

**Factors Influencing Campus Internationalization:
A Case Study of a Liberal Arts College in the Upper Midwest**

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Abstract

The process of campus internationalization at St. Norbert College, a small liberal arts college in the Upper Midwest, is analyzed as a case study in this dissertation. St. Norbert College was selected as an institution because it received the Paul Simon Award for Campus Internationalization in 2004. Using two studies that demonstrate effective methods for implementing campus internationalization (Johnston & Edelstein, 1993; Kelleher, 1996) and a more recent study on transformational change in higher education (Eckel & Kezar, 2003), a framework of five important factors is used as a theoretical proposition in the case study.

Through interviews with key faculty members, senior administrators, and staff involved in campus internationalization, and analysis of documents dating back to 1972, seven important factors are identified, including the five factors in the framework, as well as two other factors unique to St. Norbert College. Employing a systems model, an explanation is developed of how a combination of multiple factors working together influenced several campus-internationalization initiatives at St. Norbert College.

There are similarities in the factors influencing campus internationalization when comparing the case institution against the theoretical framework, suggesting some commonality of factors. Also identified are important factors unique to St. Norbert College. The combination of factors working together is key in the development and sustainability of campus-internationalization initiatives.

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Glossary of Terms

The Bemis Center for International Education: The building where the Center for International Education (CIE) is located. It also houses a conference center, a dining room, and several multipurpose meeting spaces.

CIE — The Center for International Education: An office that provides international academic support, oversight of international programs, delivery of special programs, and community outreach programming.

Discoveries International: A nonprofit organization that imports goods from developing countries and sells them at a retail store on the St. Norbert College campus. The organization is staffed and managed by students in the IBLAS program.

ESL Institute — The English as a Second Language Institute: A program at St. Norbert College that provides English-language training for international students to prepare them for study at a college or university where the language of instruction is English.

Great Decisions: An annual lecture series held on the St. Norbert College campus that addresses global political, economic, and cultural subjects.

IBLAS — The international business and language area studies program: An undergraduate program that combines international business with intensive language

training. IBLAS majors are required to study abroad for one semester and earn a Bachelor of Business Administration degree upon completion of the program.

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

IEC — The International Education Committee: An advisory committee comprised of faculty members from various disciplines who provide oversight of international activities and proposals.

IS — The international studies major: An integrated, multidisciplinary international program that provides students with an understanding of contemporary political science issues, along with intercultural understanding and competency.

TRIPS — The Turning Responsibility into Powerful Service program: A service-learning program where students spend a semester in an impoverished community (domestic or international), and provide needed services for that community.

The Zambia Project: A college-wide fundraising project that focuses on raising money for the Zambia Open Community School

Chapter 1

As leaders at higher education institutions consider initiatives to internationalize their campuses comprehensively, it is valuable to have access to case studies of other colleges and universities that have made significant strides in this realm. While there has been robust research defining what constitutes an internationalized campus, few case studies have been undertaken that identify the factors influencing how higher education institutions become internationalized. Because of this, the process of institutional transformation needed to implement campus internationalization is poorly understood. This study then examines a successfully internationalized liberal arts college as a case study identifying the factors that influenced the process of campus internationalization. Using a systems approach, it also examines how these factors work together in an integrative manner to enable campus-internationalization initiatives to develop, grow, and become permanently established.

Background and Rationale for this Study

International education is no longer a luxury. Colleges and universities in the United States are experiencing intense pressure to produce graduates with international understanding. According to the Committee for Economic Development (2006), college graduates from American institutions typically are not ready to enter the global workplace, where the ability to speak other languages, work in cross-cultural settings, and understand global economics is required. Members of the committee write that American companies lose an estimated \$2

billion a year because of inadequate international understanding and intercultural competency of their employees.

Additionally, in October 2004 the Task Force on International Education of the National Association of State Universities and Land-Grant Colleges published a white paper strongly urging presidents and chancellors to lead the process of changing their institutions from having some international programs to becoming comprehensively internationalized. The future campuses that the committee envisioned are not those that involve “tweaking the academy around the edges.” Instead they proposed “substantive, transformative change at all levels.” More specifically, the task force recommended that international study “move from the periphery to the center of our institutional teaching, research, and engagement commitment.”

In responding to these demands, many leaders at colleges and universities are implementing programs to increase international learning by adding international courses, programs, and study-abroad opportunities. Their efforts though often result in a cobbling together of a few internationally focused programs and an infusion of international content into existing curricula, rather than substantive and transformative change. Green and Olson (2003) believe that this typically leads to isolated programs and activities that are insufficient to advance international learning, and the result is a marginalized set of activities that affects a small, self-selected group of students and faculty (Mestenhauser, 2000).

Mestenhauser (1998) is also critical of the infusion and additive approach. He believes that international and intercultural learning requires more than simple updates to current curricula and existing programs. In his opinion, enriching courses with “international content of some kind” with the intent to create a “cumulative effect of an international education” (p. 17) does not lead to sufficient learning outcomes needed by college graduates to live and work in international or intercultural environments. In his opinion, robust international and intercultural learning can come about only through a systematic process of institutional transformation involving changing the curricula, teaching methods, and educational outcomes.

The transformation that Mestenhauser calls for is not a simple undertaking. As a change initiative, campus internationalization is highly prone to failure. It requires change in all levels of the organization and across departments, and must be supported by multiple stakeholders. Additionally, because of the unique organizational structures and cultures of higher education institutions, large-scale transformation that internationalization requires is exceedingly difficult (Kezar, 2001). Kotter (1996) argues that change initiatives are often prone to failure. This can be because of a lack of coherent strategy, a failure to persuade key stakeholders to adopt an initiative, a lack of funding, and an underestimation of the time and effort it takes to implement a program.

The key variable that leads to successful change, in Kotter’s view, is effective leadership. Mestenhauser (1998) notes that leading the process of

transformation requires knowledge about change and an understanding of future consequences and decisions. From the literature, we generally understand *what* needs to be done to implement campus internationalization (e.g., Ellingboe, 1998, 1999; Paige, 2003, 2005; Knight, 2004). A gap, however, exists in understanding *how* individuals transform a college or university to make campus internationalization possible.

The goal of this research then is to understand the process of institutional transformation needed to implement campus internationalization. Examining this process will lead to an understanding of the individual and organizational factors that enable a broad change effort like campus internationalization to take place. This study follows the narrative history of a liberal arts college that has been recognized by experts in international education as a leading institution in campus internationalization. The focus is on recent events, decisions, and actions involving individuals still active at the institution, as well as historical analysis that reaches back several decades.

Definitions of Key Terms and Concepts

The research in this dissertation focuses on leading organizational change to enable campus internationalization to develop, and it is important to define several key terms. The first is campus internationalization. Paige (2005) defines campus internationalization as a learning environment that is international in character in all aspects of the institution. It includes enabling students, teachers, and staff to understand other parts of the world, and preparing students to work

with people from other cultures and countries. Ellingboe (1998) defines it as more of an active process. She writes that campus internationalization is the process of integrating an international dimension into an institution. It is an “ongoing, future-orientated, multidimensional, interdisciplinary, leadership-driven vision” involving “many stakeholders working to change the internal dynamics of an institution to respond and adapt appropriately to an increasingly diverse, globally focused, ever-changing external environment” (p. 199). Knight (1994) reminds us that campus internationalization is different from the internationalization of higher education, which may involve entities such as ministries of education, federal departments of state, or other entities existing outside of the institution. Campus internationalization, in contrast, involves policy, organizational culture, and other factors contained within the sphere of the higher education institution.

As noted by several authors (e.g., Ellingboe, 1998; Mestenhauser & Ellingboe, 2005), leadership is an important aspect of campus internationalization. Leadership is also a concept often misunderstood. Nahavandi (2011) defines leadership as a complex process that results from the interaction among a leader and followers. Kotter (1996), focusing on the change aspects, defines it as a set of processes that creates organizations or adapts them to significantly changing circumstances. Fullan (2001) proposes a slightly different definition. In his opinion, leadership is not a means to help people to solve issues they already understand; it is a way to enable people to solve problems not completely understood. Taken together it is clear that leadership involves leaders and

followers in a relationship that is important to the growth and development of an organization. It also involves enabling people to understand complex and ambiguous situations in order to make informed choices and take appropriate actions.

Organizational transformation in higher education institutions is often not understood and also needs definition. Eckel and Kezar (2003) believe that organizational transformation takes place in higher education institutions when the underlying assumptions, behaviors, processes, and structures are altered deeply and across the entire organization. Organizational transformation is pervasive, affects the entire organization, is intentional, and occurs over time.

Context of the Study

This study profiles St. Norbert College, a Catholic liberal arts college located just south of the city of Green Bay in Northeast Wisconsin. Founded in 1898 by Abbot Bernard Pennings, a Norbertine priest from the Netherlands, St. Norbert College is the only college in the world associated with the Norbertine Order (Office of Institutional Effectiveness, St. Norbert College, 2010). It has a long-standing history of international programs that continue today. In the 2009–2010 academic year, the student body consisted of 2,113 undergraduate students. Of the 2,113 students were 115 full-time degree-seeking international students and 12 international exchange students. These students came from 32 nations and six continents, and 57 international students also studied in the College's English as a Second Language (ESL) Institute in preparation for attending college. It is also

important to point out that 33% of undergraduate students participate in study-abroad programs. The Study Abroad Office at St. Norbert College offers over 75 study-abroad opportunities in 39 countries (Office of Institutional Effectiveness, St. Norbert College, 2010). Table 1 outlines information about international academics, international students, and study abroad at St. Norbert College.

In addition to providing international academic support services and overseeing study-abroad programs, staff at the Center for International Education (CIE) also provide a number of services to the College's external communities. These include language services such as translation and interpretation, after-school international language programs, and conversational second language courses for adults. (St. Norbert College, Center for International Education, 2005). Additionally, various post-secondary credit programs are offered to local high school students in a number of academic areas. The CIE also sponsors the Great Decisions lecture series, which invites experts on campus to discuss various contemporary international topics.

St. Norbert College has won several awards for its campus-internationalization programming. In 2004 it won the Senator Paul Simon Award for Campus Internationalization. This award, which is sponsored by NAFSA, is adjudicated by a panel of experts who use a comprehensive list of criteria to choose five highly internationalized colleges and universities each year (Connell, 2004). In 2006–2007, CIE staff at St. Norbert College also successfully participated in the National Standards Pilot Program, sponsored by the Forum on

Table 1

Academic Information, International Student Numbers, and Study-Abroad Data for St. Norbert College

Academic						
International Programs					Graduating Students	
Majors	Minors	Language Majors	Language Minors	Certificate Program	International Major	Language Major
International Studies (IS)	Japanese Area Studies	German	Japanese	Philippine Studies	4.90%	10.90%
International Business & Language Area Studies (IBLAS)	Russian Area Studies	French	German			
	Peace and Justice Comp Int'l Politics	Spanish	French	Spanish		
International Students						
Undergraduate Student Headcount (2009)					2113	
Degree-Seeking Undergraduate International Students					115	
Countries Represented by the undergraduate student body					32	
Continents Represented					6	
International Exchange Students					12	
Studying in the English as a Second Language (ESL) Institute					57	
Degree-seeking international students receiving non-federal aid (Fall 2008)					69	
Study Abroad						
Undergraduate Students in Study-Abroad Programs		Study-Abroad Opportunities			Countries Available for Study Abroad	
33%		75			39	

(Office of Institutional Effectiveness, St. Norbert College, 2010)

Education Abroad (2010). The goal of this program is to improve practices in education abroad to ensure that the international educational experiences for students are significant and meaningful. St. Norbert College was the only four-year college in the Midwest to participate during that year (The Forum on Education, 2010).

The selection of St. Norbert College as an institution for a case study was based on four criteria:

1. It had achieved national recognition as a leading institution in campus internationalization. Winning the Paul Simon Award in 2004 provided evidence for this.
2. It had recently undertaken major campus-internationalization initiatives.
3. The leaders who implemented the initiatives were still employed at the institution. This includes senior administrators, faculty, and staff.
4. It was important for the institution to be of a size to make it possible to study campus internationalization comprehensively as a case study.

Theoretical Frameworks

This study relies on three important frameworks. The first is Knight's internationalization cycle, which provides a systematic structure for conceptualizing the internationalization process (Knight & de Wit, 1995). Knight insists that internationalization is not a linear progression that results in a final goal. It is instead a continuous cycle that follows a six-step progression that starts with awareness and then moves to commitment, planning, implementation, review,

and reinforcement. This progression does not take place in a single, predetermined direction, but flows bidirectionally and interdependently between the steps.

The second framework, which is used as the theoretical proposition for the case study, is called the *theory for institutional transformation and campus internationalization*. This framework combines the important factors influencing institutional transformation taken from Eckel and Kezar (2003), along with additional factors influencing campus internationalization taken from Johnston and Edelstein (1993) and Kelleher (1996). Eckel and Kezar (2003) provide one of the few studies of organizational change at higher education institutions. As explained in Chapter 2, the literature on organizational change is typically dominated by studies on industry that may not be applicable at colleges and universities. Additionally, the studies conducted by Johnston and Edelstein (1993) and Kelleher (1996) provide information from case studies of higher education institutions implementing campus internationalization. By combining the important and overlapping factors identified in these studies, a theoretical framework of five factors for the theoretical framework was developed and used in this the case study of St. Norbert College.

The third framework, used in Chapter 5, is Senge's (1990) *systems theory*. This theory examines organizational phenomena from a holistic and integrative perspective. Senge notes that it is the interactions of factors in an organization that influence whether initiatives grow, decline, or remain stable. While it is important to identify factors influencing campus internationalization and understand how

they influence it on an individual basis, it is also important to understand how the combination of factors working together influences campus internationalization. This approach demonstrates how the identified factors working in an integrative manner enabled the development of three important aspects of campus internationalization at St. Norbert College.

Statement of Study Purpose

The purpose of the study is to identify factors influencing successful campus internationalization at a liberal arts college in the Upper Midwest. It documents the internationalization process from a contemporary and historical perspective at St. Norbert College, a successfully internationalized institution.

More specifically, the following questions are addressed in this study:

1. What are the factors influencing successful campus internationalization?
2. How do these factors influence the process of campus internationalization?

The goal of the research then is to first identify the factors influencing campus internationalization obtained from a review of the literature on the subject. The important factors from the literature specific to institutional change and campus internationalization are used to create a theoretical proposition. Using the strategy of pattern matching (Yin, 2009) these factors are compared with those in the case of St. Norbert College. Once the factors are identified, the second goal of the study is to determine how they influence campus internationalization both individually and integratively.

Value Premises and Basic Assumptions

In this study it is assumed that comprehensive, integrated institutional internationalization is beneficial for student learning and development, and necessary to prepare students to live and work in the contemporary world. Also, it is assumed that campus internationalization improves the quality of the learning experience for students and brings improved reputation or prestige for the college or university. Finally, it is accepted that comprehensive and integrated campus internationalization is an effective means to provide students with an international understanding and help them develop intercultural competency.

Study Limitations

The study profiles only one liberal arts college, and makes no claim that similar results can be reproduced at another institution. The goal of the study is to provide an understanding of the factors influencing campus internationalization and how they influence the process. It is not intended to provide a roadmap for its implementation at other institutions. Additionally, the study focuses only on a specific type of higher education institution. Other types may have different needs, processes, or resources that affect on how campus internationalization is implemented. It should be acknowledged that higher education institutions are often unique entities, even those that exist in the same category. Therefore, generalized approaches to campus internationalization are probably not feasible. Finally, this study does not evaluate the extent or development of campus internationalization at St. Norbert College. It instead relies on the quality of the

criteria, as well as the expertise of the panel of experts of the Paul Simon Award, as the only means to determine the extent of campus internationalization.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

The literature on campus internationalization, leadership, and change, with an emphasis on leading change in higher education institutions is covered in this chapter. While it may seem clear that the process of implementing campus internationalization is similar to other initiatives in higher education such as service learning or online learning, the literature seems to suggest that this is not the case. Internationalization is a much broader, deeper, and substantive change. Few other initiatives that colleges undertake can be compared.

It should also be noted at the outset that internationalization is not a definable, singular end goal. As several authors note, including Knight and de Wit (1995) and Ellingboe (1998), internationalization is instead a cyclical process that takes place not once, but continuously. There are multiple possibilities for leaders at colleges and universities to internationalize their campuses. While some colleges emphasize the need for students to study abroad (Engberg & Green, 2002), others focus on domestic students with differing cultural backgrounds as a means to enhance international education (Nilsson, 2003). Still others may focus on technology and collaboration to give students international exposure opportunities. While it is important to identify critical performance indicators to determine whether an internationalization effort is comprehensive, it is also important to note that the means and vehicles may differ greatly from one campus to another.

Additionally, while there is a considerable body of research covering how to lead organization change in business and K–12 settings, one cannot immediately

conclude that these models of change and reform can be automatically applied to higher education institutions. As several authors note (Birnbaum, 1988; Kezar, 2001; Mestenhauser & Ellingboe, 2005), higher education institutions have unique structures and cultures that influence a leader's ability to implement change.

Overview of campus internationalization, its goals, and measurements

In this section, campus internationalization is defined and described, and some of the key literature outlining its goals and measurements are reviewed. Knight (2004) reminds us that defining internationalization is a complex undertaking. It includes institutional-level initiatives like study abroad, development of international curricula, programs and research, but it also includes national-level initiatives like human capital development, nation building, and income generation. Additionally, at the institutional level, campus internationalization is developed to improve quality, reputation, or institutional "brand" and assist in the production of knowledge. Knight also notes that there are similarities and significant differences between internationalization and globalization. Globalization is the flow of technology, knowledge, economic activity, people, values, and ideas between countries. Globalization affects countries and institutions, and is a major external factor motivating international education reform in higher education institutions. Internationalization, on the other hand, is the "process of integrating an international, intercultural or global dimension into the purpose, functions or delivery of post-secondary education" (Knight, 2004, p. 11).

Knight deliberately does not focus exclusively on higher education institutions. She notes that organizations at the national level such as ministries or departments of education are a critical component of internationalization as well. It is important to note that she defines internationalization as a process and not a goal, as institutions may have differing goals and intended outcomes. She uses the word “integrating” to denote that internationalization must be a central rather than a peripheral activity, embedded into policies and missions to ensure that it is sustainable. She is also careful to mention that internationalization includes not only knowledge of other countries but also intercultural competence and an understanding of globalization and global issues.

To understand internationalization at the institutional level, one must identify the key performance indicators that can be used to measure the extent to which an institution is comprehensively internationalized. Paige (2005), in reviewing literature from Europe, Canada, Australia, Japan, and the United States, provides a conceptual framework for the definition, measurement, and evaluation of higher-education internationalization. His model consists of ten performance measurement categories including leadership, strategic planning, curriculum development, study abroad, infrastructure development, and student (both domestic and international), and faculty involvement in internationalization. Paige asserts that higher education internationalization is not a series of simple additives; it is instead a complex institution-wide process and requires major educational reform. The model is comprehensive and easily applicable in evaluating

institutional internationalization development. Unfortunately the performance indicators are not ranked in any hierarchy. The quality or performance of each of the indicators is also not considered and must be extrapolated. In other words, even if a component like international student services exists at a college, we do not know how well it performs in serving the students, or how many students are served.

Horn, Hendel, and Fry (2007) add a component of quality to the equation of measuring campus internationalization. Unlike Paige (2005), where the indicators are simply listed, Horn, Hendel, and Fry present empirical numbers or ratios to their indicators. In evaluating research universities in the U.S., they use a system of five rubrics: (a) student characteristics, (b) scholar characteristics, (c) research orientation, (d) curricular content, and (e) organizational support. For example, they use the percentage of international undergraduate students on campus and the percentage of international faculty teaching on campus as two of their measures. Another is the number of international research activities undertaken. They then add weight to each factor and use these data to evaluate 77 research universities in the United States.

Although this ranking system does fill in the gaps in terms of quality in evaluating the international indicators of a university, there are two issues with this approach. First, while some of the measurements are linked directly to the criteria, others are indirect at best. For example, it is reasonably straightforward to link the percentage of international students on campus to determine whether the student

body is more or less international. But in the area of organization support for internationalization, they use a simple tool to determine the visibility of international content on institutions' Web sites and then extrapolate from these data the amount of organization support the institution provides. These data could be biased by poor web navigation, outdated web design, or simply an underfunded office cannot keep information up to date. The second problem with this approach is that this study looks at institutions in a one-time snapshot to evaluate their internationalization performance. As campus-internationalization efforts are often long-term in nature, it may be more accurate, or more interesting, to look at the 10-year trends of these institutions to see how they progressed or regressed.

Ellingboe (1998) also provides six components that indicate the extent of internationalization at an institution: (a) college leadership, (b) faculty participation, (c) internationalized curriculum, (d) study-abroad opportunities for students, (e) integration of international students, and (f) international extracurricular activities. It is noteworthy that leadership does not cover leadership styles or effectiveness, but instead focuses on products associated with senior administrators such as strategic plans and mission statements. Additionally, faculty participation refers more to awareness and involvement of faculty in international activities rather than the use of international faculty or faculty exchange programs. Like Knight, Ellingboe mentions intercultural development, along with cognitive understanding of international and global issues, as an integral part of internationalization.

Additionally, Ellingboe posits that internationalization benefits both the institution and individuals. For the institution, it may enhance prestige leading to new grants or funding opportunities. It may also be a tool to attract researchers, faculty, and students who may otherwise not be interested. It also enables the institution to develop connections with universities worldwide. Ellingboe asserts that for the individual student the benefits include preparation for a globalized workplace, enhanced interdisciplinary thinking, and intercultural competence.

Green and Olson (2003) write that internationalization should accomplish four goals that address academic, economic, social, and national security issues. The first goal, the academic realm, they argue that internationalization should improve and enhance liberal education. This includes improving critical thinking, as well as developing the knowledge, attitudes, and skills to work and live in a global world. Additionally, internationalization has the possibility to broaden understanding and bring new frames of reference to both research and learning. Because many careers now require global competency, educators need to make this a learning goal if their institutions are to stay relevant. The second goal that it should address is social. Green and Olson (2003) make the case that international education can lead to increased tolerance and understanding of cultural differences in a multicultural world. The third and fourth goals, national security and overall economic development of the United States, depend on college graduates who are interculturally competent, have the ability to speak languages other than English, and have knowledge of political, economic, and social systems in other countries.

Mestenhauser's (1998) goals for internationalizing higher education are broader in scope with larger implications for institutions. Whereas the authors reviewed above mention outcomes, performance indicators, and benefits, Mestenhauser argues that internationalization can happen only if institutions dramatically reform. He argues that, in the current state of affairs, only a small percentage of domestic students study abroad, and international students studying in the United States are not integrated into the campus community. Curricula are infused with a small number of international courses, and many institutions offer international courses as electives only. Study abroad and international-student services are delegated as peripheral service offices with little impact on the overall campus community. In essence, Mestenhauser believes that for all the talk about internationalizing higher education, its overall impact on student learning is minimal.

Instead of focusing on internationalization as a set of additives to an established way of operating, Mestenhauser recommends that institutions look at it from a systems perspective and as a "mega goal that permeates the entire institution" (p. 4). This is because international education is extremely complex. It involves cognitive development, experiential learning, self-examination, and requires a critical understanding of values and attitudes. This is not something that can be accomplished through additives alone because the current curricular structure and classroom setting does not support the broad range of learning that internationalization requires. Instead, a widespread and fundamental change of the

academy is needed, which, according to Mestenhauser (2000) and Kezar (2001), may be extremely difficult or impossible. Mestenhauser believes that change will come about only through complete understanding of the complex nature of international education, as well as a change in the basic underlying assumptions of international knowledge and learning.

Paige and Mestenhauser (1999) take internationalization as a way of thinking a step further by defining it as “a complex, multidimensional learning process that integrates international knowledge with a deep understanding of cultural variables to enable one to understand and compare multiple points of reference from an insider and outsider perspective” (p. 504). In this definition, international learning has less to do with the acquisition of knowledge that crosses borders, and instead focuses on the application of knowledge when one is confronted with new situations and information that is beyond one’s own “comfort zone” of culturally bound expectations. The goal of internationalization is to enable graduates to be culturally adaptable so that they are able to work in other countries or in unfamiliar cultural settings.

Overall, internationalization is much more than study abroad and recruitment of international students. It is instead a comprehensive endeavor involving most, if not all, service and learning components of a college or university. The performance indicators defined by Paige (2005) and Ellingboe (1998) provide a starting point to determine how widespread internationalization is at an institution. However, these measurements fail to address the issue of depth or

quality of internationalization. According to Mestenhauser (1998), internationalization does not just require support and learning structures, it will also require a change of thinking about education to address the multiple ways of learning that international education requires.

Overview of the Liberal Arts College

In this section, the development, definition, and internationalization of liberal arts colleges is discussed. Breneman (1994) writes that liberal arts colleges are both a type of educational institutional and a unique economic entity. As an educational institution, liberal arts colleges award mostly Bachelor of Arts degrees, are residential, and enroll mostly full-time students between the ages of 18 and 24. Additionally, liberal arts colleges tend to enroll between 800 and 1,800 students, and typically offer a limited number of majors in the humanities, social sciences, languages, and physical sciences. As economic entities, liberal arts institutions offer educational experiences that do not cater to the professional or career demands of their students (Breneman, 1994). In other words, the liberal arts college exists as an “ideal” that is hesitant to reform to the demands of its clients, which consist of students and families. Because of this, Breneman notes, liberal arts colleges are losing students to professional schools, universities with a wider selection of programs and classes, and for-profit colleges.

The observation that liberal arts colleges are a unique type of educational institution that exists in an idealized realm beyond market demands is not uncommon in the recent literature. Ferrall (2011) believes that with students

demanding colleges to provide a direct means to a career, liberal arts colleges must take steps to clearly explain their value to them, or face extinction. Colleges must cooperate with each other to change the general perception that they do not lead to successful careers. He notes a number of distinguished business leaders, political figures, and others who are alumni of liberal arts colleges as examples of their value. Neely (2003) makes a similar observation. In his opinion, the biggest threat to liberal arts colleges is the current market trend where students and parents look at colleges with a purely “utilitarian” viewpoint, leading to the “commodification” of higher education. Whereas Ferrall feels that it is the fault of college leaders for not articulating the value of a liberal arts college, Neely provides some additional context for his viewpoint. For example, Neely notes that 20 years ago a student’s education was mainly funded through grants, but now it is funded primarily through loans. Additionally, he points out that net tuition (after financial aid) as a percentage of family income has been steadily growing, while family incomes have been, on average, generally flat. Because the economic stakes for students and families have increased, the demand for a “return on investment” has entered into the equation.

The struggle of liberal arts colleges to define their missions and values seems to have been an issue since their founding in the first half of the 17th Century. Oakley (1992) notes that liberal arts colleges in the United States, modeled on English colleges such as Emmanuel College or Queen’s College, were soon challenged by the research universities based on the reformed German model.

These institutions were marked by their emphasis on specialization of the curriculum, elective courses, and a commitment to research. Fearing the erosion of their institutions, leaders at liberal arts colleges began to argue the benefits of the liberal arts education, giving rise to The Yale Report of 1828. According to Oakley, the report became the basic blueprint arguing on behalf of liberal education and liberal arts colleges. Essentially, the leaders articulated in the report that college education should be broad based, non-vocational, and built to lay a foundation for advanced study or professional training.

Stanley (2003) believes that the ideals of a liberal arts education align with international education quite closely. Although there is a historical emphasis on the Western Civilization canon, Stanley writes that language studies, area studies, and study of international literature have been traditional staples of a liberal arts education since introduced at Harvard several centuries ago. He notes that liberal arts colleges have a history of producing graduates who work in international fields, and although only about 2% of the college degrees awarded in the U.S. come from liberal arts graduates, one finds a disproportionate number of liberal arts alumni working as ambassadors, international lawyers, and Peace Corp volunteers. Though his reasoning for this is somewhat muddled, he notes that the interdisciplinary nature and residence experience seems to support international learning and intercultural competence. He also posits that, generally speaking, liberal arts colleges tend to have a greater percentage of students that study abroad when compared with other types of institutions. He also suggests that liberal arts

study is “inherently supranational,” but again, examples of this are few and not very compelling. Although liberal arts institutions do seem to be well represented when one looks at, for example, the Senator Paul Simon Awards for Campus Internationalization (NAFSA, 2011), generally speaking, it seems simplistic to assume that liberal arts implies internationalization.

