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**FACTORS INFLUENCING FACULTY INVOLVEMENT IN
INTERNATIONALIZATION:
A MIXED METHODS STUDY ON RATIONALES, INCENTIVES AND BARRIERS**

DOCTORAL DISSERTATION

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Graduate School of Educational Sciences
Department of Educational Sciences
Program of Educational Administration and Supervision

**Factors Influencing Faculty Involvement in Internationalization:
A Mixed Methods Study on Rationales, Incentives and Barriers**

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(Doctoral Dissertation)

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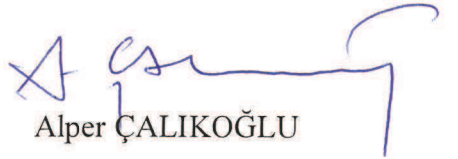
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Declaration of Undertaking

I undertake that the dissertation entitled “Factors Influencing Faculty Involvement in Internationalization: A Mixed Methods Study on Rationales, Incentives and Barriers” was written by me without any unethical support, and all the scientific sources used during the research have been cited and listed in the references.

8./21/2017


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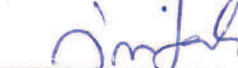
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Approval

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Dedication

To people who spent their lives for the sake of science and knowledge



Abstract

Factors Influencing Faculty Involvement in Internationalization:

A Mixed Methods Study on Rationales, Incentives and Barriers

Due to recent academic, political, economic and socio-cultural developments, internationalization has become a multidimensional priority in higher education. Universities have started to develop and implement various strategies to enhance opportunities for internationalization and reduce the hindering influence of barriers. Faculty perspectives have gained greater attention in these strategies since faculty play a critical role in accomplishing individual and institutional goals as a core body of higher education.

The aim of this research is to examine factors influencing faculty involvement in internationalization. By employing a mixed-methods design, the research investigates the influential roles of rationales, incentives and barriers in faculty involvement in internationalization. Data were collected sequentially in two countries: Turkey and the United States (US). For the quantitative phase, a survey was administered to faculty members in Turkey (n=973). For the qualitative phase, semi-structured interviews with faculty members and administrative participants were carried out in two public research universities in the Southwestern region of the US (n=22). Descriptive, correlational and causal analyses for the quantitative part and thematic analysis for the qualitative part were run over the collected data.

Findings indicated that rationales and incentives are strong predictors of faculty involvement in internationalization. Also, the influence of barriers on faculty involvement was found to be very limited. Faculty who have strong rationales, previous experiences and internal motivations for internationalization find ways to overcome barriers by means of personal endeavors and institutional support mechanisms. Findings are discussed and recommendations for practice and further research are provided.

Özet

Öğretim Elemanlarının Uluslararasılaşmaya Katılımını Etkileyen Faktörler:

Gerekçeler, Teşvikler ve Engeller Üzerine Bir Karma Yöntem Çalışması

Akademik, politik, ekonomik ve sosyo-kültürel alanlarda yaşanan değişimler uluslararasılaşmayı yükseköğretimde çok boyutlu bir gündem maddesi haline getirmiştir. Uluslararasılaşmada başarılı olmak isteyen birçok üniversite konu ile ilgili çeşitli stratejiler geliştirerek, paydaşlarının uluslararasılaşmaya katılımını teşvik etmekte ve önlerine çıkan engelleri kaldırmaya çalışmaktadır. Bu noktada, yükseköğretimde temel paydaşlarından olan öğretim elemanlarının uluslararasılaşma ile ilgili bakış açıları bireysel ve kurumsal hedeflere ulaşma konusunda daha da büyük önem kazanmaya başlamıştır.

Bu çalışmanın amacı öğretim elemanlarının uluslararasılaşmaya katılımını etkileyen faktörlerin araştırılmasıdır. Çalışmada, karma yöntemden hareketle gerekçelerin, teşviklerin ve engellerin öğretim elemanlarının uluslararasılaşmaya katılımı üzerindeki rolü incelenmektedir. Veriler birbirini takip eden süreçlerde, Türkiye ve Amerika Birleşik Devletleri'nde (ABD) toplanmıştır. Nicel veriler, Türkiye'deki öğretim elemanlarından çevrimiçi anket yoluyla (n=973), nitel veriler ise ABD'nin güneybatı bölgesinde yer alan iki devlet araştırma üniversitesinde gerçekleştirilen yarı-yapılandırılmış mülakatlarla elde edilmiştir (n=22). Veriler, nicel bölümde tanımlayıcı, ilişkisel ve nedensel, nitel bölümde ise tematik analiz teknikleri ile çözümlenmiştir.

Bulgular, gerekçelerin ve teşviklerin, öğretim elemanlarının uluslararasılaşmaya katılmasında iki önemli yordayıcı olduğunu göstermiştir. Ayrıca, engellerin öğretim elemanlarının uluslararasılaşmaya katılımı üzerindeki etkisi oldukça sınırlı bulunmuştur. Uluslararasılaşma konusunda gücü gerekçeleri ve deneyimleri olan, içsel motivasyonu yüksek öğretim elemanları, kişisel girişimler ve kurumsal teşvik mekanizmaları yardımıyla engelleri aşabilmektedir. Bu bulgular doğrultusunda, araştırma ve uygulama için öneriler getirilmiştir.

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Chapter I: Introduction

To introduce the research, this chapter first identifies the background of the study and problem statement. It then outlines the purpose, questions addressed in the study and the significance of the research. In addition, key definitions, limitations, delimitations, conceptual backgrounds and proposed model are presented in order to provide a basic understanding. Finally, organization of the dissertation and summary are given at the end of the chapter.

Background of the Problem

Higher education has played a vital role in the social and economic development of societies over the centuries. As the institution that produces and disseminates knowledge, university has been viewed as the main organization that takes over the responsibility of teaching, research and community engagement together since its establishment in medieval Europe (Altbach, 1998; Perkin, 2007). For a long while, university was considered as an authority for elite reproduction in order to raise the ruling class for the societies. Starting with the rise of nation-states, however, universities have played a stronger role in the economic development of wider society groups and nations (Enders, 2004; Kwiek, 2000). Governments started to consider higher education as one of the main tools for national, social and economic improvement, and began to invest more in teaching, research and outreach facilities of universities in order to spread economic and social outcomes of higher education across the society (Marginson & Rhoades, 2002).

Similarly, international dimension became one of the important agendas of higher education starting with the rise of nation-states (de Wit, 2002). Although universities had limited relations for knowledge production as well as dissemination beyond borders in Europe from the Medieval Period to the Enlightenment, international collaboration gained widespread attention across higher education in the 1800s, at a time that the nation-state started to become

the mainstream governmental trend (Huang, 2014). Due to the increasing role of higher education in nation building as well as social and economic development, universities started to establish more cross-border relations through national priorities and objectives. In addition, academic mobility of faculty and students was considered a way of international collaboration between universities in order to generate and disseminate scientific knowledge more widely in the 19th century (Huang, 2007, 2014).

During the 20th century, priorities in the international dimension of higher education evolved because of the growing concerns regarding world policy (Knight, 2004). Two world wars in a short period of time followed by the Cold War led governments to approach higher education as a tool for international policy development. Particularly the United States and Soviet Union recruited students from certain regions of the world in order to establish relationships with political leaders of the future (de Wit, 2002). Moreover, curricular actions aiming at mutual understanding as well as world peace, and academic mobility for technical cooperation gained more emphasis on the international higher education agenda until the end of the Cold War (van der Wende, 2001).

The end of the Cold War brought several opportunities as well as necessities for the international dimension of higher education. Due to the effects of globalization and increasing demand from society and business market, approach to higher education shifted from elite reproduction to massive global education in many parts of the world. Therefore, governments started to develop various international higher education policies not only for political rationales but also for cultural, social and economic growth (Marginson & van der Wende, 2007). In a similar way, higher education institutions discovered financial motivations and the need for international branding due to the growing international student markets (Scott, 2000). Furthermore, developments in technology led change in knowledge generation as well as

means of delivery of higher education to the international audience. Thus, activities regarding the international dimension in higher education evolved to multidimensional internationalization strategies in the age of globalization (Altbach, 2007).

Today, strategies on internationalization take place on the agendas of higher education stakeholders through diversified rationales and motivations at different levels. At a continental level, for instance, the European Union (EU) is implementing the Bologna Process, which aims to develop the common European Higher Education Area (EHEA) in order to enable individual and institutional collaboration among the universities in Europe (Teichler, 2012). Similarly, countries and institutions in North and Latin America are establishing partnerships and programs such as Latin America Academic Training (ALFA) and Inter-University Cooperation Program (PCI) in order to enhance student mobility as well as academic and organizational collaboration across the region (Gacel-Ávila, 2007).

Similar to the transnational continental policies, internationalization of higher education is approached from different perspectives through different rationales and objectives at a national level. For example, a policy paper prepared by the American Council of Education (ACE) outlines that the United States (US) needs globally high qualified citizens in the new era. This paper suggests that universities need to enhance international cooperation in order to adapt the nation to the globally competitive world (Olson, 2005). In Australia, internationalization is more likely seen as a resource for the national economy and labor market. According to the Australian Government's policy report on international student strategy, one of the largest export instruments of the country, education, creates nearly \$20 billion income in a year, and provides more than 130,000 jobs through the policies of international student recruitment (Australian Government, 2016). On the other hand, some non-native English speaking countries such as South Korea and China place more emphasis

on the curricular dimension. Their approach to internationalization is more about connecting and competing with other parts of the world to improve the quality standards of universities (Cho & Palmer, 2013; Ryan, 2011).

At the institutional level, higher education organizations have diversified rationales for internationalization due to the emerging concerns and developments. For example, some institutions seek more entrepreneurial purposes in the US and United Kingdom (UK) and consider internationalization as a world-wide branding tool for cross-border and overseas education (Knight, 2004; Lee, 2010). Some others in Europe aim to increase the level of internationalization in their curriculums, and pursue regional standards and quality policies through the European Union (EU) regulations (van Damme, 2001). Likewise, there are some institutions from Asian countries such as China, Japan and South Korea that seek depth to their international curricula. However, the mainstream rationales in the Asian examples may differ from the European cases, since they aim at growth in their number of international students from Asia-Pacific countries with new curriculum strategies (Huang, 2006; Jon, Lee, & Byun, 2014).

In addition to governments and higher education organizations, individuals participate in various forms of international activities through a broad scope of goals and incentives. For example, according to a study conducted by Chen (2008), international students in Canada are motivated to study abroad through globalization-related factors like gaining competence in the labor market and improving foreign language proficiency. Different rationales can also be seen in European short-term student exchanges, since one of the ERASMUS+ program's purposes is to "encourage the participation of young people in democratic life in Europe" (European Commission, 2017, p. 5). Furthermore, as an important component of higher education, academics intend to participate in international higher education for several reasons, such as seeking a better income, a more autonomous and free workplace, or

developing career through international networks (Altbach, Reisberg & Rumbley, 2009). Therefore, comprehensive internationalization strategies have become a multifaceted priority for higher education with its diversified policy and implementation levels.

Given the above historical developments and diversified range of motivations, literature reveals that organizational context plays a critical role as the main baseline for internationalization efforts (Knight, 2004). The meaning of and the applications related to internationalization vary depending on organizational factors such as type, aim and culture of the institution and rationales for internationalization (Altbach & Knight, 2007; Grasset, 2013; Knight, 2004; Kreber, 2009; Maringe, Foskett & Woodfield, 2013; Mestenhauser & Ellingboe, 2005). On the other hand, practitioners and scholars continue to discuss influencing factors of internationalization and how these factors affect the process. According to Hudzik (2011), higher education institutions approach internationalization from different starting points, objectives and visions, as each institution has various rationales and obstacles and they are able to provide different incentives. Likewise, Maringe et al. (2013) argue about this diversity and claim that while the drives behind the internationalization are widely known, the literature lacks sufficient insight into how they are prioritized in different circumstances. Therefore, as Knight (2013) emphasizes, because of diversity and developments related to context, academics, institutions and higher education providers need to explore changing rationales, incentives and obstacles in order to determine the current tendency and trajectory for internationalization.

Research Problem

Developments in globalization and internationalization have led to changes in the priorities of both faculty and higher education institutions. Traditional understanding of faculty work regarding teaching, research and community service has evolved to a more

international oriented activity set. Thus, seeking global scientific opportunities for individual, financial and academic development has become one of the mainstream tendencies among faculty (Slaughter & Rhoades, 2004; Teichler, Arimoto & Cummings, 2013). In addition, faculty have gained more emphasis for advancing in institutional internationalization. Providing a variety of incentives and reducing the barriers have started to take place as vital parts of internationalization strategies at both governmental and institutional levels due to the diversified notion of internationalization (Childress, 2009; Donald, 2007; Green & Olson, 2003; Stohl, 2007). As a result, considering their role in both individual and organizational achievement, examining faculty experiences from various viewpoints has become one of the important needs of higher education research in order to explore the multidimensional nature of internationalization.

At this point, Sanderson (2008) notes that current literature favors treating the subject from an organizational aspect rather than focusing on individual experiences. The emphasis has been placed more on programs and activities carried out at an institutional level (Friesen, 2013). However, as Knight (2004) underlines, to enhance internationalization experiences, there is a need for building rapport between the stakeholders of higher education. Hence, internationalization research requires more exploring of individuals' viewpoints and bringing them together with the organizational aspect. Furthermore, studies on faculty experiences have predominantly concentrated on institution-based specific cases. Therefore, gaps exist in understanding how rationales, incentives and obstacles change in diverse circumstances, how they influence faculty involvement in internationalization, and how these factors could be examined in different individual, institutional and country experiences.

Purpose of the Study

The main purpose of this study is to examine factors influencing faculty involvement in internationalization. For this purpose, the study aims to investigate faculty involvement in, and rationales, incentives for as well as barriers to internationalization. The study also aims at analyzing correlational relationships between these factors and testing the causal relationships through a theoretical model constructed by the researcher. The research then intends to explore these influencing factors detailed in a different country context and understand how the importance of variables in the proposed model would be described in the selected environment. To achieve these, the following research questions will be addressed specifically:

1. What are the most prominent internationalization activities among faculty?
2. At what level do faculty become involved in internationalization activities?
3. What are the prominent rationales and incentives for, and barriers to, internationalization for faculty?
4. Do the faculty involvement in, rationales and incentives for, and barriers to, internationalization significantly differ according to demographic variables?
5. What are the relationships between faculty involvement in internationalization, rationales and incentives for, and barriers to, internationalization?
6. Does the theoretical model constructed by the researcher explain causal relations among rationales, incentives, barriers, and faculty involvement in internationalization?
7. What are the specific faculty activities, rationales and incentives for and barriers to internationalization in a different country context?

8. How would the participants in a different country describe the importance of rationales, incentives and barriers for faculty involvement in internationalization?

Significance of the Study

The research is significant for several reasons. First, it provides a detailed insight for understanding the importance of various distinctive internationalization activities and priorities for faculty. In addition it enables interpretation of different rationales and incentives for and barriers to faculty internationalization. Since faculty is viewed as an essential element of higher education, the study can contribute to efforts of understanding and comparing different experiences and priorities regarding internationalization.

Secondly, the study sheds light on how rationales and incentives for and barriers to internationalization are perceived, prioritized and differ according to individual characteristics such as gender, academic rank, discipline, managerial duty, and organizational variables. It can be acknowledged that university managers endeavor to create unique identities for their institutions' international prestige and branding. In addition, leaders of higher education organizations employ several strategies and provide numerous incentives for encouraging faculty to internationalize. However, to understand the effectiveness of institutional policies, scholars and practitioners can seek more details on how these efforts are perceived by faculty. This research can provide an opportunity to explore what higher education leaders intend at the surface, and how it is understood and interpreted by faculty at the core level of the institution.

Thirdly, as the research aims at investigating the problem in different country and institutional contexts, it provides an opportunity to explore the internationalization phenomenon deeply at a different environment. Understanding different country, institutional and individual examples and experiences can provide a broader perspective on institutional

internationalization. In addition, the study can also help policy makers and leaders of higher education to gain a mutual understanding regarding faculty experiences, in order to develop and implement more successful strategies for the advancement of internationalization. Finally, the study can also provide a framework for further studies that intend to examine different aspects of higher education in internationalization.

Definitions

To provide a clearer understanding of key terms used in the research, operational definitions are provided as follows:

Internationalization. “The process of integrating an international, intercultural or global dimension into the purpose, functions or delivery of post-secondary education.” (Knight, 2004, p.11)

Rationales of internationalization for faculty. Motivations for integrating an international, intercultural or global dimension into the teaching, research and service roles of faculty (de Wit, 2002; Knight, 2004).

Incentives for internationalization for faculty. Governmental, institutional and individual strategies, procedures and experiences that motivate faculty to more participate in internationalization (Grasset, 2013; Klyberg, 2012; Knight, 2004).

Barriers of internationalization for faculty. Obstacles for faculty internationalization that are caused by policy, strategy and incentive-related issues as well as personal attitudes and persistence (Green, 2003, 2007; Hudzik, 2011).

Faculty involvement in internationalization. Faculty participation in international activities through individual, institutional and governmental objectives and strategies.

Assumptions

The following statements are accepted as assumptions for the purpose of this study.

- Rationales, incentives and barriers of internationalization frame the factors influencing faculty involvement in internationalization.
- Faculty members who are registered to TUBITAK ARBIS (Arařtırmacı Bilgi Sistemi) [Researcher Information Database] database represent the activities, views and perceptions of faculty who work at Turkish higher education institutions.
- Removing participant responses from the survey dataset in order to prepare the data for analysis does not produce misinterpreted analysis results.

Limitations and Delimitations

For the purpose of this research, factors influencing faculty involvement in internationalization are delimited with rationales and incentives for, and barriers to internationalization for faculty. While factors stated above are identified through related conceptual and empirical studies, one can prefer different or additional factors that might influence faculty involvement in internationalization.

The quantitative data gathered for this research is obtained from faculty members who are registered to TUBITAK ARBIS database. Since there might be faculty members who have not been registered to ARBIS, and the researcher preferred not to use any sampling techniques in order to reach maximum numbers of respondents, selecting participants for quantitative data collection can be considered delimitation for the study.

Collecting quantitative data with a survey can be accepted as another limitation for the study since the respondents' attention to and familiarity with the topic can vary. Faculty who have deeper interest in internationalization may prefer to participate more readily in this research than other faculty members.

The participants for qualitative data collection are delimited to university administrators, administrative staff and faculty members from Colleges of Education from two public research universities in the Southwestern region of the US. Understandings and experiences for internationalization can vary according to priorities of higher education institutions and faculty members. In addition, since the qualitative and quantitative data are collected from different countries, the country context should also be considered while interpreting the research results.

Conceptual Background

While studies on different aspects have been growing in the recent years, research on internationalization is still approached more through practical foci rather than theoretical and conceptual orientations (de Wit, 2002; Knight, 2013). Efforts to conceptualize internationalization research have been mainly associated with organizational theory, institutional adaption, change and strategic management (Scott, 2000; Kehm and Teichler, 2007; Szyszlo, 2016; Teichler, 2004; van der Wende, 2001). On the other hand, emerging scholarly work has intended to conceptualize the institutional internationalization process in line with developments in the field of globalization and international education (de Wit, 2002; Knight, 1994, 2004; Rumbley, 2010). For the purpose of this study, scholarly work focusing on comprehensive institutional internationalization process is preferred to frame the conceptual background.

As a description to understand the diversified notion of internationalization, Knight's (2004) study that defines internationalization as "the process of integrating an international, intercultural or global dimension into the purpose, functions or delivery of post-secondary education" is chosen (p.11). While it is possible to encounter various meanings and definitions in the literature (Altbach, 2007; Hudzik, 2011), Knight's (2004) definition is espoused because it acknowledges the role of different stakeholders, layers, and dimensions of higher education and highlights the continuity of internationalization efforts.

To understand different phases of institutional internationalization and the role of environmental factors, Rumbley's (2010) 'delta cycle for internationalization' is selected (p. 220). Prior to Rumbley's (2010) study, Knight's (1994) internationalization cycle was widely used for institutional internationalization research in the literature. In her work, Knight (1994) defined the continuity of and holistic approach to internationalization in six steps that are flexible and linked to each other. These steps were ordered as (1) *awareness* of the need for / benefits of internationalization, (2) *commitment* by senior administration, faculty and students, (3) *planning* to identify the priorities for resources and strategies, (4) *operationalization* of the academic activities and organizational factors, (5), *review* of the impact of initiatives and strategies and (6) *reinforcement* by incentivizing internationalization for faculty and students.

While this conceptualization provides a useful explanation for the steps of institutional internationalization, it can be suggested that the role of environmental factors needs to be highlighted more in order to broadly understand the process. Factors of internationalization such as rationales, incentives, obstacles and imperatives can emerge from both inside and outside of the institution for different governmental and organizational cases (Rumbley, 2010). In addition, considering the changing governmental and institutional dynamics that can be linked to faculty internationalization, a further understanding for conceptual background is

needed. Thus, an updated explanation of the internationalization process that also emphasizes the environmental circumstances is preferred for this research.

Rumbley's (2010) 'delta cycle for internationalization' provides a broader conceptualization for the context of this research. Drawing on Knight's (1994) work, Rumbley (2010) explains the institutional internationalization process through four elements; a. *opportunities*, b. *imperatives*, c. *obstacles* and d. *resources*. Rumbley (2010) further links these elements to three main factors in order to understand the process of internationalization for an institution: (1) *why—rationales*, (2) *how—strategies*, and (3) *to what end—outcomes*. Figure 1 below demonstrates Rumbley's (2010) conceptual viewpoint regarding internationalization:

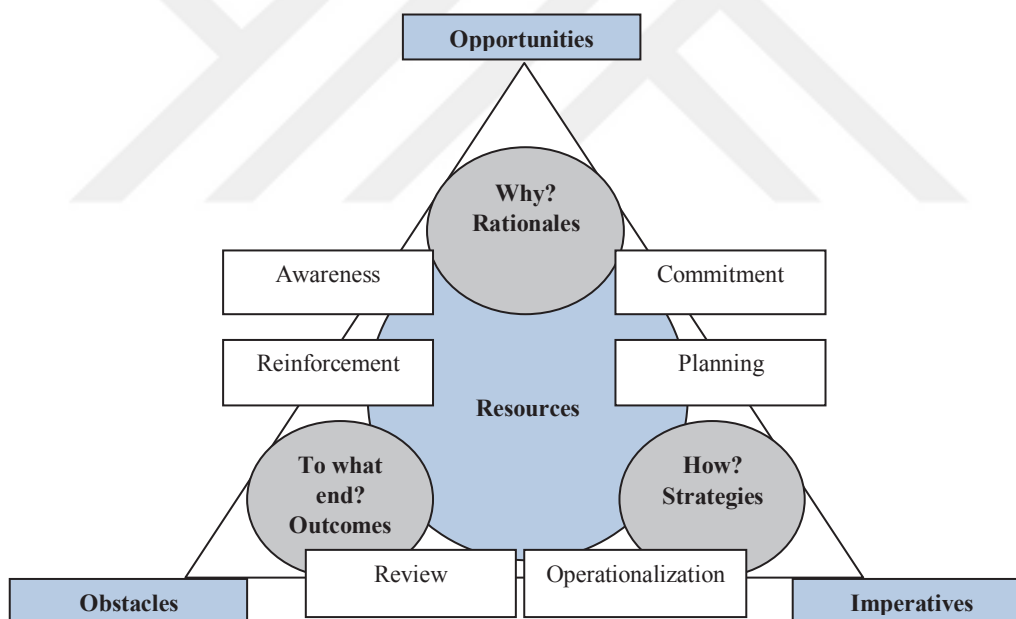


Figure 1. Delta cycle for internationalization

Source: Rumbley, 2010, p.220

Rumbley's (2010) conceptualization is preferred for this study, because it addresses the importance of both institutional and environmental circumstances. It is possible to think that the process of faculty involvement in internationalization can be influenced by both university related implementations as well as governmental/inter-governmental policies and

strategies. Delta cycle for internationalization enables considering multidimensional-process internationalization through a variety of stakeholders including government and institution. It also allows the researcher to examine the faculty involvement in internationalization by focusing on specific factors related to rationales, incentives, barriers and involvement. Therefore, it is employed as a conceptual explanation of institutional higher education internationalization for the context of this study.

