benefits was intrinsic and connected with a strong sense of personal meaning for faculty, rather than tied to extrinsic rewards. This may in part be related to champions’ and advocates’ high involvement in international teaching and outreach activities. Because of the perceived subordinate weight these efforts held in the tenure process, interviewees may have necessarily been motivated by the intrinsic, personal value they attached to them because they did not believe meaningful extrinsic rewards for such efforts existed. However, in the case of Pamplin, even where extrinsic rewards were provided in the form of stipends, professors did not find these sufficient to compensate for the work they put into these activities, nor were they a primary motivating factor for their involvement. In addition, while faculty interviewees mentioned benefits to the institution from international efforts, these
were more incidental than compelling for respondents. Instead, professors interviewed cited intrinsic rewards and benefits for students as the main drivers for undertaking this work.

A second objective of this study was to explore whether faculty members’ involvement in international activities could be linked to the influence of factors proposed in Wade and Demb’s (2009) Faculty Engagement Model as specifically engagement enabling. This analysis found that six of the factors in Wade & Demb’s model, including discipline, status and rank, socialization, professional community support and department support, are useful for examining faculty members’ willingness and ability to engage in international activities. In addition, while this research focused on examining professional factors, interviewees also discussed a variety of personal considerations that enabled them to participate. These reasons included values and beliefs, motivation and intrinsic value, epistemology, previous experience, personality traits and personal life. These personal influences significantly affected champions’ and advocates’ engagement in international activities.

While this study did not focus on the institutional factors listed in Wade and Demb’s (2009) Faculty Engagement Model, several of these factors nonetheless emerged as important in enabling international faculty engagement at Virginia Tech. The presence of a university International Strategic Plan and its strategies to increase faculty involvement suggested to faculty that internationalization is a part of Virginia Tech’s mission and priorities. In addition, Virginia Tech’s institutional type as a land-grant institution with very high research activity had a significant influence on professors’ international activities. Because research activities abroad were perceived to hold high value in the tenure process, interested faculty with such interests did not hesitate to pursue them before and after achieving tenure. However, all interviewees reported postponing international teaching and outreach activities until tenure had been achieved.

Overall, these findings suggest that many of the elements of Wade and Demb’s Faculty Engagement Model are indeed useful for examining faculty involvement in internationalization. While the literature on internationalization has tended to focus on institutional factors which affect such engagement, Virginia Tech faculty in this study were in fact found to be affected by a mixture of institutional, professional and personal factors which all contributed to their
willingness and ability to become so involved. Figure 7.1 provides a visual diagram of the factors found to influence champions and advocates’ involvement in internationalization at Virginia Tech.

![Diagram of Factors Influencing Faculty Engagement in Internationalization](image)

**Figure 7.1 Factors Influencing Faculty Engagement in Internationalization**

Similar to Wade and Demb’s (2009) FEM, faculty engagement in internationalization is the center of the model and is connected to and encompassed by the institutional, professional and personal dimensions. Bidirectional arrows illustrate the various interactions among these factors. For example, a factor in the professional dimension might directly influence faculty engagement in a particular type of international activity, such as teaching. On the other hand, personal factors may shape factors in the professional dimension. In many cases, the absence of even one of the professional or personal factors highlighted had the potential to prevent faculty from engaging, depending on the type of activity. For instance, while institutional structures might have existed to support internationalization, a professor who had not yet achieved tenure
would be limited to international research activities, and might only be able to pursue a project requiring significant time overseas if conditions in his or her personal life allowed the ability to spend time away. In addition, a tenured faculty member interested in becoming involved with a study abroad program could be easily discouraged from doing so without department support or previous experience with international travel in a particular country. Indeed, both of these scenarios were actually experienced by champions and advocates in this study at some point in their academic careers.

What was significant about these faculty members, however, was that they eventually became involved. In many cases this required a delicate balance between actively searching out solutions to perceived challenges and waiting until factors could be resolved. Several professors described postponing their involvement until they achieved tenure or waiting until their personal lives allowed them to spend time abroad. For others, international engagement began with an active search for opportunities and colleagues who could provide guidance. Still others became involved when an unexpected opportunity arrived at a moment when an alignment of institutional, professional and personal dimensions enabled them to take advantage of it. In all cases, however, these three dimensions strongly influenced faculty members’ ability to initiate international activities. As long as these elements permitted their engagement, the benefits they saw to those activities provided ongoing motivation to continue.