Internationalization Models

In this section the process of internationalization is covered. As mentioned earlier, internationalization is an endeavor that affects most learning and service departments of a college or university. Although the structures have been identified and the rationales articulated, the exact goals of internationalization are somewhat ambiguous and may differ from one institution to the next. Because of this, a step-by-step model towards a particular end goal may not be possible to articulate. Internationalization then is often defined as a process. Knight (2004) notes that the term process must be used because it “denotes an evolutionary or developmental quality to the concept” (p. 11). Supporting this is Mestenhauser (1998), who notes that the exact role of international education in higher education has never been determined at most institutions. In his opinion, we are still trying to understand the outcomes of international education, while implementing it at the same time.

Reflecting and elucidating this paradox is a model developed by Knight and de Wit (1995). Their model is diagramed as a cyclical progression. Again, the emphasis is on a continuous process rather than an event. The model starts with

leaders at a campus developing awareness of internationalization and then committing to do something. The next phase is forming an internationalization plan, implementing it, and then reviewing and reinforcing it as it takes hold at the institution. The cycle continues through the process for an indefinite number of times depending on the goals of the institution. The authors carefully point out that the flow of events is not linear. The events can flow in either direction.

Green and Olson (2003) provide a more linear path to internationalization. In their opinion, the process starts with determining who should be involved. Once completed, they recommend an internationalization review and then an internationalization plan. The most important steps, according to them, are to engage faculty and internationalize the curriculum. These steps have their own sub processes that are outlined as well. Unlike Mestenhauser (1998), who advocates for a new approach to international learning, Green and Olson recommend either adding new international courses to the curriculum or infusing current courses with an international component. While this may seem to be a practical way to update current curricula without wholesale change to existing faculty and courses, this process does have its limits, which Green and Olson acknowledge. Infusion and additives may not allow students to obtain a multicultural perspective or international understanding. Cultural bias in the presentation of “foreign” information may also take place, and the exploration of values, cultural self-awareness, or other forms or experiential learning may be nonexistent.

Ellingboe (1998) provides a model of internationalization taken from Bennett's Developmental Model of Intercultural Competence (Bennett, 1993) that examines how individuals develop intercultural competence as they move from an ethnocentric outlook to one that is ethnorelative. In other words, the model demonstrates how individuals develop from indifference to cultural distinctions, or defense of one culture as being "right" to an attitude of cultural acceptance and adaptation. Ellingboe takes this model and applies it to the process of campus internationalization. In her model, stage one is indifference to matters international. This is when most individuals at an institution are unaware or unconcerned about international education. Stage two is resistance to change, which is a phenomenon common with many change initiatives. Stages three and four cover awareness and acceptance of the need to change and implement some international elements. She calls this the "great divide" because it is often a turning point in the development of an internationalization initiative. In stage four the major pockets of resistance are overcome and generally there is an acceptance of internationalization. At stage five, the major components of an international campus are implemented. Stage six she briefly describes as "Total integration of internationalization in the curriculum" (p. 214). Stage six should also include a new way of thinking about education and a completely reformed institution. Even if the curriculum is changed to include the multiple aspects of international learning, other parts of the institution also need to change for a campus to be internationalized.

Again, it is important to stress that internationalization is not a linear path. Progression does not take place in a single, predetermined direction but may flow in several directions. The process should be classified as continuous rather than episodic, as defined by Weick and Quinn (1999). This means that internationalization does not happen as a top-down, single episode that changes the institution quickly and permanently. It instead consists of a number of smaller changes that add up to a much larger overall change over time.

Leadership and Change Models

In this section, the main schools of leadership thinking are reviewed and then summaries of theorists and their work that directly relate to organizational change and reform are provided. The theorists reviewed here write about leadership and change in business or industrial organizations rather than in higher-educational institutions. The assumption is that their findings are “organizational neutral.” In other words, the methodology, recommendations, and processes that these theorists propose should be applicable in any organization, not just in corporations or private businesses. This is an important distinction and one that must be examined carefully. Kezar (2001) asserts that leadership models, particularly change models, should not be applied to every situation, with the expectation that these will cause desired results. Additionally, because the structures and cultures of colleges and universities are unique in many respects, it may be misleading to assume that leadership theories intended for business can be effectively utilized. Mestenhauser and Ellingboe (2005) note that business and

higher education “... have little in common except the resemblance of similarity” (p. 40). Birnbaum (1988) argues that businesses do not have tenured faculty members, do not adhere to the principle of academic freedom, and have no alumni. Because of this, one should exercise caution when applying leadership theories derived from business settings. Therefore, while it is important to review these leadership theories, their applicability in implementing campus internationalization may be limited.

General Leadership Theories

According to Nahavandi (2011), Northouse (2009), Bass (1990), and Mestenhauser and Ellingboe (2005), leadership has traditionally been broken into four groups of theories: (a) the “trait” approach, which focuses on inherent characteristics of leaders; (b) the “skills” approach; (c) the style approach; and (d) the “situational” and “contingency” approaches, which involve interactions between leaders and followers. Northouse (2009) writes that the trait approach is one of the first theories in which researchers focus on leadership and has been associated with the work of Stogdill (1948), Mann (1959), and Lord, De Vader, and Alliger (1986), and more recently the work of Goleman (1998, 2006). These researchers propose that leadership is an intrinsic factor related to intelligence, disposition, and personality. The emphasis is not on the actions of a leader, or on the relationship between leader and follower, but instead on the leader’s attributes. Northouse (2009) writes that there are three weaknesses to this approach: (a) it is almost impossible to isolate a distinct set of personality traits that one can correlate

with successful leadership, (b) it does not take situations into account, and (c) personality traits lend themselves to subjective interpretation and may be difficult to extrapolate successful traits because of the complex and often contradictory nature of human personalities. Nonetheless, Mestenhauser, and Ellingboe (2005) note that the traits approach is still actively used. Reading announcements of job vacancies, one often finds listings of desirable traits for potential hires.

Another leader-centric school of thought is the skills approach. Researchers in this area include Katz (1955) and Mumford, Zaccaro, Harding, Jacobs and Fleishman (2000). Nahavandi (2011) notes that the skills of leaders are considerably clearer and more conclusive than leadership traits. Nahavandi divides skills into three categories: technical skills, interpersonal skills, and conceptual skills. Mumford, Zaccaro, Harding, et al. (2000) also include problem-solving skills, social judgment skills, and general knowledge. Similar to the traits approach, there seems to be little research linking specific skills to leadership effectiveness (Northouse, 2009). The skills approach also tends to mix traits and skills, treating all successful attributes as skills alone (Nahavandi, 2011).

The style approach associated with the research of Blake and Mouton (1964) categorizes leadership in two categories: task and relationship. These are reasonably straightforward concepts. Leaders demonstrating task-orientated behaviors tend to focus more on results and process, and less on people. Those that are relationship-orientated tend to focus on personnel, good working conditions, trust, and social relations (Northouse, 2009). In 1964, Blake and Mouton

developed an instrument that plots scores on a grid with two intersecting axes based on task and relationship styles. From this, they differentiated five possible leadership styles that help illuminate strengths and weaknesses of individual leaders (Mestenhauser & Ellingboe, 2005). Northouse (2009) notes that this approach was the first to break from the trait approach and consider leadership as a style that could be enhanced through reflection and adaption to different situations. Again, like other approaches outlined above, the style approach is often criticized because there is no evidence linking particular styles of individuals to corresponding performance in these areas (Northouse, 2009). Additionally, with something as complex as leadership, it seems a bit reductionist to simply identify two styles on which to focus. There are multiple styles that leaders may exhibit.

The last group includes situational and contingency approaches. These include a number of theories, but they all involve interactions between leaders and followers. Include in this group is the path-goal theory, leader-member exchange theory, and transformative leadership (Mestenhauser & Ellingboe, 2005). In general, these theories run a continuum of being more leader-focused to more interaction-focused. For example, with the situational approach, researchers argue that leaders should change their approach to fit the situation and what people need. With this theory, the focus is more on the leader and less on the interaction (Blanchard, Zigarmi & Nelson, 1993). Advocates of the leader-member exchange theory, on the other hand, argue that successful leadership is a product of the

relationship between leaders and followers, not just a leader's actions or decisions (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1991).

Bass (1998) reminds us that successful leadership is both relational and a result of the leader's style, values, and actions. Bass believes that it is helpful if a leader is charismatic. He defines charismatic leadership qualities as being "honest, persistent and determined," as well as being "admired, respected and trusted by followers" (p. 5). But this is not enough. A leader must also behave in ways that inspire others. Leaders also need to stimulate the intellects of followers and be open to mistakes individuals make. Finally, leaders must also pay attention to followers' individual needs. Bass asserts that put together, these aspects will transform the leader and followers from people who work for individual gain to individuals who work to promote a cause or action greater than themselves. It is interesting that Bass's research seems to come full circle, including leadership traits, styles, interactions, and relationships with followers as factors that lead to effective leadership. While this approach is comprehensive in scope because it includes so many varying and identifiable factors, it may again be difficult to prove which factors lead to particular results.

Burns (1978) first brought the concept of transformational leadership to the attention of many. He defines leadership as an interaction where "persons with certain motives" use resources to "arouse, engage, and satisfy the motives of followers" (p. 18). In his opinion, leadership can be transactional and transformational. Transactional leadership, in its simplest form, is a type of quid

pro quo. In this form, leaders mobilize resources such as raises or bonus to entice followers to their goals or demands. But Burns is quick to point out that control of things, such as resources or money, is not leadership. In this form, leaders treat people as “things” to be manipulated and controlled. In his opinion, leadership must go beyond that and take the followers’ needs and goals into account. It is the relationship between the leader and the followers, as well as the moral purpose, which provides inspiration and ultimately transformation.

Hofstede (2001) demonstrates that not only do leaders have to adjust approaches to fit situational aspects, they also need to understand and adjust to the influence of culture. In surveying data from a large number of employees in multiple countries within one multinational corporation, Hofstede found that responses to questions regarding leadership were significantly influenced by the nation in which the office was located. He identified four major differences that were influenced by culture: (a) social inequity and the relationship of people to authority, (b) the amount of group or individual focus, (c) the implications of gender, and (d) ways of dealing with ambiguity. Hofstede notes that even though organizations may have a culture, or “way of doing things,” the influence of national or regional culture seems to supersede the organizational culture.

The GLOBE study, conducted by House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman, and Gupta (2004), surveyed how people from multiple countries viewed leadership. The goal of the study was to find out which leadership traits were regarded as positive or negative in particular cultures and then understand how culture

influences different approaches to leadership. To do this, they created nine dimensions of culture, including those proposed by Hofstede, but also included additional aspects like assertiveness, future orientation, performance orientation, and humane orientation. In gathering data from 62 countries, they clustered them into 10 groups based on cultural similarities. The results are interesting, albeit somewhat predictable, with Europeans and Americans, in general, being more future orientated, more performance orientated, and more individualistic. Asians, Eastern Europeans, and Latin Americans tend to be more group orientated. The implications of this study reinforce the fact that leadership theories that typically come out of American and European research institutions are not universal, as once assumed. They may be applicable only in their culture of origin, as well as in the type of organization studied.

Change Leadership Theories

In the last 15 years, one of the most widely read authors on leading change has been John Kotter. He argues that change initiatives are prone to fail, especially if they are complex in nature and require institutional-wide implementation (Kotter, 1996; Kotter & Cohen, 2002). This is because individuals, as well as the culture of an institution, are often resistant to change. Kotter believes that in a rapidly changing world, organizations must change if they are to survive and be relevant. Kotter develops an eight-stage process to successfully lead change that includes coalition building, communication, employee empowerment, creation of short-term wins, and alteration of the culture of an organization to make change

permanent. He believes that constant change is an issue that organizations must confront. Those that thrive will be the ones where change is successfully led and managed. In Kotter's opinion, leaders at contemporary organizations will need to develop themselves as lifelong learners if they are to be successful as leaders in a complex and fast-moving environment. Although light on the theoretical aspects of leadership, Kotter's model directly relates to the implementation of internationalization as it too requires comprehensive and systematic change to be successful.

Whereas Kotter emphasizes the steps and process of leading change, Fullan (2001) describes the attributes, knowledge, and actions of leaders in managing change. In Fullan's view, effective leaders often exhibit the personal characteristics of "energy-enthusiasm-hopefulness" (p. 7). They also need to have a moral purpose that can be articulated to others convincingly. In Fullan's view, a moral purpose can be more useful than rewards in motivating others. This is similar to Bass's (1998) assertion that transformational leadership is more effective than transactional leadership in most cases. Taking a cue from the leader-member exchange theory (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1991), Fullan also places a strong emphasis on personal relationships as a keystone to gain commitment from others.

In addition to particular personality traits and the importance of relationships, Fullan also believes that a leader's role is to help others make sense of information and understand change. In the information age, data are ubiquitous, dense, and difficult to apply in context. It is a leader's role to clarify, focus, and

help others apply information to their own situations. Additionally, in order for change to take place, people's assumptions must be challenged if they are to accept something new and untested. Fullan notes that this process is "disturbing" to most people and recommends that leaders help guide followers to create "creative ideas" and "novel solutions" (p. 107) to address the new set of circumstances that they face.

Senge (1990) offers a method for conceptualizing organizations that enables leaders to understand how to change them. Whereas Kotter assumes that all organizations are more or less similar and that his eight-step process will presumably work in any situation, Senge focuses instead on the ways that individuals and groups think about work. Senge believes that we all go about our work with particular "mental models" of how things function. These are unspoken and often unconscious assumptions that permeate organizations and the individuals who work in them. These are the unexamined assumptions about how "the world works" or "images that limit us to familiar ways of thinking and acting" (p. 174). The issue with this, according to Senge, is that these mental models often limit our understanding of how our actions and decisions affect other people or processes. Most people understand only the immediate impact that an action has on others. The secondary and tertiary influences of the action go unnoticed, and, if noticed, are not understood. Additionally, mental modes lock us into certain patterns of thinking, making us resistant to change because they require us to challenge fundamental notions of how things work.

Senge (1990) considers the creation of a “shared vision” to be the key for organizational change. A shared vision starts with a leader’s personal vision, but in order for it to have an impact, it is brought to others, and their personal visions are incorporated into it. This process brings people’s mental models into the open, allowing for examination. Senge asserts that the process brings “commitment, enrollment or compliance” (p. 219) of the leader’s vision. People who are committed believe in the vision as their own, but this is the exception, according to Senge. In his opinion, most people simply comply, which he argues is enough to enable organizational change to take place.

Schein (2010) offers a similar conception of organization and change, but uses the term “culture” instead of mental models. Both terms seem to be somewhat interchangeable, but Schein provides a more in-depth definition and a number of categorical descriptions from a history of literature on the subject. His definition is much more active and dynamic than Senge’s. He defines culture as:

a pattern of shared basic assumptions that was learned by a group as it solved its problems of external adaption and internal integration, that has worked well enough to be considered valid and, therefore, to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think, and feel in relation to those problems (p. 17).

In other words, culture comes from groups that work through problems and devise solutions. As these solutions or ideas become reinforced through success, they

eventually create the backbone of what is “right” and “proper” to do, think, and feel.

Leading change, according to Schein (2010), means that a leader must intervene to change and create culture. Change takes place when a leader’s vision is imposed on others and compliance is achieved. This sounds easy, but Schein suggests that there are significant risks. If the vision leads to continued success, it will eventually become a shared vision, and the group members will concede that the leader “had it right.” Notice here that there is less emphasis on dialog, as with Senge, and more emphasis on results and gratification. As success continues, eventually the vision becomes a subconscious, nonnegotiable assumption about the “way things are done around here.” But if the vision and beliefs of the leader do not bring about success and the group fails, they will seek another leader and revert to established ways of thinking and behaving.

Bolman and Deal (2008) take a more integrative approach to leadership and change, and propose that it is often a leader’s inability to see problems from multiple frameworks that leads to failure. They propose four frameworks for dealing with organizational problems and opportunities: (a) the structural frame, (b) the human resource frame, (c) the political frame, and (d) the symbolic frame. The structural frame focuses on organizational structures and hierarchy. The strategy in this frame is to alter these structures to achieve results. The human resource frame focuses on the needs of people and aligning their needs with the goals of the organization. The political frame focuses on organizational politics. In

this frame manipulation is the means to achieve one's goals. Finally, the symbolic frame focuses on the symbolic and cultural dynamics that occur in organizations.

Bolman and Deal (2008) argue that effective leaders must use multiple frameworks simultaneously to solve complex and ambiguous issues that plague organizations. Leadership has more to do with situations than personality traits, although they freely admit that certain traits are often found among effective leaders. Leaders must use a complete toolkit outlined in their four frameworks to effectively respond to specific situations.

In writing about organizational change, Bolman and Deal combine Kotter's eight-stage process with their four frameworks. This provides both an interesting model for conceptualizing change within an organization and a straightforward method for applying it. For example, Kotter suggests in his first stage that in order for a change initiative to be considered, a sense of urgency needs to be created. In other words, if things are going well, people will wonder why change is necessary. Bolman and Deal take this concept and add the perspective of the four frames. For example, in order for change to occur, it requires changing structures (Structural Frame), soliciting and involving people (Human Resource Frame), networking and engaging the power base (Political Frame), and telling compelling stories (Symbolic Frame). Bolman and Deal continue this through the remaining stages of Kotter's change process, creating a matrix of perspectives and actions to outline the complex process of organizational change.

As mentioned earlier, the organizational culture and structure of higher educations are considerably different from those in business and industry. Additionally, Kezar (2001) notes that cultures and operations between departments or colleges within a higher education institution may also be unique, independent, and often contradictory with one another. For example, administrators tend to favor process, while faculty members may stress logic, consistency, perspective, and interpretation, depending on their fields. There are, of course, some shared values, but generally various academic and administrative areas tend to have their own social constructs and ways of approaching issues. Kezar suggests that, because of this, “change will be slow and difficult, and perhaps a political process in which different values systems represent different interest groups” (p. 68).

With this understanding, the assumed universal applicability of the leadership and change models articulated by Kotter (1996), Senge (1990), Schein (2010), and Bolman and Deal (2008) are not sufficient to provide a robust understanding for change in higher education institutions. Many of these models assume that the organization has a somewhat unified culture, which is not the case for higher education institutions in Kezar’s opinion. For example, the four-frame model put forth by Bolman and Deal most likely could not be applied to a higher education institution as a single overriding model of understanding because the cultures in various schools or departments may have completely divergent belief systems, codes of conduct, personnel structures, and symbolic elements.

With this in mind, it is imperative that leadership and change models take into account the specific organization structures of higher education institutions to be effective. At best, the theories reviewed above have components that apply to higher education institutions. But taken individually, these theories are incomplete and provide only a limited perspective of what is needed to lead change. At worst, some of the theories may not apply at all and prove detrimental if implemented at a university or college.

Organizational Change Models

In this section, some of the basic models of organizational change are discussed. Whereas leading change focuses on the actions leaders undertake to influence organizational change, change models provide a framework for conceptualizing the ways in which organizations evolve. Van de Ven and Poole (1995) argue that change models in social and natural science disciplines can be used to distinguish four basic “ideal types” to describe organizational change: life cycle, evolution, dialectic, and teleology.

The first ideal type, life cycle, is modeled on change progressions that one often finds in nature such as the metamorphosis of a caterpillar to a butterfly. Here events follow a “linear and irreversible sequence of proscribed changes” (p. 514). These sequences are preprogrammed and follow a rule or progression regulated by “nature, logic or institutions” (p. 514). This is often used to describe the development of business sectors. For example, many industries go through a process of startup, consolidation, maturity and finally decline. According to van de

Ven and Poole, life cycle is one of the most common explanations of organizational change in business management literature.

The second ideal type from the natural sciences is evolution. Unlike life cycle, it does not follow a prescribed path. Instead it is formed by competition and survival of the fittest. It is assumed that resources are scarce and development comes about “through a continuous cycle of variation, selection and retention” (van de Ven & Poole, 1995, p. 518). In other words, because of competition, particular ideas, organization structures or strategies survive while others do not. As a result of their success, they become the selected way of doing things and are reinforced and expanded as they continue to succeed.

The third ideal type, dialectic, is rooted in the process of conflict and struggle. It assumes that organizations exist in a pluralistic world of contradictory values, ideas and events. As opposing ideas meet, which is assumed to happen in this type of environment, there is a conflict that ultimately resolves in a synthesis (van de Ven and Poole, 1995). This process, like evolution, is recurrent. It does not happen in a singular manner, but as a “discontinuous sequence of confrontation, conflict and synthesis between contradictory values or events” (p. 514).

The fourth and final ideal type is teleological. This ideal type describes change as a process of “goal setting, implementation and adaption due to unforeseen circumstances” (p. 514). Here change comes about not through conflict but through planning involving multiple stakeholders in consensus and cooperation to achieve its goals. The change motor involves envisioning an end goal (or set of

goals) that takes place before any action is taken. The assumption here is that organizations are both purposeful and adaptive. Unlike life-cycle, teleology does not follow a prescribed set of sequenced changes. It instead follows whatever plan is created and implemented. According van de Ven and Poole (1995), this is a common form of change and one often found in most modern organizations.

Simsek and Seashore Louis (1994) provide another model of change based on the idea of paradigm shift. Simsek and Seashore Louis define a paradigm as a “prevalent view of reality shared by members of the organization” (p. 671). This defines the worldview of these members and influences the creation of structures, strategy, culture, leadership, and accomplishment. According to this theory, when there are technology breakthroughs or environmental changes, the view of reality held by members of the organization may change because the differences between their views and the external reality become increasingly contrasted. This model follows six steps outlining this process: The first is called “normalcy.” During this time a particular paradigm is in operation and is not questioned by members. The second step called “confronting anomalies” results from a conflict or disconnect between internal ways to doing things and the external environment. If this takes place over time, it may eventually lead to the third stage called “crisis.” The fourth stage happens when the members of an organization realize that there is a crisis and begin to look for new paradigms of operation either from their own sector or from other types of organizations. Selection of a new way of operating is the fifth step. Simsek and Seashore Louis emphasize the political struggle that takes place

in selecting a new, untested paradigm, with those in power typically having the final say. Once this happens, the final, sixth step called “renewed normalcy” follows in which the new structures are solidified.

In addition to the types of change described above, there is also the tempo of change to consider. Weick and Quinn (1999) write that there are two basic “genres” called “episodic” and “continuous” which describe the rate of change in organizations. Episodic change happens in dramatic episodes responding to external forces that require short-term adaptation. Weick and Quinn describe this process as “unfreezing” current ways of thinking and processes, then transitioning to a new conception of what an organization could be and then “refreezing” it to make the changes permanent and congruent with new expectations and norms. Continuous change, on the other hand, is similar to Senge’s (1990) definition of a “learning organization.” In this type of organization individuals or teams are empowered to make changes on a regular basis in reaction to problems or as potential opportunities arise. These small changes eventually add up to an organization that is highly adaptable and one that completely transforms over time.

Leadership and Change in Higher Education

In this section the literature covering leadership and change in higher education institutions is reviewed. Again, the important issue is to understand how change takes place in colleges and universities and to uncover, from a leadership perspective, factors that influence change in these institutions. As mentioned earlier, one cannot assume that change models originating in business are

applicable in higher education. But this brings up the question of why this is the case. What are the factors that make higher education institutions unique and what strategies or methods are effective at enabling them to change?

Again, Kezar (2001) provides a concise but broad analysis of change in higher education institutions. In her opinion, the factors that are important to consider are broken down into three categories: structural, cultural, and strategic. Kezar argues that higher education institutions, like other mission-driven organizations, must implement a measured approach to change because of the need for continuity and to maintain a “stable pattern of relationships” which are important for their survival (p. 60). Radical or abrupt change based on incongruity with the external environment “can threaten an organization’s core mission, expertise, and basic character and identity” (p. 60).

Kezar asserts that one of the structures that inhibit colleges and universities from making radical change is their interdependence to other organizations. For example, all institutions must comply with accreditation standards that may contradict an institution’s change agenda. The focus of accreditation is often on accountability and common standards – factors that often stymie innovation initiatives. Additionally, various disciplines within higher education are often interdependent on communities and associations that are national or international in scope. These inter-institutional organizations affiliated with professional or academic groups influence and shape change at various levels in the institution.

Kezar also mentions unions and foundations as additional organizations that shape and influence change in colleges and universities.

Because of the interdependence of higher education institutions on external institutions, internal structuring tends to be loose. Kezar believes that this results in internal systems that are uncoordinated because both departments and workers in these departments have a high degree of specialization. The result is low tolerance for organized change dictated outside of the unit or department. Kezar reminds us that change initiatives in higher education are diffuse, improvisational and designed to improve departmental rather than institutional performance.

Teleological change, as defined by van de Ven and Poole (1995), is often difficult or impossible in this environment.

Culturally, higher education institutions are also unique in several aspects, according to Kezar. Value systems among various departments within institutions are diverse and contradictory, sometimes dramatically. Power and authority are based on identification with a group and expertise in a particular field rather than on hierarchy. Decision-making is also indirect because of a collegial culture, unclear chain of command, unclear goals, and lack of executive authority. Kezar believes that this adds up to an organization that typically resists long-term, institutional-wide planning stemming from the top. Change is often continuous and isolated, and happens at the ground levels of the organization.

Whereas Kezar discusses the factors that influence and shape change in higher education institutions, Fullan and Scott (2009) take the perspective of the

college leader and describe how to implement change. In line with Kezar, Fullan and Scott also argue against implementing wholesale changes. They believe that leaders should try to reposition the strengths of the organization to achieve reform. The change emphasis they recommend is to implement incremental changes and then learn from their successes or failures. There is also an emphasis on decision making through evidence-based quality tracking and improvement. The chapter on turnaround leadership, or change leadership, relies heavily on Goleman's theory of emotional leadership but also mixes in theories of transactional and goal-path theories, as well as those from appreciative inquiry. Like Kezar, Fullan and Scott emphasize continuous rather than episodic change. However, Fullan and Scott assume that teleological change is both plausible and necessary in higher education institutions, while Kezar is more skeptical about the success of planned change from senior administrators.

Green (1988) echoes Kezar's assumption that higher education institutions have unique structures and cultures that leaders need to understand to be effective. In Green's opinion, higher education administrators are often not valued and have limited power and influence. Decisions typically require approval from a variety of stakeholders at multiple organization levels with differing agendas. Additionally, goals in higher education tend to be ambiguous with no clear "bottom line" when it comes to metrics. Finally, with increased regulation and decreased funding, leaders often are required to spend the majority of their time and efforts on managerial

tasks like regulation compliance, fundraising and political lobbying, and less on strategic leadership activities.

For leaders to be effective in higher education settings, Green recommends a focus on five important tasks: The first is for leaders to understand and use the symbolic nature of their positions. Presidents and other executives are “living symbols” and embody the “values and aspirations” of a campus community (pp. 38–39). This can lead to the development and accomplishment of shared goals and possibly transformational change, which is the second important task. The third task for leaders in higher education is to build and manage diverse coalitions. They need to create and lead effective teams. Leaders that prefer to work “solo” will not be effective, in Green’s opinion. The fourth task, according to Green, is for effective leaders to develop broad, interdisciplinary and deep knowledge of higher education processes, structures, trends and issues. In the final and fifth task they must finally be able to understand future implications of decisions and trends and be able to come up with creative solutions to these issues.

Birnbaum (1988) applies a systems approach to explain the culture and structures of universities and colleges, and uses this analysis to make recommendations for leading and managing in these environments. Like Kezar (2001) and Green (1988), Birnbaum characterizes higher education institutions as having unclear and unquantifiable goals, a loose system of governance, multiple stakeholders often with conflicting agendas, limited executive power and influence, and a propensity, in general, to resist reform and change. In comparing

the management of higher education institution to that of businesses, Birnbaum asserts that “traditional management theories cannot be applied to educational institutions without carefully considering whether they will work well in that unique academic setting” (p. 28). As stated earlier, this reinforces the argument that leadership and change theories describing businesses and industry are not necessarily applicable to higher education institutions.