To understand the rationales for internationalization, Knight's (2007) work is chosen along with her 2004 article. In her 2004 article, Dr. Knight divides the main motivations for internationalization into four sub-groups which include *economic, political, socio-cultural* and *academic* rationales. Covering essential reasons, Knight's (2004) classification has become one of the mainstream works in the literature to understand rationales for internationalization at the macro level (Klyberg, 2012). However, considering the changing and diversified background of the concept, in her later work (2007), she underlines emerging organizational needs and adds *institutional rationales* to the dimensions in the previous four-grouped classification.

To examine the role of incentives in internationalization, faculty motivations at both *internal* and *external* level are taken into account first (Klyberg, 2012). Individual desires, values and experiences that motivate faculty to more participate internationalization is considered *personal incentives* (Eimers, 1997). In addition, Knight's (2004) article provides a basis to frame the role of *institutional and governmental incentives* for faculty engagement in internationalization as *external* factors. Institutional level program and organization strategies and governmental policy implementations for faculty internationalization are taken into consideration as important external incentives (Grasset, 2013; Knight, 2004; Qiang, 2003).

Additionally, Green's (2003, 2007) studies provide insight for barriers to internationalization. Dr. Green examines barriers to internationalization in two groups: institutional and individual. *Institutional barriers* are linked to the aims, policies, resources and leadership style of the organization. *Individual barriers*, on the other hand, are more related to personal attitudes and mindsets that resist participation in internationalization (Green, 2003, 2007).

Finally, Biglan's (1973a, 1973b) model directs the research in classifying the academic disciplines. Taking into account the nature of academic work and faculty activities, Dr. Biglan classifies academic disciplines under two main groups as 'hard' and 'soft'. In addition, Biglan (1973a, 1973b) adds a comparison to his description regarding pure and applied areas. According to his model, disciplines which are more covered through theoretical work are grouped under 'pure' fields, while more practice-based fields are classified as 'applied'. This classification helps the researcher in interpreting the differences among academic disciplines by considering the nature of disciplinary work and faculty activities. Therefore, academic disciplines are grouped as *Applied Sciences, Arts & Humanities, Natural Sciences, and Social & Creative Sciences* (Chynoweth, 2009; Krishnan, 2009).

Proposed Model for Research

Drawing on Rumbley's (2010) conceptualization and related studies given above, factors influencing faculty involvement in internationalization are framed through rationales, incentives for and barriers of internationalization for the purpose of this study. As the research intends to examine causal relationships among factors given above, the theoretical model below is constructed by the researcher and proposed as an explanation of faculty involvement in internationalization.

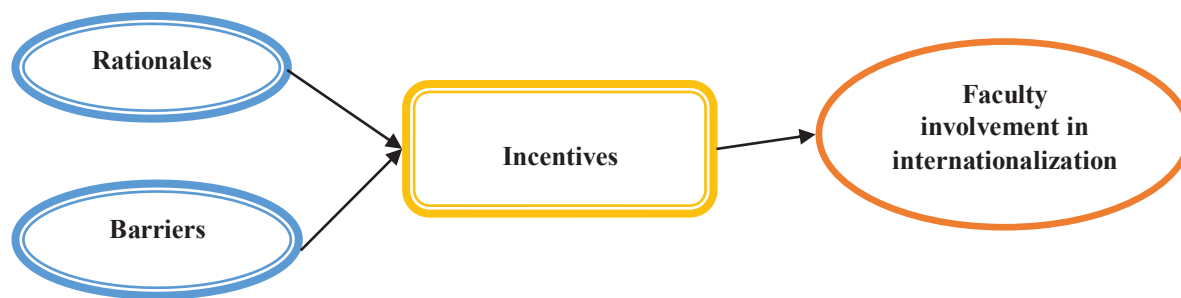


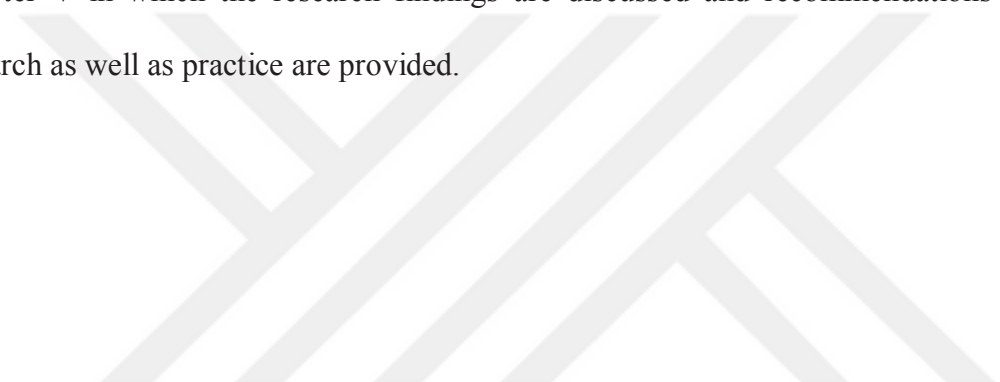
Figure 2. Proposed theoretical model

The theoretical model is mainly constructed by taking the Rumbley's (2010) delta cycle conceptualization into account as an explanation for faculty involvement in internationalization. Rumbley (2010) described the institutional internationalization process through the way of responses given for three main questions: (1) *why; the rationales for internationalization*, (2) *how; the strategies implemented to incentivize internationalization and overcome the barriers*, and (3) *to what end; the outcomes that are gained through the implemented strategies*.

Drawing on Rumbley's (2010) conceptualization and the fact that internationalization can have different meanings and understandings for different stakeholders in higher education (Knight, 2004), the constructed theoretical model attempts to explain faculty involvement in internationalization through the relationships among rationales, incentives, barriers and faculty involvement. According to the proposed model, there are direct relationships between rationales—*incentives*, barriers—*incentives*, and *incentives—faculty involvement*. The model claims that the relationships regarding rationales—*faculty involvement* and barriers—*faculty involvement* are indirect. However, it is asserted in the model that through the mediating effects of incentives, faculty involvement in internationalization can be explained by the indirect relationships of rationales—*faculty involvement*, barriers—*faculty involvement*, and direct relationship between incentives and faculty involvement.

Organization of the Dissertation

The dissertation starts with an introduction that provides a fundamental understanding regarding background, purpose and key conceptual frameworks for the research. Chapter II focuses on reviewing the related literature to provide a basic understanding of the higher education internationalization through theoretical and empirical studies. Chapter III explains the methodology that is followed during the research process. Chapter IV presents the results of the research that are obtained through data analysis. Finally, the dissertation ends with Chapter V in which the research findings are discussed and recommendations for further research as well as practice are provided.



Chapter II: Literature Review

To provide an overview of key scholarly work, this chapter first outlines the major issues in the changing context of globalization and internationalization. It then discusses the related literature on faculty work, motivation and academic identities. At the end of the chapter, related empirical studies on internationalization are presented.

Internationalization

To begin the chapter, this section provides a review of internationalization literature. The section starts by addressing the mutual relationship between globalization and international dimension in higher education and discusses the changing definitions of internationalization. It then outlines the rationales and strategies for, and barriers to, internationalization from different stakeholder perspectives. Finally, the faculty role, and the future trajectory related to internationalization are discussed at the end of section.

Globalization and internationalization. A multidimensional term influencing society, globalization can be defined as “the intensification of worldwide social relations which links distant localities in such a way that local happenings are shaped by events occurring many miles away and vice versa” (Giddens, 1990, p.64). Globalization has extended the interrelatedness and interdependence of societies by means of various developments in politics, business, economy, communication, and technology (Held, McGrew, Goldblatt, & Perraton, 2000). Such developments have led to changes not only in social and cultural structures, but also in governmental policies and implementations in finance and economics as well as education (Marginson & van der Wende, 2007). Thus, higher education has also been influenced by the changes resulting from globalization ((Kwiek, 2001; Vaira, 2004; Welch, 2002).

Changes related to globalization have guided trends in higher education across world (Scott, 2000). Tendencies such as usage of English as the lingua franca in research and teaching, a growing international student movement, and ICT based delivery of education have become more common in higher education across the world (Marginson & van der Wende, 2007). These tendencies also created opportunities to develop growing higher education models at overseas level such as international universities and massive open online courses (MOOCs) (Knight, 2015). Furthermore, globalization has triggered internationalization by means of enhanced relations, cooperation and competition between higher education institutions at the international level (Knight, 2004).

On the other hand, due to the diversified societal and governmental priorities, regional differences have emerged regarding the aims and operations related to international cooperation and competition that are prompted by globalization. North American experiences have emphasized international student recruitment and global branding in internationalization strategies especially for entrepreneurial purposes and revenue generation (Choudaha, 2017; Slaughter & Rhoades, 2004). European higher education institutions, however, have focused more on harmonization and degree systems in order to enhance regional standards and collaboration (Altbach, 2004). Similarly, Asian countries such as Japan and China have placed importance on international norms and standards. However, their motivations have emerged more from the need to adopt quality standards for higher education and overcome the competitive notion of globalization (Huang, 2007). Considering the mutual and transitional links, clarifying the nature of the relationships between globalization and internationalization can help understand the changing nature of higher education (Knight, 2004).

Several studies outline that there are differences as well as similarities between globalization and internationalization when they are used in the context of higher education (Altbach & Knight, 2007; Altbach et al., 2009; Beck, 2012; Huang, 2007; Kreber, 2009; van der Wende, 2004). Globalization in higher education agenda refers to “the broad economic, technological, and scientific trends that directly affect higher education and are largely inevitable in the contemporary world” (Altbach et al., 2009, p.23). Internationalization of higher education, however, is more associated with special actions carried out at individual, institutional or governmental levels in order to overcome the problems resulting from globalization (Altbach et al., 2009). Developments resulting from globalization have engendered emerging survival needs for governments and societies, and created pressure on universities to approach internationalization as a multidimensional strategic priority in order to respond to the diversified growing demands of a global knowledge society (Altbach & Knight, 2007; Marginson, 2006).

Both globalization and internationalization have brought new responsibilities for higher education that lead it to a more open, beyond-nation system (Teichler, 2004). However, globalization differs from internationalization as it gravitates to overleap national borders, while internationalization aims to contribute to the cooperation of institutions and national systems without neglecting identities (Enders, 2004; Teichler, 2004). In addition, globalization has brought economic imperatives, the race for funding, and profit-making concerns related to knowledge (Marginson, 2006; Teichler, 2004). Internationalization, on the other hand, has been perceived more as the academic cross border mobility actions that enhance the capacity of institutions, research and knowledge transfer (Teichler, 1999). Therefore, one can consider that globalization is linked more to interdependence and competition climate, while internationalization highlights more the promotion of a climate of mutuality and cooperation (Kreber, 2009; van der Wende, 2004).

Definitions of internationalization. It would be difficult to suppose that there is one widely agreed-upon meaning for internationalization as it has been defined from various aspects in a higher education context (de Wit, 2002; Mestenhauser, 1998). To emphasize beyond border movements in higher education, terms such as international education, cross-border education, global education or Europeanization have been used from regional and international viewpoints in the literature (de Wit, 2002). Scholars have also referred to some curriculum-based descriptions including intercultural education, cross-cultural education or internationalization at home to address international developments in higher education (Knight, 2004). Since diversified understandings can be highlighted in particular region and country contexts, all these terms have been used with different emphasis in order to reflect different approaches (de Wit, 2002; Hudzik, 2011). In addition, objectives, priorities and applications for internationalization have evolved over the past decades. The changing nature of the demand for higher education and emerging actors as well as delivery ways have led to new types of internationalization programs and activities (Knight, 2004). Considering the change in related terms and understandings, some of the notable definitions are provided here in order to reflect the developments over time.

Harari (1972) is one of the earliest scholars who studied the concept comprehensively. He applies the term “international education” to refer to internationalization of higher education and explains it as:

“an all-inclusive term encompassing three major strands: (a) international content of the curricula, (b) international movement of scholars and students concerned with training and research, and (c) arrangements engaging U.S. education abroad in technical assistance and educational cooperation programs” (Harari, 1972, p.3).

Likewise, Arum and Van de Water (1992) use the same term and define 'international education' as "multiple activities, programs and services that fall within international studies, international educational exchange and technical cooperation" (Arum & van de Water, 1992, p.202). Both definitions above adopt the term 'international education' for cross-border actions and underline reactive activities and programs at institution level rather than planned strategies (Knight, 2004).

During the 1990s, the term 'internationalization' gained more attention through a multidimensional. Knight (1994) proposes a process-oriented description by defining internationalization as "the process of integrating an international and intercultural dimension into the teaching, research and service functions of the institution" (Knight, 1994, p.3). Similarly, Ellingboe (1998) defines the term as "the process of integrating an international perspective into a college or university system" (Ellingboe, 1998, p.198). These two definitions tend to describe internationalization as a process rather than a set of activities. It can also be noted that institutional baseline and strategy oriented decision-making had influences on efforts toward defining internationalization in this decade (Knight, 2004).

Knight (2004) updates her definition with a more technical and holistic perspective a decade later. Her new definition describes internationalization at sector/ national/ international levels as "the process of integrating an international, intercultural or global dimension into the purpose, functions or delivery of post-secondary education" (Knight, 2004, p.11). This definition has become one of the mainstream approaches in the field, as several higher education organizations and scholars benefitted from it to define the concept (Klyberg, 2012). In a similar but more detailed way, Altbach (2007) provides another multidimensional definition of internationalization as:

“specific policies and programs undertaken by governments, academic systems and institutions, and even individual departments to support student or faculty exchanges, encourage collaborative research overseas, set up joint teaching programs in other countries or a myriad of other initiatives” (Altbach, 2007, p.123)

It is possible to encounter additional descriptions of internationalization with various emphasis, but definitions given above can help understand the change in the terminology and context. According to de Wit’s (2002) analysis, “international education” was more common in the literature after the Second World War. Due to the emerging political rationales linked to the Cold War and growing US-based scholarly as well as practical work, international education was preferred more to explain the beyond-border actions in higher education. After the Cold War, however, scholarship outside the US, practices regarding Europeanization, and overseas delivery of education influenced the terminology. Therefore internationalization has become a popular concept to describe beyond-border global strategies in higher education (de Wit, 2002; Edwards, 2007).

In addition to terminological changes, one can note that definitions and meanings of internationalization have evolved over the past few decades. In the 1970s and late 1980s, proposed definitions of internationalization mainly emphasized an ad-hoc approach to institutional activities (Knight, 2004). Starting from the mid-1990s, however, process-oriented understandings have emerged in the literature. Since the 2000s, finally, the multidimensional and comprehensive understandings have started to dominate efforts to describe internationalization (Knight, 2004, 2007). Thus, within the developments related to the concept, it can be asserted with Olson’s (2005) words that internationalization has become “a philosophy rather than a policy, a process rather than a set of activities, a journey rather than a destination” in higher education (Olson, 2005, p.53).

Rationales for internationalization. De Wit (2002) describes rationales for internationalization as “motivations for integrating an international dimension into higher education” (de Wit, 2002, p.84). Since there are various meanings, stakeholders and environmental factors influencing higher education, rationales for internationalization can vary depending on priorities and objectives in different circumstances (de Wit, 2002; Qiang, 2003; Welch & Denman, 1997). The change in rationales can emerge from governmental factors such as policies on education and resource allocation, and institutional circumstances in terms of faculty and student profile, geographical location, society needs and international orientation of the institution (Knight, 2004). Thus, a variety of rationales for internationalization can be witnessed in the literature.

Aigner, Nelson and Stimpfl (1992) address three main impetuses for internationalization: “interest in international security, maintenance of economic competitiveness, and fostering of human understanding across nations” (as cited in Qiang, 2003, p. 251). Harari (1992) emphasizes the importance of internationalization especially for undergraduate students, and states that the rationale for internationalization at the undergraduate level is associated with providing education for students in order to help them gain global competencies and understand cultural/social diversity (Harari, 1992). Davies (1992) highlights the cultural and financial aspect and educational benefits. According to him, efforts toward internationalization emerge from the needs for diversifying the income resources for institutions and disseminating universal knowledge via cross-cultural experiences (Davies, 1992).

It can be thought that, as earlier suggested, rationales given above try to explain the main reasons behind internationalization through motivations related to globalization, international relations, economy, and higher education. Over time, however, due to the

emerging stakeholders and priorities, diversified categorizations for rationales have gained more emphasis in the internationalization literature (Knight, 2004; Qiang, 2003). For example, Knight (1999) develops a more comprehensive categorization, and divides the rationales into four sub-groups as: political, economic, academic, cultural/social (Knight, 1999). Many studies, including de Wit (2002), Qiang (2003) and Hudzik (2011) uses this four-category framework as a basis to interpret the rationales. Furthermore, Knight (2004, 2007) adds a new category as *branding*, which refers to the emerging efforts toward promoting international reputation at institutional level.

As of now, this section follows Knight's (1999) and de Wit's (2002) four-group classification to examine the rationales in international and Turkey contexts. It then briefly summarizes the fundamental and emerging rationales by noting national and institutional rationales through Knight's (2004) description.

Political rationales. De Wit (2002) and Knight (2004) analyzed political rationales in six major areas: Foreign policy, national security, technical assistance, peace and mutual understanding, national identity, and regional identity. According to de Wit (2002), one of the ideas behind the political rationale is considering education as a tool that enhances the political relationships between countries. Governments invest in foreign student grants and establish educational/cultural agreements at the national level in order to build a rapport with possible future leaders, and enhance mutual relations with other countries (de Wit, 2002; Knight, 1999).

Examples of promoting internationalization as a national policy tool can be seen in US politics and higher education. During the Cold War, the US and NATO put internationalization on their agenda in order to enhance national security, diplomacy, peace and mutual understanding (de Wit, 2002; Harari, 1972). Similarly, as declared on the U.S.

Department of State website, actions like International Education Week endeavor to “promote programs that prepare Americans for a global environment and attract future leaders from abroad to study, learn, and exchange experiences in the United States” (U.S. Department of State, 2015; as cited in Smithee, 2012, p.3). Moreover, some of the policies on internationalization in the US aim at expanding the capability of the U.S.’ global problem solving (Olson, 2005).

In the European experiences, political rationales can be encountered in accordance with the EU procedures and programs. One of the aims of EU international mobility programs across Europe is linked to promote of European values (European Commission, 2017), and seen as a means for creating a common European understanding (Papatsiba, 2005). Hence, by facilitating educational programs, internationalization is used as a political instrument that helps to develop regional citizenship and identity in Europe (de Wit, 2002).

Similarly, efforts toward internationalization of Turkey’s higher education include political aspects. According to Çetinsaya (2014), who is the former president of the national Council of Higher Education (COHE) [YÖK], Turkey should aim to enlarge the international student capacity in order to empower cultural and political relationships with the countries on its influencing landscape. Çetinsaya (2014) also states that as one of the growing national objectives in higher education, internationalization needs to be strengthened in accordance with the country’s future plans and foreign policy objectives. In line with these rationales, after the collapse of the SU, the Turkish government established cross-border universities and constituted educational agreements with former Soviet countries such as Kazakhstan and Kyrgyzstan (Kırmızıdağ, Gür, Kurt, & Boz, 2012). Since then, further attempts aiming to attract students from countries with which Turkey has a cultural and political links have been growing in order to enhance regional political relations (Özer, 2012; Köksal, 2014).

Economic rationales. Most of the economic rationales related to internationalization have close connections with the financial competition prompted by globalization (Altbach, 2007; Marginson & van der Wende, 2007; Teichler, 2004). Competitive economic conditions across the world, urgent needs of emerging markets, and massive national demand for higher education force governments and institutions to pursue internationalization policies through financial motivations (Deardorff, de Wit, & Heyl, 2012; de Wit, 2002). Thus, the emphasis given for economic rationales has grown more in comparison with other fundamental motivations (de Wit, 2010).

Economic imperatives play a crucial role in all sector, national and supranational stages of higher education (Knight, 2004). From the sector viewpoint, internationalization is encouraged through the need for well-educated employees who have global work skills (Bennell & Pearce, 2003). In addition, it is used both in national and supranational levels as a mechanism for developing global knowledge, and human capital, and enhancing citizens' international competency in European experiences (Enders, 2004; Huisman & van Vught, 2009; Teichler, 2009) and experiences in the U.S. (Olson, 2005; Peterson & Helms, 2014). Furthermore, internationalization is approached as a tool for revenue generation through international student recruitment. Examples of recruiting international students for financial purposes can be seen both in English-speaking countries (Choudaha, 2017; Shin & Harman, 2009; Welch & Denman, 1997) as well as the non-English-speaking world (Huang, 2007; Jon, et al., 2014).

Despite the significant influence of financial motivations in other parts of the world, it can be thought that economic rationales of internationalization are relatively new compared to academic, political and cultural purposes in the Turkish context (Özer, 2012). It is, however, gaining emphasis especially through the private sector needs and massifying academic

environments (Çetinsaya, 2014; Özoğlu, Gür & Coşkun, 2012). For example, the Foreign Economic Relations Board of Turkey's private sector (DEİK) recommends legislative regulations for international students' part-time job opportunities in order to provide for a more diverse, qualified and competitive workforce (DEİK, 2013). Furthermore, the massification in Turkish higher education has led both public and private institutions to pay more attention to financing strategies related to international student recruitment (DEİK, 2013; Özoğlu et al., 2012).

Academic rationales. As a basis for internationalization, academic rationales are associated with fundamental aims of internationalization efforts, which are mainly related to learning from the world and enhancing institutional knowledge (Hawawini, 2011). Internationalization initiatives for students, faculty and staff to study abroad can contribute individuals who can understand, transfer and reflect the realities in other parts of the world. (de Wit, 2002; Teichler, 2015) These initiatives are also considered as a means for institutions and academic communities to build up connections with other institutions in order to promote global research and knowledge and more appropriate service to society (Hudzik, 2011).

Academic rationales are also linked to the aims of enhancing institutional brand and reputation, and following international quality standards (de Wit, 2002; Knight, 1994). Institutions set goals of international rankings to attract the best students all around the world. Moreover, some countries such as Singapore, Qatar, Hong Kong and Malaysia position themselves as international education hubs in order to gain worldwide reputation in higher education (Knight, 2011, 2012). Furthermore, internationalization is presented as an argument for European higher education reform, and to push forward governments and institutions by encouraging them to accommodate regional and international quality standards (Teichler, 2009).

Academic requirements have had an impact on the internationalization efforts of Turkey's higher education for a considerable while. For example, in the late 1990s COHE carried out projects with global partners such as World Bank and British Council in order to develop a substructure of accreditation and adapt Turkish higher education to international quality standards (Akar, 2010). In addition, after the declaration of the Bologna Process in 1999, higher education institutions in Turkey set curricular operations through the European Transfer Credit System (ECTS) (Visakorpi, Stankovic, Pedrosa, & Rozsnyai, 2008). The aim of these attempts could be linked to efforts towards (1) improving the quality of higher education, (2) acquiring international prestige, and (3) adapting the system to international standards (Akar, 2010; Mizikaci, 2005).