7.2 Areas for Future Research

While this study provides insight into the motivations and enabling factors of champions and advocates, a number of areas remain open for exploration. First, while their perceptions are crucial to internationalization efforts, champions and advocates comprise a small group of faculty at any institution. As Green and Olson (2003) have argued, “only the most committed faculty will engage in internationalization in the face of significant institutional barriers” (p. 70). While this study did not aim to undertake a detailed analysis of barriers at Virginia Tech, those institutional obstacles that interviewees mentioned were consistent with the literature of practice. This study only focused on those who were highly motivated and possessed the necessary enabling factors to undertake international activities, despite any barriers they may have encountered along their path. It does not capture the viewpoints of faculty members who may
have had the motivation to engage, but directed their energies elsewhere due to institutional, professional or personal factors. Further research that captures the viewpoints of these faculty members may enhance our collective understanding of the full range of motivations and enabling factors shaping international engagement.

Second, the focus of this study on the professional dimension of Wade and Demb’s Faculty Engagement Model offers important insights into these particular influences. However, additional examination into specific institutional and personal factors in this model would allow further testing of the framework’s efficacy for understanding faculty engagement in internationalization. For example, analyses of the roles of leadership, institutional policies, international structure and institutional prestige in securing internationalization would be useful, especially if multiple cases were examined.

While several personal factors emerged as encouraging faculty engagement in this study, further research into these elements would be valuable. In addition to a closer examination of the five personal factors that were described in this study as influencing engagement, of further interest would be the effects of race and ethnicity and gender on professors’ ability and willingness to become involved in international activities. While these characteristics have been studied extensively among students participating in U.S. study abroad programs, very little research exists on the faculty members who lead such programs or are involved in other types of international activities. Evidence collected from the interviews undertaken for this study suggested a correlation between personal/family life and gender, with women who had young children described as unable to leave for the extended periods of time often required for international travel. A closer examination of these factors would lend additional insight into personal factors that animate faculty members’ ability and willingness to engage in international activities.

7.3 Conclusions and Implications
The results of this study suggest that professors are indeed motivated and enabled to engage in international activities by a convergence of institutional, professional and personal factors. Although impossible to generalize from a single study, these research findings are
significant to institutional leaders planning for campus internationalization. Although universities may create mission statements, strategic plans and policies to guide their international initiatives, the ability and willingness of faculty members to implement those plans in their classrooms and through their research and outreach need to be investigated more holistically. This is especially important for initiatives designed to increase faculty participation in international activities. While the ability of faculty to engage in international activities other than research before tenure is extremely difficult and widely known, this study has suggested that even after tenure, a wide variety of factors influence faculty members’ ability and willingness to engage. Even when institutional mechanisms are created to increase involvement, professional and personal concerns are at play that may offset or at least influence the intended aims of such efforts.

In addition, when examining faculty members’ motivation(s) to engage, it is important to recognize that type of international activity plays a large role in professors’ perceptions of benefits, motivations and enabling factors. Intrinsic motivation and personal meaning were highly influential in champions’ and advocates’ engagement efforts and for many provided professional meaning. Although these factors were especially pronounced in teaching and outreach, faculty involved in international research also mentioned them as not only benefits to their work, but primary motivating factors for undertaking it at all.

While intrinsic value is important, I do not suggest that internationalization should depend solely on individual faculty members who are so motivated. Many analysts have argued that although internationalization is often expressed as an institutional priority, it seems to be a low priority for institutional infrastructure support and funding. As Dewey and Duff (2009) have contended,

This mismatch between institutional intentions and support mechanisms is exacerbated by what appears to be an expectation—perhaps due to a historical pattern of behavior or an embedded organizational culture—that individual faculty can and will support virtually all extra work associated with pursuing an internationalization imperative (p. 501).
Champions and advocates do appear to fit this description. Interviewees described undertaking a volume of extra responsibility in order to internationalize curricula, offer study abroad programs and coordinate research and outreach programs. The most significant difference between champions and advocates and other faculty who are less engaged may in fact be their willingness to bear such costs. With few extrinsic rewards for these activities, these faculty were motivated disproportionately by perceived personal and professional benefits and the advantages they saw such opportunities affording their students.