Birnbaum characterizes higher education institutions as being “cybernetic” and makes recommendations for leaders and managers based on this analysis. He defines cybernetic as vertical and horizontal feedback loops that control departments and offices. These loops consist of structural controls as well as social controls. Structural controls are things like department budgets that limit what departments can and cannot do. Social controls are implicit parameters placed on departments through the interaction of groups or individuals. For example, if alumni complain about the lack of professional training for careers after graduation, administrators and faculty will review the curriculum and make changes to incorporate professional learning. These controls have a profound effect on higher education institutions, according to Birnbaum. They, in effect, tightly regulate, both positively and negatively, the behaviors, policies, and processes of departments. These controls may also be contradictory between departments and highly fragmented because of the isolated nature of most operating functions and subunits in a college or university. Administrators in various departments often

make decisions based on historical precedence and are typically unaware of how these decisions affect other parts of the institution.

Because of the multiple feedback loops within cybernetic organizations, implementing change, in Birnbaum's opinion, is difficult. He argues for both transactional and transformational leadership to implement change, but believes that the opportunity for transformational leadership is somewhat rare in higher education institutions; therefore the only possibility to influence individuals is through "transactions" such as salary adjustments, promotions, and recognition. Transformational leadership is possible in times of crisis or if an institution is out of compliance with its peers or regulators. In his opinion, one of the biggest mistakes that a college president can make is to not detect problems early enough to take necessary action rather than advocate for reform and far-reaching change.

Levine (1980) examines the reasons why change initiatives fail after implementation in higher education institutions. This is an important consideration because often the emphasis in change literature is around the process of implementing change and not in examining what happens afterwards. In Levine's view, there are two main reasons for change initiative to fail in higher education. The first is that the change is not profitable. Profitability is defined by Levine rather broadly and extends beyond simple return on investment. His definition is that profitability is the "degree to which an innovation satisfies the organizational, group, or personal needs of the host" (p. 158). In other words, profitability is the degree to which a change initiative works at solving an issue for an individual or

department to make work better or easier. It could mean, for example, improved student services or student outcomes. In his view, change initiatives are often terminated because they do not properly solve a problem or make something better.

The other reason why change fails to take hold, according to Levine, is because they are not compatible with the values and beliefs of the institution. Again, like profitability, Levine is general in defining compatibility here. Norms are the “commonly prescribed guides to conduct in the organization” (p. 11). Values are common beliefs and sentiments. Goals reflect the purpose or mission of the organization. This is somewhat similar to Schein’s (2010) “Levels of culture” with the exception of the layer Schein calls “artifacts.” Levine lumps this layer in with goals and values. Levine believes that compatibility has nothing to do with the success of an initiative in solving a problem. It instead “indicates the degree to which an innovation is consistent with the norms, values and goals of the organization” (p. 19). In Levine’s view, education organizations must maintain their personality and have established boundaries to protect the status quo of its members. Change initiatives that violate these areas will be isolated from the rest of the organization, “resocialized” and made compatible, or completely terminated.

Eckel and Kezar (2003) provide a similar typology of change and propose a model where change initiatives are categorized into four quadrants with the *x*-axis being depth and the *y*-axis being pervasiveness. The type of change that has the least amount of pervasiveness and depth they call “adjustment.” This is defined as

simply modifications or extensions to accepted practices and policies. These do not lead to additional changes and are typically isolated in a particular department or office. This is a common typology of change that happens at most institutions. The second type of change is isolated change. Here the depth of change is significant but the change is again limited to one office or department. Depth, as defined by Eckel and Kezar, is a “shift in values and assumptions that underlie the ‘normal’ way of operating” (p. 32). Far-reaching change is the third quadrant, and in this scenario change is widespread but not deep. In this case values, assumptions and practices do not change. The fourth and final quadrant is transformational change. Here the change is far reaching altering the attitudes and beliefs of individuals across the organization.

Eckel and Kezar also provide a set of performance indicators to demonstrate transformative change in a college or university. In terms of structures they list changes to curriculum, pedagogies, outcomes and assessments, policies, budgets, departments, and decision-making. In terms of attitudes they list changes in interactions, language, types of conversations, established arguments, and relationships with stakeholders. Placing these changes, especially the attitudinal evidence next to Paige’s (2005) internationalization performance indicators is an effective way for an institution to measure the pervasiveness and depth of an internationalization change effort. For example, Paige lists internationalization of the faculty and curriculum as two important components of an internationalized institution. These indicators, along with Eckel and Kezar’s change evidence,

allows one see changes in the way faculty interact with others in the institution; changes in the conversations between faculty and faculty, and faculty and students; new learning outcomes and assessments; and new faculty relationships with international organizations and individuals.

Eckel and Kezar's recommendations for leading change take into account the unique structural and cultural issues of higher education institutions that Green and Kezar describe. Similar to Schein (2010) and Senge (1990), Eckel and Kezar advocate changing beliefs and culture before structural change can take place. In other words, the culture and underlying collective beliefs need to be altered before one can attempt to change personnel, budgets, and other tangible elements. They recommend collaboration, a flexible vision, investment in staff development, and "taking visible action" (p. 81). This would include investments in particular visible structures, like building an international student center, for example, or a series of retreats or conferences. In their opinion, change in higher education institutions is slow and long-term. It also requires buy-in from a large number of stakeholders, a motivating vision, incentives and persuasion, and effective communication.

Leadership and Campus Internationalization

In this section the three strands of the literature review consisting of leadership, institutional change and internationalization come together. Because internationalization is a complex, multi-departmental, and integrative process (Mestenhauser, 1998), the literature on leading internationalization is often presented from the perspective of an individual position or department. For

example, Thullen, Heyl, and Brownell (2002) take the perspective of the chief internationalization officer as the change agent in their study. Childress (2010), on the other hand, focuses on the process of engaging faculty in the internationalization process. While taking a singular perspective makes sense from a researcher's point of view, in terms of actually implementing an internationalization initiative, it can have significant limitations. As presented earlier, higher education institutions are loosely organized with various departments working independently. Therefore, a single perspective on internationalization may lead to internationalization initiatives that are isolated and fragmented.

Mestenhauser and Ellingboe (2005) write that one of the central conundrums of leading an internationalization effort is that typically only international education practitioners understand the depth and complexity of international education, but these individuals do not have the access, knowledge, or influence to carry the initiative across departmental boundaries. Those that do have the authority and broad access often do not have the knowledge and perspective required to move international learning beyond simplistic formulations affecting only a small percentage of students.

The resistance factors found in higher education institutions that inhibit internationalization are multifaceted and the leadership requirements needed to overcome these issues are intense, according to Mestenhauser (2000). In his view, the first step in leading a change initiative is to confront the current situation. He

lists 20 barriers that inhibit internationalization which mostly correspond to the fragmented nature of most international education programs. The dominant approach to internationalization, in his view, is to plug in international additives such as adding more study-abroad opportunities, more international students on campus, or increased services for international scholars and students. He believes that this does not address the integrative nature of international learning. There is also a general lack of understanding and definition of internationalization by most administrators and faculty. As mentioned earlier, Mestenhauser also mentions a number of structural elements endemic to higher education. These include the vertical and siloed nature of various departments; the acknowledged “right” of academic freedom for faculty to research and teach how and what they desire; and a general lack of incentives and administrative power. Mestenhauser argues that individuals in higher education institutions are generally satisfied with the status quo, ethnocentric in their outlook, and resist challenging established assumptions, even in light of conflicting information.

Overall, the 20 inhibitors of international education articulated by Mestenhauser are so widespread and complex it seems that internationalization as a campus-wide, integrated, intercultural education experience may be impossible, at least at established institutions in the United States. From his viewpoint, the president and other administrative executives need to persuade others to embrace internationalization as “deans say they respond to presidential initiatives more than those that come from below” (p. 55). But, although Mestenhauser provides a

number of good ideas for *what* administrators can do to advance internationalization, he is unfortunately and uncharacteristically vague in articulating *how* they should accomplish this. He notes that a change of reference is needed and mentions transactional and transformational leadership as possibilities, but does not include specifics on how leaders can carry these out.

In some ways Mestenhauser and Ellingboe (2005) address the issue of how to lead an internationalization effort, but they also fail to provide specifics on how to accomplish institutional change. They posit that in order for leaders to implement internationalization they must have knowledge of the change process, knowledge of international education, and leadership knowledge. They recommend that because of the vertical nature of higher education institutions, leaders need to also understand the various layers of higher education institutions and how to work with the inherent logic of each of these layers. There is also reference to the requirement of a systems approach (Senge, 1990) to understand and apply the needed changes to the “mental models” and the complex nature of international education. Mestenhauser and Ellingboe provide an effective and brief summary of various leadership theories and mention that path-goal, situation, contingency, and transformational leadership may be applied to international education. But they argue that these theories are too Western and business focused to be truly effective. Overall, the short summary of leading internationalization change again provides information about what leaders need to know to be effective

and what integrated international education requires, but it still falls short on articulating how leaders should bring a change effort to fruition.

Ellingboe (1998) provides information about what administrators, deans and faculty can do to advance an internationalization effort. This includes leadership “products” such as a mission statement, a strategic plan that includes language about internationalization and an internationalization committee to research and oversee the initiative. Ellingboe also recommends regular and persuasive communication with all college units, providing incentives to reward faculty to conduct international research and teaching, and fundraising for international programs as important components. She also provides some tactics for figuring out how to move an initiative throughout the institution. This includes practical advice such as finding and using key allies in various departments interested in international education to help persuade others to join the cause, as well as using external consortia and linkages with other institutions.

These recommendations follow similar ones provided by Kotter (1996). Kotter also recommends articulating a compelling vision to stakeholders, forming a change committee and establishing early successes as they happen. Kotter takes the process a few steps further than Ellingboe, but both fail to clearly articulate one of the most important aspects in a change initiative which is how to enable people to both change what they do, but also change how they think. Senge (1990) writes that new structures alone do not bring about organizational change. Sustainable change requires individuals to change mental modes as well.

In contrast, Bartell (2003) examines how the culture of a university affects the way in which leaders respond to the challenges and opportunities of internationalization. In his study, he correlates how institutional culture influences the decisions and policies of leaders in reaction to globalization. As defined by Bartell, culture is the “values and beliefs of those associated with the universities (including administrators, faculty, students, board members and support staff), developed in a historical process and conveyed by use of language and symbols” (p. 54). This is manifested through “stories, special language and norms that emerge from individual and organizational behavior” (p. 54). He concludes that universities with a strong culture that is more outward looking are more open to embracing campus internationalization. Institutions with weak cultures that are more inward-focused make only limited or token efforts toward internationalization. Strength of culture is defined as “shared underlying values, assumptions, meanings and understandings” (p. 55). In his view institutions with strong cultures do not possess “group think,” but instead allow for debate and openness of new ideas.

Burnett and Huisman (2009) make a similar conclusion. In a case study of four Canadian universities, they analyze the how organizational culture influences the decisions and policies in reaction to globalization, especially as it relates to international student recruitment. They look at culture from the perspective of operational controls as well as emphasis on policy and strategy. In some universities senior managers control most, if not all, of the activities of the

enterprise. In other institutions managers may give considerable freedom to individuals or departments allowing them to set their own policies and controls. Internationalization, in their opinion, can be either systematic or completely ad hoc in its implementation. They conclude that universities that have tighter policies and are more systematic in implementing internationalization will be more successful in their efforts.

In their view, the organizational culture is not static. Leaders can influence the culture of their institutions. Unfortunately they do not provide actual recommendations for culture change. Instead they focus on structural and tactical elements to advance internationalization. For example, they recommend that leaders adopt “international” as part of the mission statement, create a strategy to increase the mobility of faculty and students, and create an internationalized curriculum. While these are important structural items, alone they do not dramatically change the culture of a college or university.

Childress (2010) asserts that faculty involvement is critical in the success of an internationalization initiative. Faculty oversee the teaching, research, and service missions of higher education institutions. They also oversee the curricula and must approve any changes to it. If faculty members have not accepted the concept of internationalization, it will exist only as an administrative service and not be integrated into the academic areas of an institution.

With this in mind, Childress discusses the factors influencing faculty resistance toward internationalization and how leaders can influence them. In her

opinion, faculty often reject internationalization because of a lack of financial resources to retool their teaching, as well as a lack of funding for training. Faculty are also often focused on their subject areas which may make internationalization less of a priority, depending on the division. Finally, international activities may not be in alignment with tenure and promotion practices. If faculty are expected to devote time and effort to international teaching and research, they need to be rewarded through tenure and promotion for these activities. Childress also mentions personal reasons for faculty to reject internationalization including a lack of international exposure leading to more ethnocentric viewpoints in regard to knowledge, teaching, and learning.

Childress recommends that leaders undertake a combination of structural and transactional actions to engage faculty in international activities: (a) add international scholarship and service to tenure and promotion policies, and financial incentives for faculty to “integrate international perspectives into their teaching, research, and service” (p. 35); (b) require international experience in hiring decisions; (c) develop and promote international training for faculty to understand the complex nature of international learning and to learn how to integrate international and intercultural perspectives into their teaching and curricula; and (d) connect departmental activities with campus-wide strategic plans.

Like Childress, Harari (1992) believes that faculty development and curricular reform are the key elements in implementing internationalization, and

similar to Mestenhauser, he advocates an integrative approach that includes both structural changes and changes to the values and outlook of individuals in an organization. While he acknowledges that the key to change is ultimately “in the hands of the faculty” (p. 73), administrative leadership is necessary to set a tone, orchestrate the consensus-building process, shape and designate priorities as well as allocate resources, and generate support for achieving goals. He persuades administrators to seek out “change agents” among the faculty to assist the change efforts and provides a few compelling examples of how these partnerships brought about successful internationalization changes.

Thullen, Heyl, and Brownell (2002) provide a short but broad multi-step change process for chief international education administrators to lead an internationalization change process. This is one of the few writings where all facets of organizational change are addressed. To understand the complexities of an organization they use Bolman and Deal’s (2008) four frames of reference. They also briefly cover the major theories of leadership as well as provide a visioning process for leading a change effort. Finally, they give sound advice for working with various constituencies and dealing with opposition. Again, while this book is brief, it covers most, if not all, of the major processes and issues that leaders face when implementing internationalization.

Referencing Levine’s theory of outcomes of innovation, van der Wende (1999), applies it creatively to leading internationalization. Again, Levine demonstrates that most innovations fail and are either isolated, terminated,

changed, or integrated into the regular workings of an organization. The reasons for an innovation to be successfully adopted have to do with what Levine calls compatibility and profitability. Van der Wende suggests that in order for an internationalization effort to be integrated or “diffused,” it must be congruent with the general goals of an institution. In his opinion internationalization officers need to find dialogs and partnerships within the organization and then align the internationalization efforts with other ongoing, strategic efforts at an institution. Finally, van der Wende believes that internationalization must be attached to outcomes and quality assurance in order for it to be perceived at “profitable” to the institution.

Green and Olson (2003) provide an outline of the process of leading an internationalization initiative. Unlike many other authors they take the perspective that leadership can take place from a variety positions, including the chief internationalization officer, president, provost, and faculty head. They propose three main activities for leaders to advance internationalization:

1. Create energy and momentum for change. In their opinion energy and excitement along with a compelling argument can have a significant impact.
2. Remove barriers. Here they are somewhat vague, but in general, one can assume that this involves addressing both structural and cultural barriers.
3. Involve people; help them develop new skills and knowledge, and ultimately help them change their attitudes and perceptions about internationalization.

Green and Olson also provide practical advice for finding and allocating resources, and for creating supporting structures. They smartly acknowledge that there are never enough resources in a college or university but nonetheless discuss available funding sources. They also recommend that the campus structures that support internationalization should be coordinated, connected, and coherent. Unconnected support structures are often common on large campuses and can lead to inefficiencies and redundancies. They finally point out that external partnerships, both domestic and international, can be beneficial for advancing an internationalization effort.

One of the few studies focusing on the process of campus internationalization comes from Johnston and Edelstein (1993). This short study profiles 15 colleges and universities and provides short case studies of the internationalization efforts in each. The study is rather vague in how these institutions were selected and mentions a competition funded by the KPMG Peat Marwick Foundation and coordinated through the Association of American Colleges and the American Assembly of Collegiate Schools of Business, but the selection criteria for choosing the institutions is never disclosed. Nonetheless, the short profiles of the institutions illustrate the creation of language-study programs, study-abroad programs, international-student recruitment, and internationalization of the curriculum, and are insightful and interesting, but never discussed in depth. Johnston and Edelstein (1993) conclude by making a series of recommendations on how leaders can successfully internationalize their campuses. This is perhaps

the first study to discuss the factors influencing how colleges and universities internationalize. These recommendations, like the rest of the study, are short and inconclusive. But they are at a minimum a way for one to gain an understanding about the process of campus internationalization from a number of profiled institutions.

Kelleher (1996) provides a more in depth study of the campus-internationalization initiatives at 25 colleges and universities. Unlike Johnston and Edelstein (1993), who provide no selection criteria, Kelleher chooses five areas to determine whether a college or university has a “successful” program of campus internationalization:

1. Possesses a distinctive, perhaps unique, characteristic which sets them apart from similar programs, and this fact is recognized by directors of like programs at other institutions.
2. Attract significant numbers of participants relative to similar programs elsewhere.
3. Have continued for at least five years.
4. Are institutionalized, that is, administered by a unit of the college or university as one of its ongoing non-grant supported programs.
5. Have achieved “takeoff” by producing a spinoff that succeeded. Program takeoff means the density of activity has reached the point where refinements and new initiatives occur as a matter of course. (Kelleher, 1996, p. 5)

The study continues with short profiles of the 25 colleges and universities which describe the campus-internationalization programs from current and historical perspectives, as well as the unique culture or situation of each institution. The challenges that each campus faces in implementing campus internationalization are discussed, and a “lessons learned” section is provided for each profile.

The cases themselves provide interesting, but brief, insight into how a diverse set of institutions implemented campus internationalization. The book also provides an analysis section, similar to Johnston and Edelstein (1993), which provides a summary of the findings and a list of 18 factors which influence campus internationalization. These factors are ranked in order of the number of times they were mentioned by individuals in the case studies. Unfortunately, the descriptions of each of these factors are sometimes vague and contradictory. Nonetheless, this is one of the most complete studies of campus internationalization using case studies.

Overall, other than the studies of Johnston and Edelstein (1993) and Kelleher (1996) few sources exist documenting how an internationalization change initiative is led. Those that do provide case studies typically either focus on structural changes such as Engberg and Green (2002), and Ellingboe (1998), leaving out critical information about changing the culture of an institution, or focus more on a singular aspect of change such as Childress (2010). It is more common in the literature to find works that document the “how to” process of

leading an internationalization change initiative. The most comprehensive of this type of study is Thullen, Heyl and Brownell's (2002) work. Given the importance of leadership to internationalization as noted by Paige (2005), Mestenhauser (2000), Mestenhauser and Ellingboe (2005), Knight (2004) and others, it is surprising that there is a dearth of case studies documenting how internationalization change initiatives are led.

Rationale for Selection of Research Models

There are three theoretical models selected to guide the research process for this dissertation. The first is Knight's internationalization cycle (Knight & de Wit, 1995). This may be the clearest and most comprehensive structure for conceptualizing the internationalization process. Again, Knight and de Wit write that internationalization is not a linear process that results in a final end goal. It is instead a continuous cycle that follows a six-step progression starting with awareness then moving to commitment, planning, implementation, review, and reinforcement. Progression does not take place in a single, pre-determined direction but flows bi-directionally and interdependently between the steps.

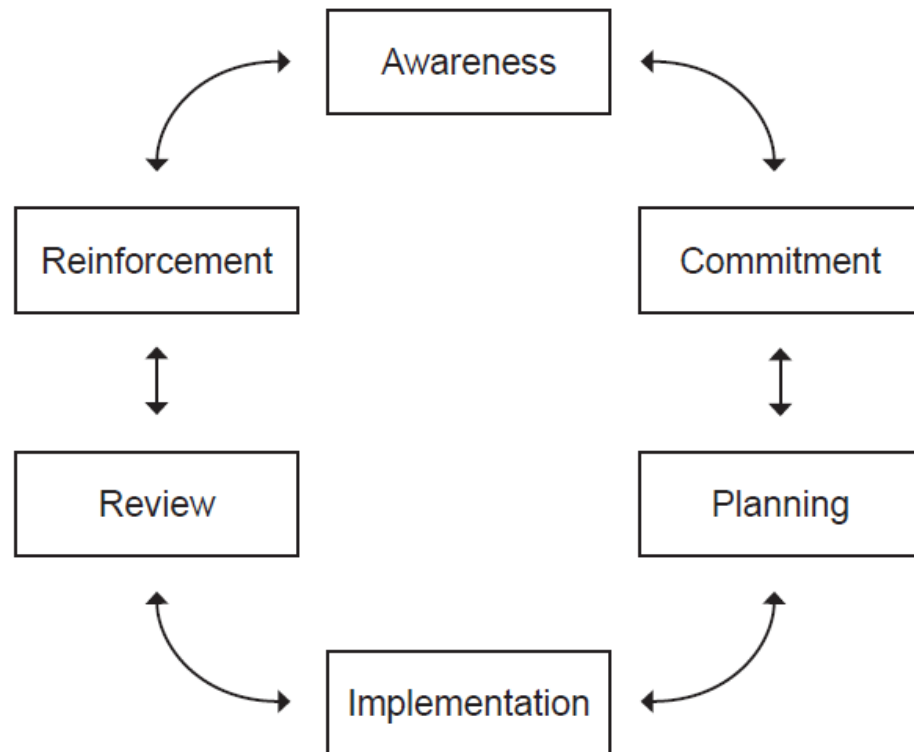


Figure 1. Knight's Internationalization Cycle Showing the Bi-Directional Process of Campus Internationalization. Adapted from Knight and de Wit (1995).

The second model is Senge's (1990) systems theory of organization. In his opinion, the important factor needing consideration in an organization is the interrelatedness of various parts of a system. Senge asserts that managers often focus on individual actions and do not understand how these affect other parts of the organization. Conversely, they do not understand how actions in other parts of the organization can affect their situations. These systems can accelerate progress, limit progress, or keep it in a state of balance. Understanding how decisions or actions in one part of an organization affect seemingly unrelated parts in another is

the key in mastering how to lead and manage in an organization. This approach is applicable in describing campus internationalization because it too is influenced by multiple factors working simultaneously. While some factors may influence campus internationalization more than others, it is the cumulative effect of a number of factors working together that enables it to grow, develop, and become a sustained part of a college campus.

The third model called the *theory of institutional transformation and campus internationalization* leverages the overlapping and important factors from the studies of Eckel and Kezar (2003), Johnston and Edelstein (1993), and Kelleher (1996).

Eckel and Kezar (2003) document the factors that are required for institutional change in higher education institutions. These factors are the result of extensive research involving case studies of 26 diverse higher education institutions in the United States. Community colleges, liberal arts colleges, research institutions, comprehensive universities, and doctoral universities were included in their research pool. All of the institutions studied engaged in planned transformation initiatives. From their cases they isolate five factors critical to the success of the transformation process:

1. Senior administrative support
2. Flexible vision
3. Visible action
4. Collaborative leadership

5. Staff and faculty development

Eckel and Kezar acknowledge that transformational change in higher education institutions is complex and argue that there are 14 secondary supporting strategies that influence each other in a matrix of core and supporting change strategies:

1. External factors
2. Changes in governance and administration
3. Supportive structures
4. Incentives
5. Financial resources
6. Communication
7. Setting expectations/accountability
8. Connections and synergy
9. Influence results
10. Invited participation
11. New interactions
12. Moderate momentum
13. Broader context
14. Long-term orientation

But because Eckel and Kezar focus on institutional change, in general, and do not take into account issues specifically related to campus internationalization, two other sources are used to complete the theoretical model. Johnston and

Edelstein (1993) analyze 15 case studies of campus internationalization, and argue that there are seven factors they recommend to enable it to develop:

1. Know your institution
2. Attend to the challenge of pedagogy
3. Leadership makes a difference
4. Create an international ethos on campus
5. Engage faculty colleagues
6. Funding is necessary but not sufficient
7. Select an appropriate campus home

Johnston and Edelstein's description of each of these factors is rather brief and can be somewhat vague. But we can already identify some overlap with Eckel and Kezar. For example, both mention the involvement of faculty and leadership as important factors. Leadership described in both studies involves collaboration and working with diverse constituencies. The process of creating an international ethos on campus also shares several similarities with Eckel and Kezar's factor called visible action. For example, Eckel and Kezar note that in order for a long-term transformation to be successful, stakeholders need to see progression through visible actions such as the unveiling of new buildings, public forums and other activities. Johnston and Edelstein argue that in order for an international ethos to be developed it is important that "symbols of change" are present to "give people the impression that change is taking place" (p. 74).

The third source is the work from Kelleher (1996). She provides 18 “essential elements” that influence campus internationalization and lists these in order of the “number of times noted” by interviewees in her case studies. From these we can identify three categories of factors. The first category comprises the primary factors (those mentioned eight to 12 times):

1. Build widespread faculty support, also administrative
2. Empower an able director
3. Design a clear administrative structure
4. Cultivate community involvement
5. Create a faculty development and reward system

The secondary factors are those mentioned five to seven times:

1. Plan long-term
2. Listen to students
3. Maintain senior administrative support
4. Ensure a quality host country director and local support network
5. Appoint an advisory committee
6. Plan the process

The tertiary factors, not listed here, are those mentioned fewer than five times (p. 417).

Like Johnston and Edelstein, Kelleher is somewhat vague in describing these factors. But we see a number of similarities in her study with the factors in the other studies. Again, administrative and faculty involvement are important

factors described in each study. Leadership is also mentioned in all three studies. Kelleher also describes leadership with a collaborative flavor. In her opinion successful leaders are those who have the “ability to mobilize faculty, administrators and students” (p. 418). In other words, they must be able to collaborate and influence multiple and diverse stakeholders. The authors of all three studies also argue that faculty development is another important factor which influences campus internationalization. Finally, although Kelleher does not explicitly state that visible action is an important factor, she discusses the importance of “indicators” which show “whether an institution has incorporated international education into its identity” (p. 421).

The theoretical model proposed for this study is an assemblage of the five important and overlapping factors of three studies Eckel and Kezar (2003), Johnston and Edelstein (1993), and Kelleher (1996). Table 2 demonstrates how the important factors from these three sources overlap to form the theoretical proposition.

The three columns to the right under the model heading list the important factors taken from the three literature sources. As the table demonstrates, the five factors constituting the theory of institutional transformation and campus internationalization are supported by at least two of the three literature sources, and two factors (Faculty Support and Development and Collaborative Leadership) are noted as important factors in all three sources.

Table 2

Important Factors of Commonality Taken From the Literature to Form the Theoretical Model of Institutional Transformation and Campus Internationalization

Theory of Institutional Transformation and Campus Internationalization	Model		
	Mobile Model of Transformation	Lessons from Campus Practice	International Program Development
Faculty Involvement		Engage Faculty Colleagues	Build Widespread Faculty Support, also Administrative ¹
Faculty Support and Development	Staff and Faculty Development	Attend to the Challenge of Pedagogy	Create Faculty Development and Reward System
Senior Administrator Involvement	Senior Administrative Support		Design a Clear Administrative Structure
Collaborative Leadership	Collaborative Leadership	Leadership Makes a Difference	Empower an Able Director
Visible Action	Visible Action	Create an International Ethos on Campus	

Note: Mobile Model of Transformation (Eckel & Kezar, 2003), Lessons from Campus Practice (Johnston & Edelstein, 1993), International Program Development (Kelleher, 1996).

¹ Also applies to Senior Administrator Involvement

As Table 2 indicates, the important factors that are used to construct the Theory of Institutional Transformation and Campus Internationalization include:

1. Faculty involvement.
2. Faculty support and development.

3. Senior administrator involvement.
4. Collaborative leadership.
5. Visible action.

This model is used to form a theoretical hypothesis for the case study methodology described in the next chapter. It should be noted that the model reduces the number of factors significantly. Eckel and Kezar argue that change initiatives in higher organizations are complex and multifaceted, and involve many factors. But they also mention that one typically does not find every factor in every change initiative. There are some which tend to always be important, which are used in the model, and secondary factors that may or may not be influential. The design of the study, describe in the next chapter, leaves an amount of open-ended questions to enable factors specific to St. Norbert College to be discovered and analyzed. Secondly, *senior administrative support* is changed to *senior administrator involvement*. This seems to reflect a more active role for senior administrators. While it is important for senior administrators to support campus internationalization, they can also initiate new internationalization projects.