Another academic motivation in the internationalization efforts of Turkey's higher education can be named as promoting global knowledge production. To achieve this, COHE set a new promotion and assignment strategy in 2005 that encourages faculty to publish in international journals indexed in SCI, AHCI or SSCI (Akar, 2010). Moreover, COHE has been conducting projects to support academic staff in using English for promotion by organizing foreign language courses (YÖK, 2015). In addition to global knowledge production, the efforts of improving the usage of English and publishing in international journals can be also linked to concerns related to academic rankings, institutional reputation, and branding, as well (Akar, 2010).

Cultural/Social rationales. Cultural and social rationales often focus on efforts related to improving national and regional identity, preserving and advertising national culture, and understanding other cultures and languages (Knight, 1999; Qiang, 2003). For example, it is stated in UNESCO's 1998 World Conference on Higher Education report that European universities establish mutual cultural relationships and promote cultural values in accordance

with each other in order to help European society enhance democratic understanding regarding other cultures (UNESCO, 1998). In some cases, moreover, internationalization can be used as a means to develop intercultural understanding, since globalization may cause negative consequences such as decreasing the importance and uniqueness of the nation's own culture. Therefore, it sometimes also can be regarded as a mechanism that reduces the negative effects of globalization (Knight, 1994).

Social rationales often refer to individual development which students and academic staff gain through international experiences. De Wit (2002) states that international mobility is one of the most crucial elements for faculty's personal progress. Similarly, from the students' viewpoint, Green (2005a) posits that many students tend to participate in study abroad experiences in order to gain intercultural social skills (Green, 2005a). Individual social development for students can also be seen at efforts toward internationalizing the curriculum (Leask, 2009). In many cases, the international curricula taught in English can help students in socio-cultural areas like gaining international knowledge, critical thinking, and connecting with people from foreign countries (van der Wende, 2010).

Cultural and social rationales for internationalization can also be witnessed in Turkey's higher education context. Former president of COHE, Çetinsaya (2014) notes that one of the main goals for internationalization of Turkey's higher education should be enhancing the cultural relationships with other nations with which Turkey has common cultural or historical background. As an example for this, starting from the 1990s, the Turkish government established four cross-border universities in different countries in order to improve social and cultural relations with other cultures (Kırmızıdağ et al., 2012). Furthermore, efforts toward intercultural curriculum and English-medium programs have been also considered as a means for internationalization in Turkey's higher education through

social/cultural rationales (Akar, 2010). In addition, since academic mobility holds an important place in the implementations regarding adapting higher education to the European system (Mizikaci, 2005), students and academic staff in Turkey can enhance their social/cultural skills by means of international experiences.

Given all the above rationales, one can suppose that the change in understandings and practices of internationalization has brought evolving motivations over time. Internationalization was emphasized more through political reasons, including mutual understanding, national security, and peace after World War II (de Wit, 2002; Qiang, 2003). In addition, developing countries traditionally benefitted from internationalization to connect with other parts of the world and to build capacity in their governmental systems (Deardorff et al., 2012). However, globalization and privatization of education have led to a rise in economic rationales and have changed the priorities. Thus, new motivations in individual, institutional, sector and national levels have emerged in recent years (Knight, 2004).

While the four-grouped classification can still be considered relevant in the field, there are proposals that question the influence of new motivations. Knight (2004) points out that through the developments related to the competitive influence of globalization, emerging rationales for internationalization appeared at national and institutional levels. She adds that although the reputational reasons for internationalization can be linked to economic, academic, social and political rationales, it might be useful to reconsider *branding* as a new separate category (Knight, 2004). In line with her proposed categorization, Table 1 demonstrates the fundamental and emerging rationales for internationalization together.

Table 1.

Fundamental and Emerging Rationales for Internationalization

Category	Rationales
Academic	International research collaboration, academic development, global knowledge production, quality standards, network building.
Economic	Raising students for international job market, financial needs of global competition, revenue generation, entrepreneurship
Political	Foreign policy objectives, global awareness and mutual understanding, national and regional identity development, governmental capacity building
Socio-cultural	Improving national/regional identity, social and cultural development, intercultural understanding, citizenship and language development
Institutional	Branding, institutional reputation and profile, student and staff development, curriculum development, revenue generation, institutional development
National	national human capacity, strategic partnerships, financial trade and operations, socio-cultural development

Source: adapted from de Wit (2002), Knight (2004, 2007)

As can be understood from Table 1, the changing context of higher education and various national, regional and institutional circumstances can bring different rationales for governments, institutions and individuals (Huzdik, 2011). Moreover, the rationales at different levels such as national/governmental and institutional can be seen as closely linked to each other and overlapping. Knight (2004) emphasizes this ambiguity and overlap in recent motivations, and she calls for a need of distinguishing the national and institutional levels. Thus, she suggests a separate analysis of emerging rationales as follows:

- (1) National level emerging rationales: developing human capacity, establishing strategic partnerships, operationalizing trade, enhancing social-cultural skills at the national level.
- (2) Institutional level emerging rationales: enhancing institutional brand and profile, generating revenue, developing institutional human capacity, establishing strategic alliances and global scientific production (Knight, 2004, p. 23).

Strategies for internationalization. Strategies for internationalization as a term became popular when the concept shifted from ad-hoc institutional activities to a more planned and comprehensive approach (Knight, 2004). This can be described as planned actions, programs and policies of higher education which promote, incentivize or are influenced by internationalization at different levels (de Wit, 2002; Knight, 2004). As the meanings of and practices for internationalization can vary according to different priorities, stakeholders' views should be taken into account in describing the level of strategies. According to Qiang (2003), stakeholders' views for internationalization include government, education and private sector perspectives. Government sector refers to supranational, national, regional and local bodies that show interest in the international dimension of higher education. Education sector, on the other hand, includes different types of higher education organizations and research institutions. Finally, private sector is described as local, domestic or global companies which have commercial and/or geographical interest related to internationalization (Qiang, 2003, p. 254). For the purpose of this study, strategies for internationalization are introduced at governmental and institutional level planned actions, programs and policies.

Governmental strategies. Governmental strategies on the international dimension of higher education can be witnessed in policies and programs regarding political relationships, economic imperatives, scientific and technological development, industrial and commercial growth and others (Knight, 2004). Governmental strategies can have a direct influence on higher education at supranational, national and private sector levels as well as in institutional systems (Qiang, 2003). Governmental actors for internationalization strategies include regional supranational entities, national bodies and sub-agencies, and quasi-governmental organizations (Helms, Rumbley, Brajkovic, & Mihut, 2015)

Regional entities refer to supranational actors which are created through coalitions of countries and governments (Helms et al., 2015). These regional entities often have units in different developmental areas and can enhance regional cooperation according to the needs and priorities of member governments by means of strategic actions (de Wit, Hunter, Howard, & Egron-Polak, 2015). Internationalization strategies formulated through these governmental entities encompass a broad range of programs and initiatives that promote academic mobility, research collaboration, and study abroad within the region (Helms et al., 2015; Knight, 2004).

National bodies are related to governmental organizations at the country level which assume responsibility for policy and strategy development in internationalization (Helms et al., 2015). These actors are often the central education authorities in national governments such as ministries of education. However, in some cases, it is possible to see other governmental actors which are related to policies on science and technology, culture, foreign relations, economy and social/cultural development. Moreover, the role of developing internationalization strategies can specifically be undertaken by sub-agencies of central authorities in some governmental examples (Knight, 2004; Helms et al., 2015). Strategies of national bodies cover a broad range of actions to enhance international research collaboration, academic mobility of students and faculty, and higher education capacity and quality (de Wit et al., 2015; Helms et al., 2015; Matei & Iwinska, 2015).

Quasi-governmental organizations can be described as autonomous not-for-profit bodies that function as important players in higher education strategy planning (Helms et al., 2015). The autonomy degree of these organizations can differ from case to case. However, they often are considered independent policy-advising organizations funded through governmental funders and public money. Usually, the administration of the quasi-governmental higher education organizations is operated inside the country, but branch

offices abroad can also be seen in some circumstances (Green, Marmolejo, & Egron-Polak, 2012; Helms et al., 2015). Table 2 provides examples for all three types of government bodies and some strategies, policies and programs for internationalization at the governmental level.

Table 2.

Governmental Bodies and Their Role in Internationalization Strategies

Type of organization	Examples	Role in internationalization strategies
Regional/ supranational	Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - to enhance ASEAN identity through education in the region - to strengthen ASEAN human resources in education - to extend ASEAN higher education network
	European Union (EU)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - to advance in structural reforms, quality, mobility and internationalization in higher education - to assure more comparable, compatible and coherent higher education systems across Europe
	Organization of American States (OAS)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - to facilitate regional mobility and collaboration in higher education
National	Center for International Mobility (CIMO) Finland	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - to facilitate mobility and cooperation for the internationalization of Finnish higher education - to coordinate exchange programs and organize scholarships - to support Finnish culture and education
	Education New Zealand	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - to market New Zealand as a hub for international students - to develop specific strategies for international student recruitment - to administer scholarships and grants for student mobility.
	Swedish Institute	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - to coordinate governmental exchange programs - to administer scholarships and institutional grants for international student mobility and collaboration
	British Council	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - to create cultural international opportunities between UK and other countries - to manage governmental scholarships and exchange programs - to organize education exhibits for international students - to carry out research and UK-based academic exams
Quasi-governmental	CampusFrance	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - to promote French higher education programs internationally - to offer proper ways to international students for success in higher education in France
	EP-Nuffic (Netherlands)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - to provide service and expertise for the internationalization of Dutch education - to administer national government scholarships - to promote Dutch higher education internationally - to help Dutch higher education institutions establish international partnerships

Source: adapted from Helms et al. (2015, pp. 12-17)

With respect to type of organizations shown in Table 2 and their strategic role in the internationalization of Turkey's higher education, EU can be considered one of the most influential supra-national bodies. Turkey became a member of the Bologna Process in 2001, and since then adapting Turkey's higher education to EHEA has been one of the important priorities at the national level (Yağcı, 2010). EU strategies and other member country initiatives, specifically in international mobility, quality and standardization of programs, have had an influence on enhancing internationalization of Turkish higher education (Ince & Gounko, 2014; Mizikacı, 2005). It is also possible to witness some other governmental entities that play a substantial role in Turkey's higher education. For example, COHE, a governmental body which is in charge of planning, regulating, managing and supervising higher education at the national level, develops strategies and makes decisions on finance, faculty and programs of institutions (Constitution act, 1982). Moreover, TÜBİTAK administers scholarships and research funding and establishes cooperation agreements with other country agencies as a quasi-governmental body (TÜBİTAK, 2017).

Institutional strategies. Strategies for internationalization at the institutional level gained wider attention when the international dimension in higher education evolved from limited activities to a multidimensional approach (Knight, 2004). Strategic approach for internationalization provided enhanced opportunities for institutions in several parts of the world to respond to the competitive nature of globalization in a more organized, reactive and sustainable way (Arimoto, 2010). In addition, it enabled them to focus on specific areas of institutional management such as leadership, vision, human resources, and resource allocation to extend the effectiveness of internationalization practices. Therefore, several higher education institutions started to employ a strategic management approach to internationalization (Cornelius, 2012; Hudzik & McCarthy, 2012).

According to Hénard, Diamond and Roseveare (2012), higher education institutions can develop a strategic approach for internationalization in four main phases: (1) understanding the environmental factors, (2) developing comprehensive strategies, (3) optimizing the implemented strategies, and (4) monitoring and evaluation of the internationalization process (Hénard et al., 2012, p.40). Each of these phases requires an ongoing institutional commitment and can be measured by means of various actions (Hénard et al., 2012; Hudzik & McCarthy, 2012). Table 3 demonstrates some examples of measuring actions in four phases related to strategic approach at higher education institutions.

Table 3.
Actions for Strategic Approach to Internationalization

Phase	Measuring actions
Understanding the environment	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Identifying the priorities of internationalization actors at national and international level (e.g. governments, other institutions, private sector) - Identifying the governmental and institutional policy requirements and bureaucratic regulations at national and international level (e.g. funding rules, visa issues, patenting and license regulations, accreditation, level of institutional autonomy) - Considering the cultural contexts at home country and other countries for potential challenges (e.g. student expectations and backgrounds, language, ethical issues) - Analyzing all other factors that can influence the environment for internationalization (e.g. financial trends, geo-political issues, socio-cultural tensions, technological changes, local perceptions, competition and cooperation trends)
Developing comprehensive strategies	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Clarifying institutional priorities and goals for internationalization - Choosing appropriate forms of internationalization for institution by considering institutional mission and environmental factors - Developing a sustainable model of internationalization (expected benefits and cost, financial requirements, time, potential risks and responses) - Establishing networks through institutional objectives - Ensuring the complete utilization of institutional capacity for internationalization - Embodying the process of monitoring and evaluation into strategic plan
Optimizing the implemented strategies	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Learning from other institutional experiences - Ensuring the alignment between departmental and other sub-unit policies and institutional goals - Maintaining communication related to institutional motivation for internationalization with all stakeholders - Providing support for local and international students and staff and integration at institution - Supporting faculty to overcome new challenges in teaching and research resulting from internationalization - Supporting pedagogical approaches to infuse global learning outcomes for students
Monitoring and evaluation of the internationalization process	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Embodying monitoring and evaluation mechanisms of internationalization that consider expected costs and benefits into strategic plan - Developing quantitative indicators for assessment of internationalization - Integrating internationalization goals into institutional quality assurance process

Source: adapted from Hénard et al. (2012, pp. 40-42)

Measures shown in Table 3 covers a broad range of institutional actions aiming the commitment and participation of all stakeholders at different dimensions, which can be described as comprehensive strategic approach to internationalization. According to Hudzik & McCarthy (2012), comprehensive internationalization approach requires multidimensional understanding at both macro strategies and operational actions. At macro level, strategies for internationalization often aims to enhance the institution's vision and mission, intellectual capacity and leadership commitment in order to provide a basic structure for internationalization. In addition, macro level strategies can help create an institutional culture that supports internationalization. The operational dimension, on the other hand, focuses more specific actions, elements, programs and projects that put the strategies for internationalization into practice across the institution (Hudzik & McCarthy, 2012; Qiang, 2003).

Institutional strategies for internationalization are often developed and implemented in two fundamental categories: program and organizational (Knight, 2004). Program strategies aim to ensure participation of students, faculty and staff in internationalization by means of several programs. These programs can include various projects in the areas of academic enhancement, collaboration in scholarly research, expansion of relations at the domestic and international level, and implementation of extracurricular activities (Knight, 2004; Hudzik & McCarthy, 2012). Organizational strategies, on the other hand, try to infuse internationalization into institutional mission, culture, policy and structures. Organizational strategies can vary in a broad range of institutional administrative areas such as governance, operations, supporting services and human resources management (Knight, 2004, pp. 13-15; Qiang, 2003, pp. 257-259). Table 4 provides an overview of academic and organizational strategies to enhance internationalization at the institutional level.

Table 4.
Institutional Strategies for Internationalization

Category	Element	Strategy
Program	Academic	- mobility and exchange programs for students and faculty
		- internationalizing the curriculum
	Research collaboration	- study/train/work abroad programs
		- foreign language and area studies and cross-cultural programs
		- joint-degree initiatives
Organizational	Governance	- visiting scholar programs
		- area and thematic international research centers
	Operational	- joint-research initiatives
		- international conferences, seminars, workshops
		- international publication programs
Supporting services	- faculty and graduate exchange programs	
	- international research partnership with different stakeholders	
Program	External relationships	- community partnerships with nonprofit [hyphen removed] organizations and private sector
		- intercultural projects at domestic and international level
	Extra-curricular	- international development and expertise projects
- strategic partnerships and alliances at international level		
Organizational	Governance	- contracted research, training and service providing
		- Alumni initiatives at international level
	Operational	- international student unions, associations and clubs
		- international/intercultural campus organizations
		- communication with cultural/ethnic bodies in society
Organizational	Governance	- commitment to internationalization at senior leadership level
		- participation of academic and administrative staff
	Operational	- clarified and diversified internationalization rationales and objectives
		- identification of internationalization strategies in institutional documents
Organizational	Operational	- integration of institution-wide plans, strategies and budget mechanisms
		- enhanced organizational systems and structures
	Supporting services	- balanced central and decentral promotion of internationalization
		- formal and informal communication systems for coordination
Organizational	Supporting services	- Sustainable financial support and resource allocation system
		- support from institutional units such as housing, registration, alumni, IT
	Human resources	- participation of academic supporting units such as library, faculty training
- student support for international and local students, visa, orientation, etc.		
Organizational	Human resources	- recruitment through international expertise
		- promotion and reward for participation in internationalization
	Supporting services	- professional international development of faculty and staff
		- support for faculty's international sabbatical and assignment

Source: adapted from Knight (2004, pp. 14-15) and Qiang (2003, pp. 258-259)

As shown in Table 4, institutional strategies cover a broad range of academic and organizational programs, activities and actions that aim to enhance effectiveness of internationalization. Although these strategies enhance participation, internationalization can also include some obstacles. The next section discusses the barriers to internationalization.

Barriers to internationalization. Related studies reveal that barriers are critical factors that can hinder the involvement in and reduce the effectiveness of internationalization in some cases (Green, 2003, 2007; Hawawini, 2011). Policy, strategy and incentive-related issues as well as personal attitudes and resistance to internationalization which are linked to financial, managerial or individual manners can create obstacles for participation in internationalization (Hudzik, 2011). To frame barriers, two different categorizations can be outlined.

Hawawini (2011) examines the barriers of internationalization in two subgroups: (1) academic obstacles, and (2) economic costs. According to Hawawini (2011), academic obstacles are linked to the educational mission, policy, prestige and human resources of the institution. He stated that one of the most important academic barriers is the lack of faculty commitment and passion for the institutional internationalization goals (Hawawini, 2011). Moreover, academic obstacles are widely posited by other scholars through the importance of faculty engagement in institutional internationalization (Childress, 2009; Stohl, 2007). In addition, concerns related to procedures, standards, and quality of internationalization at home and abroad may reduce the prestige of the institution (Green, 2003). This barrier can also be linked to the economic obstacles to internationalization. Since investing in internationalization is often seen as an expensive strategy, it can be difficult for institutions which have inadequate funds. Thus, in some cases, institutional leaders can consider internationalization a challenging area to invest in (Hawawini, 2011).

Another categorization proposed by Green (2003, 2007) reviews the barriers in two subdimensions. One of them is the institutional barriers caused by the aims, policies, resources and leadership style of the institution (Green, 2003, 2007). Financial reductions and diversified demands of different disciplinary units at the institutions can hinder involvement

in internationalization (Hudzik, 2011; Maringe et al., 2013). In addition, personnel policies lacking promotion for involvement can reduce the motivation for internationalization (Green, 2003). Lack of faculty motivation is also seen as an individual obstacle, which Green (2003, 2007) posits as the second category of barriers. Individual barriers are associated with personal attitudes and mindsets that resist involvement in international activities. Negative understandings at the institution such as ‘internationalization is not needed’ or ‘not needed to be well supported’ can prevent active individual participation in internationalization (Green, 2003, 2007). Moreover, personal ineffective past experiences, inadequate expertise and knowledge, and lack of foreign language or other intercultural competences can also lessen involvement in internationalization (Childress, 2009; Green, 2003; Stohl, 2007). Table 5 provides an overview of the barriers to internationalization at different levels.

Table 5.
Barriers to Internationalization

Category	Barriers
Institutional	High economic costs, lack of strategy and motivation, inadequate human resources and bureaucratic support, lack of faculty promotion for and leadership in internationalization, different disciplinary priorities.
Individual	Lack of personal motivation, inadequate networks and intercultural skills, language requirements, negative past experiences.

Source: adapted from Green (2003, 2007) and Hawawini (2011)

The barriers seen in Table 5, as a result, whether they are confronted at the institutional or individual level, can be considered important factors that influence the quality and outcomes of internationalization efforts. Academic as well as economic obstacles can cause crucial delay or decline in internationalization. On the other hand, it is important to note that as a key part of the organization, faculty play a crucial role in order to overcome the barriers at both the individual and institutional level (Stohl, 2007). The next section discusses the faculty role in institutional internationalization.

Faculty role in internationalization. The core body of higher education, faculty have gained more emphasis for internationalization in recent years (Childress, 2009). Related studies have shown that engaging faculty in internationalization has become a vital part of internationalization strategies not only for the university top manager, but also at the college and department level, due to the diversified notion of internationalization (Childress, 2009; Donald, 2007; Green & Olson, 2003; Stohl, 2007). As Stohl (2007) and Childress (2009) underline, investing more in faculty plays a vital role in internationalization since faculty can either stimulate or put up a resistance to the institution's internationalization objectives. Lack of faculty motivation, and negative personal attitudes and mindsets that resist participating in internationalization, can reduce the effectiveness of institutional policies for internationalization (Green, 2003, 2007).

The traditional role of the faculty encompasses three main areas: teaching, research and community service (Altbach, 1998). Faculty make curricular decisions and teach students, conduct scholarly research activities, and provide service to the society through individual and/or institutional professional work (Schuster & Finkelstein, 2006). While discussions related to academic capitalism and entrepreneurial university have brought new debates on faculty workload regarding the labor market (Slaughter & Leslie, 2001; Slaughter & Rhoades, 2004), teaching students, carrying out scholarly research, and serving the broader society can still be considered fundamental roles of faculty.

Drawing on the tripartite role definition, Beatty (2013) outlines the faculty aspect in institutional higher education in three main areas of activity. According to Beatty (2013), first, faculty members can have a direct impact on the international dimension of course content and curriculum. Second, they can establish research collaboration and interdisciplinary activities internationally with scholars from other parts of the world. Last, faculty can engage

in international development and service activities to provide broader service to the world society (Beatty, 2013).

Developing an internationalized curriculum is one of the prominent areas of institutional internationalization where faculty have an important influence. Faculty make curricular decisions on course content and methods; therefore, they have influence on learning experiences, understanding and knowledge of students (Schuerholz-Lehr, Caws, Gyn, & Preece, 2007). Internationalizing the curriculum can be defined as to “engage students with internationally informed research and cultural and linguistic diversity and purposefully develop their international and intercultural perspectives as global professionals and citizens” (Leask, 2014, p.5). Internationalized curriculum can provide more global competency skills and outcomes for student experiences. Also, it supports a comparative/global mindset and integrative intercultural perspectives within the class (Beatty, 2013; Paige, 2005). Moreover, efforts on curriculum internationalization also bring the opportunity for faculty to build international networks as faculty may need to connect with other teachers and cultures during the facilitation process of internationalized curriculum (Leask, 2014).

Research is traditionally accepted as the strongest field of scholarly workload (Schuster & Finkelstein, 2006). It is also one of the most collaborative areas that enables faculty to interact internationally (Huang, 2014). Internationalization in research brings opportunities for faculty to engage in joint research with international colleagues, present work to a larger audience via international conferences and publications, and build broader networks (Qiang, 2003). In addition, faculty efforts on internationalization provide new collaboration opportunities and inter-institutional agreements between universities and other research related governmental and industrial international bodies (Knight, 2007). Lastly, the interaction process during the internationalization of research also provides multidimensional

perspectives for teaching, curriculum and for students as it enable faculty to learn different international and comparative examples for in-class experiences (Leask, 2009, Qiang, 2003).