It is unreasonable, however, to assume that faculty will continue such efforts indefinitely, or that enough professors will be willing to do so to create the critical mass necessary for large-scale, university-wide internationalization to take place. As Dewey and Duff (2009) have pointed out, “passion for internationalization is not enough.” Without strong and sustained support from the university, the faculty alone does not have the capacity to assume full responsibility for implementation of an institution-wide priority (p. 503). While it is surely true that administrators cannot implement internationalization plans without the active participation of faculty members, it is also the case that professors cannot internationalize the university by themselves. Without resources, support and strategic coordination, internationalization may remain the work of champions and advocates and never attain the critical mass necessary to emerge as a university-wide strategic priority.
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<td>Year Founded</td>
<td>1872</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Location</td>
<td>Blacksburg, Virginia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Geographic Size</td>
<td>2,600 acres</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student Population</td>
<td>30,936</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Academic Colleges</td>
<td>Agriculture &amp; Life Sciences</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Architecture &amp; Urban Studies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Pamplin College of Business</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Engineering</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Liberal Arts &amp; Human Sciences</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Natural Resources &amp; Environment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Science</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Veterinary Medicine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Institutional Type</td>
<td>Public, 4-year or above</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Category</td>
<td>RU/VH: Research University (very high</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>research activity)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Undergraduate Students</td>
<td>23,700</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage of Undergraduate</td>
<td>2.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students who are Foreign</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nationals</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Graduate and Professional</td>
<td>7,236</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students who are Foreign</td>
<td>24.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nationals</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students who studied abroad</td>
<td>983</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>in 2010-2011</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Tenured or Tenure-Track</td>
<td>1,343</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instructional Faculty</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-Tenure Track Faculty</td>
<td>1,420</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Administrative/Professional</td>
<td>1,087</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Faculty</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage of Faculty who</td>
<td>7.01%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>are Foreign Nationals</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Appendix B: Faculty Engagement Components in Virginia Tech’s International Strategic Plan

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Component</th>
<th>Strategies</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Intentionality</td>
<td>Formalizing internationalization as an institutional priority</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Strategy II.2.2. Develop college/department plans that set ambitious targets for curriculum internationalization, paying special attention to interdisciplinary collaboration.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Strategy III.2.1. Develop college inventories, targets and plans that better position opportunities for education abroad programs, exchange programs, internships and university centers such as CESA in the context of degree programs.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Strategy XIV.4.1. Identify strengths and weaknesses in order for the university to be competitive with peer universities.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Investments</td>
<td>Financial support</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Strategy I.1.1. Support academic change through curriculum development funds or other faculty grant programs (e.g. Faculty Development Institute - FDI).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Strategy I.3.1. Create incentives and rewards through merit, promotion and tenure procedures and university recognition.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Strategy I.3.2. Provide travel support to implement strategies for internationalizing undergraduate education.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Strategy III.2.3. Develop incentives for additional faculty members to participate in education abroad programs through program support and reward within the promotion and tenure system.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Strategy XIII.1.2. Provide incentives for creating collaborative teams that will increase competitiveness for securing external funding.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Strategy XIV.1.7. Establish economic incentives that encourage faculty members to seek external funding for internationally-focused research, education and development activities.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Infrastructure</td>
<td>Organizational and programmatic resources</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Strategy I.1.2. Offer language and cultural immersion opportunities for faculty and staff</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Strategy I.1.3. Expand existing mechanisms and models for faculty development, including the Center for Excellence in Undergraduate Teaching (CEUT), the new initiative launched by Outreach and International Affairs, and successful college programs.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Strategy I.1.4. Implement and support the information technology infrastructure required to meet the needs of faculty, staff and visitors at Virginia Tech conducting research and students learning from a distance.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Strategy VI.1.3: Identify opportunities for new strategic partnerships for faculty and student exchange, research abroad, joint degrees, joint graduate concentrations, international internships, research projects, etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Strategy XI.2.1. Provide for on-going immigration training of appropriate personnel</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Strategy XIV.1.2. Create a program modeled on the Faculty Development Initiative (FDI) to promote these best practices and inter-cultural competence.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Strategy XIV.1.3. Make international program development and grant-writing assistance for departments a core supported service.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| Institutional Networks | Strategy XIV.2.3. Seek new institutional relationships with a strategic focus that will give access to international bases, particularly in Africa, Asia and Latin America  
| | Strategy VII.1.2. Provide a liaison who serves as a departmental resource for students, faculty, and staff on international matters to promote cross-cultural understanding.  
| | Communication channels to learn about international opportunities or resources  
| | Strategy XII.1.1. Develop a team including individuals from the Graduate School, Cranwell Center, ELI, OIRE, the Office of the Associate Provost for International Affairs, Admissions, and the Office of Development to identify potential sources of funding.  
| | Strategy XII.2.2. Develop a team of individuals from the Office of Multicultural Affairs, community groups, the Graduate School, Cranwell Center, the Office of the Associate Provost for International Affairs, OIRE, Student Affairs, and academic units throughout the university to identify potential resources that might be used to increase the quantity and quality of internationally themed programming.  
| | Strategy XIV.1.4. Create a campus web portal to consolidate international grant opportunities.  
| | Strategy XIV.3.4. Develop an interdisciplinary regional team approach where faculty members identify with a regional effort for long-term sustained professional activities in research and development.  
| Individual Support | Support to connect institution-wide goals with individual scholarly agendas  
| | Strategy XIII.1.1. Create a cluster hire of international professorships that adds to department faculties across colleges.  
| | Strategy XIII.1.2. Provide incentives for creating collaborative teams that will increase competitiveness for securing external funding.  
| | Strategy XIV.1.3. Make international program development and grant-writing assistance for departments a core supported service.  
| | Strategy XIV.1.6. Create a source of language support services.  
| | Strategy XIV.4.2. Match faculty and institutional strengths with international opportunities. Make certain that university, college, and departmental Centers are taken into account.  