Conclusion

Internationalization is one of the most complex initiatives that higher education leaders can undertake. For it to be successful it must involve almost all campus divisions, and it requires more than simple additives to the curriculum and learning activities (Mestenhauser, 1998). For internationalization to become a profound learning experience that extends beyond the 5% of the student population

who study abroad, not only do leaders need to change institutional structures to support international learning, they must also work to change the mental modes or general outlook of “how things are done around here.” Given the loosely coupled and siloed nature of departments at higher education institutions, as well as a culture of independence, collegiality, and significant limitation of leaders to bring about change in a planned manner, internationalization is a monumental and difficult undertaking.

Again, Knight (2004) stresses that international learning is also not an end goal. It is instead a process with ambiguous outcomes. This adds another layer of complexity to an internationalization initiative. How can leaders gauge the success of international learning? Paige (2005) identifies the structural indicators that signify a highly-internationalized institution, but this does not take into consideration the quality of service towards learning outcomes that these departments offer. Instruments such as Hammer’s Intercultural Development Inventory (IDI) can be used to assess the development of intercultural competence of students (Hammer, Bennett, & Wiseman, 2003), but this is just one component of international learning. As Mestenhauser (1998) argues, international learning is complex and involves cognitive, experiential learning, self-examination, and requires a critical understanding of values and attitudes.

Given the complexity and ambiguity of international learning, the massive difficulties of leading a teleological change effort across all divisions of a college or university, as well as the multifaceted nature and difficulty of successful, long-

term change in even simple organizations, it is perhaps not surprising that there are few documented cases of comprehensive and successful internationalization efforts. It may be the case that at this point in the development of internationalization, even institutions that have been recognized as leaders in the area of campus internationalization are works in progress with only components of internationalization fully implemented.

Chapter 3: Research Methods and Procedures

The goal of this study is to identify the factors influencing campus internationalization and then demonstrate how these factors influence its development. Because campus internationalization is never a finished process (Knight, 1994), and due to the long-term nature of internationalization initiatives, it was important for this study to contain analyses of both contemporary and historical phenomena. Additionally, because campus internationalization is a complex, institutional-wide undertaking, it was also important to interview several individuals at various levels of the organization, and review documents covering academic, administrative, and strategic areas of St. Norbert College. Fortunately, access to archival information and to a large array of documents from the Office of Institutional Effectiveness at St. Norbert College was made possible. Additionally, a number of individuals with long-term standing at the College were interviewed which made it possible to assemble a first-hand account of the internationalization process going back almost 30 years.

In this chapter the rationale for the methodology selected and description of the research design, as well as the process for data collection and analysis of the data are covered. The limitations of this study are also outlined. Before beginning to describe the study methodology, it is important to review the study of statement purpose and research questions.

The purpose of the study is to identify factors influencing successful campus internationalization at a liberal arts college in the Upper Midwest. The research questions include:

1. What are the factors influencing successful campus internationalization?
2. How do these factors influence the process of campus internationalization?

Study Methodology

The statement of study purpose is to examine the factors affecting campus-wide internationalization. These factors are process-orientated; involve decision-making; focus on individual traits and activities, and institutional characteristics; and include a specific set of programs within a single institution involving multiple individuals and stakeholders. Based on these criteria, a qualitative approach is the option chosen to complete this study. Creswell (2009) writes that qualitative research should be used when the intent is to “understand a particular social situation, event, role, group or interaction” (p. 194). Additionally, qualitative research can enable in-depth understanding of a process, program, individual, or several individuals (Merriam, 2009). Fry (2010) notes that qualitative research can be used to document a chronological series of events and help to demonstrate the implications that decisions have on events, or to document both the process and the outcome or products of that process.

Qualitative research has a number specific characteristics, strengths, and weaknesses. Unlike quantitative research, where internal and external validity is based on the quality of the instrument, qualitative research depends on the

researcher to gather and interpret the data (Creswell, 2009). Fry (2010) asserts that this may lead to a number of potential weaknesses in its use, including researcher subjectivity, the possibility of misinterpretation and distortion of the data, improper use of methodologies, and lax standards of quality control. There are also, according to Fry, no clear algorithms for reporting validity and reliability with qualitative research.

But qualitative research does have a number of strengths. Creswell (2009) offers several distinct advantages for using this type of research in the right situations. The information can be richly descriptive or “thick,” allowing the researcher to document and describe complex phenomena. It can also express an “emic” understanding. In other words, the viewpoints, perceptions, and opinions of those being studied are documented from their own point of view. It also takes place in natural settings where the subjects are comfortable, and it uses contextual information to help explain phenomena. Fry (2010) also believes that it deals with real problems, situations, and praxis, and avoids the abstractness of some academic work. The subjects, setting, actions, and interactions are taken from reality, not from an artificial laboratory setting.

Creswell (2009) writes that qualitative research is often an inductive or investigative process whereby a researcher gradually forms conclusions by “contrasting, comparing, replicating, cataloging and classifying the object of study” (p. 194). Researchers do not go into the field to prove or disprove a hypothesis, because one may not exist or because the phenomena are too complex.

They instead form conclusions inductively after the investigation has taken place. In other words, qualitative research is a process not driven by theory. It can be valuable to help develop or improve existing theories or to enable a researcher to discover new and valuable concepts or constructs, but it cannot necessarily be used to establish externally valid scientific theories (Merriam, 2009).

However, Yin (2009) asserts that theory development as part of the design phase is “essential,” regardless of whether the purpose of the study is to test a theory or develop one. Without a theoretical basis to guide the researcher, Yin believes that the subsequent collection of data and criteria for interpreting the data cannot be properly undertaken. According to Yin, “the simple goal is to have a sufficient blueprint for the study, and this requires theoretical propositions” (p. 36). The theoretical framework provides “guidance in determining what data to collect and the strategies for analyzing the data” (p. 36). In other words, the researcher needs to be guided by a theoretical proposition to focus the study on a specific set of variables, and to determine their influence on the phenomena.

This study relies on several frameworks as well as a theoretical proposition, but also allows for the discovery of other factors influencing campus internationalization in an inductive manner. As outlined in Chapter 2, this study takes into consideration Knight’s (1994) internationalization cycle, along with Senge’s (1990) systems theory. Again the theoretical proposition for the case study, called the theory of institutional transformation and campus internationalization, combines the important factors influencing institutional

transformation taken from Eckel and Kezar (2003), along with additional factors influencing campus internationalization taken from Johnston and Edelstein (1993), and Kelleher (1996). By combining the important and overlapping factors identified in these studies, the theoretical framework of five factors is assembled. But to get a more thorough understanding of campus internationalization at St. Norbert College, factors that fall outside this theory are also investigated inductively.

Proposed Methods and Rationale

To answer the questions associated with the statement of study purpose, a case study approach is used. Yin (2009) believes that case studies are primarily used to answer “how” or “why” questions when the researcher has no control over behavioral events and when the situation is contemporary. The “how” or “why” questions help answer how phenomena develop over time, rather than simply measuring their frequency. Additionally, case study methods can be used for exploratory studies where it is unclear on “what” it is the research needs to focus.

The first research question is “What are the factors influencing successful campus internationalization?” This question tests the theoretical proposition and guides the research into identifying important contemporary or historical factors that account for campus internationalization at St. Norbert College. Of equal importance is the “how” question: “How do the factors influence the process of successful campus internationalization?” This question is used as the basis for the analysis of how the factors individually and collectively enabled campus

internationalization to take place. To answer this question “operational links traced over time” (Yin, 2009, p. 6) need to be documented. Interviews provide a means to gather this information which is typically open ended. Additionally, in order to triangulate information gathered through interviews, and to obtain information about important events and decisions that are historical, document analysis is employed as a method of inquiry.

Yin (2009) argues that case studies are valuable when contextual conditions and the phenomena are inseparable. In other words, for researchers to understand the phenomena the context must be taken into account or an inaccurate and incomplete understanding would develop. This may be challenging with scientific design, where the context is tightly controlled. It is also severely limited with surveys where the researcher has tight limits on the amount of questions to be asked. Again, because the environment, history and organizational culture at St. Norbert College are critical components to answering the study questions, interviews, document analysis and observation are the chosen strategies for obtaining the needed data. Additionally, because the number of key stakeholders with sufficient experience at St. Norbert College working directly or indirectly with campus internationalization is reasonably small, consisting of roughly 25 individuals, to gain in-depth information about factors influencing campus internationalization, semi-structured interviews are used.

Data Collection Strategies

This study utilizes interviews, observations, and document analysis to gather data. Merriam (1998) writes that interviews are important in understanding feelings, thoughts and intentions, individual meanings, and perceptions and accounts of historical events and behaviors. The first step in the interview process is selecting individuals. Those selected for interviews were involved in campus internationalization and included three groups of individuals:

1. Senior administrators
2. Faculty who teach in an international area (modern languages, area studies, business, political science, international studies)
3. Center for International Education staff

Patton (2002) notes that with qualitative studies it is important to select candidates that are “information rich.” In other words, people who have the knowledge and experience in the area being studied. The individuals selected for this study all worked on campus internationalization directly or indirectly and were selected specifically because of their position and experience. Krueger and Casey (2009) call this “purposeful” sampling. In their opinion, the selection of individuals is not based on random sampling, because the results are not intended to be generalizable, but on the purpose of the study. In this case it is to determine the factors influencing campus internationalization and then piece together how these factors enabled various initiatives to develop.

But due to the loosely coupled nature of higher education institutions and because campus internationalization involves almost all areas of a college or university, it is also important to sample individuals from multiple areas. This accomplishes two important tasks needed in data collection. The first is that it enables the researcher to properly test the theoretical proposition. Again, the theory of institutional transformation and campus internationalization includes participation of senior administrators and faculty members in the campus-internationalization process as important factors. Because of this, it is important to interview participants from each group directly. Secondly, having multiple perspectives allows the researcher to triangulate the data. Stake (1995) notes that in case study methodologies the need for multiple sources of evidence is critically important and its importance to quality case studies far exceeds that in other research methods such as experiments, surveys or histories. In this case it was necessary to ask individuals such as senior administrators how they personally are involved in campus internationalization, but also ask individuals in other parts of the College, such as faculty members, how they perceive the involvement of senior administrators, and vice versa.

Because much of the research in this dissertation deals with recent historical accounts, personal perceptions, leadership attributes, and process narratives, interviews are a critical part of the information gathering process. The interviews adhere to a semi-structured format as defined by Merriam (1998). The interview protocols closely align with the factors identified in the theoretical

proposition, but also contain open ended questions to discover information falling outside the theory. Merriam believes that the semi-structured format allows the researcher to respond to the individual and situation, and enables the viewpoints of the participants to be uncovered which may bring about new insights on the topic. Generally, questions cover a number of topic areas including personal information, the individual's role the internationalization process, organizational information, along with questions regarding leadership traits and actions. All interviews were conducted on location at St. Norbert College or via phone and recorded to ensure that they are properly preserved for analysis.

Creswell (2009) believes that interviews have four basic limitations. They are indirect and filtered through an individual's perceptions, individuals may be influenced by the researcher's presence, and some people may not be able to accurately articulate their thoughts, feelings or accurately account events. To account for the limitations of the interview method, document analysis and observation are employed.

There are two main reasons for the use of document analysis. Because campus-internationalization initiatives sometimes unfold over a number of decades, documents are a way to reconstruct events or decisions that took place prior to participants' involvement. Without documents, it may be impossible to accurately describe the campus-internationalization narrative. Yin (2009) writes that they can also be exact in detail with names, places and dates. Secondly, documents can also provide a means to verify information obtained through

interview. Patton (2002) believes that it is important to verify data from multiple perspectives as well as from multiple data sources. By interviewing several participants, multiple perspectives are gained to triangulate the data. Document analysis adds another dimension to the triangulation process.

Unlike interviews, where time and access are contingent on both the researcher's and participants' time, the main challenge with this method is finding the documents and then gaining the access and permission to use them.

Fortunately, St. Norbert College has a centralized office that manages institutional documents in an online portal. Proposals, year-end reports, and accreditation reports from most academic and administrative units have been consistently documented since 1998. The strategy in this case was to access all possible documents related to international academic programs, the general education curriculum, the Center for International Education, faculty policy handbooks, documents outlining budget allocations, strategic and divisional plans, and general institutional data. Because it is possible to review documents after acquisition and discard those not applicable, as many applicable documents as possible were obtained. Documents containing information not applicable to the study were discarded.

Finally, observation was used to as another source of evidence for the case study. This was the most informal component of the data collection process because of the limitations of time spent at St. Norbert College. Additionally the timing of the campus visit took place the week before final exams, so many of the

international activities that typically take place were on hiatus. Observation consisted mainly of physical artifacts. Yin (2009) defines this as a “physical or cultural artifact – a technological device, a tool or instrument, a work of art or some other physical evidence” (p. 113). At St. Norbert College this consisted mostly of inventorying various international structures on campus such as buildings, signs, international flags and other observable objects that have important symbolic meaning and purpose (Bolman and Deal, 2008).

Data Acquisition Process

Once contact was established and the study endorsed by senior leaders at St. Norbert College, the study proposal was then submitted to the internal review boards of the University of Minnesota and St. Norbert College. After approval was granted the selection of candidates was undertaken. This was a collaborative process facilitated by the Associate Dean for International Education and Outreach. The first step was to describe to him the selection criteria for individuals. Utilizing access to the staff directory, a list of 22 potential interviewees based on title and department was compiled. The second step was to have the list vetted by the Associate Dean. This reduced it to 18 individuals. The Associate Dean then emailed the participation request letter and study description to these individuals, and over a period of three weeks 14 individuals, including five senior administrators, four faculty members, and five Center for International Education staff members were interviewed.

The interviews were conducted on site or via telephone. The interview protocols followed a semi-structured format following the theoretical proposition, but leaving room for open-ended discussion of topics related to campus internationalization. Three slightly different interview protocols were developed for each of the three types of interviewees. The interviews typically lasted about 90 minutes with some being shorter or longer, depending on the schedule of the interviewees. Two participants were interviewed in two 45-minute sessions. With the participants' signed permission, all interviews were recorded and then later transcribed for proper data analysis. Roughly 20 hours of conversation was recorded and transcribed.

Documents were obtained by request from a number of individuals who participated in interviews as well as the centralized web portal already mentioned. During the site visit many of these paper documents were scanned into a laptop as PDF files for analysis. After several discussions with senior administrators regarding the use and confidentiality of the data, access to the web portal was granted. In total 63 internal documents were analyzed along with the complete 43-page proposal submitted in 1989 for the International Center. A number of public documents were also obtained from the St. Norbert College website. Additionally, public information from several other websites was gathered. This included accessing (a) the Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System (<http://nces.ed.gov/ipeds/>) for general institutional information, (b) the U.S. Government census data for demographic information on the region where St.

Norbert College resides, and (c) guidestar.org to access the St. Norbert College Form 990 financial statements. Finally, 41 press releases dating from 1972 to 2011 were accessed from individuals and the College's archives.

Additionally, a four-day site visit was coordinated in April 2011 to conduct interviews, gather data and collect observational data. This resulted in 15 photographs of campus artifacts reflecting campus internationalization, as well as the observation of a service learning fair with several international presentations, a presentation by a senior administrator, and a visit to Discoveries International, an on-campus international nonprofit retail store.

Data Analysis Strategies

Fife (2005) writes that the first step in data analysis is to create concepts while obtaining data in the field. Once this is complete and after the material is prepared for analysis, the researcher can begin the second step which is to read through it to identify and categorize the information into themes and eventually codes. Creswell (2009) mentions three types of codes that may help researchers analyze data: (a) codes for information not expected and surprising; (b) codes that are unusual and of conceptual interest; and (c) codes that correlate to a theoretical perspective. Krueger and Casey (2009) mention several factors that need consideration when beginning to weigh the importance of information prior to coding. The first factor is the frequency of something said or observed. Obviously topics that come up in most or every situation should be taken into account. Krueger and Casey note that this is not the only factor that indicates importance.

The second factor to take into consideration is specificity of description. Items that are specific in description may also be important. The third factor is emotion which may indicate importance. The most important factor though is extensiveness. Krueger and Casey define extensiveness as “how many different people said the same thing” (p. 122). This indicates important information that is shared by many people in an organization.

After the data had been gathered, the first step in the analysis process was to compare the results against the theoretical proposition. In Yin’s (2009) opinion relying on a theoretical proposition is the “preferred” strategy of data analysis because it aligns the literature review with the research questions, the data acquisition process, and ultimately with the analysis. But Yin argues that a second step in the process is to consider rival explanations that may fall outside of the theoretical proposition. In this research study the interview protocols were crafted around the five factors contained in the theory. But room was left for additional rival theories to emerge and the importance of these factors was weighed on their extensiveness from the analysis of interviews transcripts, documents, and field observations.

Additionally, two strategies for data analysis outlined by Yin (2009) are used in this study. The first is pattern matching. According to Yin, this is a data analysis technique where the researcher compares an empirically based pattern with a predicted one. In this study, five factors from the theoretical proposition were compared with the data acquired from the interviews, observations, and

documents from St. Norbert College. But the second research question of how the factors influenced campus internationalization required a second strategy of analysis called explanation building. Yin (2009) writes that explanation building is a form of pattern-matching in which the analysis of the case study is carried out by building an explanation of the case. As various initiatives related to campus internationalization unfolded over a 10-, 20- or even 30-year timespan, it was necessary to trace how the factors influenced how these initiatives were conceived, developed, and sustained to become fully ingrained in the organizational fabric of the organization.

With a large number of interviews, observations, and document data *NVivo* was used as a means to help make sense and examine data gathered, but ultimately its usefulness was limited. During the site visit and after the interviews had concluded, notes were taken on what transpired during the interviews, and the story of campus internationalization at St. Norbert College and the factors influencing it started to be formulated. With additional time for analysis, the data were coded and pieced together depicting how the predicted factors matched the situation at St. Norbert College. Once this was completed, the chain of events that influenced several campus-internationalization initiatives was assembled. Using Senge's (1990) systems theory as a model enabled a narrative to be constructed of how the campus-internationalization initiatives unfolded and how various factors influenced the process.

Finally, to ensure that the reporting of the results and the interpretation of events was accurate, four key stakeholders, including the former president of St. Norbert College, the Associate Dean of International Education, a CIE staff member and a senior administrator, were emailed drafts of Chapters 4 and 5 for review. After they reviewed these chapters, they emailed back comments about these chapters and their comments and corrections were incorporated into the study results.

Limitations

One limitation is the amount of time spent on campus. Additionally, the campus visit took place towards the end of the academic year when many observable international activities had already come to an end. With unlimited time and resources it would have been valuable to observe various international events throughout the year. It would also have been interesting to learn more about the students' perspectives of campus internationalization, but the time constraints also made this impossible.

Additionally, a single case study does not provide enough evidence to form solid conclusions about the process of campus internationalization. The goal of this type of study is to achieve understanding rather than the creation of theory that is externally valid. Also, because the study examines a particular type of institution in a particular region, it does not provide an adequate understanding for internationalization change initiatives in other types of higher education institutions such as large, public universities or community colleges. Further, St.

Norbert College is a unique organization in that it is the only higher education institution in the world aligned with the Norbertine Order.

Chapter 4: Results

In this chapter the findings from interviews with key stakeholders are summarized along with an analysis of internal documents and articles related to campus internationalization at St. Norbert College. There are three sections in this chapter. The first section employs the data analysis technique of pattern matching. According to Yin (2009), this involves comparing an empirically based pattern with a predicted one. The predicted factors are those identified in the theory of institutional transformation and campus internationalization outlined in Chapter 2. Again, these factors are:

1. Faculty involvement.
2. Faculty support and development.
3. Senior administrator involvement.
4. Collaborative leadership.
5. Visible action.

The identified factors unique to St. Norbert College that are not found in the theory of institutional transformation and campus internationalization are discussed in the second section. These factors are:

1. The influence of the Norbertine heritage.
2. The hybrid business model of the Center for International Education.

Figure 2 outlines the predicted and unique factors influencing campus internationalization at St. Norbert College. In the third section of this chapter,

several alternative factors that influence campus internationalization at higher education institutions often found in the literature are examined and shown why they are not relevant to the case of St. Norbert College.

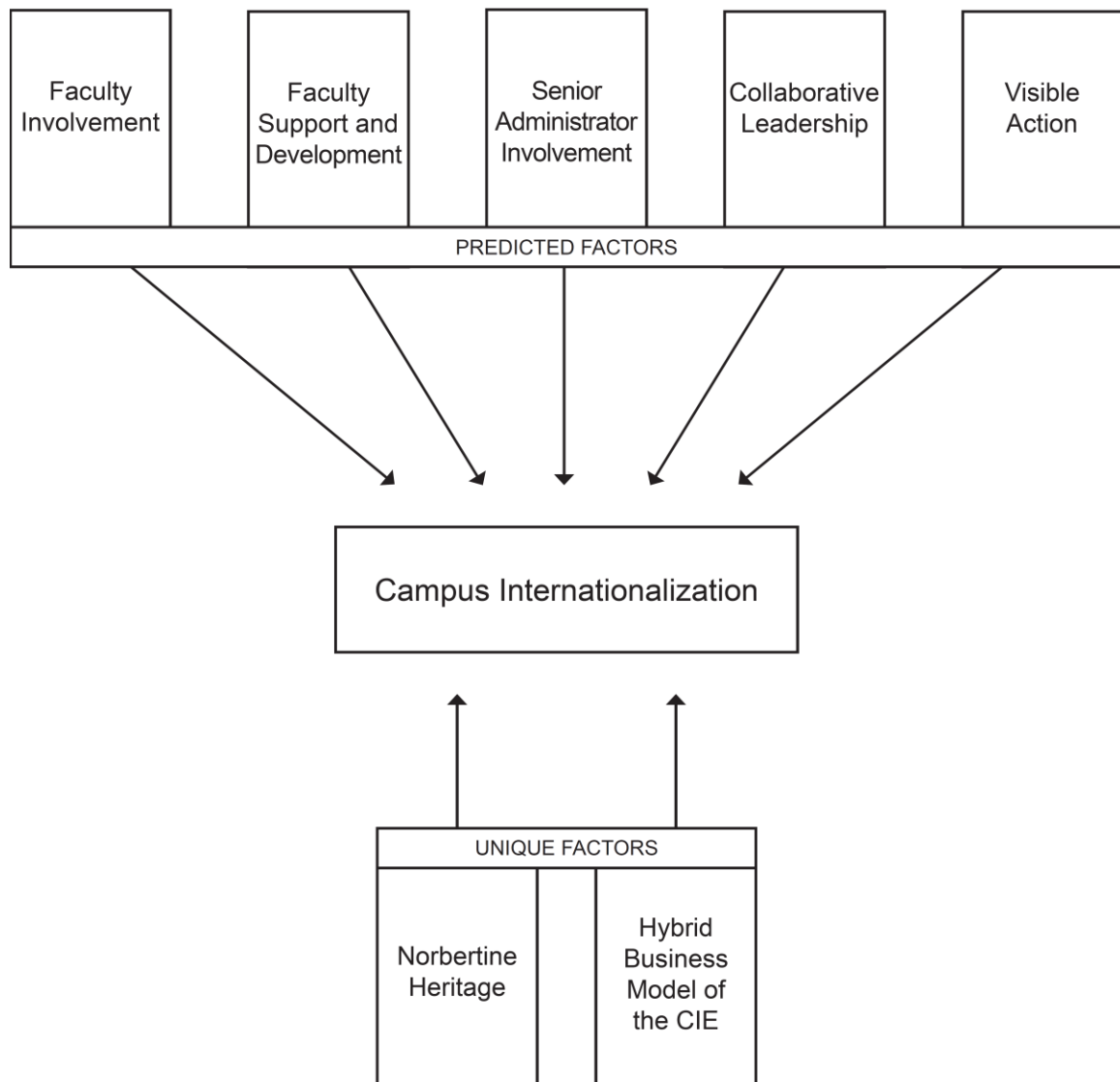


Figure 2. The Seven Factors Influencing Campus Internationalization at St. Norbert College.

Factors Matching the Theory of Institutional Transformation and Campus Internationalization

Faculty involvement. Kelleher (1996), asserts that one of the most common “essential elements” needed to “create and continue successful programs” is “widespread faculty support” for campus internationalization. Johnston and Edelstein (1993) echo this conclusion, arguing that “No program can be successful without strong faculty support” (p. 74). Faculty provide the services essential to a college or university; namely teaching and learning. Without faculty involvement essential campus-internationalization activities like study abroad, internationalization of the curriculum and development of new international programs often cannot not take place. If they do happen without faculty support, they often end up as marginalized, peripheral activities.

It could be argued that faculty involvement in campus internationalization is as old as St. Norbert College itself. Its first educator, Abbot Bernard Pennings, who founded the college in 1898, was originally from Berne Abbey in Switzerland, but was a citizen of the Netherlands (St. Norbert College, Mission and Heritage, 2011). He founded the college to train young men to become priests and later business people. His tenure at the College lasted 57 years until his retirement in 1955. According to a senior administrator, in addition to Abbot Pennings, the faculty St. Norbert College primarily consisted of European instructors until the 1930s. The Norbertine Order is primarily European, and contains Abbeys around the world. Most priests who taught at the College traveled

abroad regularly. Even through the 1960s one could find European priests teaching at St. Norbert College, according to this senior administrator.

The influence of these priests seems to have had an effect on the international outlook of the faculty which continues to this day. One administrator noted that the first international scholar exchange took place in 1925 with the University of Edinburgh. He also mentioned that international student recruitment was another activity embraced early on with the arrival of group of students from Brazil in 1918 as well as one from Japan soon after World War II. According to another senior administrator, faculty at St. Norbert College embraced campus internationalization “before it came into fashion.”

The first formal international academic program created at St. Norbert College was called the International Business and Language Area Studies (IBLAS). It has been offered to students since 1974. As an interdisciplinary program, students gain a general understanding of important concepts in global business, along with skills needed to conduct business in different cultural settings, as well as study a second language and particular region of the world (Varamini, 2000). All students who major in IBLAS are required to spend one semester abroad. According to a faculty member teaching in the program, because of the number of modern language courses IBLAS students are required to take, students need to add only one or two more courses in a particular language to add a language minor.

The program was started by a cooperative effort of faculty members in the departments of business, economics, political science and modern languages (*The Daily News*, 13 December, 1973). The long-term goal of its creators was "... the establishment of an International Business and Cultural Center on the St. Norbert College campus with the college eventually becoming an international center" (Knight Life, 1972). According to one faculty member who coordinates the program, the program was the brainchild of a handful of faculty members. In describing the impetus for the program and the beliefs of the founders, she notes:

They were passionate about what they saw the world becoming and maybe a little ahead of their time because in the later 70s and early 80s we saw the Japanese companies coming here and trade barriers were coming down ... They thought this could be a point of distinction for a small liberal arts college in the middle of the Midwest.

According to the same faculty member, a program called Discoveries International was also created in 1978 with donated seed capital of \$1,000 by a faculty member who was also a local businessman. The program, which still exists today, is a non-profit corporate entity run by IBLAS students who import and sell products from developing countries. At the end of the year, the students then donate all net revenue from the sale of the imported goods to selected international charities in developing nations (Varamini, 2000). According to the interviewed faculty member, originally all of the purchases came from Peru because a

Norbertine mission was located there and the sponsoring faculty member had connections to that mission. In her recollection, the sponsoring faculty member insisted that the organization must be operated by students, which it has been since its inception. Since 1997, all IBLAS-majoring students have been required to participate in the operation of Discoveries International (Varamini, 2000). Today it is set up like a business lab, similar to those found in biology or chemistry, but with students organizing and managing all aspects of it. IBLAS students provide all of the staffing for Discoveries International including executive positions such as CEO, CFO, as well as staffing for human resources, marketing and other positions.