The service role of the faculty is mainly framed as serving the public good by means of institutional scholarly work, expertise and publications (Schuster & Finkelstein, 2006). While this role is basically understood through faculty impact at the local and domestic level, the changing context of internationalization and global engagement has brought new responsibilities as well as opportunities for university and faculty to serve the broader society beyond national borders (Altbach et al., 2009). Sharing personal and professional expertise through international development projects and organizations has become an emerging means for faculty to serve the public good, especially for capacity building in less-developed countries (de Wit, 2002). On the other hand, these consulting and capacity building efforts can bring some economic and normative concerns related to globalization and colonialism (Milner, 2005). Thus, learning and understanding mutually, and enhancing personal, professional and institutional collaboration for both sides are considered fundamental positive outcomes of this international developmental processes (Johnstone, DeJaeghere, & McCleary, 2013).

One can emphasize that faculty involvement in internationalization plays a vital role for developing and implementing more beneficial higher education strategies for all stakeholders. Through the opportunities that emerge from internationalization, faculty members can expand not only their expertise and networks, but they can also bring new insights to their class, students, institutions and the society. Thus, engaging faculty in internationalization through various rationales and incentives has gained more emphasis as Stohl (2007) and Childress (2009) outlines that faculty can become a trigger for advancing in institutional internationalization.

Assessing internationalization. Efforts toward assessing internationalization date back to the early 1990s, a time when quality issues gained widespread attention in higher education (de Wit, 2009). Developments such as the rise of strategic and total quality management, reduces in public funding and the need for accountability led higher education institutions to employ approaches of quality assessment in the management process (Green, 2012; Stensaker, 2007). In order to allocate resources more effectively, data-driven decision making through quantitative indicators became more prevalent among higher education leaders and policy makers (Green, 2012; Paige, 2005). Thus, as an emerging field that needs careful consideration through institutional resources and priorities, measuring the effectiveness of internationalization has become an important topic on the higher education agenda (Deardorff & van Gaalen, 2012).

Assessing internationalization often starts with seeking answers of two fundamental questions: (1) *what needs to be measured for assessment*, and (2) *how it can be measured* (Green, 2012). To clarify what needs to be measured, Green (2012) notes that institutional performance and student learning outcomes are two fundamental areas for the assessment of internationalization efforts. She emphasizes that terminology related to quality of internationalization may change according to different understandings in different country contexts. According to her, in the US context, assessment of internationalization is often related to student outcomes of global learning, while measurement refers more to the quality of institutional internationalization activities (Green, 2012, p. 2). She adds that in some cases, assessment and measurement can be used interchangeably with evaluation to refer to the quality of internationalization (Green, 2012).

Deardorff and van Gaalen (2012) use both terms ‘measuring’ and ‘assessing’ outcomes to refer to ‘successful internationalization’ (p.2). To address the quality of the

internationalization process for both student learning outcomes and institutional performance, they adapted Roger's (2000) program logic model (as cited in Deardoff & van Gaalen, 2012, p. 3). According to their model, assessment of internationalization can be explained by means of five fundamental dimensions: (1) inputs, (2), activities, (3), outputs, (4), outcomes, and (5) impact. In more detail, *inputs* refer to resources that are needed to formulate and carry out activities to achieve planned goals of internationalization. *Activities* can be described as particular actions initiated to successfully achieve planned goals, and *actions* indicate the direct results of initiated actions. *Outcomes*, on the other hand, refer more to the expected influence of the outputs and are related to deeper results of activities for individuals, institutions and the wider society. Finally, *impact* can be described as long-term consequences of the implemented internationalization strategy on institutional programs, students, faculty, society and other local/national/international stakeholders (Deardoff & van Gaalen, 2012, pp. 4-5). Figure 3 demonstrates the logic model that is used as an assessment framework for the quality of internationalization by Deardoff & van Gaalen (2012).

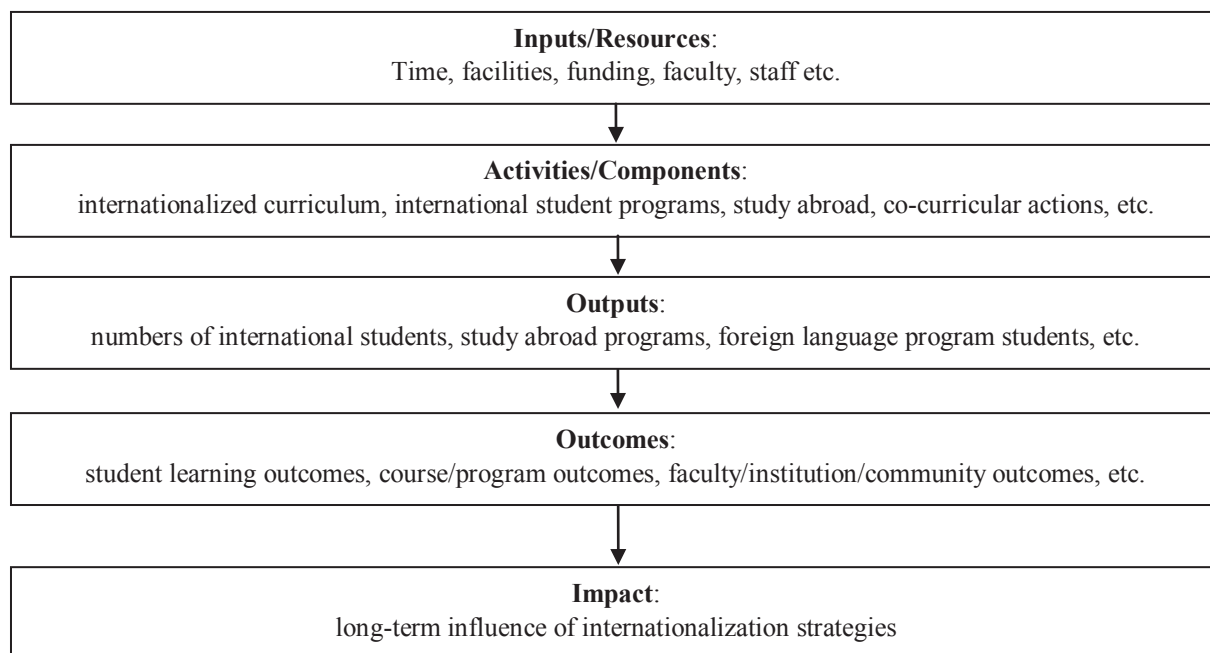


Figure 3. Program logic model for assessing internationalization
(adapted from Deardoff & van Gaalen, 2012, p. 6)

Taking into account the elements in Figure 3, it is possible to note that assessing internationalization can be explained through different measurement components in different phases. Therefore, several categorizations can be witnessed on *what needs to be measured for the assessment of internationalization*. For example, Paige (2005) proposes a globally applicable performance assessment framework for institutional internationalization through ten categories: (1) university leadership for internationalization, (2) internationalization strategic plan, (3) institutionalization of internationalization, (4) infrastructure of internationalization, (5) internationalized curriculum, (6) international students and scholars, (7) study abroad, (8) faculty involvement in internationalization, (9) campus-life and co-curricular programs, and (10) monitoring (Paige, 2005, p. 109).

In the US context, the American Council on Education (ACE) mapped comprehensive internationalization by focusing on six fundamental areas: (1) articulated institutional commitment, (2) administrative structure and staffing, (3) curriculum, co-curriculum, and learning outcomes, (4) faculty policies and practices, (5) student mobility, and (6) collaboration and partnerships (ACE, 2012, p. 4). Similarly, Horn, Hendel and Fry (2007) developed an internationalization index by weighting the indicators related to (1) student characteristics, (2) faculty and scholar characteristics, (3) research and grants, (4) curriculum, and (5) institutional characteristics (Horn, Hendel & Fry, 2007).

In the European context, Grasset (2013) updated Horn, Hendel and Fry's (2007) assessment index for Spanish universities by revising the indicators in the given categories (Grasset, 2013). As another example from Europe, NUFFIC used four dimensions in the context of the Netherlands: (1) internationalization objectives, (2) internationalization activities, (3) facilities, and (4) embeddedness in the organization (de Wit, 2010, p. 18). Furthermore, Kireççi et al. (2016) developed an assessment index for *Turkish universities* by

focusing on five major areas: (1) university research performance, (2) curricular efficiency, (3) international linkages, (4) student support, and (5) urban sufficiency (Kireççi et al., 2016, p. 18).

One can note that given example categorizations include overlaps and differences related to measurement dimensions of internationalization. These overlaps and differences can also bring the question of *how the internationalization can be measured*. Green (2012) notices that rationales and institutional vision play an important role as starting points for measurement of internationalization. According to her, based on institutional characteristics and priorities, universities can develop specific internationalization goals, objectives and indicators to measure. Similarly, de Wit (2010) indicates that meanings of, rationales for, and approaches to internationalization frame measurement of internationalization different institutional and national contexts. He adds that taking into account the national and institutional characteristics, improvement and success in internationalization can be measured by means of various strategies such as mapping, using performance indicators, creating internationalization indexes and benchmarking (de Wit, 2009, 2010).

Future of internationalization. It is evident that the landscape of the international dimension in higher education has changed over time (de Wit et al., 2015). Until the end of the 18th century, academic mobility of students and faculty mainly shaped the cross-border movements in higher education and helped establish a commonly accepted curriculum, institution types and Latin language as lingua-franca (Huang, 2007, 2014). During the 19th and 20th centuries, however, higher education gained a national identity due to the rise of colonialism, nation-states and world wars (Neave, 2001). National economy, international relations and political rationales gained more attention in framing the actions of internationalization in that stage (de Wit, 2002; Huang; 2014). Finally, the end of Cold War

and developments related to globalization have opened a new era for higher education with several international opportunities as well as necessities. Thus, internationalization has become one of the global missions of the university in the 21st century (Knight, 2014; Scott, 2005).

Internationalization-related changes in the mission of university have brought some challenges related to organization and function of higher education institutions (de Wit, 2009). In many parts of the world these challenges are identified through three main areas: (1) the increasing importance of global knowledge economy and society, (2) regionalization, internationalization and globalization of the higher education landscape framed by means of academic, cultural, social and economic developments, and (3) changes in and the rising influence of ICT (van der Wende, 2004, p. 9). To overcome challenges resulted from these changes, organizational and functional priorities of the universities have evolved through a more globalization oriented agenda. Therefore, trends such as entrepreneurial university, international student recruitment, regionalization and harmonization, international quality standards and accreditation, MOOCs and regional education hubs have become more prominent in higher education (Huang, 2007; Knight, 2015; Lee & Rice, 2007; Slaughter & Rhoades, 2004; Teichler, 2004).

Having noted the globalization-related trends above, for a considerable while, internationalization functioned as a tool to overcome challenges of globalization and adapt institutional structures to rising trends by means of cooperation and collaboration (Altbach et al., 2009; Altbach & Knight, 2007). Starting from the 1990s, understandings of internationalization were shaped through collaboration for enhancing global research and knowledge as well as organizational capacity and often included a mutual cooperative climate (Kreber, 2009; Teichler, 1999). However, recent economic, political and social changes in

different parts of the world as well as the role of higher education in national and global economies have led to more competitive understandings of internationalization (de Wit et al., 2015; Jones & de Wit, 2012; Proctor, 2015). The global competition for international students and talents and emerging delivery models of higher education such as MOOCs, off-shore and branch campuses, and international universities have raised the global competition among higher education institutions in many parts of the world (de Wit et al., 2015; Jones & de Wit, 2012; Knight, 2015).

In Europe, for example, privatization for generating income, challenges for funding, competition through aspirations of globalization, transnational education efforts, and online learning initiatives have become some of the growing trends in higher education internationalization (de Wit & Hunter, 2015). Similarly, education export through commercial orientations has become one of the fundamental aims in Australian higher education (Proctor & Arkoudis, 2017). On the other hand, with their growing economy and considerable numbers of internationally mobile student population, some Asian countries have become key players in higher education. Countries such as China, South Korea and Singapore have become highly invested in higher education reforms related to curriculum internationalization, and implementing different university models to become regional education hubs in the global student flow (Choudaha, 2017; Jon et al., 2014; Knight, 2015). Thus, it can be witnessed that understandings and priorities for internationalization have changed through the competitive notion of globalization.

Given the above complex and competitive landscape of internationalization, two main attention points can be identified as rising problematic areas related to the future of internationalization. One of them can be described as the dominance of Western understandings that shape the competitive global notion of internationalization (Jones & de

Wit, 2012; Proctor, 2015). While each and every institution/culture/country/nation can have different priorities and rationales to internationalize, in many parts of the world, the dominant competitive Western understandings force higher education stakeholders to pursue standardized solutions for internationalization that often bring concerns related to homogenization and commodification (Jones & de Wit, 2012). These concerns, as de Wit (2012) notes, can also call for the need of rethinking the values, potential risks and ethical awareness of internationalization in order to carefully consider the future trajectory of it (as cited in Jones & de Wit, 2012, pp. 38-39). To help overcome these problems, Jones and de Wit (2012) propose a new interpretation of internationalization named “globalization of internationalization” by taking into account different experiences and emerging needs summarized below (Jones & de Wit, 2012, p. 39):

1. The increase in the wide range of models and operations of cross-border activities
2. The growth in global competition of international students and talented brains
3. A wide-scale of regional interpretations and practices
4. A variety of social and economic needs resulting from geographical differences and local/regional/national responses
5. Ethical considerations for global engagement and sustainable practice
6. The need to carefully consider the local cultural contexts in the process of establishing cross-border activities (Jones & de Wit, 2012, p. 39).

In addition to concerns regarding commodification and ethical values, it appears that recent political and economic changes in the world can have an important influence on the future trajectory of internationalization (Choudaha, 2017). The international dimension in higher education has often been influenced by social, political and economic developments

over time (Huang, 2014). Similarly, starting from the 1990s, developments related to internationalization can be closely linked to global economic and political changes in different parts of the world. Developments such as expansion in the influence of the EU, entrepreneurial and technological progress in the US, and student flow from Asia to the West in order to learn from other parts of the world have had influential roles in shaping the trends of internationalization (Choudaha, 2017; Slaughter & Rhoades, 2004).

On the other hand, political and socio-cultural changes in fundamental Western destinations of internationalization such as the US, UK and some other European countries have brought concerns for global academic mobility and cooperation in higher education. Political and legislative regulations related to visa and travel requirements, anti-immigration policies and social tendencies that might spread intolerance for foreigners can bring negative consequences related to the future of internationalization in those countries (Altbach & de Wit, 2017; Hunter & de Wit, 2016; Leisyte & Rose, 2017; Marginson, 2017). Considering these political changes together with Asian countries' high investments to become key actors in global higher education (Choudaha, 2017; Jon et al., 2014; Knight, 2015;), it can be expected that patterns of global student/faculty mobility and growing branch-campus models can change through an increase of Asian experiences and a decline of US, UK and European countries (Altbach & de Wit, 2017).

Faculty

As the research aims at examining factors influencing faculty involvement in internationalization, a review of the literature including faculty perspective is added to this chapter. Thus, this section first discusses changing faculty work and motivations to better understand their potential interest in internationalization. Finally, faculty cultures and academic identities are briefly discussed at the end of the chapter.

Changing faculty work. Faculty role and responsibilities are traditionally surrounded by scholarly work in three main areas: research, teaching and community service (Altbach, 1998). As fundamental requirements of their profession, faculty are expected to carry out scientific research, design curriculum and teach/supervise students, and provide service to society through professional expertise (Schuster & Finkelstein, 2006). On the other hand, since faculty members are affiliated with institutions, institutional mission, culture and philosophy often have an influential role in how the faculty work is carried out (Fairweather, 2002). Those institutional elements can vary in different circumstances; therefore, faculty seek diverse ways to combine individual scholarly work and institutional expectations (Klyberg, 2012).

Institutional expectations related to faculty work have been changing over the past few decades because of the developments in higher education (O'Meara, Terosky, & Neumann, 2008; Schuster & Finkelstein, 2006). Developments such as reduction in public funding, competition for external grants and contracted research, rise in commercialization, commodification and privatization have influenced the nature of faculty work (Altbach, 1997; Robbins, 2013; Slaughter & Rhoades, 2004). In addition, expanding use of technology, growing numbers of domestic/international students, rising importance of national/international ranking systems, and need for prestige in higher education have brought pressure on institutions and changed expectations from faculty (Levine, 1997; Robbins, 2013).

While it is possible to encounter disciplinary and institutional differences, in many cases, changing expectations in higher education have transformed the faculty workplace into a more diversified and complicated environment (Cummings & Finkelstein, 2012). In this complex workplace, faculty faced with new obligations in addition to their traditional

responsibilities. In research, for example, they started to pursue more entrepreneurial purposes, external funding, interdisciplinary work and contracted research (Clark, 1998; Slaughter & Rhoades, 2004). Moreover, expectations for research productivity are raised both in qualitative and quantitative aspects. Publishing a higher number of articles and aiming at high-ranked journals has gained importance in meeting expectations in scholarly productivity (Robbins, 2013). In teaching, similarly, increasing numbers of domestic and international students brought higher lecturing and supervising loads as well as diversified cultural and pedagogical needs in the classroom (Cummings & Finkelstein, 2012). Also, growing usage of ICT in classroom and rising importance of online/distance education has led to broadening the need for adopting new curricular and teaching strategies (Robbins, 2013).

Most of these new faculty roles and responsibilities can also include an international dimension in many circumstances (Rostan, 2015; Teichler, 2009). Regarding research, for instance, according to a study comparing 1992 Carnegie and 2007 Changing Academic Profession (CAP) projects results, the percentages of faculty members who collaborate with foreign partners in research increased in countries such as Brazil, Korea, Australia and UK in the 2007 study (Cummings, 2015). The same study also indicated that recruitment of international researchers rose during the fifteen years in several countries including Mexico, Korea, UK, Germany and Netherlands (Cummings, 2015, pp. 33-34). Additional comparisons of the two surveys revealed that publishing to an international audience and in foreign journals as well as using foreign funds for research gained wider currency in academia in many countries (Cummings, Bain, Postiglione, & Jung, 2014). Similarly, the teaching role of faculty has gained a wider international dimension due to recent changes and expectations in the workplace (Cummings, 2015). According to CAP 2007 survey results, emphasizing international perspectives or content in the courses was the most prominent international activity among faculty for 62% of all respondents (Rostan, 2015, p. 246). The same study

indicated that teaching in a foreign country or language, and working with international students were substantial examples of internationalization related teaching activities in faculty work (Rostan, 2015).

Given the above emerging activities and expectations, one can note that the nature of faculty work has gained a wider international dimension over the past few decades. Faculty have started to undertake new roles and responsibilities that can bring the opportunity and obligation of working in a more internationalization-related workplace to continue their career (Robbins, 2013). In addition to their personal career pathway, institutional roles and responsibilities of faculty related to internationalization have gained a wider attention due to the growing competition brought by globalization (Klyberg, 2012). Thus, it can be said that faculty motivations have become an important issue for advancing in individual and institutional internationalization.

Faculty motivations. Motivation can be described as the impetus or inspiration that leads someone to do something (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Types of motivation can be explained by means of two fundamental factors: intrinsic and extrinsic. Intrinsic motivation can be defined as internal impetus to do something for inherent factors such as personal satisfaction, enjoyment, satisfaction, curiosity or interest. Extrinsic motivation, on the other hand, can be described as the external factors that move someone to do something to overcome a specific pressure or gain particular outcomes or reward (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Research has shown that both intrinsic and extrinsic factors can be influential for employees in the workplace (Amabile, 1993; Gagne & Deci, 2005).

Similarly, faculty are motivated to carry out scholarly work through both intrinsic and extrinsic factors (Eimers, 1997; Hardré, Beesley, Miller, & Pace, 2011; Johnsrud & Rosser, 2002). One of the intrinsic sources of faculty motivation comes from the autonomous and

intellectually challenging nature of academic work (Klyberg, 2012; Johnsrud & Rosser, 2002). In addition, desires such as to be self-efficient, help student development, and create meaningful and valuable work can enhance faculty's motivation as internal factors (Darby & Newman, 2014; Demery & Brawner, 1999; Eimers, 1997; Hardré et al., 2011). Furthermore, leadership strategies can have an influential role in faculty's motivational outcomes related to feeling self-efficient and autonomous (Hardré et al., 2011; Rhoades, 2000).

Extrinsic motivation sources for faculty, on the other hand, can be linked to organizational structures, institutional leadership, and recognition/reward systems (Fairweather, 2002; Hardré et al., 2011; Rhoades, 2000; Serow, 2000). For example, in their study, Hardré et al. (2011) found that supportive departmental structures and organizational communication had influential roles on faculty research productivity. They also indicated that the way that research was valued was related to faculty's perception on positioning themselves in the organization (Hardré et al., 2011, pp. 59-61). Similarly, Eimers (1997) revealed that institutional strategies on enhancing job conditions and external recognition can positively affect faculty satisfaction and motivation in the workplace. Furthermore, promotion and reward systems can be essential in improving the motivation of the faculty. O'Meara (2005) indicates that in many cases, faculty experiences in academia can be guided through the expectations of tenure and promotion. Also, Kezar, Maxey and Holcombe (2015) state that providing opportunities to develop or promote faculty and/or renew their contracts can have a critical place in enhancing the conditions of the academic profession.

Examples of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation sources in faculty's internationalization efforts have been studied by some scholars in the literature. For example, Cai and Hall (2016) examined the expectations and motivations of international faculty working at an overseas branch campus in China. They revealed that respondent international faculty preferred to

study in China because of their motivations to explore new places through professional curiosity and to experience adventures. These expectations can be linked to intrinsic sources of faculty motivation. On the other hand, the same study revealed that extrinsic motivations can also be influential in faculty involvement in international activities. For instance, some respondents indicated that the opportunity to undertake a leadership position or promotion in their work led them to change their institution (Cai & Hall, 2016).

In another study, Li and Tu (2016) investigated faculty motivation to engage in internationalization through individual and environmental factors. They examined the individual motivations through having internationalization-related skills and the influence of internationalization outcomes. Environmental factors, on the other hand, were linked to reward structure, materials and social support for internationalization. They found that both individual factors and environmental elements motivated faculty to participate in internationalization. The authors also indicated that individual motivations played a mediator role between environmental factors and faculty engagement in internationalization. Li and Tu (2016) suggested that faculty members who perceive themselves as competent and consider the influential role of internal activities in their work can actively participate in internationalization. Their study also implied that environmental factors such as reward mechanisms, infrastructure and social support can broaden faculty motivation to participate in internationalization (Li & Tu, 2016).

Considering the theoretical and empirical work, it may be expected that both internal and external factors can play an influential role in faculty motivation for internationalization. It is important to note that individual behavior in academia can also be linked to the values of faculty cultures and identities (Austin, 1990; Archer, 2008; Henkel, 2005). Thus, the next

section briefly discusses the role of faculty cultures and academic identities in faculty behaviors.

Faculty cultures and academic identities. Several definitions of culture exist in the literature. Taking Hofstede (2011) as an example, culture can be defined as “the collective programming of the mind that distinguishes the members of one group or category of people from others” (p. 3). Similarly, Kuh and Whitt (1988, pp. 12-13) defined it as “the collective, mutually shaping patterns of norms, values, practices, beliefs, and assumptions that guide the behavior of individuals and groups” (as cited in Austin, 1994, p. 48). It can be noted from both definitions that culture can have an influential role in shaping the behaviors of groups and individuals through specific norms, values and practices.

As in many other environments, culture plays an important role in understanding individual and group behavior in higher education settings (Tierney, 2008; Välimaa, 2008). Starting from the 1930s, cultural studies have intended to explain student, faculty, disciplinary, campus and organizational behaviors in higher education (Välimaa, 2008). Moreover, researchers employed cultural perspectives to examine faculty management and performance in universities and colleges (Tierney, 2008).