### Appendix C: Descriptive and Demographic Information about the Colleges Sampled

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>College Characteristics</th>
<th>Pamplin College of Business</th>
<th>College of Liberal Arts &amp; Human Sciences</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total Students</td>
<td>4,168</td>
<td>4,824</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Academic Departments</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Accounting &amp; Information Systems</td>
<td></td>
<td>• Apparel, Housing &amp; Resource Management</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Business Information Technology</td>
<td></td>
<td>• Communication</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Finance</td>
<td></td>
<td>• English</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Hospitality &amp; Tourism Management</td>
<td></td>
<td>• Foreign Languages &amp; Literatures</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Management</td>
<td></td>
<td>• History</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Marketing</td>
<td></td>
<td>• Human Development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Apparel, Housing &amp; Resource Management</td>
<td></td>
<td>• International Studies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Communication</td>
<td></td>
<td>• Military Science (ROTC)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• English</td>
<td></td>
<td>• Music</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Foreign Languages &amp; Literatures</td>
<td></td>
<td>• Philosophy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• History</td>
<td></td>
<td>• Political Science</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Human Development</td>
<td></td>
<td>• Religion &amp; Culture</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• International Studies</td>
<td></td>
<td>• Science &amp; Technology in Society</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Military Science (ROTC)</td>
<td></td>
<td>• Sociology</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Music</td>
<td></td>
<td>• Theatre &amp; Cinema</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Political Science</td>
<td></td>
<td>• School of Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Religion &amp; Culture</td>
<td></td>
<td>• School of Performing Arts &amp; Cinema</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Undergraduate Students</td>
<td>3,656</td>
<td>3,494</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage of Undergrad Students who are Foreign Nationals</td>
<td>2.0%</td>
<td>0.07%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Graduate and Professional Students</td>
<td>512</td>
<td>1,330</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage of Graduate Students who are Foreign Nationals</td>
<td>21.4%</td>
<td>0.06%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students who studied abroad in 2010-2011</td>
<td>259</td>
<td>311</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tenured or Tenure-Track Instructional Faculty</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>284</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-Tenure Track Faculty</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>300</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Administrative/Professional Faculty</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage of Faculty who are Foreign Nationals</td>
<td>1.5%</td>
<td>3.0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

MEMORANDUM

DATE: January 28, 2011

TO: Nicole Sanderlin, Max C. Stephenson

FROM: Virginia Tech Institutional Review Board (FWA00000572, expires October 26, 2013)

PROTOCOL TITLE: Faculty Perceptions of Professional Dimensions that Enhance or Impede International Activities

IRB NUMBER: 11-062

Effective January 28, 2011, the Virginia Tech IRB Chair, Dr. David M. Moore, approved the new protocol for the above-mentioned research protocol.

This approval provides permission to begin the human subject activities outlined in the IRB-approved protocol and supporting documents.