Another international program set up by faculty is the International Studies (IS) major. According to a faculty member teaching in the IS program, it was first offered as a major in 1989. The program was the result of a faculty review of the curriculum beginning in 1983 with the goal of creating a curriculum to prepare “students to live in a global environment” (Foley & Lang, 1988). An \$82,000 federal Title VI A grant helped fund the creation new courses along with the hiring of new faculty specializing in international relations and comparative political science as well as language studies.

The goal of the IS major is to “prepare students to thrive as individuals, prosper as professionals, and participate as citizens in the global community of the 21st Century” (Smeall, 2000). Specifically the IS major is an integrated multi-disciplinary international curriculum providing students with an understanding of

contemporary political science issues along with intercultural understanding and competency. When students graduate they are prepared for professional careers in government service, international law, and various international and intercultural service organizations (Smeall, 2000). As an interdisciplinary program, it combines the areas of international relations, area studies and language studies. Faculty from areas as diverse as biology and environmental science, history and Spanish teach in the program (International Studies Advisory Board, 2008). Similar to the IBLAS program, all students are required to study abroad for one semester to develop intercultural competency, and take a minimum of four language courses in the language of their choice (Smeall, 2000).

In addition to these programs, faculty at St. Norbert College also created a number of international minors. The first is the Peace and Justice minor. As an interdisciplinary program, it is designed to prepare students to understand issues of peace and justice both locally and globally (Office of Institutional Effectiveness, St. Norbert College, 2010). The second is the Leadership Studies minor, which examines leadership theory and ethical dimensions of leadership. Students also gain an understanding of how culture shapes leadership effectiveness (Office of Institutional Effectiveness, St. Norbert College, 2010). The third, a Philippine studies certificate program, is available to prepare “students to understand the society and culture of the Philippines, a developing country that has close political, economic and cultural ties with the U.S. ever since it was a U.S. colony from 1898

to 1946” (St. Norbert College, 2011). The college has had a faculty exchange program with the University of the Philippines since 1998.

Along with the creation international majors and minors, faculty have also been involved in the creation and current revision of the general education curriculum. The general education curriculum offered at St. Norbert College was implemented in 1982. Revisions were made to the upper division courses in 1989 and to the writing component in 1994 (Rutter, Boehm & Williamsen, 2003). In addition to common liberal arts learning outcomes such as critical thinking, integrative learning, communication and broad-based knowledge, the current curriculum also requires students to be able understand “historical or cultural events and practices in a region of the world other than their own” (Rutter et al., 2003, p. 33). Students are also expected to learn a “clearer perspective on the US through other peoples’ views of US behaviors” and “identify and analyze examples of interrelationships between countries and peoples” (Rutter et al., 2003, p. 46).

One faculty member who is involved in the general education curriculum revision process noted that the latest review started in 2003, but a final version of the curriculum has not yet been approved and implemented at the end of the 2010–2011 academic year. Nonetheless, he is certain that one of the major outcomes of the process has been to make studying a second language a requirement for all students. Previously a student could fulfill one of the general education requirements by taking either language study or culture study courses, but now students must take both. One senior administrator involved in the general

education reform process noted that the new general education structure, once approved, would not only maintain, but enhance the international focus of the general education program over what is offered currently. Of the 12 identified areas of study, three are dedicated to international issues (Rutter et al., 2003). Because the new curriculum has not yet been completed and published, it is impossible to report the exact changes as part of this dissertation.

Faculty at St. Norbert College also have a history of actively participating in study abroad. One Center for International Education (CIE) staff member said that until study abroad became centralized at the College in 1999, most study abroad consisted of faculty-led trips as well as longer-term programs offered by for-profit study-abroad program providers. Many were short term, but some were semester-long programs. For example, in the 1970s the art faculty would take students to Paris and Florence for a whole semester. Another faculty member mentioned faculty-led programs to Panama and Costa Rica which typically lasted a semester. She mentioned that a biology professor “ran trips to Panama for years.”

These faculty-led study-abroad trips were not easy activities to undertake and were often not sustained. According to the CIE staff member, prior to the centralization of study-abroad programs, faculty would lead trips

... without any money backing them, and they therefore created these study-abroad islands and that is not an easy thing to do. It is not a simple task. They had to get people to approve of them doing

these things on their own and then they had to somehow sustain them if they did. Many didn't.

In his opinion, faculty run programs often "burn out the professors." For example, the art faculty-led trips to Paris and Florence in the 1970s were offered sporadically in the 1980s. By 1999, "not a single art student studied abroad."

Since the creation of the CIE in 1994, and the consolidation of study-abroad programs under its authority in 1999, faculty have been less involved in directly leading and managing study-abroad program and have instead taken on other roles (Tullbane, 2000). Some faculty actively encourage study abroad as advisors to students. According to one faculty member, in regards to recommending study abroad, "... my advisees know that I'm going to push them hard to do something like that." Another CIE staff said that, "during advisement days, we get many e-mails from faculty members recommending study abroad and students will come in and say, 'Oh my advisor x told me to come in and see you.'" Additionally, events such as the "Please Go Away Day" are regularly held with faculty cooperation to encourage greater student participation in study-abroad programs. According to the CIE staff member, this involves:

Giving students who participated in study abroad tee shirts that say "Please Go Away" in bright red letters. They wear them on October 1, and then we send an email to the faculty members that if you see somebody wearing a "Please Go Away" tee shirt in your

course, give them one or two minutes to just stand up and say where they studied abroad and talk about their experiences.

In terms of faculty receptivity to this disruption of their classes, he noted that “faculty members have been pretty receptive to the idea.”

In addition to activities already mentioned above, faculty at St. Norbert College also participate in international committees and clubs. Faculty participate in committees overseeing the IBLAS program, the IS major and the CIE (St. Norbert Faculty Handbook, 2010). The International Education Committee, which oversees the CIE, assists in improving communication between the faculty and the CIE, advises the Associate Dean for International Education and Outreach in strategic decisions, reviews international majors and minors, and reviews all study-abroad programs on a regular basis (St. Norbert Faculty Handbook, 2010). According to one faculty member interviewed, faculty also participate in activities like international service learning projects, international student groups such as the Spanish Club, Japan Club, Chinese Student Association, and Beyond Borders-The International Friendship Club, as well as a project called Global Scholars where domestic and international students “get together to write a research paper and present it at a conference.”

Although there are many opportunities for faculty to be involved in campus internationalization, several interviewees disagreed as to how many faculty are actively involved. One faculty member when asked how faculty become involved in campus internationalization, responded by saying, “Well, I’m going to be honest

with you, not many are.” He continued, “Those who are involved in internationalization do this for two reasons: either because they teach a topic, for instance international business, international relations or they are in the foreign languages, or because they have an international background.” When asked to estimate the percentage of faculty involved, he put it at “maybe 10 to 20 percent.” One senior administrator who works with many faculty members on international projects correlated their involvement in campus internationalization with the discipline in which they teach, as well as the age of the professors. In his opinion “business has always been strong for this,” along with biology and geology. He also noted that “psychology should be kind of a natural but it isn’t” and physics along with chemistry are not very actively involved. In the department of education he mentioned that “the standard answer has been there is no time for study abroad because the curriculum is so tightly structured.” But he concluded that about “three quarters of the education professors, with the exception of the old ones, are for this.”

Other faculty and staff interviewed responded differently. One CIE staff said that “Faculty are very interested in international education, and I have not met one who is not already on board and does not already have an international component as part of their classroom.” Another faculty member responded that “... not 100% (are involved), but most are largely very supportive and have experience in other countries and other cultures.” Another senior manager

mentioned that interest in campus internationalization “... really does sort of permeate the place, including the faculty.”

Although differences in opinion regarding peer involvement in a particular activity can vary at a college or university, there are stark differences in opinion about faculty involvement in campus internationalization at St. Norbert College. This derives from what may be perceived as active participation in international activities (e.g., advising students to study abroad, sitting on an international committee, or conducting international research), versus support for campus internationalization as a general concept. In terms of the latter, according to a survey completed in 2003, St. Norbert College faculty members appear to be highly supportive. In this survey faculty were asked which areas of general education were important to future general studies. Area 7 (Foreign Heritages—language studies, cross-cultural perspectives, area studies), was rated by 95% of the faculty to be either “very essential” or “essential” (Rutter et al., 2003). Out of the 12 areas of study in the general education curriculum, Area 7 had the highest percentage of faculty members rating it as “very essential.” Clearly the importance of campus internationalization is widespread among faculty members regardless of the amount of activity they actively invest into it.

Faculty support and development. Eckel and Kezar (2003) believe that in order for an institution to change and reform, individuals working within it need to learn new skills, develop new capacities, and ultimately change their behaviors. Kelleher (1996) maintains that an essential element influencing campus

internationalization is the creation of a faculty development and reward system. In her opinion, to internationalize their teaching, faculty must learn “new conceptualizations in addition to applying their disciplinary concepts and approaches to new material” (p. 435). This requires training and development. Johnston and Edelstein (1993) write that faculty development was often noted as a major factor influencing the success of campus internationalization in the cases that they studied. They argue that campus internationalization requires faculty support, and faculty must be properly trained and rewarded for their efforts to garner their support.

Interestingly, at St. Norbert College, even though faculty members receive widespread support for training, research, and sabbaticals, there are no formal programs in place for them to receive international training. When asked whether international training programs existed for faculty, all participants agreed that there were none. One senior administrator mentioned that there were opportunities for faculty to attend conferences on campus to learn more about “what’s going on with other schools” in regard to campus internationalization, and that professional development sessions for faculty were presented on campus every other year. But in his opinion, faculty attendance in these sessions has not been strong. According to him “the people that want to come are those that come.” In his opinion, the current lack of required international training for faculty “is a weakness.”

Generally speaking, college-sponsored opportunities for pedagogical and professional development for faculty are broad in scope and not internationally

focused. Pedagogical development opportunities are designed to improve teaching effectiveness to enhance the self worth and professional competence of instructors ultimately benefitting the student “who will profit from improved instruction and an enriched learning environment” (St. Norbert Faculty Handbook, 2010, p. 13). Professional development opportunities for faculty members are designed to promote and encourage “artistic, creative, and scholarly endeavors” and a variety of opportunities are available to enable faculty “to grow and develop according to their particular needs, interests, and talents, and at their chosen pace” (St. Norbert Faculty Handbook, 2010, p. 13).

Interestingly, many faculty interviewed used these resources as a means to gain international development and training, spend time abroad, and participate in international research. Generally, faculty believed that requests for international training were seen as being as favorable as other types of requests. One faculty member said, “... the College likes to see and really encourages and supports faculty to go abroad ... but it’s not required.” He continues,

“... when I think about the people that I know, they all have interests in other countries and cultures whether it be faculty in English or history. And they take trips formally for their work, and informally.” Another faculty member expressed a similar viewpoint. “I know a lot of professors do some of their research abroad. And the language folks all do that, but a number of other faculty also do a lot of their research abroad.” One senior administrator mentioned that international research and training is “strongly encouraged and valued by the

institution,” but in responding to a question about specific policies noted that “there’s probably nothing written” to support this.

As a Catholic institution St. Norbert College has a number of service opportunities, many of which take place in international settings, and faculty often participate. Although these are not formal faculty development and training programs per se, they do provide opportunities for faculty to travel and work abroad, often in impoverished communities. One example is the Turning Responsibility into Powerful Service (TRIPS) program. This program enables students to spend their semester breaks providing needed services to impoverished communities. There is an emphasis on understanding the social issues at work in these communities and how international factors affect them. Students also live and work with native people in these communities to understand diverse perspectives and learn cultural competence (TRIPS, 2009). According to one faculty member who participated a TRIPS sojourn, “... it just happened that a student had this idea and needed a faculty member, so I went with a group of students to Guatemala.”

Almost all individuals interviewed mentioned a program called the Norbertine Heritage Tours, and a number interviewed had already participated in one, or intended to do so in the future. The tours are offered to all faculty, staff, board members, and students, and provide a three-week tour of the European Norbertine Abbeys, including those found in the Netherlands, the Czech Republic, Belgium, and Germany (Hunter, 2004). They typically are run every other year and

participants study the history, current mission and vision for the future of each abbey where they often stay. They also spend time in various cities, including Amsterdam, Antwerp, and Brussels. According to one administrator who participated in the tour, the cost of the tour is sometimes subsidized by the College and is essentially open to all employees, so there is considerable interaction with “colleagues from many different parts of the College.”

One faculty member said that, prior to departure participants “would meet on four or five occasions ... and certain books were read and discussions were led by religious studies professors.” During the trip participants discussed religious issues, and lived with European monks and priests. This faculty member called it a “bonding experience” and concluded that “the idea that we are members of a global society is compatible with the worldviews of the Norbertines.” Another faculty member noted that “some of our colleagues have hardly been abroad, and they went on this Norbertine Heritage Tour ... This has opened the eyes of many of our colleagues here at St. Norbert College and changed them as a result.” In his opinion, “this has contributed to the internationalization of the campus here.”

Senior administrator involvement. Involvement of senior administrator is a key factor influencing campus internationalization. Johnston and Edelstein (1993) state that “In almost all of the cases profiled, the active support of senior administration—presidents, provosts, deans—has been critical” (p. 73). They note that while the “champions” of campus internationalization may come from any part of the organization, senior administrators make decisions regarding allocation

of resources for competing projects. Their support can mean “the difference between sustained success and failed efforts” (p. 73). In their opinion, individual champions can create international programs, but to become integrated campus-internationalization initiatives, senior administrators are “vital at key points in its development” (p. 73). Kelleher (1996) notes that active support of senior administrators is a significant factor in the development of campus internationalization. Not only do senior administrators make decisions regarding funding of new initiatives, they are also responsible for the development and maintenance of administrative policies and procedures, which can have a significant impact on the development of campus internationalization. Eckel and Kezar (2003) point out that in addition to the contributions noted above, senior administrators also focus institutional attention and set priorities, provide forums for developing collaboration efforts among various departments, frame campus internationalization in meaningful ways and communicate how initiatives are designed to improve the institution.

Many of the staff, faculty, and senior administrators interviewed at St. Norbert College offered similar views on how senior administrator involvement influences campus internationalization. Several specifically mentioned the importance of the president as a key individual whose support is critical for campus internationalization. When asked who the champions of campus internationalization are, one faculty member said, “Well, I think first and foremost the president.” Similarly, one CIE administrator mentioned that the president has

“a huge amount” of impact on the progress of campus internationalization. He continued, saying that, “the president sets the vision at the school.” Additionally, in his opinion, presidential support needs to be more than passively accepting the current situation. Without an active interest in campus internationalization, new ideas never come to the president’s attention. In regard to presidents and their cabinets, he notes that it is critically important to be able to “brief them when you need to brief them, and that you know they are going to be receptive to the briefing ... Not necessarily receptive to the idea, that’s different. Everybody has opinions, you know. But they are receptive to getting the briefing.” The opportunity to meet with the president and senior administrators is important because, in his opinion, “They offer you input and comments, and suggestions based on their own experiences. It’s actually harmful when you can’t get that.” Another long-term staff member who had worked at St. Norbert College through three presidents mentioned that the influence of the president on campus internationalization was profound. In her view, campus internationalization had not been a linear progression of improvement and development, but more of a process of “ebb and flow” depending on “the interest and priorities of the academic dean, and especially of the president.” Another CIE staff member when asked about champions of campus internationalization noted that the college president was the key determining factor in its development. She stated: “... in most cases the president is either on or not, and if the president doesn’t believe it you could have champions right left and center but you got nothing.”

Collaborative leadership. While faculty involvement and senior administrative support are crucial for campus internationalization to develop at a college or a university, the leadership of the director, dean or vice president directly overseeing campus internationalization is also vitally important. Johnston and Edelstein (1993) believe that in a loosely-coupled organization with multiple stakeholders, it is critical for leaders to "... know how to build commitments and coalitions across the campus, and gain support of a diverse group of key individuals at different levels in different disciplines ..." (p. 73). They argue that gaining the support of diverse groups of individuals at different levels of the organization in different departments and disciplines is an important factor influencing campus internationalization. These coalitions include faculty along with chairs or deans of particular schools or disciplines, senior administrators, academic support staff, student affairs staff, students and their parents, external stakeholders, and, in some instances, the board of trustees. Kelleher (1996) echoes this sentiment when she states that individuals leading campus internationalization need to possess the "... demonstrated ability to mobilize faculty, administrators and students" (p. 418). Kezar and Eckel (2003) believe that in order for change to take place in an institution of higher education, "collaborate leadership" needs to be employed. In their opinion because higher education institutions have decentralized decision-making structures with shared governance at many levels of the institution, a successful leader needs to involve stakeholders throughout the organization in both designing and implementing key components of the change

process. They note that successful collaborative leaders engage and empower others in various parts of the organization to become leaders in their respective areas to achieve a common goal. They argue that collaborative leadership can be a bottom-up or top-down in its implementation but the critical ingredient seems to be the engagement of others and simultaneous action in multiple parts of the organization.

While internationalization “champions” may be important in initiating early internationalization projects, institutionalization and collaboration are needed for sustained development. Johnston and Edelstein (1993) write that champions of campus internationalization can come from any part of organization, or in some instances, from outside of it. They may or may not have the knowledge and authority to institutionalize a campus-internationalization initiative, but they are important advocates and critical to its success, especially in its early stages. As campus internationalization matures and becomes more complex, in order for it to become institutionalized, typically a dean or director needs to be hired to oversee a department of international professionals. When interviewees were asked about the champions of campus internationalization at St. Norbert College, there were many answers. Some noted specific faculty or student leaders. Others noted the influence of the president along with the academic dean. One faculty member noted that champions were numerous and could be found in many parts of the college and that “there are many people, not just one or two.” One CIE staff member had similar sentiment. She suggested that identifying one or two individuals as

champions, “may be an antiquated way of looking at it because most of the people who work here do so because they want that (campus internationalization).”

The perception of multiple champions of campus internationalization provides some evidence that collaborative leadership is at work. For example, the CIE and the IS and IBLAS programs have both administrative and faculty oversight. The Associate Dean for International Education and Outreach has formal authority to manage these entities, but the International Education Committee (IEC) consisting of faculty members from several disciplines, also works closely with him in an advisory capacity (St. Norbert College Faculty Handbook, 2010). Formally, the IEC has twofold responsibilities. The first is to advise the Associate Dean on CIE activities including study-abroad and international programs. Secondly, the committee serves as a link between CIE and the faculty, in general, to facilitate international co-curricular activities, and to take CIE proposals to appropriate standing committees or administrators for review and approval (St. Norbert College Faculty Handbook, 2010, pp. 72–73).

A result of the coordination between faculty and CIE has been the complete integration of courses taken during study abroad and the St. Norbert College curriculum. This enables students to study abroad without potential risk of losing credit and not graduating on time. According to one faculty member, even in the teacher education program, which has an extremely tight set of requirements, students are able to study abroad and still meet their requirements to graduate. Additionally, many courses that students take during their time abroad can be used

to meet two or three requirements. According to the Associate Dean for International Education and Outreach, this is because all of the courses have been vetted by the IEC and approved by various faculty chair or coordinators in their respective areas.

Eckel and Kezar (2003) note that in order for collaborative leadership to take place it is important that a sense of trust is established between constituencies on campus, especially between faculty and administrators, between various faculty groups, and between faculty, staff and administrators. Although it is difficult for an outside researcher to assess something as complex as trust between departments, there is evidence of general collaboration and respect between the CIE and other departments. Several faculty and senior administrators mentioned that the CIE staff were “very professional” and “well liked” on campus, and that “most faculty work with them to promote international programs.” It was also noted that positioning the Associate Dean for International Education and Outreach under the Dean of the College and Academic Vice President seemed to enhance understanding and collaboration between CIE staff and faculty. One senior administrator said that housing the CIE in the academic realm of the college keeps it from becoming “an island.”

Additionally, Eckel and Kezar (2003) note that in addition to trust, honest dialog and openness to diverse opinions also creates an environment for collaborative leadership. Several faculty noted that the leadership style of the

Associate Dean and his faculty status enabled collaboration. According to one faculty member who served on the International Education Committee:

He is very collegial in the way that he really, really wants that you know that he hears what you have to say. And he doesn't want you to parrot what he thinks. He has that honest broker type of management style that you know that he really wants to hear what you have to say because he wants to do whatever he can to improve the program.

Another faculty member when asked about the Associate Dean's faculty status as a factor influencing his acceptance among faculty stated that, "I think those of us who work with him all the time definitely think of him as one of us." One senior administrator, when asked if the Associate Dean's faculty status had an impact on faculty acceptance, responded, "There's no question about it." Others were not so convinced that his faculty status made an impact. According to another faculty member, because his faculty membership did not reside in one of the three academic divisions at St. Norbert College (Social Sciences, Humanities or Natural Sciences), his influence was limited. Another senior administrator summed it up well, noting that "as a faculty member you're actually more of a peer," but "you still have to be an effective advocate." He noted that "he (the Associate Dean for International Education and Outreach) certainly knows how to work a bureaucracy ... he's good in the corridors and over the lunch table, as well as in faculty meetings."

Visible action. Johnston and Edelstein (1993) assert that because campus-internationalization efforts are long-term and require sustained attention and effort, it is important for colleges to have public symbols on campus to give stakeholders the impression that the effort is progressing and that change is taking place. They note that these could take the form of printed communications, creation of new departments or new titles, or public conferences or campus symposiums. Eckel and Kezar (2003) offer a similar insight. In their opinion, visible action demonstrates that continued advancement towards an articulated goal is taking place. These activities, in their opinion, need to be highly visible and actively promoted so that stakeholders understand that the change continues to be an institutional priority and that progress is being made. This is critical with long-term change projects like campus internationalization, because over time momentum and focus tend to drift and pessimism sets in if stakeholders do not perceive that progress is taking place. They note that visible action can take many forms. It could mean celebrating a milestone, creating a new department, or a president's report on a specific accomplishment. The critical component in their view is not the content but the timing of the visible actions and the depth of these actions in reaching various constituencies. Kelleher (1996) notes that public documents such as mission statements can also signify a college's commitment to internationalization as it goes through a process of transformation.

St. Norbert College has had a long history of visible actions signifying the commitment to and development of campus internationalization. One of the first

documented activities was the public announcement in 1972 of a 4,000 mile airplane tour undertaken by two professors who were co-directors of the IBLAS program (Knight Life, 1972). The goal of this tour was to obtain course credit waivers at a number of graduate schools of business, but it seems that the underlying agenda was to announce and promote the IBLAS program to the College and external community. Since then, St. Norbert College has had a number of visible actions. For example, in 1978 a former chancellor's house was turned into the International Culture House. Students that had studied abroad for a semester had the opportunity to live in this house instead of a dorm (Foley & Lang, 1988). Around the same time German, Spanish and French language clubs were created on campus. In the late 1980s the college greatly expanded the number of speakers and visiting scholars who presented on global issues involving politics, economics and culture. Foley and Lang (1988) write that "An expanded and expanding global consciousness is apparent in the speakers, programs and visiting scholars sponsored throughout the year by various campus organizations." These lectures were revamped some years later as the Great Decisions series which continues today. This is a part of a national lecture series in which experts speak about contemporary world topics on a weekly basis over a period of several months (St. Norbert College, 2011). Additionally, from 1979 through 1988 St. Norbert College hosted an annual event called the Economic Summit which covered economic issues in the U.S. and the world including a number of Nobel laureates as presenters (St. Norbert College, 1988). Since 2003, faculty at St.

Norbert College have worked with their counterparts from the University of Wisconsin Green Bay to present another international program called the International Visiting Scholars Program. The goal of this program is to bring well-known professionals from abroad to lecture and teach on the two campuses (University of Wisconsin, Green Bay, 2011).

The one visible action that left an unmistakable mark on campus as an international institution was the creation of the Bemis Center for International Education. Built in 1995, it has an imposing presence on campus. In talking to a former president of St. Norbert College, the original intention in creating the Center, along with other international activities, was to differentiate the College from other liberal arts colleges. In his opinion, “to have a successful institution you have to be able to have some differentiation.” He argued that it is difficult for people to differentiate between institutions and what is offered is essentially interchangeable from one institution to the next. “Just take out one name, put in another ... what’s the uniqueness? Why should people come here? What makes it different?” In describing the early discussions at the College, he notes:

... they were always very concerned for keeping the liberal arts and not emphasizing any one particular part of the institution. But the common conversation on the campus (was) what should be our identity? They certainly didn't want to become an athletic institution more than an academic institution and that was a concern. So we were looking for something, and I remember

coming back from a conference, and talking about it, and realizing that internationalism seems like such a natural fit because Catholic means universal. We've got the Norbertines who already have all these exchanges. We've had some dabbling, the opportunities were there, but the students really weren't taking advantage of them yet.

With a federal grant in the amount of \$9.9 million and secured private funding through donation of \$8.3 million, the 45,000-square-foot Bemis Center for International Education was built (St. Norbert College International Center Proposal, 1989). As explained in the next section of this chapter, the Center was intended to be multipurpose and provide international services to a variety of external clients. It contains a conference center, catering facilities, offices of the Center of International Education staff, and faculty offices (Connell, 2004). Several years later, flags were added to the side of the building facing campus. According to the Associate Dean for International Education and Outreach, the flags represent the home countries of every enrolled international student. Figure 3 shows the campus-facing side of the Bemis Center for International Education with international flags representing the countries of enrolled international students.



Figure 3. Photograph of the Bemis Center for International Education. Photograph taken April 2011.

Apart from having no formal programs in place for faculty to receive international training and development, the factors influencing campus internationalization match the pattern of the theory of institutional transformation and campus internationalization quite well. There is strong evidence of faculty involvement, senior administrator involvement, collaborative leadership, and visible action as factors influencing campus internationalization at St. Norbert College. Additionally, while there is no formal program in place for faculty development, there are opportunities for faculty to get international training, and faculty seem to take advantage of these resources to add an international

component to their teaching and to the curriculum. This is consistent with several other practices at the college. For example, the Heritage Tours are optional. One does not have to visit the Norbertine Abbeys and understand the mission and history of the Norbertines to work and study at the College. They are exceedingly popular though and typically sell out quickly. With the exception of some of the international majors, students are not required to study abroad, or up until recently, even study a second language. Still, approximately 25% of each graduating class studies abroad while enrolled at St. Norbert College (Office of Institutional Effectiveness, St. Norbert College, 2010). There seems to be other factors at play that are also influencing campus internationalization. These are discussed in the next section.

Factors Influencing Campus Internationalization Unique to St. Norbert College

In this section the important factors influencing campus internationalization at St. Norbert College that do not match factors described in the literature are covered. These are aspects of internationalization that are unique to St. Norbert College and that have had a significant influence on the success of campus internationalization.

Norbertine heritage and mission. Of all of the topics discussed as factors influencing campus internationalization the one that all interviewees agreed on was the importance of the Norbertine heritage and mission. Many considered the influence to be profound. When asked about the impact that the Norbertine

heritage has on campus internationalization, one faculty member stated that “It has a huge impact.” When asked whether it had an impact on the ethos of internationalization, one senior administrator answered: “Unquestionably!” Another senior administrator argued that it had an influence “on just about everything we do.” Another staff member noted that Norbertine ideal of community and service “leads to people thinking about serving others, for example going into the Peace Corps, or for studying peace and justice as a major.” Another staff member noted that in his opinion, it did not have a significant impact on students, but argued that it had an important influence on faculty and staff.

According to several interviewees and information from the St. Norbert College website, the Norbertine Order was founded by St. Norbert in 1119 (St. Norbert College, 2011). Although he was born a nobleman and appointed as a church leader, he refused its responsibilities. After a conversion some years later did he be began to devote himself to prayer and became a priest. He gave up his wealth and began preaching a reformist doctrine (St. Norbert College, 2011). The Norbertine Order was formed in Prémontré, France, and evolved into community of Catholic scholars and teachers. Currently the Norbertine Order has abbeys throughout the world and in the U.S. (St. Norbert College, 2011).