Types of faculty cultures often have an important influence on how interaction occurs among faculty, students, and institutional leadership. Austin (1990) describes four fundamental types of culture that shape values and behaviors of faculty in national, institutional and disciplinary settings: (1) culture of academic profession, (2) cultures of disciplines, (3) organizational culture of academy, and (4) cultures of institutional types (Austin, 1990, pp. 62-67). Having noted the fact that “academic culture is probably fragmented into a thousand and one parts defined by the crosscut of many disciplines in many

types of institutions” (Clark, 1987, p. 105), for the purpose of this section, only the first two types above are addressed below.

The culture of academic profession can be defined as the core values of the faculty that go beyond institutional types and disciplines (Austin, 1994). Clark (1987) states that the culture of the academic profession is the general identity of faculty members which mainly includes ideologies related to personal autonomy, collegial self-government, scholar association, and academic freedom. Austin (1990) indicates that core values of the faculty are shaped in four main areas in higher education settings. First, faculty endeavor to seek, discover, produce, and disseminate knowledge, truth and understanding by means of scholarly research, publications and instructions. Second, freedom for research and teaching and personal autonomy are considered valuable in the profession in order to assure academic quality, creativity and diversity. Third, members of academic profession are committed to academic honesty and expected to be fair in treating students and other scholarly work. Fourth, collegial communication leads the interactions among members of the profession and the decision-making process in institutional settings. Last, serving community is valued by means of producing knowledge and educating younger generations across the profession (Austin, 1990, p. 62).

The core values given above often help to shape individual and organizational understandings in institutional settings of higher education (Austin, 1990, 1994; Tierney, 2008). On the other hand, adopting these values into the workplace can also be connected with disciplinal practices and priorities in most circumstances (Austin, 1990; Clark, 1987; Välimaa, 2008).

Disciplines are often viewed as the main units that identify the group of membership in the academic profession (Austin, 1990). Academic disciplines often have their own norms,

values and beliefs depending on their history and future trajectories (Clark, 1987). In addition, they are considered as the primary identities that guide socialization path of faculty members. Faculty usually start socializing by means of national and international professional activities in the areas of study during their graduate education and tend to maintain traditions of their discipline throughout their academic life (Austin, 1994; Clark, 1987). Thus, disciplinary differences play an important role in understanding the priorities and cultures of different faculty groups (Becher, 1994).

Austin (1990) notes that cultural differences among disciplines often emerge from the interpretations of what knowledge is, how it is to be produced and published, and which tasks faculty producing and disseminating this knowledge should follow professionally. These different interpretations and characteristics can also bring the need for classification of scientific disciplines (Austin, 1990). In his well-known classification, Biglan (1973a, 1973b) groups scientific disciplines according to three main categories: (1) hard/soft; the acceptance of one single paradigm or theoretical aspect that helps organizing problems, method and further research, (2) pure/applied; targeting the areas of theoretical work or practical applications, and (3) life/non-life; concerning the problems of living or inanimate subjects.

In another well-known study, Becher and Trowler (2001) examined the relationship between academic identities and scientific disciplines through the changing higher education environment. They use the terms *tribes* to refer to the cultural norms and boundaries of disciplines, and *territories* for the ideas of knowledge produced in the specific discipline. Becher and Trowler (2001) note that disciplinary differences can occur according to the researcher's approach to the problem, characteristics and procedures of scientific inquiry, and the principles of truth for the research results. Considering these areas, they describe four fundamental disciplinary areas: (1) hard-pure; pure sciences – tend to be cumulative,

impersonal and have definite criteria for verification and validation of questions and results; (2) soft-pure; humanities and pure social disciplines - more reiterative, personal and tend to be contradictive in addressing the questions and results; (3) hard-applied; technological fields – purposive, pragmatic and tend to be functional in addressing the questions and interpretations of results; (4) soft-applied; applied social fields – functional through the concerns of semi-professional practices and tend to result in procedures and protocols. Becher and Trowler (2001) state that as a result of the disciplinary cultural differences, academic identities can be considered as a tool for self-regulation of the academic performance by means of strong beliefs, values and norms. They also note that faculty identities in the academic profession are influenced by the changing landscape and trends of higher education such as massification, marketization and globalization (Becher & Trowler, 2001).

The influence of emerging globalization and internationalization on faculty cultures and academic identities is also highlighted by Henkel (2005). Henkel (2005) examined the changing nature of the relationships between individuals, disciplines and higher education institutions by focusing on the core individual and collective values of academic identities. She notes that the rising influences of governments and market, and the increasing need for alternative sources of income have brought pressures on the academic profession and higher education institutions to change their cultures in order to adapt to the newly globalized environment. Thus, new-managerialism and corporate models are introduced in institutional and disciplinary cultures, and faculty is expected to enhance various deeper relations behind academia (Henkel, 2005). Moreover, rising expectations related to commercial and industrially sponsored research have influenced disciplinary and institutional priorities. Therefore, new responsibilities in emerging areas of globalized higher education such as increasing domestic/international student numbers, finding external funding, building up

institutional international prestige, and branding have brought different concerns and conflict between academic identities and institutional priorities (Henkel, 2005; Winter, 2009).

Similar references related to cultural patterns of globalized higher education can also be witnessed in Burnett and Huisman's (2010) study. They examine the universities' responses to globalization through the changes in the organizational culture. They note that due to the increasing effects of globalization, in many universities, collegiate and bureaucratic organizational cultures have shifted to enterprise and corporate cultural understandings. They also underline that shifts in university cultures can include changes in individualistic and autonomous faculty and disciplinary characteristics to market driven, globalization oriented priorities (Burnett & Huisman, 2010). Similarly, Bartell (2003) emphasizes that universities that have a strong external/international oriented culture can have advantages in adapting to the demanding global higher education environment. As a result, considering the developments and changing understandings in faculty work, and individual, disciplinary and institutional priorities, it can be thought that factors influencing faculty participation in internationalization have become one of the important issues in higher education (Bartell, 2003).

Related Empirical Studies

In addition to addressing key literature, some of the related empirical studies are briefly presented in this chapter. Considering different stakeholder levels of internationalization and dimensions in the proposed model, empirical studies are introduced in two sections as institutional internationalization and faculty internationalization, and findings related to influencing factors are reported.

Institutional internationalization studies. One of the earliest institutional internationalization studies at the global level is Knight's (2003) IAU survey report on the practices and priorities of internationalization. In 2003, IAU administered its first global survey on the internationalization experiences of its members. The survey aimed at exploring growing trends in, rationales for, and obstacles to internationalization. 176 higher education institutions from 66 countries responded to the questionnaire. According to the results, academic mobility, student, staff and faculty development, academic standards and quality assurance, and international research collaboration were the most important reasons and benefits of internationalization. The report revealed that academic rationales for internationalization were more important than economic and political motivations for respondent institutions. Findings in the report also indicated that two-thirds of the respondent institutions had specific strategies and half of them had budgeting and monitoring structures for internationalization. The report outlined lack of financial support and strategies as obstacles, and brain drain as well as losing cultural identity as risks were the most critical controversial factors in enhancing internationalization. It is also important to note that faculty was highlighted as the most driving stakeholder for internationalization in this study, more enthusiastic than institutional leaders and students (Knight, 2003).

In 2014, IAU administered its 4th global survey on internationalization, and this survey was reported by Egron-Polak and Hudson (2014). The aim of this survey included exploring the values and principles of internationalization, in addition to activities, benefits and obstacles. The survey was responded to by 1331 institutions from 131 countries. The results indicated that the most prominent internationalization activities were student mobility, international research collaboration and improving the international aspect in curricular content. Student-driven rationales such as broadening student experiences and recruiting international students as prominent rationales for, and funding as the most hindering obstacle

to, internationalization was reported in the study. Also, governmental policies, business/industry relations and institutional structures are driving factors that play an important role in promoting internationalization. The study also revealed that providing equal international opportunities for all students, and rising competition, commodification and commercialization were considered as risks for internationalization, and that ethical principles should be taken into account regarding these issues (Egron-Polak & Hudson, 2014).

In the European context, European University Association (EUA) administered a survey among its members to investigate the impact of EU policies and institutional strategies on internationalization in 2013. The survey was completed by 180 respondents from 175 institutions, which were located in 38 countries (24 EU member, 14 non-EU member). EUA (2013) survey results indicated that the most important priorities of internationalization were attracting international students, internationalizing the curriculum and providing study abroad opportunities for local students. Also, more than half (56%) of the respondents stated that they had a specific internationalization strategy, and almost all of these participants (except one) indicated that institutional strategies help to enhance the impacts of efforts toward internationalization. Furthermore, 91% of the respondents revealed that EU strategies add value to institutional internationalization. The most valuable impact of EU strategies on respondent institutions' internationalization was found to be in the areas of providing funds for exchange and collaboration, supporting institutional strategy development for internationalization, and enhancing the tracking and measurement efforts toward internationalization. National level areas needing to be improved were noted as increasing funding, developing broader strategies, and reducing bureaucracy in the internationalization process (EUA, 2013).

Another European survey was administered by the European Association for International Education (EAIE) and reported by Engel, Sandström, van der Aa and Glass (2014). Named as *The EAIE Barometer: Internationalisation in Europe*, EAIE's survey aimed at mapping internationalization in the EHEA through key developments and challenges. The number of analyzed responses was reported as 2411, collected from 33 member countries of the EHEA. According to the results, the most three important reasons for internationalization were improving the quality of higher education, preparing students for a globalized world, and attracting more international students. The results also indicated that developing strategies for internationalization was critical since leading institutions in internationalization had distinctive, separate institutional internationalization strategies, while the least internationally active institutions had fewer or no internationalization strategies. Respondents stated that institutional strategies followed by national and EU-level policies were the most important policy levels to shape efforts toward internationalization. The report also indicated that improving international partnerships, increasing numbers of outgoing students, and implementing the institutional strategies were the most challenging areas related to internationalization (Engel et al., 2014).

In the US context, Green (2005b) reported on the ACE survey on to measure internationalization at comprehensive universities. The report aimed at mapping internationalization efforts and strategies in 188 comprehensive US universities. Survey results indicated that pursuing external funding, establishing campus-wide committees, offices and communications systems were prominent strategies to enhance institutional internationalization. In addition, institutions that were highly active in internationalization tended to incentivize faculty efforts more toward internationalization by means of strategies on study, research and teaching abroad, and travel funds. These highly active institutions also tended to promote on-campus internationalization for faculty through foreign language

programs, curriculum internationalization workshops, technology use in internationalization, and recognition of international activities. Green (2005b) also noted significant correlations between some dimensions and activities of internationalization. Specifically, she noticed that receiving external funding, having articulated institutional commitment and guidelines of faculty promotion for internationalization, establishing campus-wide task force and internationalization offices, and providing international travel opportunities were significantly correlated with items in several dimensions of internationalization.

Another ACE survey on internationalization, named *Mapping Internationalization in US Campuses*, was reported in 2012. For this survey, ACE (2012) collected 1041 responses related to campus-wide internationalization efforts in US higher education institutions. Results indicated that curriculum internationalization, global strategic partnerships, and international student recruitment were the growing areas and trends of internationalization. Results also revealed that presidential leadership played a critical role in enhancing internationalization efforts in the institutions. In addition, the significant role of structured strategies for funding, and needs for promoting and recognizing faculty efforts toward internationalization were noted as an important finding in the report.

Rumbley (2010) studied experiences at four universities in order to understand institutional internationalization process in the Spanish context. Following a multiple case study approach, she examined the rationales, strategies and outcomes of internationalization in the selected universities, and developed a multidimensional model for institutional internationalization process. She found that rationales for internationalization in these universities were understood from both functional and theoretical perspectives. According to her findings, rationales varied by institutional factors such as establishment date, location, and other specific institutional characteristics. Also, theoretical understandings such as the

international oriented nature of the academic profession and universal higher education led to diverse rationales of internationalization in these institutions. In addition, she noted that both external and internal strategies had an influence on the outcomes of internationalization. Specifically, she found that strategies on mobility, curriculum and academic programs at both the national level and institutional level played an important role on guiding the outcomes for internationalization. Furthermore, Rumbley (2010) indicated that outcomes of internationalization were witnessed in three specific areas: number of international programs, administrative structures and operations, and change in institutional missions and operations.

Grasset (2013) studied factors influencing internationalization in three Spanish institutions. By employing a multiple case study approach, she carried out a panel with field experts to create an assessment index and collected institutional data through documents in order to examine rationales, drivers and obstacles. She then analyzed the institutional cases and made cross-comparisons. Her findings revealed that implementations of internationalization varied by institution type and level of administrator/school/unit. Grasset (2013) noted the influencing rationales for internationalization in the selected Spanish contexts as student/staff development, strategic partnerships, branding and profile, quality, income generation, and social responsibility for students. She also indicated that structured internationalization plans that could enhance the institutional motives were lacking in the selected cases. Furthermore, Grasset (2013) revealed that similar local, domestic, regional and international strategies of stakeholders played driving roles in promoting internationalization for chosen institutions, although there appeared to be different institutional and contextual obstacles to internationalization.

Selvitopu (2016) examined institutional internationalization process in the Turkish higher education context. Following a qualitative case study approach, he studied

internationalization strategies in 8 Turkish universities, which ranked among the top one hundred institutions on Times Higher Education (THE) world rankings list. His findings indicated that academic and socio-cultural motivations for internationalization were more witnessed among the top Turkish higher education institutions. In addition, he found that those top ranked Turkish universities implemented academic strategies including enhancing international curriculum development as well as academic supervision, and institutional internationalization strategies including incentivizing, rewarding and providing leadership support for internationalization. Moreover, Selvitopu (2016) revealed that despite the growing interest in internationalization in the Turkey's higher education, barriers related to bureaucracy, foreign language skills and human resources were witnessed in the selected universities.

Vural Yılmaz (2016) investigated internationalization experiences in Turkey from the perspective of practitioners. By focusing on strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats, she examined the current situation and future trajectory of internationalization through the interviews carried out with internationalization administrative staff. According to her findings, leadership support and sufficient human resources in internationalization offices appeared as strengths while geographical location and cooperation with local bodies seemed as weaknesses of Turkish universities in the institutional internationalization process. Additionally, she found that differences related to opportunities and threats for internationalization existed between public and private universities. The internationalization level of curriculum, internationalization friendly campus climate and incentivizing mechanisms were found to be as the main opportunities for private universities although several threats about these factors were indicated for public higher education institutions.

Faculty internationalization studies. Schwietz (2006) examined internationalization of the academic profession by administering a survey in nine public institutions in Pennsylvania, US. Following a quantitative approach, she collected data from 829 participants in order to analyze faculty involvement in, and attitudes, beliefs and experiences of, internationalization. After descriptive/correlational analysis, her findings indicated that faculty involvement in internationalization differed significantly according to gender, academic field and title, type of teaching, tenure situation, and research/teaching choice. Schwietz (2006) also revealed significant correlations between some variables. According to her results, faculty involvement in internationalization was correlated significantly with international experiences, and attitudes/beliefs regarding, scholarship of research/teaching, instruction and curriculum, impact of curriculum on students. She also found correlations between international experiences and attitudes/beliefs on internationalization. Schwietz's (2006) research indicated that faculty who had previous international experiences participated in internationalization more, and they had more positive attitudes and beliefs on internationalization.

Childress (2008) investigated the institutional strategies that aim at enhancing faculty engagement in internationalization. By employing a qualitative case study approach, she examined the strategies in two US higher education institutions through interviews, focus groups and institutional documents. Her findings revealed that selected institutions formulated associated long-term strategies for internationalization, and invested faculty engagement through these strategies. In addition, the selected institutions created organizational mechanisms and international networks, and provided individual support to expand faculty participation in internationalization. Childress (2008) also found that chosen universities developed three different types of strategy in the areas of research, teaching and community

service. Moreover, these different strategies were implemented in three different levels: abroad, regional and on-campus.

Fields (2010) studied faculty internationalization experiences across Vermont, US. Based on quantitative design, he administered a survey and collected data related to attitudes, beliefs and perceptions on internationalization from 504 full-time faculty members. His findings revealed that faculty attitudes and beliefs on internationalization differed significantly by academic discipline. Fields (2010) also found that faculty perceptions on internationalization differed significantly by year of employment and academic discipline. Having noted these significant differences, results in Fields's (2010) study also showed that participant faculty had very high and positive attitudes, beliefs and perceptions on the efforts toward internationalization.

Friesen (2011) examined the definitions, rationales and motivations for individual and institutional internationalization by focusing on faculty experiences. Based on a phenomenological viewpoint, she carried out in-depth interviews with five faculty members, and then compared faculty experiences with institutional documents. Findings in her study indicated that faculty members highlighted individual academic collaboration and cultural activities to define internationalization, while the institutional documents emphasized a more competitive notion of globalization and organizational programs. She also found distinctive differences between individual faculty motivations for internationalization and institutional positions. According to her findings, personal learning and socio-cultural development were frequently highlighted as individual faculty motivations for internationalization, while institutional documents emphasized needs related to global economy and competition oriented rationales (Friesen, 2011).

Klyberg (2012) studied faculty motivations, practices and means to engage in internationalization. Following a phenomenological approach, she carried out one-on-one and focus group interviews with 15 faculty members in two institutions located in the Northeastern part of the US. According to her results, respondent faculty mostly tended to participate in internationalization through internal motivations. Specifically, faculty motivations to internationalize came from intrinsic factors such as personal background, previous experiences and global/international mindset. However, participants also noted links between internal and external motivations. Klyberg's (2012) findings indicated that institutional reward and promotion strategies and successful colleague experiences had an important influence on enhancing faculty participation in internationalization. Klyberg (2012) also noted that although respondent faculty members showed a professional interest in internationalization, they complained about the lack of integrated structures and strategies in institutional vision, mission and policies.

Hirano (2012) examined the influence of globalization and internationalization on faculty cultures. By employing a qualitative approach, she interviewed 30 faculty members from three main fields: Natural Sciences, Social Sciences and Humanities, in order to explore the faculty's perceptions on globalization and internationalization. Hirano (2010) also investigated whether these perceptions change in terms of disciplinary subcultures. The results indicated that faculty perceptions on globalization and internationalization were shaped through the strategies and practices in the higher education environment, and vary among the disciplines. In more detail, she found that faculty from Natural Sciences had frequently positive perceptions for globalization and internationalization in relating to the borderless nature and wider international collaboration opportunities in their discipline. Hirano (2012) revealed that Social Science faculty also had generally positive perceptions related to globalization and internationalization. However, their positiveness was mostly

associated with efforts to adapt globalization to their discipline rather than highlighting the nature of their field. Despite the positive perceptions noted in the two previous disciplines, Hirano (2012) found that faculty from Humanities tended to state uncertain and disapproving perceptions about globalization and internationalization. According to her findings, due to growing globalization and internationalization, Humanities faculty reported concerns about the changing theoretical and practical boundaries in their discipline and expanding academic responsibilities.

Beatty (2013) investigated influencing factors of faculty involvement in internationalization at the University of Minnesota, US. By employing a mixed-methods case study design, he administered a survey and carried out interviews with faculty members. His findings showed that faculty involvement in internationalization differed significantly by gender, school and position. Beatty (2013) also found significant gender differences in faculty international experiences. According to his findings, faculty international experiences differed significantly also by tenure status. Beatty (2013) revealed that commitment to internationalization, the role of leadership, and organizational practices had an influential role in enhancing faculty participation. Results in Beatty (2013) also demonstrated that faculty involvement in internationalization was influenced by institutional support structures related to hiring, rewarding and tenure, existence of strategic plans for internationalization, and institutional partnerships as well as curriculum programs (Beatty, 2013).

Finkelstein and Sethi (2014) studied the 2007 Changing Academic Profession (CAP) project findings from the perspective of internationalization. Considering the data collected from 19 countries, they examined the patterns of faculty internationalization through a predictive model. To develop their model, the authors took into account four independent variable components: country, organization, individual/professional, and individual/personal

demographics. In addition to these components, they added the level of faculty participation as a dependent variable in their model. To investigate their model, they ran correlation, factor and cluster analysis and logistic regression. Their findings indicated that faculty internationalization was a multidimensional process including internationalization of research and teaching and physical mobility. In addition, institution type and disciplinary membership played an influential predictive role in shaping faculty international activities. Furthermore, Finkelstein and Sethi (2014) revealed that personal characteristics such as gender, previous study abroad experiences, academic rank, and preference of research or teaching were significant in shaping faculty involvement in internationalization (Finkelstein & Sethi, 2014).

Li and Tu (2016) examined faculty motivations to engage in internationalization. Following a quantitative approach, they administered a survey in China, and tested a structural equation model through the responses collected from 498 participants. Their structured model proposed an explanation of faculty engagement in internationalization through the relationships among environmental motivations, individual motivations and faculty engagement. They examined environmental motivations in relation to three factors: reward structures, material support and social support. Individual motivations, on the other hand, were examined in relation to two factors: competence for international activities and perceived influence of internationalization. Also, faculty engagement in internationalization consisted of two factors: activities at cross-border and at home university. Their findings indicated that although individual motivations led the process, both environmental factors and internal motivations were strong predictors of faculty engagement in internationalization. Furthermore, individual motivations played an influential mediating role in the relationship between external motivations and faculty engagement in internationalization (Li & Tu, 2016).

Summary

This chapter reviewed the related literature and empirical studies which were considered relevant to this dissertation topic. The first part of the chapter focused on contemporary literature on globalization and internationalization. Following this, the changing nature of faculty work, motivations, and academic cultures were discussed in line with the developments resulting from globalization and internationalization. Finally, taking into account the dimensions in the proposed model, some of the related empirical studies were briefly presented at the end of the chapter. The next chapter reveals the details on methodology that were followed during the research process.

Chapter III: Methodology

To provide detailed information on methodology, this chapter first explains espoused paradigms for the research and design of the study. It then proceeds with the details on target population, research sample and participants. In addition, strategies on data collection and analysis are explained in order to present the research procedures in detail. Finally, ethical considerations related to the research and a summary are provided at the end of the chapter.

Research Paradigm

Paradigms have an important influence on how research is methodologically and practically designed (Denzin, 2010). According to Guba (1990, p.17), as the “basic set of beliefs that guide the action”, research paradigms shape the implementation and interpretation of study (as cited in Creswell, 2009, p. 6). In addition, as the worldviews leading the design and implementation of the studies, paradigms are also linked to the ontological and epistemological views in the specific discipline. Thus, the same as for other study fields, the paradigm that a researcher follows plays a vital role in framing and examining the problem in social and educational research (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007).

The purpose of this research was to examine the rationales, incentives for and barriers to internationalization for faculty, and to explore the relationships between these factors and faculty involvement in internationalization, in the context of Turkey’s higher education. In addition, the study aimed at testing the theoretical model related to faculty internationalization that was constructed through the relationships among the rationales, incentives, barriers and faculty involvement in internationalization. Furthermore, the study intended to explore the factors examined in the theoretical model detailed in a different country context and understand the importance of investigated relationships.

Drawing on these purposes, it can be thought that this study mainly aimed at examining faculty internationalization through a multidimensional viewpoint. The research problem included considering different focuses, relations, dimensions, cases and units of analysis. Thus, design of this study required a multiple understanding in order to examine the multifaceted notion of the research problem. For this reason, a pragmatic approach was followed for the study design. A pragmatic worldview enables the researcher to apply different methods, techniques and research procedures in order to examine the problem through a pluralistic way of understanding (Creswell, 2009). In addition, pragmatic paradigm permits collecting data through different instruments and drawing the researcher's way of understanding and circumstances in the research environment together in order to interpret them together (Morgan, 2014).