Plans to deviate from the approved protocol and/or supporting documents must be submitted to the IRB as an amendment request and approved by the IRB prior to the implementation of any changes, regardless of how minor, except where necessary to eliminate apparent immediate hazards to the subjects. Report promptly to the IRB any injuries or other unanticipated or adverse events involving risks or harms to human research subjects or others.

All investigators (listed above) are required to comply with the researcher requirements outlined at [http://www.irb.vt.edu/pages/responsibilities.htm](http://www.irb.vt.edu/pages/responsibilities.htm) (please review before the commencement of your research).

PROTOCOL INFORMATION:
Approved as: Expedited(111,741),(351,776), under 45 CFR 46.110 category(ies) 6, 7
Protocol Approval Date: 1/28/2011
Protocol Expiration Date: 1/27/2012
Continuing Review Due Date*: 1/13/2012
*Date a Continuing Review application is due to the IRB office if human subject activities covered under this protocol, including data analysis, are to continue beyond the Protocol Expiration Date.

FEDERALLY FUNDED RESEARCH REQUIREMENTS:
Per federally regulations, 45 CFR 46.103(f), the IRB is required to compare all federally funded grant proposals / work statements to the IRB protocol(s) which cover the human research activities included in the proposal / work statement before funds are released. Note that this requirement does not apply to Exempt and Interim IRB protocols, or grants for which VT is not the primary awardee.

The table on the following page indicates whether grant proposals are related to this IRB protocol, and which of the listed proposals, if any, have been compared to this IRB protocol, if required.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Date*</th>
<th>OSP Number</th>
<th>Sponsor</th>
<th>Grant Comparison Conducted?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Date this proposal number was compared, assessed as not requiring comparison, or comparison information was revised.

If this IRB protocol is to cover any other grant proposals, please contact the IRB office (irbadmin@vt.edu) immediately.

cc: File
Appendix E: Informed Consent for Participants in Research Projects Involving Human Subjects

VIRGINIA POLYTECHNIC INSTITUTE AND STATE UNIVERSITY

Informed Consent for Participants in Research Projects Involving Human Subjects

Title of Project: Faculty Perceptions of Professional Dimensions that Enhance or Impede International Activities: Learning from Champions and Advocates

Investigator(s) Nicole Sanderlin, Doctoral Candidate; Max Stephenson Jr., Faculty Advisor

Purpose of this Interview:

You are being asked to participate in an interview regarding your experiences as a faculty member engaged in international activities at Virginia Tech. The study, tentatively titled Faculty Perceptions of Professional Dimensions that Enhance or Impede International Activities: Learning from Champions and Advocates, is being conducted to gather information to complete a doctoral dissertation.

The research seeks to explore factors that affect faculty ability and willingness to participate in international research, teaching and outreach activities. As a faculty member at Virginia Tech engaged in international activities, you are being asked to participate in this interview. Overall, we hope to speak with approximately 25 faculty members presently engaged in international activities at Virginia Tech for this study. Your interview will require approximately 60 minutes.

Procedures

You are being contacted to conduct a personal or telephone interview with Nicole Sanderlin, a doctoral student in the Planning, Governance and Globalization PhD. program at Virginia Tech. The interview will be digitally recorded and transcripts will be made and used only for fact checking and verbatim quotations in Ms. Sanderlin’s dissertation and any research papers that result from it. Interview files will be kept in a secured location and kept for three years. Ms. Sanderlin will strive to offer her findings in a way that do not reveal your individual identity or link specific observations to you.

Your participation is voluntary and will involve only one interview. If you have any questions regarding the procedures or the contents of this consent form, please do not hesitate to ask either or both of us. Our contact information is listed below.

Risks

We believe the risk of harm to you from your participation in this study is very low. In any case, risks associated with this study no greater than those you encounter in your daily life.

Benefits

We cannot guarantee a personal benefit to you for your participation, but we are grateful for your consideration. If you are interested in the results of this research, Ms. Sanderlin will be happy to provide you with a copy of her final paper. Our contact information is provided below.
Confidentiality and Anonymity

We are seeking your written consent to allow the researcher to include your statements in the scholarship that will result from this effort. Tapes and transcripts will be accessible only to the interviewer and transcriber. You will have the option of sharing information “on the record” or “off the record” throughout our conversation. We will honor your specific requests for confidentiality or “off the record responses” when you ask us to do so. We will also be using pseudonyms in an attempt to protect your identity. However, we cannot guarantee that using pseudonyms will provide complete anonymity given the nature of the research.