The influence of the Norbertine tradition on St. Norbert College and its campus-internationalization efforts is multifaceted. As mentioned earlier, up until the 1960s Norbertine priests, mostly from Europe, taught on campus. Having these priests in the classrooms and on campus brought an international perspective, at

least a European perspective. But, because part of the Norbertine tradition is to provide service and help for underserved communities, both at home and abroad, bringing international students on campus from, for example, Japan after World War II, or sending students to impoverished countries to help others, was a natural extension of their beliefs. One senior administrator describes the situation for the Japanese students: “Right after the war, all those kids . . . they came here after the war, and they worked in the Priory. They cleaned the Priory and served meals on the Priory and so forth. And that was how their tuition was paid for.” According to one faculty member, “Campus internationalization at St. Norbert College fits into the ideals of the Norbertines like social justice and service to the community like the Zambia project and other activities.” In the words of another faculty member, “. . . they definitely have that outward looking focus as well of service, not only within your community, but the more general world community. And they definitely strive to communicate that to the people who are here and are supportive of that.”

In a number of conversations with interviewees the term “radical hospitality” came up in reference to the Norbertine heritage. When one senior administrator was asked to define what this means, he referred to the early history of the order:

When St. Norbert started the order they made a policy of taking in travelers along the road who needed a place to stay, regardless of where they were from. They were invited into the abbeys and

treated with the utmost of care. At St. Norbert College we also take absolute best care of our guests in any way, shape and form, regardless of where they are from.

Another staff member, in applying this concept to international students summed it up this way: “That idea of inclusivity and community and radical hospitality, it is also extended to international students and they are welcomed as part of the community, as part of the Norbertine ethos.”

As an institution, leaders at the College take this idea of radical hospitality seriously. In making sure they are living up to their standards, they survey students asking them to share both positives and negatives about the college as a welcoming environment for both women and people of diverse origins and cultures (Kurowski, 2008). Staff and faculty also provide support for international students in many interesting ways. One staff member mentioned that when the cafeteria chef noticed that some international students did not like the traditional cafeteria fare, he encouraged them to bring him recipes from their home countries which he added to the menu. Another faculty member mentioned that when Discoveries International needed a new location, staff members working in facilities actively assisted them in finding a better space on campus to fit their needs. Various offices have also donated equipment for Discoveries International to operate. One faculty member said that, “this is an example of the community spirit and interconnectedness that exists here. People want to help Discoveries International and they want to help the students.”

Faculty also assist international students who have unique needs. For example one CIE staff member described a situation of a Danish student who is a hockey player and wanted to take three weeks off and play with the Danish national team. The instructors enabled this to happen by emailing her lessons while she was away. Another example is the international potluck hosted each year by the Department of Residential Education and Housing. This event gives international students an opportunity to share their culture with American students. This well-attended event draws students, faculty and staff. International students have the opportunity to share food from their home countries and provide cultural information of their homelands and families (Department of Residential Education & Housing, 2008).

The connection between the College's Norbertine Heritage and campus internationalization is also reinforced symbolically on campus with a series of signs that exist at various points around campus. Figure 4 shows one sign which demonstrates the connection between the Norbertine Abbey in Berne, Switzerland, and several study-abroad-opportunity locations.

On these poles, top signs point to the Norbertine monasteries that exist around the world and the distance from campus to these monasteries. The lower signs, in green, represent major cities around the world where the College has student study-abroad exchange relationships.



Figure 4. Photograph of One of Several Signs on the St. Norbert College Campus.
Photo Taken April 2011.

The idea for the signs according to the Associate Dean for International Education and Outreach, was to “connect the dots between the international heritage of the College and the places where students can study.”

Hybrid model for the Center for International Education. Another factor that one can look to as a unique but important influence on campus internationalization is the hybrid model of the Center for International Education. This Center can be labeled hybrid because of the combination of academic support and revenue-generating services that are offered. Currently, the CIE is generally divided into four main groups of services. As Figure 5 indicates, the first generate revenue directly for the Center by providing services to the local community and to international students needing to improve their English language skills (Tullbane,

2000). Language services include translation and interpretation, after-school international language programs for elementary school children, and adult conversational second languages. These services are used most often by businesses, individuals, and families in Northeast Wisconsin. Various post-secondary credit programs are also offered to local high school students in a number of academic areas. According to the Associate Dean for International Education and Outreach, a new program in development will offer Wisconsin K–12 teachers and police officers introductory conversational Spanish and Somali languages workshops to improve communications and interaction with two fast growing minority populations in the region. Finally, staff at the Center oversee the English as a Second Language Institute which offers programs in English language instruction to both international high school students during the summer and post-secondary students during the academic year. The goal of the program is to enable students to develop proficient English language skills to be able to enroll in degree programs in the U.S. or in other English-speaking countries. Typically 50 to 70 students from about 14 countries are enrolled in ESL classes, and six to nine of these students matriculate as St. Norbert College students each year (Porior, 2009).

The second main group includes administration of international academic support services including study abroad, international student and scholar services, and international programming. Several CIE staff members interviewed mentioned that one of the major initiatives in this area was to reduce reliance on third-party service providers for study abroad and to create direct bilateral agreements with

host institutions. This has reduced costs and closely aligned the academic programs at St. Norbert College with study-abroad options, reducing the risk that students will lose credits or core requirements while abroad. According to one CIE staff member, the goal in the international programming area is to “offer programming that brings an international component to the American students and at the same time addresses some of the cross-cultural dimension needs that the international students have.”

An example of this is called Football 101. In this three-part workshop, international students are invited by the football coaches to learn about the game, try on the equipment, watch a practice, and attend a game and be acknowledged to the fans as special guests of the team (Foreign Relations, 2011). The third group of services includes oversight of the interdisciplinary international programs, including the IBLAS and IS majors; several independent minors, including Peace and Justice, Leadership Studies, and the Philippine Certificate; and ROTC (St. Norbert College Faculty Handbook, 2010). The Associate Dean for International Education and Outreach is directly responsible for the management of these programs. Because of his military background, ROTC and Leadership Studies were added to his responsibilities.

The fourth group of services overseen by CIE staff is composed of special programs that include the Great Decisions lecture series, along with other lectures and special outreach programming for the community.

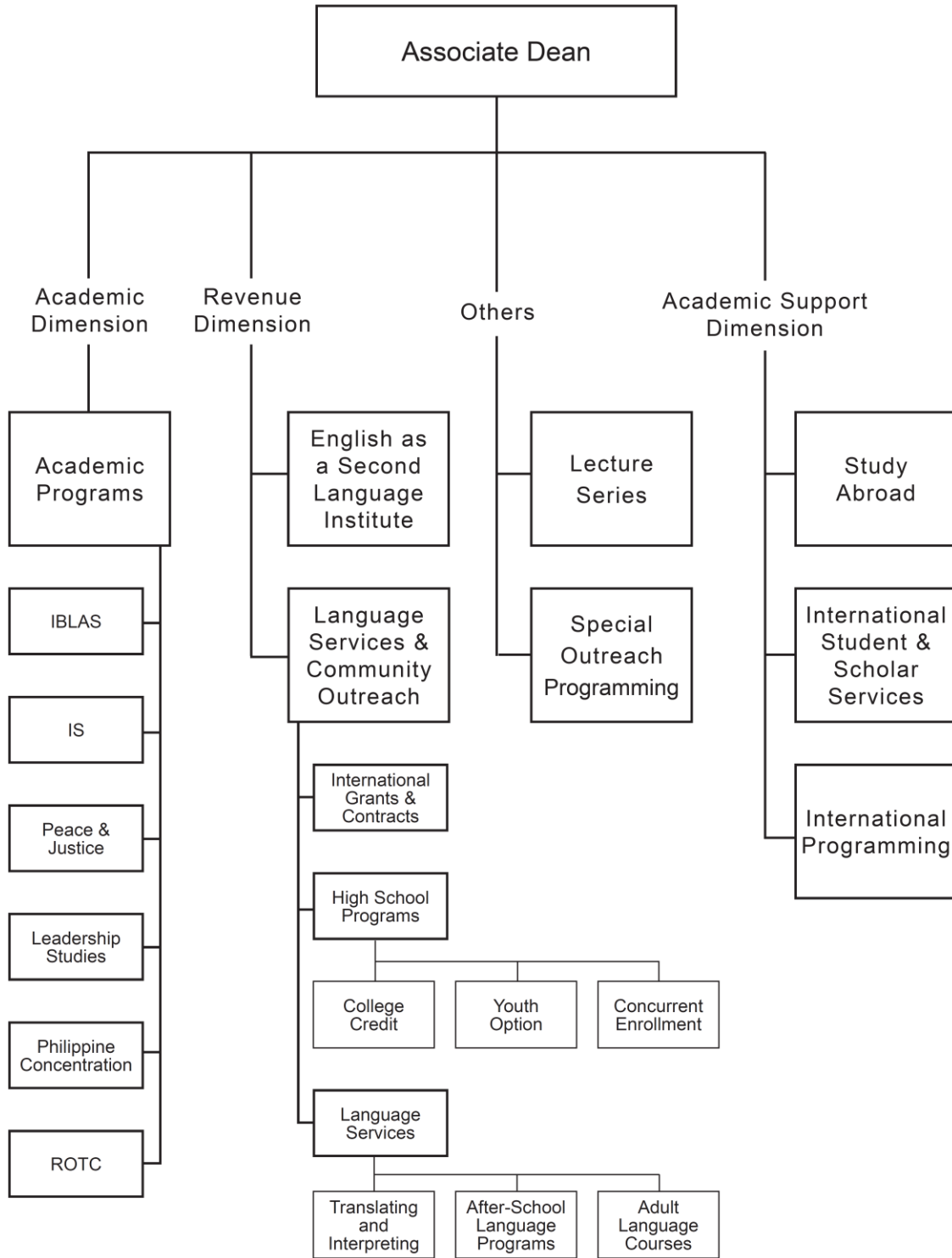


Figure 5. Overview of Responsibilities of the Center for International Education.

Previously, CIE staff members also recruited international students, but several staff noted that those responsibilities moved to the Admissions Department in 2010.

As a hybrid center CIE staff provide services to a variety of internal and external constituencies, including enrolled international students, students studying abroad, students enrolled in international majors or programs, local primary and secondary students, international students not yet enrolled in a degree program, local businesses, and individual community members. Because non-credit education programs and professional services are offered, it has a direct stream of revenue apart from traditional tuition revenue from degree-seeking students. According to the Associate Dean for International Education and Outreach, the ESL program alone takes in roughly \$750,000 net a year. As discussed in Chapter 5, this is an important factor enabling the CIE to add and expand services.

The hybrid model of the CIE could not have happened without the development of the Bemis Center for International Education. The original impetus for the Center was not necessarily to enhance the international experience for undergraduate college students, but as a means to address the trade imbalances that the U.S. faced in the 1980s. In the proposal issued to the federal government, the trade deficit was said to be the product of both a lack of competitiveness on the part of companies based in the U.S. and a lack of international competence of U.S. workers to be able to understand other cultures, other languages, and have an understanding of international business, economics and international affairs (St.

Norbert College International Center Proposal, 1989). Additionally, the proposal outlined the need for companies in Wisconsin, especially those in the northeastern part of the state, to increase the export of goods overseas to help address the trade balance issue. Finally the proposal positioned St. Norbert College as a uniquely situated institution to provide a number of services to individuals and companies, and it stressed the benefits gained from the cooperation of industry and education institutions. According to the proposal's authors:

In an interdependent and knowledge-based global economy, colleges and universities can and should play an increasingly important role in restoring American business competitiveness in the world. The proposed International Center at St. Norbert College is designed to expand on the development of the internationalized curriculum, forge stronger linkages between the College and the business community, and bring to northern Wisconsin a vital new tool for economic development. (St. Norbert College International Center Proposal, 1989, p. 13)

The proposal outlined four categories of services that it would offer once grant funds were approved and the center built:

1. Language and culture training for adults, students and children along with possible short-term trips abroad and other activities.
2. Business services that would promote international trade including business information services, custom research services, international business

training and development, along with seminars and publications on international political, business and economic trends.

3. Teacher training to help primary and secondary teacher develop global perspectives and knowledge of the world in their teaching, and assist in the development of internationally-focused curriculum development.

4. Information in a variety of different sources to help businesspeople and others to develop an awareness of environmental issues (St. Norbert College International Center Proposal, 1989).

The vision for the International Center came from Dr. Thomas Manion, who was president of St. Norbert College from 1983 to 2000. As a trained economist he understood the impending impact of globalization before many others. According to one faculty member, he was "...very sensitive to the fact that we were going to have a global society, and that we had to help to prepare students to live a global world." Having received his PhD in Economics from Clark University, he worked at Bryant College in Smithfield, Rhode Island, and then later became President of the College of Saint Rose in Albany, New York in 1973 (The College of Saint Rose, 2011). Additionally, he served on a number of academic and economic boards including the Regents Advisory Council of the Northeast Area of New York, the New England Council for Economic Development, the American Association for Higher Education, and the Commission on Independent Colleges and Universities (The College of Saint Rose, 2011). After becoming president at St. Norbert, he significantly accelerated the internationalization of the curriculum

and programs, and expanded opportunities for study abroad along with increasing the number of international students studying on campus (Foley & Lang, 1998).

Once the Center was built in 1995 many of the proposed services were put into practice, but revenues fell significantly short of projected goals. In 1998 a committee composed mostly of faculty referred to as the International Center Review Working Group called for a number of significant changes to the scope and mission of the Center (International Center Review Working Group, 1998). According to the group, the mission of the center did not align with the core values of a liberal arts institution. The original goals of offering international services to K–12 teachers and businesses, advancement of the regional economy, college awareness and differentiation of the College as a niche institution was not in harmony with “undergraduate teaching, service, collegiality, subsidiarity, and shared governance” (p. 3). According to the group, at issue were two major problems with the structure of the center. First, activities associated with the center were mostly externally focused and staff did not provide international academic support such as international student and scholar services as well as study abroad. These services were run out of another office within the College called Undergraduate International Education, according to the Associate Dean for International Education and Outreach. The second major problem was that actual revenues were significantly lower than expected and the grant opportunities did not align with the skills of faculty and researchers. Moreover, the staffing of the center seemed to be inadequate for the diverse offerings that it provided. The use of

faculty as researchers and analysts for many of the projects proved to be not only inadequate for the needs of business clients, but also stretched the capacity of faculty to teach effectively while simultaneously managing the demands of the projects.

The group recommended that the center realign itself with core academic functions of the College and provide more of a balance of services to internal and external constituencies, specifically service to undergraduate students. Additionally, the Center was to operate and function within the existing governance structure of the College and change the portfolio of its services to both reflect the core values and competencies of the College and resolve the financial issues that had plagued it. The group recommended that it detach itself from the Bemis Center for International Education conference services, which would be run as a separate organization serving the community. The committee recommended that the Center be run by an Associate Dean for International Education and Outreach who would report to the Dean of the College and Academic Vice President, similar to other academic functions at the College, with oversight from a number of faculty committees. Finally the International Center was renamed the Center for International Education to better reflect its new purpose and mission.

The Associate Dean for International Education and Outreach hired to turn around the new Center for International Education was Dr. Joseph Tullbane. He has a unique background for a higher education administrator specializing in international education. The majority of his career was spent in the U.S.

Department of Defense as an analyst in foreign affairs. While in the military he lived in Russia, Germany and Spain, along with several other countries. His PhD is in Russian Area Studies and prior to employment at St. Norbert College he worked as a private analyst and consultant on Russian, Eurasian and Eastern European politics, economics and security issues (St. Norbert College, 2011).

The recommendations of the group created a foundation for which the hybrid model of the CIE was built. But, according to the Associate Dean for International Education and Outreach's opinion, the specifics of the staffing, structure, financials, and other aspects were not in place when he started:

In 1999, when I got here in August, I looked around and said, "we are significantly understaffed in many areas," and I was given the directive to grow campus internationalization. I told them if we are going to grow, we have to build the infrastructure. They thought it was done at that point, but it wasn't even defined.

According to the Associate Dean for International Education and Outreach, one the first things he did was create an office of international student and scholar services and a study-abroad office. Additionally, he leveraged the ESL Institute as a means to enroll international students, which it had not done before, added summer programming, and increased the overall number of students. Finally, he shut down a number of business services that were not longer funded, or feasible. For example, bidding for international contracts, which was reasonably profitable in the 1990s, was discontinued when funding ran out from the federal government.

The Center was divested of the revenue producing elements that had little direct relationship to international education, such as the Conference and Business Center operations, the Survey Center, and the Continuing Professional Education program. He also brought the governance structure of the Center into alignment with other academic divisions. For example faculty committees were created with oversight of international and interdisciplinary majors such as IBLAS and IS, and faculty members were appointed as directors of a number of service areas in the Center. Additionally, to engage faculty outside of the international fields of study, four rotating faculty offices were brought into Center as well. These activities, along with efforts to actively engage faculty and students, were undertaken to reposition the Center as a focal point for the internationalization of the College (Tullbane, 2000).

Additionally, he enabled the center to achieve a more sound financial footing. According to a report (CIE Summary of Cost Controls, 2009), operations directly controlled by the CIE lost an average of \$350,000 a year for its first four years of operations. After its restructuring in 1999, the goal was to put it “in the black in two years,” which was achieved through a number of the changes discussed above, and increase revenue in a number of new areas. For example, the translations services business increased the number of languages that it provided from eight to 59 without adding staff or significant resources (CIE Summary of Cost Controls, 2009). According to the Associate Dean for International Education and Outreach, instead of relying on St. Norbert faculty and students, who often had

time and commitment restrictions, they began using professional agencies and professional translators from around the world and took on the role of broker between the client and vendor. Doing so greatly expanded the level and quality of service, the number of services, as well as speed of delivery. This has enabled them to create a base of companies that use their services regularly, including companies in Milwaukee and even in Chicago, and has turned it into profit-making venture.

Additionally, the CIE staff undertook a comprehensive restructuring of study-abroad programming, resulting in an increase of students studying abroad from fewer than 50 a year to more than 150 a year (CIE Summary of Cost Controls, 2009). The Associate Dean for International Education and Outreach noted that prior to 2000 the College relied mostly on study-abroad providers such as Academic Studies Abroad or Institute for the International Education of Students, but after an audit they found that there was an extra expense of \$3,000 to \$3,500 for the services, and there was no assurance that credits completed at one of these programs would transfer back to the student's major. So instead of working with these service providers it was decided that they would work directly with the top hosting schools, have the programs evaluated by the faculty-led International Education Committee to ensure transfer of credits and save the expenses of the service providers. This has enabled them to send more students abroad for less expense. Additionally, according to the Associate Dean for International Education and Outreach, their programs have been so successful that a number of small

colleges in Wisconsin that do not have their own programs have begun using St. Norbert College as a provider, which in turn provides the CIE with an additional source of revenue.

The Center for International Education then was brought about from a combination of people whose attention and skills at appropriate moments were needed. The impetus for the Center and subsequent federal funding were the result of national and global economic trends which the president of the College at the time was able to understand the opportunity and take advantage of it. Without his vision and understanding, the Center would never have been conceived. The members of the International Center Review Working Group had the broad academic and institutional knowledge to make recommendations which enabled the Center to align with the culture and mission of the College. Finally, through the leadership and business acumen of the Associate Dean for International Education and Outreach, the Center became a functional division of St. Norbert College and ultimately a hybrid center. As explained in the next chapter, this enables him and his staff a number of advantages in advancing campus internationalization.

The Norbertine heritage and the hybrid model for the Center for International Education are both important influences on campus internationalization. But each influences campus internationalization differently. The Norbertine heritage has a direct influence on the culture of the organization, and, in the words of one senior administrator, it “permeates the place.” Going back to Schein (2010), organizational culture is:

a pattern of shared basic assumptions that was learned by a group as it solved its problems of external adaptation and internal integration, that has worked well enough to be considered valid and, therefore, to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think, and feel in relation to those problems. (p. 17)

In the case of St. Norbert College, the concept of campus internationalization “fit” those that were espoused by the Norbertines and proved to be successful and directly applicable to the goals of liberal education. As this concept became accepted over time, it created the core of what is “right” and “proper” to do, think, and feel. When interviewees were asked how faculty became involved in campus internationalization, or when asked to account for the level of support from senior administrators for international activities, some were unable to offer concrete reasons. Some responded that “this is how things are done at St. Norbert College,” and some traced it back to the influence of the Norbertines. This demonstrates that the impact of the culture on campus internationalization is profound, and it directly relates to the College’s Norbertine heritage.

The influence of the hybrid model for the Center for International Education is a bit more straightforward. By consolidating and professionalizing international academic services, international academic programs and international external services, overall services are delivered more efficiently and at higher quality. This is for both undergraduate students and external community clients. Additionally, by leveraging income and resources from multiple sources, staff at

the Center can expand services without draining resources from other important functions of the College. As explained in Chapter 5, it is a critical factor which has led St. Norbert College to significantly expand campus internationalization despite not having, for example, a large endowment from which to draw. In the words of the Associate Dean for International Education and Outreach, the hybrid model “guarantees growth” in international programming.

Alternative Factors

Yin (2009) writes that case studies need to consider rival explanations and discuss why they are not considered important factors that influence events. In this section a number of factors often cited by the literature on campus internationalization (Childress, 2010; Green & Olson, 2003; Johnston & Edelstein, 1993; Kelleher, 1996), are identified and explained why they are not applicable as important factors influencing campus internationalization in the St. Norbert College case.

St. Norbert College supports most of its campus-internationalization programming through a large endowment. Unlike some colleges and universities that are able to fund a significant portion of campus-internationalization activities from endowed funds, St. Norbert College has not had sufficient endowment resources to finance and expand programming through restricted or unrestricted funding. Childress (2010), in her analysis of Duke University and the University of Richmond, writes that large endowments supported the development of faculty engagement in campus internationalization.

These funds were used to support visiting scholars, faculty collaboration, projects, teaching, research activities and service projects. Both Duke University and the University of Richmond are larger than St. Norbert College (6,197 and 2,857 undergraduate students respectively), and their endowments are significantly larger than that of St. Norbert College. As of 2007, according to Childress (2010), Duke University had an endowment of \$4.5 billion, while the University of Richmond's endowment was \$1.6 billion. In contrast, at the beginning of 2008, St. Norbert College had an endowment of \$69,898,873 (GuideStar, 2009). Additionally, while the fundraising staff at St. Norbert College have been actively soliciting donors for funds, these have been mostly directed towards student scholarships, faculty support, facility renovations and technology improvements (Kunkel, 2009). Apart from the funding for the International Center in 1990, there have been no significant endowment funds or direct funds from outside sources directed to campus internationalization. Campus internationalization at St. Norbert College is instead primarily funded by a combination of tuition revenue along with revenue generated by CIE services (Strategic Goals for the Center for International Education, 2005).

St. Norbert College is mandated by an external organization, consortium, partnership, government agency or individual to internationalize the campus. Campus-internationalization efforts at St. Norbert College have been driven by institutional goals, not from external mandates. St. Norbert College is an independent private liberal arts institution with no ties to any state university or

college system (Saint Norbert College, n.d.). While St. Norbert College is a participating institution in the Wisconsin Association of Independent Colleges and Universities (WAICU), all of WAICU's programs are directed to support educational opportunities at their member colleges. They provide college advocacy, resource sharing, exchange of information and scholarship, public education, and student access advocacy. Participation in WAICU programming is voluntary, and at this time WAICU does not provide any international services (WAICU, 2011). Additionally, as mentioned earlier, St. Norbert College is affiliated with the Norbertine Catholic Order. This affiliation greatly influences the mission and heritage of the College and is a factor that influences campus internationalization. That being said, there is no evidence to support that campus internationalization is mandated by the Norbertine Order. The influence is a result of the values and traditions of the Norbertine Order, which are reflected in the mission of the college and its planning (St. Norbert College, Strategic Plan, 2010).

The operational budget of St. Norbert College is dependent on international student tuition and therefore must provide campus internationalization as a means attract these students. While international students are an important component of the campus-internationalization strategy (Strategic Goals for the Center for International Education, 2005), they are not a major source of tuition income for the College. In an institutional report, it is written that in 2010 there were 115 full-time, degree-seeking international students on campus; 12 international exchange students attending the College for either one

semester or an entire year; and 57 international students studying in the College's English as a Second Language (ESL) Institute, preparing to attend college (Office of Institutional Effectiveness, St. Norbert College, 2010). This is out of 2,060 undergraduate students, or roughly 9% of the total enrolled students. In the same report, the College also provides almost \$1 million in scholarships and grants for international students.

While the number of international students on campus is significant, this is a result of strategic planning and action rather than economic need. According to the Associate Dean for International Education and Outreach, in 1999 the College had no strategy to recruit international students and enrolled about 10 international students through what he called "osmosis." He decided to increase this number to about 10% of the total student body (roughly 200 students) with "country diversity and economic diversity as the goals." In his opinion, having international students on campus was a "linchpin" for campus internationalization. In other words, their presence on campus would drive additional campus-internationalization initiatives. Although the revenue from international students was important to the endeavor, this was not the driver. The goal of international student recruitment was to add an international dimension to the campus in alignment with the strategic goal of "including a broad diversity of people and perspectives in its academic and community life and continue to develop an international dimension as a complement to the mission of the College" (Tullbane, 2000).

St. Norbert College is situated in a highly international region of the U.S. and this has an impact on campus internationalization. A quick glance at the demographic breakdown around Green Bay and De Pere shows that the region where the College is located is not international or diverse. According to the U.S. Census Bureau, the population in the region is 85.9% white with 6.8% of the population born outside of the U.S. (U.S. Census Bureau, 2010). It could be argued that the *lack* of diversity was a factor that motivated leaders at St. Norbert College to internationalize the campus, and there is some evidence to support this. In talking to a number of interviewees, because of the homogenous environment of St. Norbert College's environment, the need for an international experience for students was enhanced. According to one senior administrator, "Being in De Pere, Wisconsin, has kind of been an incentive to make sure that students are aware of the larger world around them." Another faculty member was impressed with the ability of college leaders to establish a college with an international dimension in a parochial area of the country where there "is nothing going on."

Campus internationalization at St. Norbert was the result of a charismatic president, faculty member or other individual. While there have been a number of individual champions of campus internationalization at St. Norbert College, a large number of individuals over a time span of at least 40 years were responsible for its development. When asked to identify individual champions of campus internationalization, a number of interviewees deemed the question to be outdated or invalid. According to one CIE staff member, when

asked to identify an individual champion of campus internationalization, noted that this “may be an antiquated way of looking at it because most of the people who work here do so because they want that.” Another faculty member answered the same question this way: “There are a lot of people. There are faculty members in education, political science, and modern languages as well as the Associate Dean for International Education and Outreach in the Center for International Education and his staff. There are many people, not just one or two.”

While there is evidence that campus internationalization was greatly accelerated and expanded by the president who presided over the college in the 1980s and 1990s (Foley & Lang, 1988), he was not solely responsible for campus internationalization. According to him, “St. Norbert really was founded as an international college” and “has always had an international flavor.” In his opinion, he was able to expand campus internationalization because it “seemed like such a natural fit.” But he was certainly not alone and responsible for all the progress that has been made. The Associate Dean for International Education and Outreach also expanded campus internationalization through the professionalization and institutionalization of the campus, and ultimately the integration and development of the hybrid model of the CIE. He cites faculty as being the original champions. According to the Associate Dean, “There are a lot of faculty members who champion campus internationalization.” Faculty members were the first to develop study-abroad opportunities for students, and they did this “on their own” and “without any money backing them.” His role as Associate Dean for International

Education and Outreach was to “consolidate, professionalize, and centralize” the study-abroad opportunities so that they would not become “island programs” dependent on a single faculty member for their survival.

Conclusion

It is clear that campus internationalization at St. Norbert College was not significantly influenced by endowed funding, external mandates, dependency on international student tuition, location in an international location, or the influence of one charismatic individual. The evidence clearly supports this. This strengthens the hypothesis that the five factors identified in the theory of institutional transformation and campus internationalization, along with the influence of the Norbertine heritage and the unique business model of the CIE are the seven important factors influencing campus internationalization at St. Norbert College. In Chapter 5 the process of how these seven factors work together in a systematic way to influence campus internationalization is discussed.