Study Design

Considering the multidimensional purposes, cases and different points of focus in the research problem, a mixed-methods design was adopted for this study. As a relatively new approach in social and educational research, mixed-methods design enables associating quantitative and qualitative methods, instruments and analyses for one single research (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003). Mixed-methods design is considered as a way of strengthening and triangulating the data sources in a study and pursuing convergences in the data gathered through different methods in order to examine and understand the diversified and multidimensional context of the research problem (Creswell, 2009).

The nature of the mixed-methods studies relies on approaching the problem through different understandings, cases, cultures or level of analysis (Denzin, 2010). Social and educational researchers can prefer mixed-methods design when examination of the research problem needs to be enhanced by gathering different sources of data (Gorard & Taylor, 2004).

In addition, mixed-methods design can also be selected when the primary findings or models need additional exploration through different methods and procedures (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). Since this study focused on understanding the relationships among different variables, testing theoretical model and exploring the relationships in the tested models in detail through personal experiences in different country and institutional cases, mixed methods approach was chosen for the research.

A sequential explanatory strategy was adopted for the procedures of mixed-methods design in this study. According to Creswell (2009) sequential explanatory design is used when the researcher prefers gaining strong quantitative understanding initially and collects qualitative data in the next phase in order to interpret the mixed results. Considering the nature of the research problem, the majority of the research questions and the potential time and resources, priority and weight were given to the quantitative part of the study. In addition, embedding was chosen as a strategy of mixing, since the qualitative data were considered as a secondary data to support and deeply explore the quantitatively examined relationships in the constructed theoretical models (Creswell, 2009). The following parts in this section explain the procedures used in quantitative and qualitative contexts separately.

Quantitative part. Since the research aimed at examining influencing variables and the relationships related to faculty internationalization in a large population, a quantitative design was adopted as one part of the mixed approach. The quantitative design is used when the research problem entails investigating the factors that influence an outcome (Creswell, 2009). In addition, a cross-sectional survey was adopted as a procedure as it enables studying a sample of a population at a single time period without any manipulations (Ary, Jacobs, Razavieh & Sorensen, 2006).

Non-experimental descriptive and correlational strategies were used to examine the specific research questions related to the quantitative aims of the research. The research was designed as a descriptive study, as descriptive research aims to set out “how what is or what exists is related to some preceding event that has influenced or affected a present condition or event” (Best, 1970, cited in Cohen et al., 2007, p. 205). The research can also be considered as correlational, since investigating the correlational relationships related to influencing factors of faculty involvement in internationalization was aimed. According to Creswell (2009), correlational design is frequently preferred when the research questions call for the correlational statistics to describe and measure the association or the relations among variables.

Finally, the research also intended to explain the causal relationships of faculty involvement in internationalization according to theoretical model constructed by the researcher. The theoretical model was constructed through the literature, and tested the direct and indirect relationships among factors influencing faculty involvement in internationalization. At this stage, path analysis with Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) was employed as a technique to identify and explain the causality among the variables. Path Analysis by SEM was chosen because it is capable of defining and interpreting the causal models when the researcher constructs the theoretical models based on previous studies and related information (Ary et al., 2006).

Qualitative part. The qualitative approach was employed for the second part of the mixed-methods design as the final research questions aimed to explore deeply the importance of the factors in tested theoretical model in a different country. Qualitative design is used when the researchers intend to examine the research problem in detail in its natural environment (Denzin & Lincoln, 1994). In addition, qualitative strategies can be adopted as a

part of mixed-methods research as it enables studying with smaller participant groups and validating the accuracy of initial results (Creswell, 2009).

A descriptive phenomenological approach guided the qualitative part of the research. Phenomenological design can be selected for qualitative studies when the researcher intends to deeply examine the topic in its own context (Moustakas, 1994). A phenomenological approach was adopted for the qualitative phase since the second part of this research focused on understanding the faculty's international activities, rationales, incentives and barriers in a different country context and exploring the importance of relationships in the tested model in detail. In addition, the final research question required aiming attention at personal experiences in a different country context. A phenomenological viewpoint also enables exploring diversified individual experiences in the specific contexts (Patton, 2002).

Population and Participants

Since the research was designed as a mixed-methods study, the target population, the sample for the quantitative part, and the participant group for the qualitative part were described separately. For most of the sequential mixed-methods research, working with the same target population in both quantitative and qualitative parts is recommended (Creswell, 2009). However, for the purpose of this study, the researcher intended to investigate the relationships and test constructed theoretical models through quantitative findings first. Then, it was aimed to understand the importance of examined factors in detail by gathering data from a different country case. Therefore, participants for the qualitative part of the research were chosen from a different country context than for the quantitative part. The following paragraphs in this section separately explain the population and participants of the quantitative and qualitative data collection process.

Quantitative part. Target population for the quantitative part of this research consisted of 55179 faculty members, who have been working as assistant professor (26948; 48.83%), associate professor (10646; 19.29%) or full professor (17585; 31.87%) in 195 Turkish higher education institutions (109 public; 55.90%, 86 private; 44.10%) (YÖK, 2016). As the notion of the problem required focusing on faculty activities in all teaching, research and services functions of higher education, only the faculty members who officially have all of these three roles were included to the participation process. Thus, faculty members who have an academic ranking different than assistant professor, associate professor or full professor were excluded from the target population.

ARBİS (Araştırmacı Bilgi Sistemi) [Researcher Information System] which is an official database of The Technological and Scientific Research Council of Turkey (TÜBİTAK) was used to obtain the faculty's contact information. As the purpose was to collect the maximum number of the responses from a large targeted population, the researcher preferred not to use any specific sampling techniques. However, in order to provide more appropriate respondent numbers, the faculty contacts reached through ARBİS were categorized according to the academic rank of faculty, and establishment date/geographical region of the current institution (Özoglu, Gür, & Gümüş, 2016; Uslu, 2015). In addition, the total number of the faculty contacts reached (42752) was divided into three groups in order to conduct the pilot applications and the final research on separate faculty groups.

Applications of pilot tests and final research were implemented on separate participant groups in order to provide better reliability. In addition, potential respondents for scale and questionnaire development were divided into two sub-groups since the total number of the items in the pilot applications was considered too large for one online questionnaire. The first sub-group of pilot testing was invited to respond to the questions on faculty rationales for

internationalization scale. The other group in the pilot testing of scales was invited to respond to questions related to incentives and barriers. Faculty involvement in internationalization questionnaire was carried out in both pilot applications. Table 6 shows the numbers of gathered contacts, invited and respondent faculty, and analyzed responses.

Table 6.

Numbers of Used Contacts, Invited Faculty, Respondents and Analyzed Cases

Data Collection Instrument	Number of gathered faculty contacts	Number of invited faculty to respond	Number of respondent faculty	Number of analyzed cases after data preparation
Internationalization Activities for Faculty Questionnaire (Pilot)	20431	13079	657	657
Internationalization Rationales for Faculty Scale (Pilot)	10257	6769	327	289
Internationalization Incentives for Faculty Scale (Pilot)	10174	6309	330	294
Internationalization Barriers for Faculty Scale (Pilot)	10174	6309	330	288
Final Research Data Collection Instrument	22321	20747	1420	973

Table 6 demonstrates the numbers of used contact information, invited faculty, respondents and analyzed cases for each data collection instrument and final survey administration. Since pilot applications of the incentives and barriers scales were administrated through the same online survey, the numbers of gathered contacts, invited faculty and respondents were the same for the incentives and barriers pilot tests. Furthermore, one can note that the numbers for the invited faculty were different than the numbers of the reached faculty contacts. The reason for this difference was the duplicate, incorrect or invalid e-mail and contact information in the ARBIS database. In the final research, 1420 respondents submitted the data collection instrument. After the data preparation process that was explained in the data analysis section, 973 cases were used for the analysis. The details on demographic distribution of the respondents that were considered in the final analysis were provided in Table 7.

Table 7.

Respondent Demographics

Demographic variable	Value	N	%
Gender	Female	378	38.8
	Male	595	61.2
Academic rank	Assistant professor	312	32.1
	Associate professor	316	32.5
	Full professor	345	35.5
Academic discipline (According to Biglan)	Applied sciences	508	52.2
	Arts & Humanities	99	10.2
	Natural & Exact sciences	130	13.4
	Social & Creative sciences	236	24.3
Studied abroad during (post)graduate	Yes	595	61.2
	No	378	38.8
Carrying out managerial duty at current institution	Yes	383	39.4
	No	590	60.6
Establishment date of current institution	Pre-1992	570	58.6
	1992-2005	237	24.4
	Post-2005	166	17.1
Administration type of current institution	Public	857	88.1
	Private	116	11.9
Geographical region of current institution	Aegean [EgeBölgesi]	173	17.8
	Black Sea [KaradenizBölgesi]	91	9.4
	Central Anatolia [İçAnadoluBölgesi]	224	23
	Eastern Anatolia [DoğuAnadoluBölgesi]	75	7.7
	Marmara [Marmara Bölgesi]	318	32.7
	Mediterranean [AkdenizBölgesi]	76	7.8
	Southeastern Anatolia [GüneydoğuAnadoluBölgesi]	16	1.6
Total		973	100

As Table 7 shows, of the 973 analyzed cases, the majority of the respondents (61.2%) are male, and more than one-third (35.5%) of the faculty are full professor, which is the largest group of the respondents in terms of academic rank. The study areas of the faculty span all the types of academic disciplines; however, faculty members from applied sciences encompass more than half of the respondent group (52.2%). Over 60% of the faculty members who responded to the survey had studied abroad during their graduate education (61.2%), and do not have managerial responsibilities in their current institutions (60.6%).

According to the survey responses, the majority of the faculty work at institutions that were established before 1992 (58.6%). Most of the faculty members (88.1%) work in public institutions, and faculty working in Marmara Region (32.7%) is the largest group according to geographical region of their institutions.

Qualitative part. Since the second phase of the research aimed at examining the topic in a different country context, target population for the qualitative part was faculty members and university administrators in the United States (US). Thus, the participant group for the qualitative part consisted of 22 faculty members and university administrators at two public research universities in the Southwestern region of the US.

The US was chosen as a country for the second part of the research because of its multidimensional international higher education context. According to NAFSA (2016), despite the relatively high tuition fees and expenses, the US is one of the top receiving countries for international students with more than a million enrolled international students in the 2015-2016 year. Moreover, international students create \$32 billion and 400,000 jobs as a financial contribution to the US economy (NAFSA, 2016). Thus, financial rationale for internationalization can be witnessed as prominent in both governmental and institutional strategies.

Besides the financial aspect, academic rationales such as diversified faculty and student population, and institutional reputation and branding through internationalization can be considered as strong motivations to become more internationalized in several US universities (de Wit, 2002). Furthermore, various socio-cultural and political rationales can also be viewed in international development projects through programs such as USAID or several others (USAID, 2017). Therefore, the US context was considered as an appropriate environment to explore different rationales, incentives mechanisms and barriers at individual, institutional and governmental levels for faculty involvement in internationalization.

In addition to country context, type of university was taken into consideration while determining the institutions of the participant group. R1 level Doctoral universities according

to Carnegie classification were selected as target institutions to recruit participants during the qualitative part of the research (Carnegie Classification, 2016a). Carnegie classification is a framework to describe the diversified context of US higher education by grouping institutions through empirical data. It uses several measures, such as research & development expenditure on different disciplines, research staff and postdoctoral/non-faculty appointees and doctoral programs in different disciplines, in order to determine the level of research activity in US universities. According to this classification, R1 level doctoral universities are considered as institutions which have the highest level of research activity (Carnegie Classification, 2016b). Since research universities have a long tradition of investing in faculty's international collaboration, international research and development, and hosting considerable numbers of international students (Green, 2005b), highest level research university was selected as the type of institution from which to recruit the participants for the qualitative part.

Selected institutions were two public comprehensive research universities that consider internationalization as a fundamental goal in different academic and administrative processes. These institutions had diverse academic programs in many disciplines including Social Sciences, Applied Sciences, Natural Sciences as well as Arts and Humanities. According to their websites, internationalization was adopted as a mainstream strategy in all four disciplines through diversified rationales which encompass academic, socio-cultural and political motivations. Furthermore, economic and financial objectives and strategies related to internationalization were also witnessed for these institutions since institutional branding for international students and international faculty/graduate research grants were also advertised on institution websites. These two institutions had a considerable number of international student group which included diversified origins from different parts of the world at both undergraduate and graduate levels. In addition, they recruited international faculty and researchers and had an active international research oriented policy. Considering all this

diversified and multidimensional internationalization environment, these two higher education institutions were selected to recruit participants for the qualitative data collection.

Participants to be interviewed were selected among university/college administrators, administrative staff who have executive positions related to internationalization, and faculty members. In that stage, purposive sampling method was preferred in order to identify the potential participants from chosen institutions. According to Maxwell (1997, p. 87, as cited in Teddlie & Yu, 2007, p.77), purposive sampling can be preferred for studies in which “particular settings, persons, or events are deliberately selected for the important information they can provide that cannot be gotten as well from other choices”. Purposive sampling enables the researcher to effectively study in a limited period of time by selecting participants from a group of people who have] deep knowledge and experience related to the phenomenon being researched (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011; Patton, 2002).

A maximum variation sampling was preferred to determine the participant group in more detail. Maximum variation is used as a sampling technique when the researcher intends to understand different aspects of a phenomenon by exploring diverse cases or units that are related to the problem (Palinkas et al., 2013). In the first phase, international activities of potential participants were checked via their publicly accessible curriculum vitae; in order to identify the rich cases in the selected sites. To understand the administrative aspect, university administrators and other administrative staff who have been actively involved in determining and implementing the institutional internationalization and working closely with faculty were selected. To explore the faculty perspective, more emphasis was given to reaching faculty members who were involved in individual and/or institutional internationalization. However, faculty members who were less active in internationalization were also considered as potential cases in order to diversify the participant group.

In addition to the internationally active background, tenure situation and administrative duty were also taken into consideration as criteria for faculty participants during the sampling process. Furthermore, the researcher also considered factors including the notion of the research problem, selection criteria, time, saturation, resources, insights of field experts, and availability of potential participants for the sampling process (Patton, 2002; Palinkas et al., 2013). Because of the time and resource restrictions, faculty members and college administrators were delimited to subjects from Colleges of Education in selected recruitment sites. In addition, some of the reached potential participants declined to participate in the research due to their limited time or lack of interest. As a result, the participant group for the qualitative part consisted of 22 subjects in total (11 administrative: *4 university administrators, 4 college administrators, 3 administrative staff*; 11 faculty members: *2 department heads, 3 professors, 4 associate professors, 2 assistant professors*).

Instruments and Procedures

Drawing on the research problem and procedures of explanatory mixed-methods design, data were collected sequentially in two phases (Creswell, 2009). Thus, procedures of quantitative data collection were first implemented, followed by carrying out qualitative procedures. To provide better explanation of data collection, instruments and procedures for each phase are explained separately in the following.

Quantitative part. Quantitative data was collected via an online survey instrument for both pilot applications and final research. Online survey is considered an emerging way of collecting data in social and educational research since it enables gathering confidential information from a large number of participants in a limited period of time with reduced costs (Benfield & Szlemko, 2006). Similarly, the use of internet-based research has been rising in the Turkish higher education context especially for large-scale surveys over the last few years

(Ulutaş, 2015, Uslu, 2015). Since the target population consisted of a huge number of faculty members in Turkish higher education institutions, and the researcher aimed to collect a maximum amount of data in a limited period of time, online survey was preferred as the procedure for quantitative data collection.

An online survey service provider named surveey.com was used to collect data. By using this service provider items were transferred to web interface by enabling participants to provide responses through radio-buttons and text areas. Potential respondents were invited to participate in the research via an email message that included the name and purpose of the research and a link for the survey webpage. Two weeks after the first invitation, a reminder message was sent to potential participants. As a result, the quantitative data for the final research were collected from 1420 respondents between 07.10.2015 and 06.11.2015.

The whole data collection instrument for the quantitative part consisted of five sections: (1) personal and institutional data form, (2) internationalization activities for faculty questionnaire, (3) internationalization rationales for faculty scale, (4) internationalization incentives for faculty scale, and (5) internationalization barriers for faculty scale. Details on instrument development, and pilot and final applications, are provided as follows.

Personal and institutional data form. The personal and institutional data form consisted of nine questions in total. Six of the questions in the form were considered as personal information questions, and the other three questions focused on the characteristics of the respondent's current institution. Personal information questions were requested in order to gather information on respondents' gender (female/male), academic rank (assistant professor/associate professor/full professor), and field of study. In that form, participants were also asked about their past educational experience in terms of having graduate study abroad (Yes/No), and carrying out managerial duties at their current institution (Yes/No).

Participants were asked to write their specific study field on their own, in order to classify the respondents' academic discipline according to Biglan's (1973a, 1973b; Chynoweth, 2009) framework. Then the study fields of the respondents were reviewed by the researcher. After final reviews, participants' fields of study were classified as Applied Sciences, Arts & Humanities, Natural Sciences, and Social & Creative Sciences.

In addition to personal characteristics, the instrument contained three questions related to the respondents' current institution. Specifically, the three questions were focused on the establishment date of the respondent's current institution (Pre-1992/ 1992-2005/ 2006 and above), the control type of the current institution (Public/ Private), and lastly, the geographic region of the respondent's current institution (Aegean/ Black Sea/ Central Anatolia/ Eastern Anatolia/ Southern East Anatolia/ Marmara/ Mediterranean).

Internationalization activities for faculty questionnaire. To determine the level of faculty involvement in internationalization, the most prevalent internationalization activities among faculty, and to examine the relationships among involvement and other variables, a questionnaire named "internationalization activities for faculty" was developed. The items in the questionnaire were mainly adapted from two previous studies that were conducted by Dr. Michele Schwietz (2006) and Dr. David Beatty (2013) with permission granted by the authors (see Appendices). In addition, questions from Changing Academic Profession (CAP) 2007 survey helped in framing the potential items for internationalization activities for faculty questionnaire (Huang, Finkelstein & Rostan, 2014).

In developing the questionnaire, the items in given previous studies were first translated into Turkish by the researcher. Then, cross-translations of the items from English to Turkish, and Turkish to English were done by two English language experts. These translations were reviewed by the language experts and the researcher. Following this step,

similar items were excluded and simplified by the researcher, and 19 items were sent for revision to experts in the field. Interviews were conducted with six faculty members, who study Educational Administration and Higher Education, to review the items for the Turkish higher education case. According to the reviews of the field experts, some items were excluded, some of them were updated, and new items were added to adopt the questionnaire items to Turkey's higher education context. Thus, content validity of the questionnaire was provided for the final 16 items. In addition, face validity was provided through review of by two English and three Turkish language experts.

The pilot test of the questionnaire was carried out online between the dates of 31.04.2015 and 19.05.2015. The number of the involvement in each internationalization activity was gathered as "0" (0), "1" (1), "2" (2), "3" (3), "4" (4), "5" (5) and "above 5" (5+). 13079 faculty members were invited to respond to the questionnaire by emailing. The questionnaire was conducted as part of the pilot application of the rationales, incentives and barriers scales. 657 faculty members submitted to the questionnaire. Since there was not any perception-based question, all of the responses were included in the data analysis process of the pilot application.

To determine the items for the final application of the research, univariate analysis was performed on the collected dataset. Skewness and Kurtosis values were calculated to determine normality of the items. In addition, the mean score of each item was used to determine the involvement level for each item. Normality was found out of the range between ± 2 , and not provided for some items (George & Mallery, 2010), since the number of involvement in some internationalization activities was cited as small values. Thus, according to the interviews done by four faculty members who study Assessment and Evaluation, and Higher Education, the mean score of each item was reviewed, and 12 activities which had the

highest mean scores were picked for the final application of the survey. The normality analysis of this final questionnaire was performed in the final research again, and all of the final items were distributed as normal according to George and Mallery (2010).

The final version of the questionnaire addressed questions on how many times the participants were involved in selected international activities in the last three years. Respondents were expected to check the number of involvement for each international activity. Gathered numbers on involvement in each international activity then were coded as (1), (2), (3), (4), (5), (6), (7) for data analysis. The Cronbach Alpha internal consistency coefficient of the questionnaire was calculated as $\alpha=.808$ for the pilot application, and was found sufficient. In addition, the coefficient was calculated after the main research as well, and was found as $\alpha=.734$.

Internationalization rationales for faculty scale. Previous research on faculty internationalization was reviewed by the researcher. While it was possible to confront relevant content on faculty rationales, no surveys specifically focusing on internationalization rationales of faculty were found. For this reason, the researcher decided to develop a scale on internationalization rationales for faculty. Based on related conceptual and empirical work including Beatty (2013), Burriss (2006), de Wit (2002), Childress (2008), Doyle (2013), Fields (2010), Grasset (2013), Iuspa (2010), Klyberg (2012), Knight (2004), Navarro (2004) and Schwietz (2006), 78 items were generated for the item pool. Number of the generated items was found sufficient during item development, as generating a number of items that is at least 3-4 times of the number of items in the final scale is recommended for this phase (De Vellis, 2012).

After developing the relevant and suitable number of items for the item pool, face to face and email interviews were carried out with 14 faculty members, specialized in

Educational Sciences, Educational Administration and Higher Education, for the item reviewing process. The items and the dimensions were reviewed through the feedback again, and 53 items were excluded from the item pool. Then, 33 items and the dimensions were reviewed by four faculty members who have expertise on Assessment and Evaluation, and Higher Education. After the second review, four items were excluded, and the content validity of the questionnaire was provided with the final 29 items. In addition, the face validity was enhanced throughout the recommendations provided by three Turkish language experts, who checked and reviewed the items and the questionnaire.

The questionnaire was converted to a web-based five-point Likert questionnaire (1: Completely Disagree <<< 5: Totally Agree). The pilot application was administered online between 31.04.2015-19.05.2015 via surveey.com. 6769 faculty members, who work in different regions, positions and types of institutions, were invited by email to respond to the questionnaire. 327 faculty members completed the pilot version of the questionnaire. To prepare the data for the analysis, cases which have standard deviation less than .5 were excluded from the dataset. After data preparation process, 289 responses were analyzed for item evaluation.

Univariate analysis was performed to test the normality and the sufficiency of the sample. Total respondent/item ratio was calculated as nearly 10 and sufficient ($289/29=9.96$). In many examples of scale development, a sample of 200 cases, and 5-10 respondents for each item are seen adequate because of practical matters (Devellis, 2012; MacCallum, Widaman, Zhang & Hong, 1999). To test the normal distribution of the items, histogram graphs were checked visually. Also, Skewness and Kurtosis value between -2 and +2 for was accepted as an indicator of normal distribution for each item (George & Mallery, 2010). Since item R2 showed non-normal distribution, it was excluded from the analysis. And a dataset of 289 cases and 28 items was considered sufficient for the item evaluation process.

The item-total correlation matrices showed that every item had a correlation value of above .3 for at least one item. Besides, no items that had a correlation value above .7 were found. In addition, anti-image correlation matrices were checked and the correlation values were found to be higher than .5. To analyze the construct validity of the items, Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) was performed. Since the main purpose for EFA was to determine the factor loadings of the items in each factor “Principal Component Analysis (PCA)” and “Varimax” rotation were used. After excluding the items which did not meet sufficient factor loading (factor loadings <.5), and which had double factoring (.4 loading in more than one factor), 12 items loaded on four factors. Table 8 shows the findings of the EFA that was performed for *Internationalization Rationales for Faculty* scale.