It is possible the Virginia Tech Institutional Review Board (IRB) may view this study’s collected data for auditing purposes. The IRB is responsible for the oversight of the protection of human subjects involved in research. The Board’s contact information appears below.

Compensation

We are unable to provide compensation for your participation.

Freedom to Withdraw

You are free to withdraw from this research at any time. You are also free NOT to answer any questions that you choose.

Your Responsibilities and Permission

I, ___________________________________, voluntarily agree to participate in this research on faculty perceptions of factors that affect the ability and willingness to participate in internationalization initiatives. I am 18-years-old or older.

I have read and understand the purposes of this research and the contents of this Informed Consent form. I hereby acknowledge the above and give my voluntary consent:

_______________________________________________    __________
Signature         Date

Should I have any questions about this research or its conduct, or questions regarding my rights, I may contact:

Faculty Advisor:    Investigator:
Dr. Max O. Stephenson, Jr.   Nicole Sanderlin
Virginia Tech Professor   Doctoral Candidate
540-231-7340   540-231-1755
mstephen@vt.edu   npsander@vt.edu

IMPORTANT:

If I should have any questions about the protection of human research participants regarding this study, you may contact Dr. David Moore, Chair Virginia Tech Institutional Review Board for the Protection of Human Subjects, telephone: (540) 231-4991; email: moored@vt.edu; address: Research Compliance Office, 1880 Pratt Drive, Suite 2006 (0497), Blacksburg, VA 24061.

THANK YOU FOR YOUR TIME AND PARTICIPATION
Appendix F: Faculty Interview Questions

INTERVIEW PROTOCOL

Welcome
- Introductions and overview of research goals.
- Overview of the interview process/IRB information/Consent form
- Questions about the conversation/confidentiality

Interview Questions
1. Tell me about your professional background:
   a. In what discipline/s were you trained? What department do you work in now?
   b. What is your full title and rank in your college?
   c. How long have you been working in academia?

2. Tell me about your international experience and current activities. What are some examples of international work you are doing in your department/college?
   a. Have you received recognition for this work?
   b. What are the products of your international work?

3. When you were in graduate school, what messages did you receive about being engaged in international work?
   - From faculty
   - Advisors
   - Peers
   - Committees
   - Department chairs and other leadership
   - Others
   a. Could you tell me about any support you received while in graduate school to pursue international activities?
   b. Did you experience any impediments to getting involved in international work?

4. What messages do you receive about being engaged in international work from your current department and college?
   - Other faculty
   - Peers
   - Department heads or deans
   - Others
   a. Could you tell me about any support you receive from your department and college to pursue international activities?
   b. Do you experience any impediments to engaging in international work?

5. Could you talk about other professional communities in which you participate? (organizations, industry partners, etc.).
   a. Do any of these provide support for international activities?
b. Could you talk about any impediments to international work you’ve experienced through these professional communities?

6. Why do you conduct international work in your dept./college?
   a. How has your international work affected your professional life?

7. What do you see as the benefits of engaging in international activities?

8. What are the challenges/barriers to conducting international work at Virginia Tech?

Closure
- Would you like to comment further on any dimension of your international activities at Virginia Tech that we have not yet discussed or have considered insufficiently?
- Is there anything I didn’t ask you about that I should have?

Thank you very much for your time and consideration.
Appendix G: Administrator Interview Questions

INTERVIEW PROTOCOL
Administrators

Welcome

- Introductions and overview of research goals.
- Overview of the interview process/IRB information/Consent form
- Questions about the conversation/confidentiality

Interview Questions

1. Tell me about your current position in the college. What is your role with international activities?

2. When you provided a list of faculty members who are heavily engaged in international programs in your college, what criteria did you use to select them?

3. How does your college define a 'champion' or 'advocate' for international activities?

4. What types of international activities do you think are most valued in your college?

5. What role does your college’s faculty committee for international programs play in the college?
   a. What activities does the committee engage in?
   b. When was it first established?
   c. How are faculty selected to serve on this committee?
   d. What are the expectations associated with service on this committee?

6. Does the college have any policies or administrative mechanisms in place to encourage faculty to become engaged in international activities? (stipends, travel awards, etc.)