Chapter 5: Discussion and Conclusion

In Chapter 4 the factors influencing campus internationalization at St. Norbert College are documented. In this chapter the question of how these identified factors influence campus internationalization is summarized and discussed. Before beginning, it is important to review Ellingboe's definition of campus internationalization. She writes that it is an "ongoing, future-orientated, multidimensional, interdisciplinary, leadership-driven vision" involving "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" (Ellingboe, 1998, p. 199). For this analysis, it is important to point out the multidimensional, interdisciplinary, and leadership-driven aspects of campus internationalization. As one reviews the process at St. Norbert College, it becomes evident that it is the result of many factors working together over time, not one or two factors working independently. It is important to take into account factors that are identifiable, such as policies, symbols, and espoused values, as well as factors such as organizational culture, values, and beliefs that may be difficult to identify (Schein, 2010).

Additionally, to understand the process of campus internationalization, it is important to revisit Knight's internationalization cycle (Knight & de Wit, 1995). Knight and de Wit argue that internationalization is not a linear process that results in a goal. It is instead a continuous cycle that follows a six-step progression starting with awareness and moving to commitment, planning, implementation,

review, and reinforcement. Progression does not take place in a single, predetermined direction, but flows bidirectionally and interdependently between the steps. When reviewing the progression of campus internationalization at St. Norbert College, it is also clear that it has not been a linear progression. Over the span of 40 years, some initiatives remained while others were phased out. There were times when it was accelerated with multiple activities taking place simultaneously, and times when it remained static. Some interviewees describe it as a process of “ebb and flow.” Also, even though campus internationalization is mature at St. Norbert College, in talking to many stakeholders, it is clear that a final end goal will not be reached. It is in a state of constant development and change.

To analyze the factors influencing campus internationalization, Senge’s (1990) systems approach is used as a model. According to him, this approach focuses on the interrelatedness of various parts of a system, or as he calls it “the invisible fabrics of interrelated activities” (p. 7), which interact with each other over time. This approach is used because it is impossible to describe the process of campus internationalization by focusing on each factor individually. While some factors may influence campus internationalization more than others, it is the cumulative effect of a number of factors working interdependently that has driven St. Norbert College’s campus internationalization forward. Also, while some factors can be easily identified and documented, such as policies and plans, other factors, such as organizational culture, are essentially invisible and internal. But

both work in conjunction with each other in a systematic manner to influence campus internationalization.

Two types of factors exist at St. Norbert College that influence campus internationalization. The first type is called *initiating factors*. Campus internationalization cannot take place without individuals or small groups having the awareness and commitment to plan, lead, and implement new initiatives. New initiatives that have advanced campus internationalization at St. Norbert College have historically come from faculty members and senior administrators. But campus-internationalization initiatives do not progress without the second type of factors called *reinforcing factors*. Senge (1990) writes that these are factors that amplify or grow existing systems. They do not necessarily start something, but they have a pronounced influence on initiatives already in place. In the case of St. Norbert College, these are factors such as faculty support and development, Norbertine heritage, visible action, collaborative leadership, and the hybrid model of the CIE. It is also important to note here that faculty and senior administrator involvement can also act as reinforcing factors. For example, if a faculty member initiates a new international major, the involvement of other faculty in supporting this major will help determine whether it grows and becomes successful. Likewise, if a president or other senior administrator proposes a new initiative, it is typically a combination of faculty and administrative support, along with other reinforcing factors, that determines its growth or decline.

In this chapter, how individual factors influence campus internationalization is described first. Then using Yin's (2009) technique of explanation building, a description is developed of how a combination of factors led to the development of three key aspects of campus internationalization: (a) the development of international programs or majors, (b) the development of study-abroad programs, and (c) the recruitment and integration of international students. While these are not the only indicators of campus internationalization (Paige, 2005), and perhaps not the most important ones (Ellingboe, 1998; Childress, 2010), they were priorities for administrators and faculty at St. Norbert College.

Individual Factors

Initiating factor 1: faculty involvement. At St. Norbert College, faculty members are responsible for initiating many of the campus-internationalization programs including the IBLAS and IS programs (Foley & Lang, 1988). Again, the intention of the IBLAS program was to create an interdisciplinary major where students gain a general understanding of important concepts in global business, the skills needed to conduct business in different cultural settings, and proficiency in a second language (Varamini, 2000). The goal of the IS program is to "prepare students for professional careers in government service, international law, and various international and intercultural service organizations" (Smeall, 2000).

Creating new programs internationalizes the campus in a number of ways. Foley and Lang (1988) write that after the development of the IBLAS and IS programs, a series of developments followed. First, to build the IBLAS and IS

programs, faculty members needed to investigate international programs at other institutions, which exposed them to new opportunities and best practices in internationalizing the campus. Many of these practices were incorporated into the campus-internationalization programming at St. Norbert College. Second, because the IBLAS and IS programs required study abroad, new international partnerships and membership in consortia were created to meet these new demands. Third, finding new study-abroad opportunities required both faculty members and senior administrators to travel abroad to investigate potential study-abroad sites, which further enriched their international exposure and understanding. Fourth, new faculty were hired and the curricula in several modern language majors were updated to provide IBLAS and IS students language proficiency needed for study abroad. Fifth, the IBLAS and IS programs required a number of new courses to be developed. For example, Foley and Lang (1988) note that courses such as “Introduction to International Studies” and “Global Issues and Conflict” were created for the major, but have been subsequently incorporated into the general curriculum. “Introduction to International Studies” was incorporated into the general education curriculum with only a few changes. The “Global Issues and Conflict” course was expanded into a number of courses in the general education curriculum, covering a variety of global issues (Rutter et al., 2003).

Faculty also created a number of study-abroad opportunities at St. Norbert College. According to the Associate Dean for International Education and Outreach, before the creation of the CIE, all study-abroad programs were created,

managed, and led by faculty members. He notes that in the 1970s, the art faculty would take students to Paris and Florence. Soon afterward, faculty members began leading programs in biology to Panama and Peru. Developing study-abroad opportunities enhances campus internationalization. The more opportunities that students have to study abroad in interesting locations aligned with their programs of study, the more students will be inclined to go abroad. According to the Associate Dean for International Education and Outreach, with multiple study-abroad programs and large numbers of students going abroad, an administrative office to manage all the details is needed because faculty could not effectively manage these programs while teaching and advising students. The hiring of professional study-abroad administrators further internationalizes the campus, as they can manage programs more efficiently and develop additional opportunities, allowing more students to study abroad.

Initiating factor 2: senior administrator involvement. Senior administrators at St. Norbert College have also been actively involved in initiating international programs. Unlike faculty members, who often act independently when setting up new majors or study-abroad opportunities, senior administrators typically work in conjunction with faculty and others in the College. For example, one of the first documented administrator-led initiatives was a tour of European universities in 1986 by the Vice President of Academic Affairs and the Director of Foreign Study (Foley & Lang, 1988). Upon completion of this tour, they presented their recommendations to the faculty, which led to the expansion of a number of

new study-abroad opportunities for students. Similarly, according to an interviewed senior administrator, in 1987 the president of St. Norbert College went to China to set up a student exchange agreement with the Educational Ministry of Hunan Province. This enabled a number of St. Norbert Students the opportunity to study in China, which was not yet available at the time, and allowed a number of Chinese students to study at St. Norbert College. The senior administrator said that, even though there were only three Chinese students on campus in 1988, their presence enhanced the campus environment.

Working in concert with faculty, internationalization initiatives undertaken by senior administrators can influence campus internationalization significantly. According to one senior administrator, when working alone on new initiatives, faculty members often have no access to resources to maintain their programs. For example, the study-abroad programs in Paris and Florence set up by the art faculty in 1970 were disbanded about 20 years later when faculty members could no longer lead the trips anymore because of a lack of interest, family obligations, or teaching workload. The Associate Dean for International Education and Outreach believes that these types of faculty-led programs “tend to burn out the professors.” He believes that when senior administrators team up with faculty members to initiate programs, they can leverage the professional expertise of staff members to run the programs, allowing faculty to promote study abroad through advising students. This division of labor keeps faculty members doing what they do best, namely teaching, advising, developing curricula, and overseeing programs.

Professional staff and senior administrators can negotiate contracts, manage budgets, deal with legal and risk issues, and manage other administrative duties associated with study abroad and international students. Efficiencies created from this division of labor improves service to students and enables expansion of programs for more students.

One of the major campus-internationalization initiatives undertaken by senior administrators was the planning, funding, and building of the Bemis Center for International Education. As mentioned in Chapter 4, this project was the vision of a former president of St. Norbert College who led the initiative and was instrumental in getting it completed. Although the original business plan for the Center was changed, its creation put a permanent stamp on St. Norbert College as an international institution. As noted by Connell (2004), the building itself conveys the importance of internationalization with its imposing presence on campus. The Center's name is carved into the stone on the front side, and a row of international flags decorate the side of the building facing the campus. But its creation provides more than symbolic value. The Center became a focal point for campus internationalization for a number of important constituencies, both internal and external. The creation of the Center engaged the business community of Northeast Wisconsin and was designed to assist them in a number of international services (St. Norbert International Center Proposal, 1988). Some of these services are still provided. Additionally, the planning and funding of the Center engaged the board of trustees in campus internationalization. Finally, the recommendations for reform

of the Center in 1998 brought together faculty, staff, and senior administrators to better define the College's international goals and its basic working structure needed to accomplish these goals (International Center Review Working Group, 1998). Since then, with the appointment of an Associate Dean for International Education and Outreach, the renamed Center for International Education has continued to function as a focal point for campus internationalization, and its services have continually expanded and improved.

Reinforcing factor 1: hybrid model of the Center for International Education. As mentioned earlier, reinforcing factors enable existing programs to grow and develop. Campus-internationalization initiatives at St. Norbert College are often started by faculty and senior administrators. But the reinforcing factors have catalyzed these initiatives into the developed programs that one sees today at the College.

One of the most important factors enabling campus internationalization to develop is the hybrid model of the CIE. As discussed in Chapter 4, staff at the CIE manage a combination of academic and non-academic services. The non-academic services, such as Translation and Language Services, the ESL Institute, and high school credit programs, provide revenue directly to the CIE. According to the Associate Dean for International Education and Outreach, language instruction is taught by instructors who are not part of the St. Norbert faculty body. Courses are offered on a non-credit basis only. Any revenues that come in above annual expectations can be retained by the CIE. This is also the case for the ESL Institute,

which, according to Associate Dean for International Education and Outreach, takes in about \$750,000 in revenue a year. Other areas within the CIE umbrella include the interdisciplinary academic programs, such as IBLAS and IS, and the international academic support functions of study abroad, international programming, and international student and scholar services. The academic functions are funded through general operating funds of the college, and the international academic support functions are supported through a combination of general college operating funds and direct revenue.

This combination of revenue sources is the real strength of this model. In the Associate Dean for International Education and Outreach's opinion, having these multiple revenue sources allows him to expand without draining resources from other parts of the College. According to him:

We are one of the few organizations on campus, maybe the only one, that generally when I go in for new people—which is a big thing of small campus—I simply make the argument that we pay for it ourselves. There is little or no argument there because, for example, with ESL, any time I increase ESL, because it is a profit-making center, it's built into our costs. So, yes, our costs go up, but in essence I'm saying we are adding this person because we are now giving you more money.

In other words, with direct streams of revenue, the issue of balancing allocations of operating money for the CIE versus other departments is placated. If the CIE did

not have streams of income, the decision of whether to add personnel, for example, would have to be vetted by senior administrators against the other competing needs of the College.

Investing in the ESL Institute makes sense because adding funds to it should increase revenue. But the multiple sources of income for the CIE also enable other services to be expanded or improved. For example, according to the Associate Dean for International Education and Outreach, when the position of Director of International Programs needed to be hired, the senior administrative staff agreed because integrating international and domestic students within the College is an important goal. But they did not provide funding. Shifting some costs and changing the routing of a small amount of revenue allowed him to fund the position with CIE resources. In fact, in his opinion, the growth of services offered by the CIE since 1999 has generally developed in this manner. He predicts that, as needs arise for campus internationalization, this model will give flexibility to continue growing and adding services. In his opinion, the hybrid model has “huge advantages, and one of them is that it guarantees growth.”

Reinforcing factor 2: Norbertine heritage. The Norbertine heritage is another factor that has considerable impact on the development and expansion of campus internationalization. Its influence though is less obvious because it is not directly reflected in policy or prioritization of resources. To understand how it influences campus internationalization, we need to turn to Levine’s (1980) work on innovation in higher education. In his view, there are two main reasons that

change initiatives fail. The first is that the change is not profitable, meaning that it must satisfy the “organizational, group, or personal needs of the host” (p. 158). In other words, profitability is the degree to which a change initiative works at making work better or easier, or to improving the quality of services. The second reason initiatives fail to take hold, according to Levine, is that they are not compatible with the values and beliefs of the institution. As defined by him, these values are the “commonly prescribed guides to conduct in the organization” (p. 11).

It is the second reason that explains why the Norbertine heritage has had a profound impact on campus internationalization at St. Norbert College. Several of the interviewees noted that the values of the Norbertines include social justice, service to the community, and radical hospitality. Community is a strong belief for the Norbertines and can include one’s immediate community, as well as the community of people around the world. Norbertine abbeys exist around the world. They believe that an understanding of diverse cultures, perspectives and beliefs is an important part of one’s intellectual development (Kunkel, 2009). Additionally, the idea of “radical hospitality,” which was defined by one senior administrator as the “idea of inclusivity and community,” is extended to international students; they are welcomed as an integral part of the college community.

Clear examples of how the Norbertine heritage influenced campus-internationalization initiatives were brought up by many of the interviewees. For example, when a former president was asked how he was able to persuade others

to adopt the idea of building an international center, he replied, “The college really was founded as an international college. I mean the Norbertines came from Holland in 1898.” But the test of the International Center as an initiative compatible with the values and beliefs of the institution did not come about until it began to run into financial difficulties in the late 1990s. When the International Center Review Working Group (1998) drafted their recommendations for its restructure, it was clear that many parts were not “profitable” in that it did not meet the needs of most stakeholders. But instead of changing it to a library, science building, or something else, the group reaffirmed the College’s commitment to internationalization based on the values and ideas of its Norbertine heritage and made recommendations to improve it as an international center at an international institution. According to the document drafted by the group:

The Norbertine legacy has continued to foster a specific climate of values which contribute to international study and concern. This legacy includes inculcating a sensitivity to social need and the obligation to respond, exhibiting an understanding of interdependence and distributed decision-making which emerges from that understanding, and fostering the value of an enriching complementarity of persons. When these values are implemented by academic disciplines whose perspective encompasses the global community as the proper focus for a comprehensive liberal arts education, then the ground is established for an international

education environment that is appropriate and necessary for our time (International Center Review Working Group, 1998).

If one examines the history of campus-internationalization initiatives at St. Norbert College, the Norbertine heritage and the values collectively held at the College have often influenced the initiation of programs and provided an environment for them to be sustained. This is the case with the IBLAS program, the IS program, and many of the early study-abroad programs (Foley & Lang, 1988). As mentioned earlier, many individuals at St. Norbert College feel that campus internationalization is supported by the majority of faculty and staff, or that it has “permeated” the organization. This perception, along with the perception that it is in alignment with the Norbertine values of the College, empowers individuals to continue to promote its value and pursue new campus-internationalization initiatives.

Reinforcing factor 3: faculty support and development. Faculty support and development is another reinforcing factor of campus internationalization, which is important, but it is not as influential as the Norbertine heritage or the hybrid model of the CIE. Again, Kelleher (1996) asserts that an essential element influencing campus internationalization is the creation of a faculty development and reward system. In her opinion, to internationalize their teaching, faculty members must learn “new conceptualizations in addition to applying their disciplinary concepts and approaches to new material” (p. 435). In the context of St. Norbert College, it seems that institutional culture has more of an influence on

faculty development than policies or rewards. As mentioned earlier, other than the Norbertine Heritage Tours, there are no specific international training or incentive programs for faculty members. This does not mean though that international training is not taking place. The policy of faculty training and development is to provide multiple opportunities and support and to let faculty direct their training and development “to grow and develop according to their particular needs, interests, and talents, and at their chosen pace” (St. Norbert Faculty Handbook, 2010, p. 13). According to several people interviewed, many faculty members seem to take advantage of this open policy to gain the international exposure and training they need. Again, this seems to point to the influence of the organizational culture of the College, which is supportive of international learning. It is the beliefs and culture of the organization that influence what faculty members choose, not particular policies or incentives.

Faculty training and development also influences campus internationalization. According to one faculty member, international training and development is having an impact on the reform of the general education curriculum. In her opinion, the new curriculum, although not yet approved, will have an additional international component to it. In her opinion, international training opportunities also enable faculty to “bring international perspectives into their classrooms, regardless of the topic.”

Reinforcing factor 4: collaborative leadership. Collaborative leadership also influences campus internationalization in that it enables complex initiatives to

be implemented in a loosely coupled organization with many diverse stakeholders. Typically when major initiatives or changes are introduced, they must be supported by faculty in various academic areas, the chairs or deans of those areas, senior administrators, various staff members, and, in some situations, the board of trustees. Again, going back to the development of the International Center in the late 1980s, the former president noted that in order for an initiative of this magnitude to be approved and implemented, it must involve senior administrators, a committee of faculty members, a committee of area business leaders, and the board of trustees. Engaging multiple groups in a project enables diverse perspectives to be heard, and leverages the expertise of individuals in each group. For example, in the case of the International Center, a faculty committee represented the needs and concerns of the faculty in various academic areas and worked to make sure the Center was compatible with their needs. Members of the board of trustees were brought in to advise the project and lead the funding for it, either directly or indirectly. Business leaders were advisors and also funders. Senior administrators were needed to manage its construction and integration of other college areas.

Reinforcing factor 5: visible action. Although arguably not as important as organizational culture or the hybrid model of the CIE, visible action does influence the development of campus-internationalization initiatives. Eckel and Kezar (2003) write that because change initiatives take a long time to develop in higher education institutions, visible action is a way to demonstrate to the

community that progress is being made and that the work of many individuals is bringing about results. Again, there are many examples of these starting in the early 1970s and continuing on today. These include publicity events, workshops, presentations, lecture series, campus structures, and other visible symbols. The net effect of these actions has been to remind community members that campus internationalization is expanding and improving, which in turn brings about more support from individuals.

Initiating and Reinforcing Factors as a System

In this section Yin's (2009) process of explanation building is used to demonstrate how the factors work interdependently to enable campus-internationalization initiatives to take place. Yin describes explanation building as a form of pattern-matching in which the analysis of the case study is carried out by building an explanation of the case. This analysis focuses on three aspects of campus internationalization:

1. The development of international programs or majors.
2. The development of study abroad.
3. The recruitment and integration of international students.

The factors identified in the theory of institutional transformation and campus internationalization are used, as well as the factors unique to St. Norbert College. As explained earlier, campus internationalization develops as a result of multiple factors working together and generally involves both initiating and reinforcing factors explained above. It should be noted that the examples of the

various factors are somewhat simplistic and some are more illustrative than others because of the limitations of information gained in interviews and documents. Also, the factors are presented in a chronological manner to describe the process of how the initiatives progressed and developed. This is in fact a bit of a misnomer. Reinforcing factors influence initiatives simultaneously, or at multiple times, and influence them in multiple ways. The reader should understand that the progression illustrates a general pattern of how various programs developed. Additionally, not every factor has a direct influence on every initiative. Although one may extrapolate how, for example, faculty development influences study abroad, there is no direct evidence linking the two in this case study.

International programs. The development of international programs is well documented. There are two important programs to focus on: the IBLAS major and the IS major. Again, the IBLAS major was the first formal international academic program created at St. Norbert College and was the first offered to students in 1974. In this program, students learn about global business, gain intercultural competency skills, and study a second language (Varamini, 2000). All students who major in IBLAS are required to spend one semester abroad. The IS major, which was added to the curriculum in 1985 (Foley & Lang, 1988), combines the areas of international political science, area studies, and language studies (Smeall, 2000). Like the IBLAS program, students must learn a second language and study abroad for one semester.

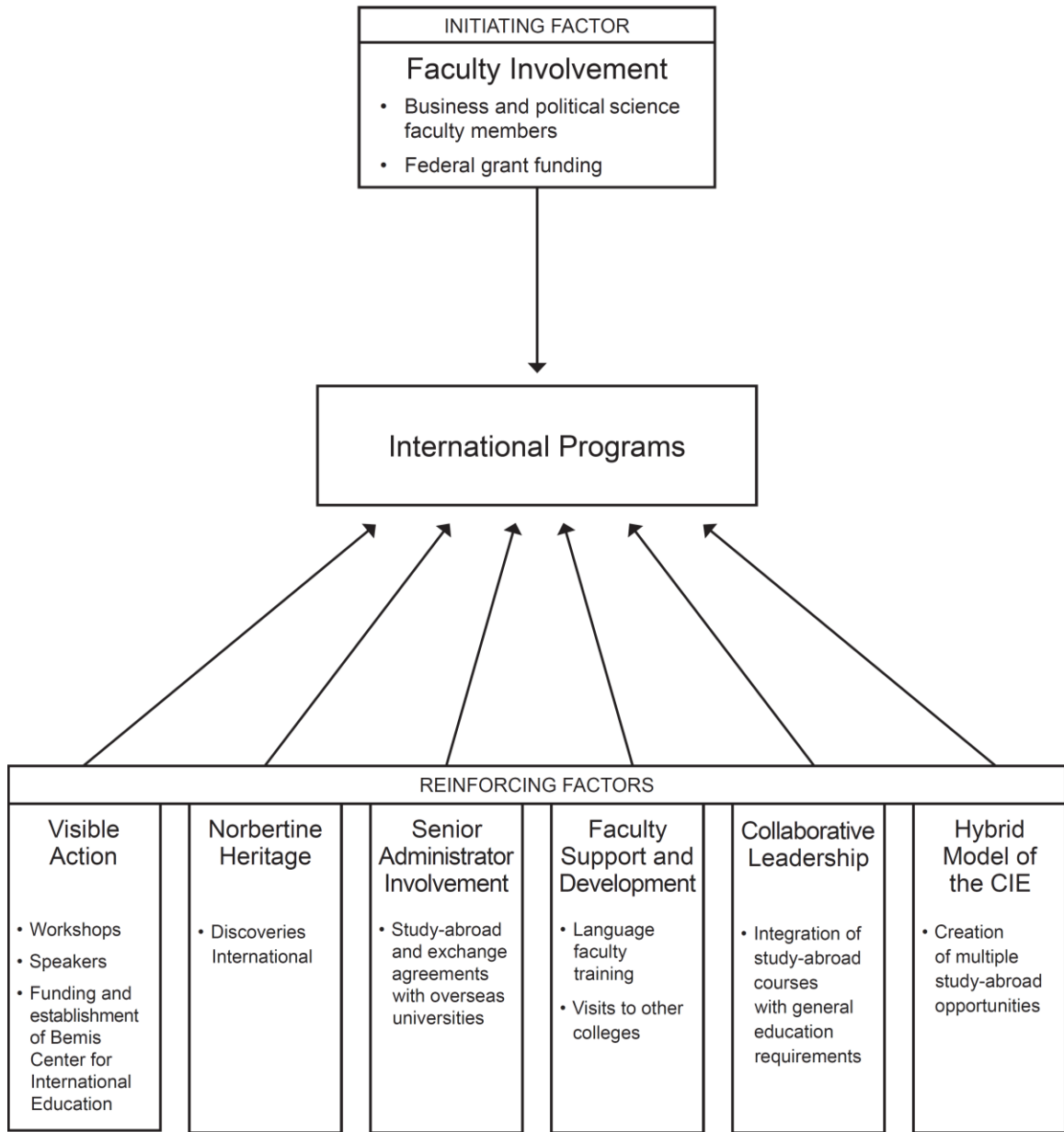


Figure 6. Systems Model Demonstrating the Influence of Initiating and Reinforcing Factors on the Development of International Programs.

As Figure 6 indicates, the development of these programs was influenced by all of the factors identified in the model of transformation and campus internationalization, as well as the factors unique to St. Norbert College. Faculty involvement influenced the development of both programs. According to interviews and documents (Smeall, 2000; Varamini, 2000), both programs were initiated by faculty members. As shown in Figure 6, the IBLAS program was created by two business professors, and the IS program was developed by a political science professor who received a federal grant for its development. After the founding of these programs, there was a series of visible actions. Foley and Lang (1988) write that these consisted of a number of publicized faculty workshops on how to further the internationalization of the College and how to integrate international learning into the curriculum. There were also a number of changes made to the Modern Languages and Literatures discipline, and several international minors and certificate programs were created. Additionally, new international speakers, workshops, and programs were offered on campus to reflect an “expanding global consciousness” that these programs brought to the campus. Finally, a revision of the general education program took place involving all faculty members. This revision added three internationally specific learning areas to the 12 general education learning goals. These efforts enabled others to see that progress was made in developing these programs over time.

The Norbertine heritage is the reinforcing factor that has both a direct and indirect influence on the IBLAS and IS programs. Indirectly, the Norbertine

heritage influenced the values and norms of the College. Because the Norbertines have an international outlook and believe that learning should include global awareness and intercultural competency (St. Norbert College, 2011), campus internationalization, as a general concept, is endorsed. This influences the development of international programs from their conception and enables them to become sustainable through general support. Additionally, the international connections of the Norbertines directly influenced the development of international programs. For example, Discoveries International, the non-profit business entirely run by IBLAS students, was created, in part, through a connection to a Norbertine mission in Peru (Foley & Lang, 1988).

Like the Norbertine heritage, senior administrator involvement is also a factor that directly and indirectly reinforces the development of international programs. For example, according to a former president, he and several other senior administrators were active in setting up agreements with universities in other countries, which included both student exchange programs and study-abroad sites. The development of these programs enabled students in the IBLAS and IS programs new study-abroad opportunities. Additionally, he noted that senior administrators support international programs indirectly through allocation of resources, inclusion in various plans, and by mentioning them in speeches and other public communications.

Another factor influencing international programs is faculty development. According to Foley and Lang (1988), after the development of the IBLAS and IS

programs, faculty participated in a number of training programs to support these majors. For example, to learn more about language and international programs at other colleges, faculty traveled to several colleges in the Midwest in the late 1980s to participate in workshops and conferences. Many also used their sabbatical time to learn how to bring an international dimension into their classrooms. Language faculty took part in training to provide students with better oral proficiency, which was needed by students for study abroad. Finally, Foley and Lang (1988) note that experts in international education were brought to St. Norbert College to help train faculty on how to internationalize the business core curriculum needed in the IBLAS program.

With the addition of an Associate Dean for International Education and Outreach overseeing the IBLAS and IS programs, as well as the creation of faculty advisory committees for the programs and for the Center for International Education, collaborative leadership structures were set up, which have improved and enhanced the study-abroad components of the programs. According to the Associate Dean for International Education and Outreach, one of the major initiatives that he, his staff, and these faculty advisory groups have undertaken was to integrate study-abroad courses with both the general education requirements and the requirements for the IBLAS and IS. This requires the CIE staff to locate suitable programs at colleges and universities overseas and to provide curricular information to the Associate Dean for International Education and Outreach and faculty advisory group members for review. These faculty advisors then need to

work with others in their departments to ensure that courses taken abroad correspond to appropriate courses within the St. Norbert College curriculum. This requires significant coordination and leadership, and the net result is that students in the IBLAS and IS programs have the opportunity to study abroad in many parts of the world in programs that align with their academic requirements at St. Norbert College.

Finally, the hybrid model of the CIE has had an indirect impact on the development of international programs. Because study abroad is a requirement for IBLAS and IS students, a reasonable number of study-abroad opportunities for students are needed, and the courses taken abroad must be matched up with the requirements of the programs. Again, because of the structure, staffing, and funding of the CIE, there are multiple study-abroad options for IS and IBLAS students, and, according to the Associate Dean for International Education and Outreach, new opportunities are constantly being explored and evaluated.

Study abroad. As indicated in Figure 7, study-abroad programs developed somewhat similarly to international programs. But whereas the initiating factor for international programs consists only of faculty involvement, the initiating factor for study abroad involves senior administrator involvement as well as the involvement of CIE staff. While it is true that the first study-abroad opportunities were created by faculty members, since the creation of the CIE, many new opportunities have been created, and new ones are constantly being added. Currently, there are over 75 programs in 38 countries, and many of these were

created in the last ten years (Office of Institutional Effectiveness, St. Norbert College, 2010).