Table 8.

Findings of EFA on Internationalization Rationales for Faculty Scale,, ***

Item	Factor 1 Institution Development [Kurum Geliştirme]	Factor 2 Student Development [Öğrenci Geliştirme]	Factor 3 Academic Development [Akademik Gelişim]	Factor 4 Sociocultural Development [Sosyo-kültürel Gelişim]	Communality
R4	.860	.223			.745
R28	.794	.255			.728
R5	.768		.330		.666
R24	.211	.806	.227		.801
R14		.773		.326	.738
R7	.266	.734	.232		.741
R9			.868		.775
R8		.318	.726		.669
R22		.233	.715	.210	.618
R21				.843	.731
R1				.822	.738
R11	.340	.388		.567	.589
KMO Measure of Sampling Adequacy			.833		
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity			$\chi^2(66)=1386,94; p=.000$		
Initial Eigen Value	4.818	1.433	1.230	1.078	
Total Variance Explained (%)	40.150	11.938	10.253	8.984	(Total) 71.324
Cronbach Alpha (α)	.832	.786	.745	.717	(Overall) .859

* According to the rotated component matrix; ** Factor loadings less than .2 were suppressed

According to Table 8, 12 items were loaded on four factors as *Institution Development*, *Student Development*, *Academic Development* and *Sociocultural Development*, and explained 71.32 percent of the total variance. Cronbach Alpha internal consistency coefficients were calculated and found sufficient as $\alpha=.832$ for *Institution Development*, $\alpha=.786$ for *Student Development*, $\alpha=.745$ for *Academic Development*, $\alpha=.717$ for *Sociocultural Development*, and $\alpha=.859$ for the whole scale (Overall). The Cronbach Alpha coefficients were calculated again after the final research, and were found to be $\alpha=.868$ for *Institutional Development*, $\alpha=.823$ for *Student Development*, $\alpha=.771$ for *Academic Development*, $\alpha=.873$ for *Sociocultural Development* and $\alpha=.826$ for the whole scale.

For the confirmatory factor analysis, a random sample, which consisted of 226 cases, was derived from the final research dataset, since 200 subjects can be seen as adequate to perform a Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) (Kline, 2011). According to the results of CFA, the model fit indices were calculated as $\chi^2(48) = 113.993$; $\chi^2/df=2.375$; GFI=.924; AGFI=.877, CFI=.936; RMSEA=.078; SRMR=.078 (N=226; p=.000), and were considered acceptable (see Table 11). As a result, the construct validity of the *Internationalization rationales for faculty* scale was provided according to the results of EFA and CFA.

Internationalization incentives for faculty scale. The scale was developed by the researcher, since no specifically related survey was found in related literature. Through the theoretical and conceptual content including Beatty (2013), Burriss (2006), de Wit (2002), Childress (2008), Doyle (2013), Fields (2010), Grasset (2013), Iuspa (2010), Klyberg (2012), Knight (2004), Navarro (2004) and Schwietz (2006), 24 items based on literature were generated for the item pool.

According to the feedback gathered from interviews, which were carried out with 14 Educational Sciences, Higher Education and Educational Administration faculty members, the

items and the dimensions were reviewed again, and the number of items was reduced to 15. Following this step, reviews from four faculty members, who study Assessment and Evaluation and Higher Education, were gathered, and the content validity was provided for the final 15 items. The items were also reviewed by three Turkish language experts in order to enhance the face validity.

The items were transferred to an online survey service as a five-point Likert questionnaire (1: Completely Disagree <<<< 5: Totally Agree), and the pilot test was administered between 31.04.2015-10.05.2015. 6309 faculty members were invited to respond to the questionnaire via email. 322 faculty members completed the pilot version of the questionnaire. Cases that had standard deviation less than .5 were excluded from the dataset for data preparation. After preparing the data, 294 responses were analyzed to evaluate the items. To test the sufficiency of the sample, total respondent/item ratio was calculated as $(289/12=19.96)$ and found sufficient (Devellis, 2012; MacCallum et al., 1999). Normal distribution was guaranteed for all items according to visual histogram graphs and Skewness and Kurtosis values between -2 and +2 (George & Mallery, 2010). Thus, 294 cases were analyzed to evaluate the 15 items.

The item-total correlation matrices showed that every item had a correlation value of above .3 for at least one item. Also, no items correlated above .7 were found. In addition, anti-image correlation matrices were checked, and the correlations were found higher than .5. EFA with "PCA" and "Varimax" rotation were performed to test construct and factor loadings. After excluding the items which did not meet the criteria of sufficient factor loading and which had double factoring nine items loaded on three factors. Table 9 shows the findings of the EFA that was performed for *Internationalization incentives for faculty* scale.

Table 9.

Findings of EFA on Internationalization Incentives for Faculty Scale,, ***

Item	Factor 1 Governmental Incentives [Devlet Teşvikleri]	Factor 2 Institutional Incentives [Kurumsal Teşvikler]	Factor 3 Personal Incentives [Kişisel Teşvikler]	Communality
I8	.784			.663
I2	.743			.569
I6	.619	.468		.604
I12		.855		.771
I10		.813		.687
I7	.268	.795		.703
I13			.801	.663
I5			.776	.604
I9			.756	.581
KMO Measure of Sampling Adequacy		.737		
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity		$\chi^2(36)=654.487; p=.000$		
Initial Eigen Value	2.925	1.746	1.173	
Total Variance Explained (%)	32.499	19.401	13.032	(Total) 64.932
Cronbach Alpha (α)	.617	.794	.684	(Overall) .727

* According to the rotated component matrix; ** Factor loadings less than .2 were suppressed

According to results in Table 9, nine items were loaded on three factors as *Governmental Incentives*, *Institutional Incentives* and *Personal Incentives*, and explained 64.93 percent of the total variance. Cronbach Alpha reliability coefficients were calculated and found sufficient as $\alpha=.617$ for *Governmental Incentives*, $\alpha=.794$ for *Institutional Incentives*, $\alpha=.684$ for *Personal Incentives*, and $\alpha=.727$ for the whole scale (Overall). In addition, the Cronbach Alpha coefficients were recalculated after the main research, and were found to be $\alpha=.779$ for *Governmental Incentives*, $\alpha=.838$ for *Institutional Incentives*, $\alpha=.694$ for *Personal Incentives*, and $\alpha=.774$ for the whole scale (Overall).

A random sample consisting of 226 cases was derived from the final research dataset, since 200 subjects can be seen as adequate to perform a Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) (Kline, 2011). According to the results of the CFA, the model fit indices were computed as $\chi^2(24)=53.790$; $\chi^2/df=2.241$; GFI=.949; AGFI=.904, CFI=.944; RMSEA=.074; SRMR=.061

($N=226$; $p=.000$), and was considered acceptable (see Table 11). As a result, the construct validity of the *Internationalization incentives for faculty* scale was provided according to the results of the EFA and CFA.

Internationalization barriers for faculty scale. Previous research on barriers of internationalization was reviewed to determine the data collection instrument for barriers. While several quantitative studies that include some obstacles to internationalization exist in the literature, no proper surveys were found completely focusing on the barriers to internationalization for faculty. For this reason, 54 items based on conceptual and empirical content in the related literature including Beatty (2013), Burris (2006), de Wit (2002), Childress (2008), Doyle (2013), Fields (2010), Grasset (2013), Iuspa (2010), Klyberg (2012), Knight (2004), Navarro (2004) and Schwietz (2006), were generated for the item pool.

After generating a convenient amount of items, the items were reviewed by 14 faculty members, who study Educational Sciences, Educational Administration and Higher Education, and the number of the items was reduced to 24. Following this step, four items were also excluded according to feedback gathered from four faculty members who study Assessment and Evaluation and Higher Education. Thus, the content validity of the questionnaire was provided for the final 20 items. In addition, like in developing process of former scales, the face validity was provided according to the reviews of three Turkish language experts.

The pilot version of the questionnaire was administered online as a five-point Likert based instrument (1: Completely disagree <<< 5: Totally agree) between the dates of 31.04.2015 and 20.05.2015. 6309 faculty members were invited to respond to the questionnaire. 330 faculty members submitted their responses to the questionnaire. To prepare

the data for the analysis process, the cases that had standard deviation less than .5 were excluded from the dataset, and the item evaluation step was preceded with 288 final cases.

Total respondent/item ratio was calculated as 14.40 ($288/20=14.40$) to test the sufficiency of the sample (Devellis, 2012; MacCallum et al., 1999). In many examples of scale development, a sample of 200 cases, and 5-10 respondents for each item are seen adequate because of practical matters (Devellis, 2012; MacCallum, Widaman, Zhang & Hong, 1999). Thus, it was found sufficient to test further necessities of scale development. To test the normal distribution of the items, histogram graphs were checked visually. Also, Skewness and Kurtosis value between -2 and +2 for was accepted as an indicator of normal distribution for each item (George & Mallery, 2010). After checking histogram graphs, and computing Skewness and Kurtosis values to analyze the normal distribution of the items, all of the items excluding B14 were considered as normal distributed (George & Mallery, 2010). Thus, item B14 was excluded from the evaluation process, and the data collected from 289 faculty members were analyzed to evaluate the 19 items.

The item-total correlation matrices showed that every item had a correlation value of above .3 for at least one other. Besides, no items that had a correlation value above .7 were found. In addition, anti-image correlation matrices were checked, and the correlation values were found higher than .5. To test the construct validity of the items and the questionnaire, the EFA with “PCA” and “Varimax” rotation was performed. After excluding the items that did not meet the criteria of sufficient factor loading and that had double factoring six items loaded on two factors. Table 10 illustrates the results of the EFA that was applied for *Internationalization Barriers for Faculty* scale.

Table 10.

Findings of EFA on Internationalization Barriers for Faculty Scale, ,***

Item	Factor 1 Institutional Culture Barriers [Kurumsal kültüre ilişkin engeller]	Factor 2 Financial/Bureaucratic Barriers [Mali/Bürokratik engeller]	Communality
B12	.803	.304	.737
B2	.787		.635
B19	.723	.378	.665
B6		.814	.665
B9		.707	.532
B7	.430	.630	.581
KMO Measure of Sampling Adequacy	.758		
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	$\chi^2(15)=417.172; p=.000$		
Initial Eigen Value	2.699	1.117	
Total Variance Explained (%)	44.981	18.622	(Total) 63.603
Cronbach Alpha (α)	.725	.628	(Overall) .747

* According to the rotated component matrix; ** Factor loadings less than .2 were suppressed

The results in Table 10 show that six items were loaded on two factors as *Institutional Culture Barriers* and *Financial/Bureaucratic Barriers*, and explained 63.60 percent of the total variance. Cronbach Alpha reliability coefficients were calculated and found sufficient as $\alpha=.725$ for *Institutional Culture Barriers*, $\alpha=.628$ for *Financial/Bureaucratic Barriers* and $\alpha=.747$ for the whole scale (Overall). In addition, the Cronbach Alpha coefficients were calculated again after the main research, and were found as $\alpha=.809$ for *Institutional Culture Barriers*, $\alpha=.624$ for *Financial/Bureaucratic Barriers* and $\alpha=.757$ for the whole scale.

A random sample, which consisted of 226 cases, was derived from the final research dataset, since 200 subjects can be seen as adequate to perform a Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) (Kline, 2011). According to the results of CFA, the model fit indices were calculated as $\chi^2(8)=14.325; p=.074; \chi^2/df=1.791; GFI=.980; AGFI=.948, CFI=.980; RMSEA=.059; SRMR=.043$ (N=226), and were considered as acceptable (see Table 11). As a result, the

construct validity of the *Internationalization barriers for faculty* scale was provided according to the results of EFA.

Qualitative part. For the qualitative part of the research, data were collected through semi-structured interviews. Semi-structured interviews are preferred in order to reach in-depth, rich lived experiences about the phenomenon by building a rapport with the participants (Cohen et al., 2007). Interviews were carried out with both administrative and faculty participants in order to understand the multidimensional nature of the faculty internationalization process.

Interview protocols were developed through relevant literature, research questions and quantitative findings of the current study. Protocols were aimed at understanding participant experiences and changes regarding faculty involvement in internationalization in a different country context. In more detail, the protocols included questions on participant experiences related to: a) meaning, rationales and activities of internationalization, b) incentives for and barriers to internationalization, and c) relationships, tensions and changes about how faculty involvement in internationalization occurs in the institutional context.

To provide validity of instruments, draft version of the interview protocol were sent to three higher education experts in order them to review the questions and probes. After gathering expert reviews together, protocols were updated to gain much more relevant information and a better understanding of the phenomenon. In addition, two pilot interviews were carried out to test the protocols before starting the final stage of qualitative data collection. As a result, two separate semi-structured interview protocols were developed in order to collect data from administrative and faculty participants through semi-structured interviews. Data were collected in the winter and spring semesters of 2016-2017 academic year. Invitation emails which included the purpose, procedure and IRB details of research

were sent to potential interviewees. Interviews were carried out at participant offices in English and lasted between 30-50 minutes. Conversations were digitally recorded with the permission of participants.

Data Analysis

Data analysis was conducted in two stages, as the nature of sequential explanatory mixed-methods studies requires two separate analyses (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). Since the quantitative part came first, the analysis of quantitative findings was used to frame the design of the qualitative phase. Therefore, details on data analysis are provided separately for each phase as follows.

Quantitative data analysis. Many data preparation and analysis techniques were applied to examine the quantitative oriented research questions. First, the online survey was administered requesting faculty to respond all of the questions, and a tool of the service provider website was used to prevent missing values in the responses. Before the analysis process, standard deviation of each case was calculated for each scale, and the cases that had standard deviation less than .50 were excluded from the dataset. To quantify the normality of the variables, histogram graphics and Box-Plot analyses were checked, and Skewness and Kurtosis values were calculated. Skewness and Kurtosis values between -2 and +2 were accepted as an indicator of the normal distribution (George & Mallery, 2010).

To identify the most prominent internationalization activities among the faculty, the mean scores of each item in the 'involvement in internationalization activities' questionnaire was calculated. A higher mean value indicated higher involvement in cited internationalization activity. To analyze the involvement level of respondents, possible mean scores of the involvement in internationalization questionnaire were divided into five levels as 'very low' [1.00-2.19], 'low' [2.20-3.39], 'medium' [3.40-4.59], 'high' [4.60-5.79], and 'very

high' [5.80-7.00] and the mean value of the whole respondent group was calculated. The mean scores and standard deviations in scales were considered indicators of the agreement level of the items and sub-dimensions. A higher mean score in the rationales, incentives and barriers indicates higher agreement level for the item/sub-dimension as a rationale, incentive or barrier for internationalization.

To investigate the significant differences according to demographic variables, homogeneity and equality of the variances were first tested with Levene's Test. Then, *t*-test for independent samples and one-way ANOVA were used to analyze the significant differences in the groups. In case of violating the assumption of the homogeneity of variances for one-way ANOVA, Welch ANOVA correction was used to interpret the significant differences in group means (Moder, 2010). Similarly, when the assumption of the equality of variances is not provided for independent samples *t*-test, 'Equal Variances are not assumed' part of the SPSS 23 software were used for corrections in order to interpret the differences in group means. Furthermore, to determine the group differences in the significant ANOVA results, Tukey post-hoc test was run. In addition, Cohen's D (d) for Independent Samples *t*-test, and Partial Eta Square (η) values were reported to indicate the effect size of the differences.

Pearson Correlation and the 'r' coefficient values were used to examine the relationships between dependent variables. Level of the relationship was considered as 'low' ($0.00 \leq r < 0.3$), 'moderate' ($.03 \leq r < .05$) and 'high' ($r \geq 0.5$) according to the (r) coefficient values. Finally, the structure, and fit values of the theoretical models were tested by Path Analysis and Structural Equation Model (SEM). The fit indices were analyzed through the criteria outlined below in Table 11.

Table 11.

Acceptable Values for SEM Fit Indices

Index	Acceptable Value	Reference*
χ^2	$p > .05$	Barrett (2007)
χ^2/df	< 2	Tabachnik and Fidell (2007)
	< 3 (Good Fit)	Sümer(2000)
	< 5 (Moderate Fit)	Kline (1998), Sümer(2000)
GFI	$> .90$	Kline (1998)
	$> .90$ (Good Fit)	Sümer(2000)
AGFI	$> .90$ (Good Fit)	Sümer (2000)
	$> .95$ (Perfect Fit)	Sümer (2000)
CFI	$> .90$	Sümer (2000), Hu and Bentler (1999)
	$> .95$	Sümer (2000)
SRMR	$< .08$ (Moderate Fit)	Hu and Bentler (1999)
	$< .08$ (Moderate Fit)	MacCallum, Browne and Sugawara (1996), Sümer (2000)
RMSEA	$< .07$	Steiger (2007)
	$< .06$ (Good Fit)	Tabachnik and Fidell (2007)

* Sources: adapted from Türkmen (2011)

Additional sources: Barrett (2007), Hu and Bentler (1999), MacCallum, Browne and Sugawara (1996), Steiger (2007)

Several software solutions were used in the quantitative data analysis process. Firstly, Microsoft Office Excel 2013 was used to calculate the standard deviations of the cases for data preparation. In addition, SPSS 23 was used to analyze the univariate, descriptive, inferential and correlational statistics. SPSS 23 was also used in the scale developing process with the EFA. Finally, the path analysis process of the SEM, and the CFA of the developed scales were carried out with AMOS 20.

Qualitative data analysis. To analyze the qualitative data, digitally recorded interviews were first transcribed. After completing the transcription, conversation documents were sent to interviewees to check the conversation content. At that stage, interviewees were invited to confirm or modify the documents. In addition, participants were also asked if they would like to omit any part of the transcribed conversations. Some of the transcribed conversation documents were grammatically and contextually revised through the participant responses. Moreover, the transcribed documents were reviewed by two native English speaking language experts before analysis in order to provide better validity.

Thematic analysis was used as a technique to analyze the qualitative data. According to Boyatzis (1998), thematic analysis enables interpretation of qualitative content by focusing on reduced categories, themes and essential experiences. Since the qualitative part was designed mainly through quantitative findings, themes and categories were mostly identified prior to analysis of qualitative data (Creswell, 2009). This way of deductive analysis provided the opportunity of interpreting data from a top-down viewpoint and focusing on some predetermined aspects of content through the dimensions of quantitative findings and tested theoretical model (Braun & Clarke, 2006).

Themes, categories and codebook were identified through the dimensions and theoretical model that were examined in the quantitative phase of the current research. Rationales, incentives, barriers and activities of internationalization were utilized as predetermined themes and categories for qualitative analysis. In addition, academic development, institutional development, socio-cultural development and student development for rationales; governmental, institutional and personal/individual incentives for incentives; and institutional culture, financial/bureaucratic obstacles for barriers were considered as main sub-categories. On the other hand, since the aim of the qualitative part included exploring changes and relations about the phenomenon in a different country context, the possibility of emerging codes and further categorizations was also considered during the analysis, and emerging themes and categories were reported according to qualitative findings. (Creswell, 2009; Gibbs, 2008).

Software solutions were also employed for qualitative analysis. To transcribe the recorded interviews, NHC Express Scribe v5.85 was used. Final files for transcription confirmation were created by using Microsoft Office Word 2013. In addition, QDA Miner Lite was used as a tool to apply thematic analysis as a quantitative data analyzing approach.

Ethical Considerations

Ethical requirements were taken into account in both the quantitative and qualitative phases. To identify the potential participants for the survey instrument, email addresses which were shared by potential respondents in the ARBIS database were used. Participants were invited to respond to the online survey via an email message that included the names of researcher and supervisor, and the title of the dissertation title. The purpose of the study, contact information of researcher and details on anonymity and confidentiality were provided in both first invitation and reminder emails.

During the quantitative data collection and analysis, participant responses were kept anonymous and confidential. The researcher avoided including questions related to open identity of participants and institutions. Also, no tracking information or IP addresses were followed during data collection. Moreover, the anonymous data files were kept under username and password protection on both the service provider website and the researcher's personal computer.

For the qualitative phase, the researcher started to recruit participants after gathering Institutional Review Board (IRB) approval from the hosting institution abroad. Executive authorities related to IRB in recruitment sites were informed and required approvals were gathered before starting participant recruitment and interviews. Potential interviewees were invited to participate in research via an email that included the details on research purpose, process and contact information of researcher. Participant consent was provided before starting interviews by providing and having signed the consent forms for human subjects. Interviews were digitally recorded after gathering permission from the participants and recorded files were kept under username and password protection on the researcher's personal computer.

During the transcription process, participants were coded with pseudo numbers (A1, A2, A3... for administrative participants, F1, F2, F3... for faculty members), and only position of the participant was provided (university administrator, administrative staff, faculty) on transcribed documents. The researcher also avoided transcribing specific details related to people, institutions, disciplines, or countries in order to provide confidentiality and anonymity. In addition, interviewees were asked to confirm, revise or omit transcribed conversations before starting the analysis.

Summary

This chapter provided details on the methodology that was followed during the research. The chapter started by specifying the paradigms and research design at the beginning. It then provided details on target population, participants and procedures that were taken into consideration for research. In addition, specific aspects of data collection instruments and data analysis process were explained in order to present the methodological design. Finally, the chapter was concluded by providing ethical considerations that were taken into account during the research process. The next chapter demonstrates the findings that were gained through data collection and analysis.

Chapter IV: Findings

This chapter presents the results of the research that were attained through the data analysis process. As the sequential mixed-methods design was followed during the study, findings on quantitative and qualitative phases are reported in separate sections. Thus, the chapter begins with a presentation of the quantitative results. It then proceeds by demonstrating the qualitative findings. At the end, a summary is provided to conclude the chapter.

Quantitative Findings

Quantitative findings are presented according to the order of the research questions presented in the first chapter. The section starts with an overview of the results on internationalization activities among faculty members. It then reports on findings on level of faculty involvement in internationalization. After that, the section proceeds with the demonstration of analysis results regarding rationales, incentives, and barriers of internationalization, and differences according to personal and institutional characteristics. At the end of this section, results on relationships among rationales, incentives, barriers and involvement are presented, and findings related to proposed theoretical model are reported.

Internationalization activities among faculty. The first research question focused on the activities of internationalization among faculty. It was addressed as: “What are the most prominent internationalization activities among respondents?” For this research question, the participants were asked to indicate the number of international activities they were involved in during the last three years. Table 12 illustrates the results of the analysis that were used to examine the most participated in internationalization activities by the respondents.

Table 12.

Findings related to Faculty's Internationalization Activities

Internationalization activities	N	\bar{X}	s.d.
Courses taught including international, intercultural or global subjects	973	2.44	2.05
Courses taught at higher education institutions abroad	973	1.61	1.26
International conferences attended to present research	973	4.10	1.91
Publications published abroad (including submission)	973	4.67	2.09
University events organized that are international in nature	973	1.84	1.39
Student clubs/associations worked with that are international in nature	973	1.56	1.08
Events leaded that provides international experiences for students	973	1.75	1.32
Travels abroad to participate professional development programs	973	2.12	1.64
Memberships of international research associations established abroad	973	2.00	1.19
Editorships/reviews for publications abroad	973	3.53	2.25
Research collaborated with researcher(s) from abroad	973	2.01	1.47
Projects conducted with local or international partners that are international in nature	973	1.83	1.20
Involvement in internationalization activities (Overall)	973	2.45	.82

The results in Table 12 reflect that the most frequent internationalization activity by faculty is publishing in international journals or edited books (\bar{X} =4.67; s.d=2.09). Following this item, presenting studies at international conferences came as second (\bar{X} =4.10; s.d=1.91), and being an editor or referee in international journals or edited books was the third one (\bar{X} =3.53; s.d=2.25). Considering these results, it can be thought that academic publishing in international environments is one of the most important activity areas of internationalization among faculty members. On the other hand, working with international student clubs (\bar{X} =1.56; s.d=1.08), giving lectures at universities abroad (\bar{X} =1.61; s.d=1.26) and leading students for international experiences (\bar{X} =1.75; s.d=1.32) are the least participated in internationalization activities as they have the lowest mean scores in the 'involvement in internationalization' questionnaire.