7. What financial support does your college offer to faculty engaged in international activities (small grants, seed money, etc.)

8. Are there any university or college-level policies or structural factors that you have found have discouraged faculty from becoming engaged in international activities in your college?

9. What is currently being done in your college to encourage faculty engagement in international programs?
Closure

- Do you have any additional comments for me?
- Is there anything I didn’t ask you about internationalization in your college that I should have?

Thank you very much for your time and consideration.
Appendix H: Permission to use Childress’ Five I’s of Faculty Engagement in Internationalization

-----Original Message-----
From: Maria Abellana [mailto:mabellana@plang.com]
Sent: Wednesday, November 16, 2011 11:44 AM
To: wechsler@gwmail.gwu.edu; Sanderlin, Nicole
Subject: Permission Request - Diagram of Five I's of Faculty Engagement in Internationalization

Dear Dr. Childress and Ms. Sanderlin,

Thank you for your request for permission to reprint a diagram on page 140 of The Twenty-First Century: Developing Faculty Engagement in Internationalization by Lisa Childress. We are happy to grant you reprint permission for non-exclusive use of the material described in your request.

We do not require payment for this request. An appropriate acknowledgement would be much appreciated. This message serves as formal permission to use the requested material. Please let us know if we can help you in any other way.

Sincerely,
Maria Abellana
Editorial Assistant
Peter Lang Publishing
29 Broadway, 18th Floor
NY, NY 10006
(212) 647-7700 ex 3013
mabellana@plang.com

-----Original Message-----
From: Sanderlin, Nicole
Sent: Friday, October 21, 2011 8:26 PM
To: wechsler@gwmail.gwu.edu
Subject: Permissions to use diagram

Dear Dr. Childress,

My name is Nicole Sanderlin and I am a doctoral candidate at Virginia Tech. I am working on my doctoral dissertation on motivations of faculty members to engage in international activities and your work has been instrumental to my research. I would like to inquire if I could obtain permission to use the diagram of the Five I's of Faculty Engagement in Internationalization on p.140 of your book, “The Twenty-First Century: Developing Faculty Engagement in Internationalization,” published in 2010 by Peter Lang Publishing Inc. in my dissertation study. If I also need to contact the publisher, please do let me know.

Thank you very much for your consideration.

Sincerely,
Nicole Sanderlin
Director of International Programs
College of Engineering
Virginia Tech
3046 Torgersen Hall (0217)
Blacksburg, VA 24061 USA
Appendix I: Permission to use Wade and Demb’s Faculty Engagement Model

-----Original Message-----
From: Howard, Jeffrey [mailto:JHOWAR15@depaul.edu]
Sent: Thursday, November 17, 2011 2:40 PM
To: Sanderlin, Nicole
Subject: RE: Permissions to use diagram

I’m sorry you had to ask me again, Nicole. Yes, you have my permission to use that diagram. Thank you for asking. To “clear my name” on not getting back with you, I did respond, but it was with a new smart phone that was incorrectly set up to respond to emails, and I responded to a few that were left out in cyberspace, and I forgot to go back and respond to those. Again, I’m sorry.
I wish you the best with your diss.
jeff

-----Original Message-----
From: Sanderlin, Nicole [mailto:npsander@exchange.vt.edu]
Sent: Wednesday, November 16, 2011 1:58 PM
To: jphoward@umich.edu; Howard, Jeffrey
Subject: RE: Permissions to use diagram

Dear Mr. Howard,
I am writing to follow up on my email below. If you need any additional information from me, please do let me know.

Sincerely,
Nicole Sanderlin

-----Original Message-----
From: Sanderlin, Nicole
Sent: Tuesday, November 01, 2011 3:40 PM
To: jphoward@umich.edu; jhowar15@depaul.edu
Subject: Permissions to use diagram

Dear Mr. Howard,

My name is Nicole Sanderlin and I am a doctoral candidate at Virginia Tech. I am working on my doctoral dissertation on motivations of faculty members to engage in international activities and a model printed in the Michigan Journal of Community Service Learning has been instrumental to my work. I would like to inquire if I could obtain permission to use the diagram of the Faculty Engagement Model presented in the following article:


The model is presented on page 8 of this article.

Please let me know if there is any information you need from me. I look forward to hearing from you and thank you for your consideration.

Sincerely,
Nicole Sanderlin
Director of International Programs