As with international programs, visible action is an important reinforcing factor. In the case of study abroad though, it is difficult to differentiate between visible action used to demonstrate progress in the development of study-abroad programs and its use as a promotional tool to entice students to participate in study abroad. Foley and Lang (1988) note that in the 1980s several senior administrators traveled abroad to locate potential study-abroad partner institutions. When they returned to St. Norbert College, they would often present their findings to faculty and senior staff. This seems to be a clear case of visual action used to demonstrate progress. But more recently, according to a number of interviewees, CIE staff have undertaken several communication and marketing campaigns to announce new programs, participation numbers, and allow returning students the opportunity to discuss their experiences abroad. In discussing these tactics with the Associate Dean for International Education and Outreach, the focus was on recruiting more students to participate in study abroad, but he did admit that these types of actions have a residual effect. Promotion of study abroad demonstrates to the St. Norbert College community that it is an integral part of the College.

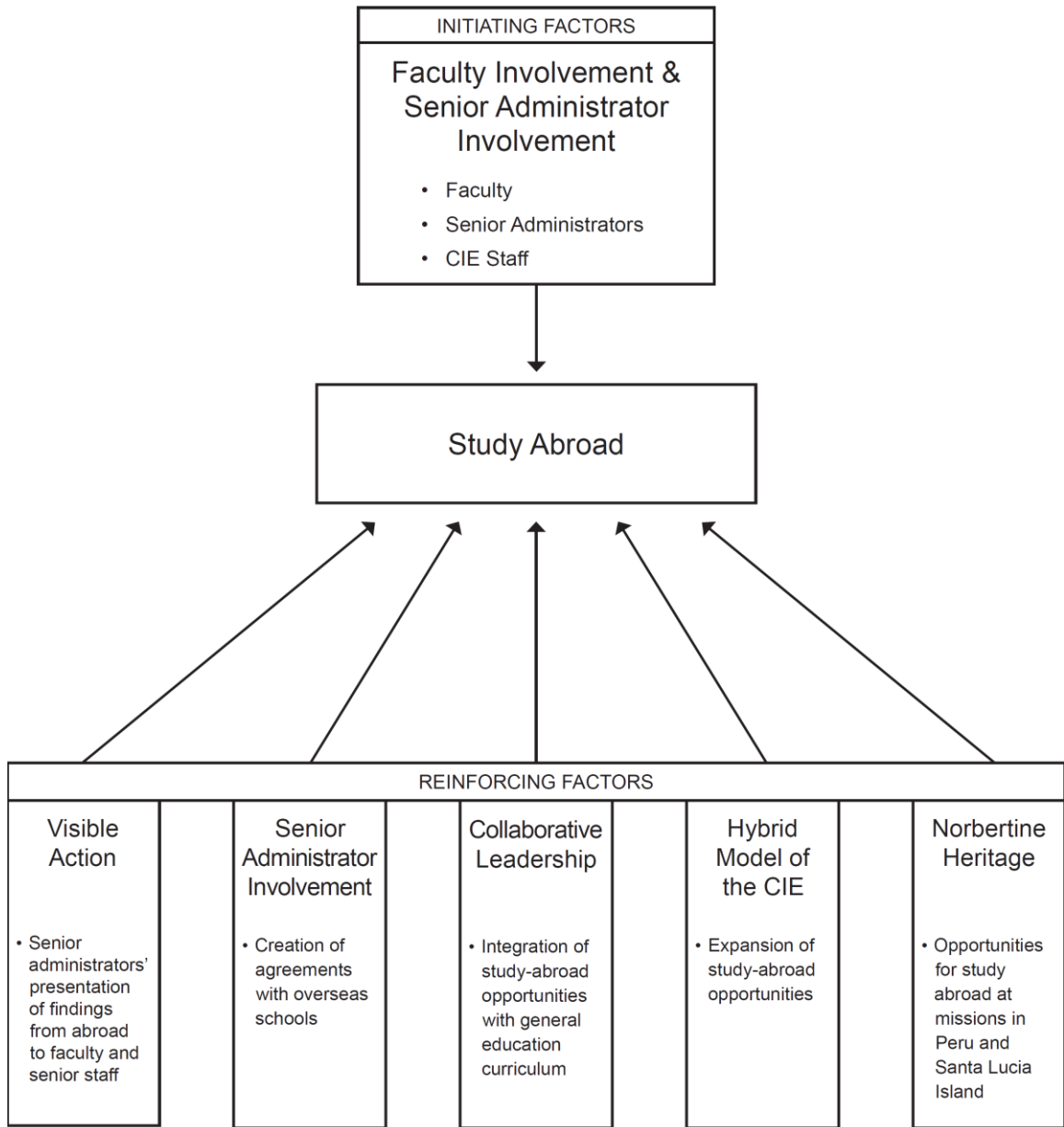


Figure 7. Systems Model Demonstrating the Influence of Initiating and Reinforcing Factors on the Development of Study Abroad.

As shown in Figure 7, collaborative leadership and the hybrid model of the Center for International Education are also important reinforcing factors that have a direct influence on the development of study-abroad programs. As with international programs, developing a large number of study-abroad options that meet students' needs and meet graduation requirements demands adequate resources and collaboration among many groups. As mentioned earlier, with multiple revenue sources, the hybrid model of the CIE allows it to expand programming without shifting resources away from other parts of the College. Since 2003, the number of study-abroad countries has expanded from 21 to 39, and more than 30% of undergraduate students now participate. Table 3 shows the progression of the number of study-abroad countries and the percentage of undergraduate students participating.

Table 3

Study-Abroad Countries and Participating Undergraduate Students at St. Norbert College

Academic Year	Number of Countries	Undergraduate Participation (%)
2003–2004	21	23
2004–2005	21	25
2005–2006	30	25
2006–2007	32	35
2007–2008	31	36
2008–2009	31	27
2009–2010	39	33

(Office of Institutional Effectiveness, St. Norbert College, 2010)

Finally, as with international programs, the Norbertine heritage has had both an indirect as well as a direct influence as a reinforcing factor on study abroad. Again, indirectly the Norbertine heritage and its emphasis on international service influences the organizational culture of the College, making international programs such as study abroad a priority. This enables the expansion of study abroad and sustains it through general support. But additionally, Foley and Lang (1988) note that Norbertine missions in several countries offered opportunities for students to study abroad either as part of academic institutions or as service learning trips. For example, in the 1970s and 1980s, the mission in Peru was a destination for business students interested in studying abroad. Additionally, the Norbertine mission in Santa Lucia Island provides students the opportunity to work as volunteers on various social projects during their semester break in December and January (TRIPS, 2009).

International students. As shown in Figure 8, the initiating factor for international students is senior administrative involvement. Several interviewees mentioned that the first international students were enrolled as a result of Norbertine ideals of social justice and community service. These students, according to one senior administrator, came to St. Norbert College from Brazil in 1918. After World War II, a number of students from Japan enrolled at St. Norbert College and “cleaned the Priory and served meals in the Priory and so forth” to pay for tuition. Although not documented, it seems safe to assume that the Norbertine priests, who taught and acted as senior administrators at the College in its early

years, were the initiators of the enrollment of international students. Again, we see the influence of the Norbertine ideals and values as a reinforcing factor influencing international student recruitment.

After this first group of students from Brazil arrived on campus, many of the subsequent early efforts to recruit international students were the result of exchange programs created and supported by senior administrators. Foley and Lang (1988), note that in the late 1980s, exchange programs were created with several universities in China, enabling Chinese students to study at St. Norbert College. One senior administrator mentioned that exchange programs were also set up with universities in Japan and the Philippines, enabling students from both countries to study at St. Norbert College.

As Figure 8 shows, the hybrid model of the CIE is an important reinforcing factor for international student recruitment. The Associate Dean for International Education and Outreach said that international student recruitment was a hit and miss activity until 2001 when it was undertaken by CIE staff leveraging the hybrid model of the CIE. In his opinion, most international students at St. Norbert College enrolled through the process of osmosis and not from intentional recruitment efforts. To increase the number of international students, the ESL Institute was leveraged both as a training center and as a marketing and recruiting base to enroll international students. Because the ESL Institute is under the umbrella of the CIE, it was a straightforward proposition to also reposition it as a strategic tool to recruit students.

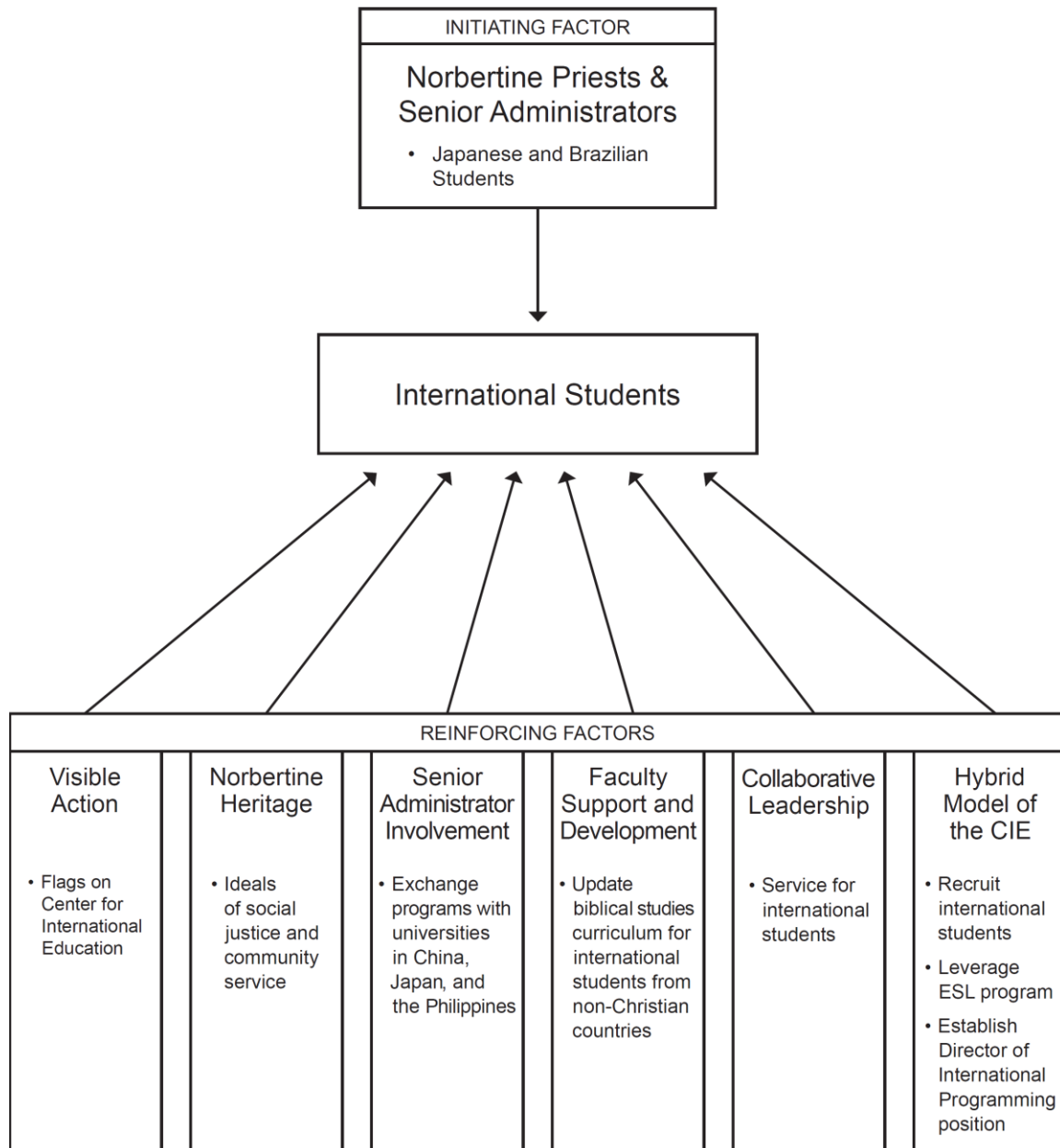


Figure 8. Systems Model Demonstrating the Influence of Initiating and Reinforcing Factors on the Development of International Student Recruitment and Integration.

Additionally, the flexibility of the multiple streams of income of the CIE enabled them to carve out some resources for CIE personnel to travel abroad and recruit international students directly. According to the Associate Dean for International Education and Outreach, 45 international students were enrolled during the 2010–2011 academic year.

In addition to providing resources for student recruitment, the hybrid model of the CIE also enabled the staffing of a new Director of International Programs position. As mentioned earlier, with multiple sources of income, some funds were reallocated to create this position and office. According to one CIE staff, this position is responsible for programming that brings an international component to the American students and, at the same time, helps to address some of the intercultural needs of international students. For example, one of their tasks is to try to enable American students to develop intercultural skills and an international understanding. For the international students, one of the goals is to engage them in campus life by recruiting them for student leadership positions in student government, sports, clubs, and other activities.

Collaborative leadership is also an important reinforcing factor for international student integration. The process of serving international students and addressing their needs requires a collaborative leadership approach. According to the same CIE staff member, previous efforts to intervene in situations involving international students were mostly reactive. When an international student had an issue or a conflict, someone would be called in to assess whether the issue was

culturally related and then make suggestions for resolving it. The Director of International Programs is charged with creating “systems” to address issues prior to individual student difficulties. In other words, the goal is to develop basic cultural awareness with staff and faculty so that they understand international students’ perspectives and can address the students’ needs appropriately. This requires a collaborative approach that enables individuals to address problems themselves through understanding. In her opinion, one of the mistakes that international or intercultural experts make is that they often intervene and do not collaborate with various staff members. According to her:

Many (international) administrators try to break this connection between students and staff. For example, they think that staff should tell them and they will talk to the international students. They take away the interaction between staff and students. This interaction is very important for people who work at a liberal arts college.

The key to an environment where staff and international students work together successfully, in the Director of International Program’s opinion, comes from providing training and communication channels for both parties to work together. This also enables the integration of international students with others in the College to be scalable and therefore sustainable. Most campuses do not have the resources for an international expert to intervene in every intercultural conflict, and this also seems to be the case with St. Norbert College.

As Figure 8 indicates, faculty support and development is an important reinforcing factor for international student integration. If faculty have the proper training to understand the needs and backgrounds of international students, they are often able to engage these students more successfully. At St. Norbert College, one CIE staff discussed how religious studies professors assumed that all students knew the main actors in the New Testament. Students are required to take a Christian religion studies class, and the assumption of many faculty was that international students understood the basics of Christianity. The Director of International Programs noted that “for example if they start talking about John the Baptist and assume that everyone knows who John the Baptist is, and many international students who have not studied the Bible will be lost.” The Director’s solution was to work with the faculty to adapt their teaching to the needs of certain international students that do not have an understanding of the Bible. In her opinion, faculty have to “start from square one with this course because a lot of (international) students don’t know anything about the Bible.”

Conclusion

The various aspects of campus internationalization discussed here are a sample of how the systematic relationships of multiple factors lead to developed and sustainable programs. Although the three aspects covered here depended on most, if not all, of the factors for their development, other aspects may not require such a large and diverse set of factors to develop. For example, internationalization of the curriculum is an aspect of campus internationalization that is mostly

influenced by faculty participation, along with faculty training and development. But here too other factors can play a minor or major role in both its development and sustainability. Also, depending on the situation, some factors may play a more prominent role than others. But, from this study, we can see that it is not just the factors alone that influence campus internationalization but the systematic relationship of them working together that leads to its success. Alone, each factor can influence campus internationalization only marginally. It is when they are integrated systematically that they have a pronounced effect on the successful development of campus internationalization at a college or university.

A major finding from this research, and one that leaders at higher institutions need to understand, is the extent to which organizational culture influences the development of campus internationalization. In this case it was the Norbertine heritage which had a pronounced influence on almost all of the international activities at the College. The organizational culture influenced by the Norbertine history also influenced several other factors. For example, collaborative leadership, which is identified as an important factor influencing campus internationalization, is in many ways a result of the organizational culture of St. Norbert College. We see evidence of this articulated in the report written by the International Center Review Working Group (1998). In the report, mutual support, cooperation, and shared governance are articulated as important organizational values at St. Norbert College which can be directly tied to the values of the Norbertine Order.

Also, in the area of faculty training and support, the influence of organizational culture, rather than formal policy, accounts for much of the international training that takes place. As reported earlier, faculty training and development at St. Norbert College is open ended and faculty are given considerable leeway in determining the training and development they require. Because international training and development is understood as “the way we do things around here”, this seems to work reasonably well, with many interviewees reporting strong faculty participation in international training. The advantage of this is that international training does not need to be mandated, which is something that could be met with resistance in an institution where there is not a strong international ethos.

The hybrid model of the CIE should also not be underestimated as an important factor influencing campus internationalization at St. Norbert College. As budgets at colleges and universities continue to tighten, the financial resources needed to develop and sustain campus-internationalization activities may need to be subsidized with income sources outside of tuition, endowments or grants. As demonstrated at St. Norbert College, international services such as translation services, consulting, and language training for secondary and continuing studies students can be important sources of revenue to stabilize shrinking budgets, or increase international services for degree-seeking students. As already articulated in this dissertation, campus internationalization is an important learning component for college students. It would be tragic if campus-internationalization

activities are cut at colleges and universities in the United States in response to reduced budgets that face leaders at many institutions. The hybrid model of the CIE at St. Norbert College provides some possible examples of how leaders can develop international services in external markets in order to further growth of international activities on campus.

St. Norbert College has also benefited from several leaders who understood the potential of the international ethos of the College and leveraged this to advance campus internationalization. The first, Dr. Thomas Manion, was able to foresee the opening of trade barriers early in his tenure as president, develop a vision for how St. Norbert College could benefit from these changes, and then write a proposal for funding the Bemis International Center, which eventually evolved into the Center for International Education. Although the original idea of the International Center had flaws, his vision for campus internationalization, focus on results, ability to muster resources, and ability to align multiple stakeholders with his vision made the building of the Center, and many campus internationalization initiatives possible.

Another champion of campus internationalization, Dr. Joseph Tullbane, the Associate Dean of International Education and Outreach, has been an important leader in the development of the Center for International Education. One senior administrator noted that he has "...been a huge advocate, positive spokesperson for the whole internationalization of the campus." Another senior administration stated that, "he not only runs that shop but I think he's an effective advocate for

internationalization in all areas of the campus.” One faculty member noted, “Dr. Tullbane, our Associate Dean in charge of everything international on campus, he certainly is a champion.” Dr. Tullbane is the architect who developed the hybrid model for the Center for International Education. After taking the position in 2000 he restructured it to be both financially stable, and provide important academic and international student services. In interviews with him, it was evident that he had knowledge of the requirements of campus internationalization, but also the influence, relationships, and understanding of higher education systems to get his ideas accomplished. As one senior administrator put it, “he certainly knows how to work a bureaucracy ... he’s good in the corridors and over the lunch table, as well as in faculty meetings.”

As the only Norbertine college in the world, St. Norbert College is in many ways an exceptional institution. It was chosen as a case institution because of its exceptional accomplishments in campus internationalization, and by documenting its history and accomplishments, a more thorough understanding of campus internationalization is understood. Even though there is no other college exactly like it, many of the important factors influencing campus internationalization are similar to those found in the studies by both Kelleher (1996) and Edel and Johnston (1993), with the exception of the Norbertine heritage and hybrid model of the CIE. This points out that the key factors influencing campus internationalization may be the same at many institutions, with some variation due in part to the history and unique situation of each institution.

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Appendix A: Consent Form

INFORMATION SHEET FOR RESEARCH

Factors Influencing Campus Internationalization: A Case Study of a Liberal Arts College in the Upper Midwest

You are invited to be in a research study of the process of campus internationalization. You were selected as a possible participant because you are involved in campus internationalization at St. Norbert College. I ask that you read this form and ask any questions you may have before agreeing to be in the study.

This study is being conducted by: William Mullen, Department of Organization, Leadership, Development and Policy at the University of Minnesota, Twin Cities.

Procedures:

If you agree to be in this study you will be asked to meet with William Mullen for approximately an hour and a half to answer questions related to the process of campus internationalization at St. Norbert College. You will be asked questions about the history of international studies at St Norbert College, your role in the process of internationalization, and identified factors that may have influenced the process. This discussion will be recorded with your permission.

Confidentiality:

The records of this study will be kept private. Information that will make it possible to identify you or anyone else as a subject will not be included. Research records will be stored securely and only the researcher will have access to the records. The tape recording and the subsequent data files will be destroyed upon completion of the dissertation. All information will be kept on a password protected laptop with access only to the researcher.

Voluntary Nature of the Study:

Participation in this study is voluntary. Your decision whether or not to participate will not affect your current or future relations with the University of Minnesota or St. Norbert College. If you decide to participate, you are free to not answer any question or withdraw at any time without affecting those relationships.

Contacts and Questions:

The researcher conducting this study is William Mullen. You may ask any questions you have now. If you have questions later, you are encouraged to contact him at 612-747-5644 or mulle265@umn.edu You may also contact the academic advisers for this research study, Dr. Deanne Magnusson, at 612-626-9647 or magnu002@umn.edu, and Dr. Gerald Fry, at 612-624-0294 or gwf@umn.edu.

If you have any questions or concerns regarding this study and would like to talk to someone other than the researcher or the academic adviser, you are encouraged to contact the Research Subjects' Advocate Line, D528 Mayo, 420 Delaware St. Southeast, Minneapolis, Minnesota 55455; 612-624-1650.

You will be given a copy of this information to keep for your records.

Appendix B: Solicitation E-mail or Letter

Subject Line: Your Help Needed for a Case Study of St. Norbert College

Dear Colleagues:

I am writing to request your participation in a doctoral research of campus internationalization being undertaken by a doctoral student at the University of Minnesota, William Mullen. William is a Lawrence University graduate as well as the Vice President, Enrollment Management at the Minneapolis College of Art and Design.

Because St Norbert College has been identified as leading institution in campus internationalization, William is undertaking a case study of our college to gain an in-depth understanding of how we implement our programs. He will focus specifically on how faculty participation, administrative support, external relations and other factors influence the process of internationalization.

As part of the study William will be conducting in-depth interviews during his visit to St. Norbert April 27–29. These interviews should only require 60–90 minutes of your time and are completely voluntary. If you are willing to participate in an interview, you can contact William directly to make arrangements at mulle265@umn.edu or 612-747-5644. Attached is an information sheet that provides further explanation about the research he will be undertaking. Please contact him with questions if needed.

Thank you for taking the time to assist us in this important study.

Joe Tullbane

Associate Dean for International Education and Outreach / Director of the Center

for International Education

St. Norbert College

Appendix C: Letter of Endorsement



100 Grant Street • De Pere, WI 54115-2099 • www.snc.edu

March 28, 2011

William Mullen
2404 Sheridan Ave S
Minneapolis, MN 55405

Dear Mr. Mullen,

I am writing this letter of endorsement in support of your research study titled: *Factors influencing campus internationalization: A case study of a liberal arts college in the Upper Midwest*. As discussed, St Norbert College will cooperate with you to invite faculty and administrators for interviews, as well as assist you in identifying and locating documents directly related to your study. Once participants have consented to participate, you may make arrangements to meet with them for interviews.

I hope your study produces results that improve our understanding of the process of successfully implementing campus internationalization.

Sincerely,

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read "Joseph D. Tullbane, III.", written over a large, stylized flourish.

Joseph D. Tullbane, III., Ph.D.
Associate Dean for International Education and Outreach
Director of the Center for International Education

Appendix D: Interview Protocol for Senior Administrators

Interview Protocol #1 — Senior Administrator Interview Questions Guide

“Thank you for taking the time to discuss campus internationalization at St. Norbert College. As you know from my letter/email I am researching the process of campus internationalization for my dissertation research at the University of Minnesota. I am interested in learning about the internationalization and factors that influenced this process.”

I. Personal Information

1. Describe your role and responsibilities as an administrator.
2. How long have you been involved in campus internationalization at St Norbert College?
3. In your opinion what does St. Norbert College do really well in regards to international education?
4. What are/have been some of the tangible actions or symbolic artifacts used to demonstrate progress toward campus internationalization at St. Norbert College?

II. Historical Internationalization Information

1. Can you provide some historical background of how campus internationalization developed at St Norbert College?
2. Describe the initial rationale or impetus for campus internationalization.
3. Describe the early discussions and debates about campus internationalization.
4. Think back to how the initiative progressed from that time to the present. Describe the steps.
5. What do you think were the important factors which enabled St Norbert College to reach the level of campus internationalization of where it is today?

III. Faculty Engagement

1. How do faculty become involved in campus internationalization?
 2. What has helped faculty become involved in campus internationalization?
 3. How does an engaged faculty influence campus internationalization?
- IV. Senior Administrative Support & Leadership
1. Since you have been at St Norbert College how have you helped others embrace international learning?
 2. Describe your process for getting new international projects accepted and completed.
 3. What is the extent of your influence at the college? To what do you attribute this influence?
 4. How would you characterize senior administrative leaders' engagement in internationalization?
 5. How do senior administrators influence internationalization?
 6. How is campus internationalization funded?
 7. How has an international "ethos" been created at St. Norbert College?
- V. Closing Questions
1. We have covered a great deal in this interview and I want to thank you for your openness and consideration in answering my questions. One final question: Is there any important aspect of campus internationalization that I did not cover?
 2. Summarizing, in your opinion what are the most important factors that have influenced campus internationalization at St. Norbert College?

Appendix E: Interview Protocol for Faculty Members

Interview Protocol #2 — Faculty Involved in Campus Internationalization Questions Guide

“Thank you for taking the time to discuss campus internationalization at St. Norbert College. As you know from my letter/email I am researching the process of campus internationalization for my dissertation research at the University of Minnesota. I am interested in learning about the internationalization and factors that influenced this process.”

I. Personal Information

1. What subjects do you teach at St. Norbert College?
2. How long have you been an instructor/professor at St. Norbert College?
3. In your opinion what does St. Norbert College do really well in regards to international education?

II. Faculty Engagement and Administrative Support

1. How do faculty become involved in campus internationalization at St. Norbert College?
2. What has helped faculty become involved in campus internationalization?
3. How does an engaged faculty advance campus internationalization?

III. Administrative Support & Collaborative Leadership

1. Who are the champions of campus internationalization at St. Norbert College?
2. How do senior administrators influence campus internationalization?

3. How do internationalization advocates/leaders help others embrace campus internationalization?

4. How do internationalization advocates/leaders work with diverse constituencies to advance campus internationalization?

IV. Closing Questions

1. We have covered a great deal in this interview and I want to thank you for your openness and consideration in answering my questions. One final question: Is there any important aspect of campus internationalization that I did not cover?

2. Summarizing, in your opinion what are the most important factors that have influenced campus internationalization at St. Norbert College?

Appendix F: Interview Protocol for Center for International Education Staff

Interview Protocol #3 — Center for International Education Staff Questions Guide

“Thank you for taking the time to discuss campus internationalization at St. Norbert College. As you know from my letter/email I am researching the process of campus internationalization for my dissertation research at the University of Minnesota. I am interested in learning about the internationalization and factors that influenced this process.”

I. Personal Information

1. Describe your role and responsibilities as (*position name*).
2. How long have you had this position?
3. In your opinion what does St. Norbert College do really well in regards to international education?

II. Historical Internationalization Information

1. Can you provide some historical background of how campus internationalization developed at St Norbert College?
2. Describe the initial rationale or impetus for internationalization.
3. How did campus internationalization progress to the present? Describe the steps.
4. What do you think were the important factors which enabled St Norbert College to reach the level of internationalization of where it is today?

III. Faculty Engagement

1. How do faculty become involved in campus internationalization?
2. What has helped faculty become involved in campus internationalization?
3. How does an engaged faculty campus internationalization?

IV. Senior Administrative Support and Leadership

1. What role do senior administrators play in campus internationalization?
2. What is the process for getting new campus-internationalization initiatives approved?
3. How are campus-internationalization activities/services funded?
4. Who are the champions of campus internationalization at St. Norbert College?

V. Closing Questions

1. We have covered a great deal in this interview and I want to thank you for your openness and consideration in answering my questions. One final question: Is there any important aspect of campus internationalization that I did not cover?
2. Summarizing, in your opinion what are the most important factors that have influenced campus internationalization at St. Norbert College?