Faculty's involvement level in internationalization. The second research question examined the level of faculty involvement in internationalization. Table 13 shows the faculty involvement levels in internationalization in accordance with the mean score of 'involving in internationalization' questionnaire.

Table 13.

Findings related to the Level of Faculty Involvement in Internationalization

Involvement level	Internationalization Score(\bar{X})	N	%
Very low	[1.00-2.19]	441	45.3
Low	[2.20-3.39]	398	40.9
Medium	[3.40-4.59]	121	12.4
High	[4.60-5.79]	13	1.3
Very high	[5.80-7.00]	-	-
Overall	2.45	973	100

According to Table 13, the involvement level in internationalization for the whole respondent group is at a low level ($\bar{X} = 2.45$). The distribution in Table (...) shows that faculty who are involved in internationalization activities at a very low level was the largest group of the participants and covered nearly half of the respondents (45.3%). Another dominant group among the respondents was faculty who are involved in internationalization activities at a low level (40.9%). According to these results, one can say that more than three-quarters of the survey participants engage in internationalization-related activities at a very low or a low level.

The results reported in Table 13 also shows that the respondent group contained a considerable number of faculty who are involved in international activities at a medium level (12.4%). This was the third largest group among respondents. However, the participant group does not include any faculty members who are involved in internationalization at a very high level, and only 13 respondents participated in international-related activities at a high level (1.3%).

Internationalization rationales, incentives and barriers for faculty. The third research question focused on the rationales and incentives for as well as barriers to internationalization for faculty. The findings related to this research question are reported in three separate tables in order to illustrate the results in a more coherent form. Table 14 presents the findings related to internationalization rationales of faculty members.

Table 14.

Findings related to Faculty's Rationales for Internationalization

Rationales	N	\bar{X}	s.d.	Skewness		Kurtosis	
				Sta.	s.e.	Sta.	s.e.
<i>Academic development</i>	973	4.30	.78	-1.16	.08	1.08	.16
Following international developments in the study field	973	4.44	.89	-1.66	.08	2.41	.16
Identifying new technology to use in lessons and research	973	4.23	1.01	-1.26	.08	.92	.16
Supporting lessons and research through more international content	973	4.24	.94	-1.20	.08	.98	.16
<i>Institutional development</i>	973	3.61	1.07	-.56	.08	-.44	.16
Supporting institution's internationalization objectives	973	3.36	1.25	-.34	.08	-.85	.16
Supporting institution's international recognition	973	3.61	1.22	-.59	.08	-.58	.16
Transferring international developments to institution	973	3.87	1.15	-.84	.08	-.13	.16
<i>Socio-cultural development</i>	973	3.26	1.12	-.13	.08	-.79	.16
Travelling other countries to discover new places	973	3.26	1.29	-.15	.08	-1.07	.16
Getting to know other societies more closely	973	3.37	1.22	-.28	.08	-.85	.16
Helping in learning societies from each other	973	3.16	1.25	-.10	.08	-.94	.16
<i>Student development</i>	973	2.98	1.17	-.06	.08	-.88	.16
Helping students in finding international scholarships etc.	973	2.84	1.36	.10	.08	-1.15	.16
Helping students in developing more intercultural skills	973	3.14	1.35	-.16	.08	-1.12	.16
Preparing students more competence to global market	973	2.96	1.38	-.03	.08	-1.23	.16
<i>Rationales (overall)</i>	973	3.54	.70	-.46	.08	-.18	.16

According to Table 14, *academic development* is the most prominent internationalization rationale among faculty members (\bar{X} =4.30; s.d=.78). Following academic development, internationalization for *institutional development* (\bar{X} =3.61; s.d=1.07), and for *socio-cultural development* (\bar{X} =3.26; s.d=1.12) are seen frequently among respondents, as well. While *student development* is the least frequent rationale of faculty internationalization, one can say that the mean score for student development is notable and quite close to the mean for socio-cultural development (\bar{X} =2.98; s. d=1.17).

When the rationales are examined in detail, the item related to 'following international developments in the study field' has the highest mean score in the sub-dimension of academic development (\bar{X} =4.44; s. d=.89). It can be relevant to outline that this item is the most shared reason of faculty internationalization in the whole scale of rationales. From this point of view, one can note that a considerable number of faculty engage in internationalization in order to advance in their study field through developments in international scientific environments. For the rationale of institutional development, the most agreed-to statement by faculty is

associated with ‘transferring international developments to institution’ (\bar{X} =3.87; s.d=1.15). The mean score of this item can be interpreted to indicate that adopting new international developments to current institution is the most important institutional reason for faculty to internationalize. The item that outlines ‘getting to know other societies more closely’ is the highest rated rationale in the sub-dimension of socio-cultural development with a mean score of 3.86 (s.d=1.22). This mean score assures that recognizing other societies is one of the most agreed-to socio-cultural rationales for internationalization among faculty. Lastly, the item which states ‘helping students in developing more intercultural skills’ has the highest mean score in the student development sub-dimension (\bar{X} =3.17; s.d.=1.35). This result can be seen as evidence that the desire to internationalize for improving students’ intercultural competence is the most shared student development rationale among faculty. Table 15 shows incentives for internationalization for the faculty who participated in the survey.

Table 15.

Findings related to the Incentives of Internationalization for Faculty

Incentives	N	\bar{X}	s.d.	Skewness		Kurtosis	
				Statistics	s.e.	Statistics	s.e.
<i>Governmental incentives</i>	973	2.16	.98	.50	.08	-.63	.16
Foreign government policy implementations	973	2.06	1.13	.81	.08	-.27	.16
Central government policy implementations	973	2.14	1.21	.70	.08	-.79	.16
European Union policy implementations	973	2.28	1.20	.53	.08	-.64	.16
<i>Institutional incentives</i>	973	2.52	1.16	.34	.08	-.92	.16
Institution’s academic culture	973	2.87	1.38	.08	.08	-1.23	.16
Guidance of internationalization office	973	2.37	1.31	.55	.08	-.91	.16
Academic leaders of institution	973	2.34	1.31	.58	.08	-.89	.16
<i>Personal incentives</i>	973	3.90	.91	-.72	.08	-.04	.16
International dimension in career plans	973	3.97	1.05	-.93	.08	.33	.16
Effects of past international experiences	973	3.86	1.25	-.91	.08	-.22	.16
Desire of protecting academic freedom	973	3.87	1.14	-.86	.08	-.04	.16
<i>Incentives (overall)</i>	973	2.86	.70	.06	.08	-.47	.16

According to Table 15, *personal incentives* are the most influential encouraging factors of faculty involvement in internationalization (\bar{X} =3.90; s.d=.91). After personal incentives, *institutional incentives* came as the second strongest supporting mechanism that enhances the process of faculty involvement in internationalization (\bar{X} =2.52; s.d=1.16).

However, it can be noticed that there is a remarkable difference between the mean scores for institutional incentives and personal incentives. According to these results, one can think that faculty are motivated more through personal incentives than institutional incentive mechanisms to get involved in internationalization. Moreover, since the sub-dimension of governmental incentives has the lowest mean score on the scale ($\bar{X}=2.16$; s.d=.97), it can be said that governmental motivations are the least effective driver in the faculty internationalization process among the respondents.

The item which states 'international dimension in career plans' has the highest mean score in both the personal incentives sub-dimension and in the whole scale ($\bar{X}=3.97$; s.d=1.05). This can be viewed as evidence that most of the faculty consider an international career plan as a strong motivator and encouragement for internationalization. In the sub-dimension of institutional incentives, the item which refers to "the culture of academic institution" appears the most shared institutional motivation, since it has the highest mean score among the items in the sub-dimension ($\bar{X}=2.87$; s.d=1.38). This finding can be interpreted to mean that organizational culture is one of the most important institutional factors that motivates faculty to participate more in internationalization. The incentives of 'European Union's policy implementations' is the most influencing governmental factor for faculty members, as it has the highest mean score in the sub-dimension ($\bar{X}=2.28$; s.d=1.20). Finally, it can be said that the least motivating incentives come from 'foreign government policy implementations, as the related item has the lowest mean score in the whole scale of incentives ($\bar{X}=2.05$; s.d=1.12).

In addition to rationales and incentives, the third question also addressed the barriers to internationalization for faculty. Table 16 demonstrates the findings related to barriers to internationalization for the faculty who participated in the survey.

Table 16.

Findings related to Barriers to Internationalization for Faculty

Barriers	N	\bar{X}	s.d.	Skewness		Kurtosis	
				Statistics	s.e.	Statistics	s.e.
<i>Lack of financial/bureaucratic support</i>	973	3.32	.97	-.20	.08	-.66	.16
Difficulties in finding financial support	973	4.06	1.14	-1.07	.08	.12	.16
Problems related to central government policy	973	2.91	1.34	.08	.08	-1.13	.16
Bureaucracy in institutional internationalization process	973	2.99	1.37	.01	.08	-1.20	.16
<i>Problems of institutional culture</i>	973	2.52	1.15	.30	.08	-.97	.16
Problems related to Institution's academic culture	973	2.62	1.41	.32	.08	-.18	.16
Lack of colleagues' interest	973	2.40	1.31	.49	.08	-.95	.16
Problems related to attitudes of academic leaders	973	2.52	1.36	.45	.08	-1.03	.16
<i>Barriers (overall)</i>	973	2.91	.89	-.02	.08	-.98	.16

Table 16 shows that the most shared barrier to internationalization for faculty is the *lack of financial/bureaucratic support* as the sub-dimension's mean score is higher than the mean score of 'problems of institutional culture' sub-dimension (\bar{X} =3.31; s.d=.97). It can be commented that the most hindering factor in faculty's internationalization efforts is linked to the 'difficulties in finding financial support', as the item has the highest mean score in the barriers scale (\bar{X} =4.06; s.d=1.14).

In addition, since the *problems of institutional culture* sub-dimension has a considerable amount of mean score, it can be thought that institutional culture may cause lack of interest for faculty internationalization as well (\bar{X} =2.52; s.d=1.15). According to mean scores in the sub-dimension, academic culture in higher education institutions is considered the most important barrier related to internationalization (\bar{X} =2.62; s.d=1.41).

Significant differences according to demographic variables. The fourth research question was "Do the faculty involvement in, rationales and incentives for, and barriers to, internationalization significantly differ according to demographic variables"? Table 17 shows the analysis results of independent samples *t*-tests that were applied to determine the significant differences between the responses of female and male participants.

Table 17.

Findings related to the Gender Differences in Faculty Responses

Variable	Gender	N	\bar{X}	s.d.	t	d.f.	p*	d**	Dif.																																																																																																																																																																		
Involvement in internationalization	Female	378	2.46	.76	-.05	863.49	.959																																																																																																																																																																				
	Male	595	2.45	.85						Rationales	Female	378	3.59	.71	-1.83	971	.068			Male	595	3.50	.70	Academic development	Female	378	4.41	.77	-3.53	971	.000*	.23	2<1	Male	595	4.23	.78	Institutional development	Female	378	3.56	1.09	1.10	971	.270			Male	595	3.64	1.06	Sociocultural development	Female	378	3.36	1.11	-2.21	971	.028*	.14	2<1	Male	595	3.20	1.12	Student development	Female	378	3.02	1.19	-.95	971	.341			Male	595	2.95	1.16	Incentives	Female	378	2.87	.69	-.19	971	.846			Male	595	2.86	.71	Governmental incentives	Female	378	2.07	.97	2.34	971	.020*	-.15	1<2	Male	595	2.22	.99	Institutional incentives	Female	378	2.47	1.18	1.09	971	.274			Male	595	2.56	1.14	Personal incentives	Female	378	4.06	.89	-4.41	971	.000*	.29	2<1	Male	595	3.80	.90	Barriers	Female	378	2.91	.89	.34	971	.737			Male	595	2.93	.89	Financial/bureaucratic support	Female	378	3.35	.97	-.64	971	.519			Male	595	3.30	.97	Institutional culture	Female	378	2.47	1.16	1.06	971	.290
Rationales	Female	378	3.59	.71	-1.83	971	.068																																																																																																																																																																				
	Male	595	3.50	.70						Academic development	Female	378	4.41	.77	-3.53	971	.000*	.23	2<1	Male	595	4.23	.78	Institutional development	Female	378	3.56	1.09	1.10	971	.270			Male	595	3.64	1.06	Sociocultural development	Female	378	3.36	1.11	-2.21	971	.028*	.14	2<1	Male	595	3.20	1.12	Student development	Female	378	3.02	1.19	-.95	971	.341			Male	595	2.95	1.16	Incentives	Female	378	2.87	.69	-.19	971	.846			Male	595	2.86	.71	Governmental incentives	Female	378	2.07	.97	2.34	971	.020*	-.15	1<2	Male	595	2.22	.99	Institutional incentives	Female	378	2.47	1.18	1.09	971	.274			Male	595	2.56	1.14	Personal incentives	Female	378	4.06	.89	-4.41	971	.000*	.29	2<1	Male	595	3.80	.90	Barriers	Female	378	2.91	.89	.34	971	.737			Male	595	2.93	.89	Financial/bureaucratic support	Female	378	3.35	.97	-.64	971	.519			Male	595	3.30	.97	Institutional culture	Female	378	2.47	1.16	1.06	971	.290			Male	595	2.55	1.15								
Academic development	Female	378	4.41	.77	-3.53	971	.000*	.23	2<1																																																																																																																																																																		
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Institutional development	Female	378	3.56	1.09	1.10	971	.270																																																																																																																																																																				
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Personal incentives	Female	378	4.06	.89	-4.41	971	.000*	.29	2<1																																																																																																																																																																		
	Male	595	3.80	.90						Barriers	Female	378	2.91	.89	.34	971	.737			Male	595	2.93	.89	Financial/bureaucratic support	Female	378	3.35	.97	-.64	971	.519			Male	595	3.30	.97	Institutional culture	Female	378	2.47	1.16	1.06	971	.290			Male	595	2.55	1.15																																																																																																																								
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*p<.05; ** .2=small effect, .5=moderate effect, .8=large effect

According to Table 17, there is a significant gender difference between the mean scores of participant perceptions related to rationales of academic development and socio-cultural development. Internationalization for both academic development ($\bar{X}=4.41$; s.d=.77) and for socio-cultural development ($\bar{X}=3.36$; s.d=1.11) are more prominent among female faculty than males. However, it can be noted that differences have a small effect in both rationales of academic development and socio-cultural development. The table also shows that there is a significant gender difference in faculty perceptions related to governmental incentives and personal incentives. While governmental incentives are more common among male faculty members as a motivator ($\bar{X}=2.22$; s.d=.99), personal incentives drive female faculty more than males ($\bar{X}=4.06$; s.d=.89). However, the effect size of differences, both for governmental incentives and personal incentives are small.

Table 18 reports the results of one-way ANOVA that were carried out to investigate significant differences according to participants' academic title. Since the result of Levene's test that was performed to assess the homogeneity of variances produced significant results for involvement in internationalization, Welch ANOVA correction was used to determine the differences in faculty internationalization scores.

Table 18.

Findings related to the Academic Rank Differences in Faculty Responses

Variable	Acd. Rank	N	\bar{X}	s.d.	F	d.f.	p*	η^{2**}	Dif.
<i>Involvement in internationalization</i>	Assist. Prof.	312	2.20	.71	28.49	2	.000*	.05	1<2
	Assoc. Prof.	316	2.48	.78		645.97			1<3
	Full Prof.	345	2.66	.87		2<3			
<i>Rationales</i>	Assist. Prof.	312	3.52	.70	.497	2	.609		
	Assoc. Prof.	316	3.52	.71		970			
	Full Prof.	345	3.57	.70					
Academic development	Assist. Prof.	312	4.30	.79	.040	2	.961		
	Assoc. Prof.	316	4.31	.75		990			
	Full Prof.	345	4.29	.81					
Institutional development	Assist. Prof.	312	3.50	1.10	3.52	2	.030*	.01	1<3
	Assoc. Prof.	316	3.61	1.04		990			
	Full Prof.	345	3.76	1.07					
Socio-cultural development	Assist. Prof.	312	3.37	1.08	4.94	2	.007*	.01	3<1
	Assoc. Prof.	316	3.32	1.15		990			3<2
	Full Prof.	345	3.11	1.11					
Student development	Assist. Prof.	312	2.91	1.16	5.58	2	.004*	.01	1<3
	Assoc. Prof.	316	2.86	1.18		990			2<3
	Full Prof.	345	3.14	1.16					
<i>Incentives</i>	Assist. Prof.	312	2.86	.70	.26	2	.772		
	Assoc. Prof.	316	2.88	.67		990			
	Full Prof.	345	2.84	.73					
Governmental incentives	Assist. Prof.	312	2.14	.97	.22	2	.798		
	Assoc. Prof.	316	2.19	.98		990			
	Full Prof.	345	2.14	1.00					
Institutional incentives	Assist. Prof.	312	2.52	1.13	.04	2	.964		
	Assoc. Prof.	316	2.54	1.16		990			
	Full Prof.	345	2.52	1.18					
Personal incentives	Assist. Prof.	312	3.92	.94	.37	2	.693		
	Assoc. Prof.	316	3.92	.85		990			
	Full Prof.	345	3.87	.93					
<i>Barriers</i>	Assist. Prof.	312	2.91	.91	.08	2	.926		
	Assoc. Prof.	316	2.93	.90		990			
	Full Prof.	345	2.91	.86					
Lack of financial/bureaucratic support	Assist. Prof.	312	3.33	1.00	.03	2	.970		
	Assoc. Prof.	316	3.33	.97		990			
	Full Prof.	345	3.31	.94					
Problems of institutional culture	Assist. Prof.	312	2.50	1.18	.13	2	.877		
	Assoc. Prof.	316	2.54	1.16		990			
	Full Prof.	345	2.51	1.13					

*p<.05; **: .00-.06 = very small effect., .06-.14 = moderate effect., .14-... = very large effect

Table 18 shows that faculty involvement in internationalization differs significantly by academic rank. Full professors are the faculty group that have the highest participation scores in internationalization ($\bar{X}=2.66$; s.d=.87). According to the results of the Games-Howell post-hoc test that was performed to determine the differences in group means, full professors engage in internationalization more than both associate professors and assistant professors. In addition, associate professors participate in international activities more than assistant professors ($\bar{X}=2.48$; s.d=.78). Moreover, Table 18 demonstrates that the faculty group having the lowest participation score in internationalization are assistant professors. According to these results, assistant professors participate in internationalization less than both associate professors and full professors. On the other hand, the effect size of the difference is very small.

The differences in faculty perceptions related to institutional development rationale and socio-cultural development rationale are significant with a very small effect according to academic rank. Tukey post-hoc test results showed that socio-cultural development is considered more as a rationale for internationalization by assistant professors than by full professors ($\bar{X}=3.37$; s.d=1.08). However, considering institutional development as a rationale for internationalization is more prominent among full professors than assistant professors. According to findings, assistant professors tend to internationalize for institutional development less than full professors, but full professors consider institutional development as a rationale for internationalization more than assistant professors. ($\bar{X}=3.76$; s.d=1.07). In addition, there is a significant difference in responses related to student development rationale with a very small effect. Student development is seen more as an internationalization rationale among full professors than associate professors and assistant professors ($\bar{X}=3.14$; s.d=1.16).

Table 19 reports one-way ANOVA results that were used to illustrate significant differences according to respondents' academic discipline.

Table 19.

Findings related to the Disciplinary Differences in Faculty Responses

Variable	Discipline	N	\bar{X}	s.d.	F	d.f.	p*	η^{**}	Dif.
Involvement in internationalization	Applied Sci.	508	2.50	.82	2.70	3 969	.044*	.01	4<1
	Arts & Hum.	99	2.54	.90					
	Natural Sci.	130	2.41	.70					
	Soc.&Crea.	236	2.34	.82					
Rationales	Applied Sci.	508	3.53	.67	.58	3 969	.630		
	Arts & Hum.	99	3.52	.77					
	Natural Sci.	130	3.61	.69					
	Soc.&Crea.	236	3.52	.76					
Academic development	Applied Sci.	508	4.33	.80	4.66	3 969	.003*	.01	4<3 3<1
	Arts & Hum.	99	4.21	.74					
	Natural Sci.	130	4.46	.68					
Institutional development	Applied Sci.	508	3.66	1.01	3.72	3 969	.011*	.01	4<3
	Arts & Hum.	99	3.42	1.26					
	Natural Sci.	130	3.78	1.06					
Sociocultural development	Applied Sci.	508	3.11	1.11	13.72	3 969	.000*	.04	3<2 3<4 1<2 1<4
	Arts & Hum.	99	3.47	1.06					
	Natural Sci.	130	3.07	1.14					
Student development	Applied Sci.	508	3.01	1.16	2.47	3 969	.061		
	Arts & Hum.	99	2.97	1.20					
	Natural Sci.	130	3.13	1.22					
Incentives	Applied Sci.	508	2.84	.71	.41	3 969	.742		
	Arts & Hum.	99	2.83	.72					
	Natural Sci.	130	2.90	.69					
	Soc.&Crea.	236	2.89	.68					
Governmental incentives	Applied Sci.	508	2.12	.98	.94	3 969	.418		
	Arts & Hum.	99	2.11	.98					
	Natural Sci.	130	2.21	1.01					
Institutional incentives	Applied Sci.	508	2.56	1.16	1.07	3 969	.360		
	Arts & Hum.	99	2.34	1.15					
	Natural Sci.	130	2.50	1.19					
Personal incentives	Applied Sci.	508	3.85	.92	1.70	3 969	.165		
	Arts & Hum.	99	4.04	.90					
	Natural Sci.	130	3.98	.92					
Barriers	Applied Sci.	508	3.88	.86	.55	3 969	.628		
	Arts & Hum.	99	2.89	.90					
	Arts & Hum.	99	2.99	.89					
	Natural Sci.	130	2.98	.83					
Lack of financial/bureaucratic support	Applied Sci.	508	2.91	.88	1.17	3 969	.321		
	Arts & Hum.	99	3.28	1.01					
	Natural Sci.	130	3.47	.93					
Institutional culture	Applied Sci.	508	3.32	.96	.15	3 969	.931		
	Arts & Hum.	99	2.51	1.15					
	Natural Sci.	130	2.52	1.16					
	Soc.&Crea.	236	2.58	1.16					
	Soc.&Crea.	236	2.50	1.16					

*p<.05; **: .00-.06 = very small effect., .06-.14 = moderate effect., .14-... = very large effect

According to Table 19, faculty involvement in internationalization differs significantly by academic discipline. The results of Tukey post-hoc test indicated that faculty from social and creative sciences participate in internationalization-related activities less than faculty who study applied sciences ($p < .05$).

Table 19 also demonstrates that there are significant discipline differences in faculty responses related to some sub-dimensions of internationalization rationales. Tukey test results showed that academic development is perceived less as a rationale for internationalization among faculty studying natural sciences than among faculty working on applied sciences ($p < .05$). However, it is considered more as a rationale for internationalization among natural sciences faculty than among faculty who study social and creative sciences ($p < .05$). In addition, natural sciences faculty also have more internationalization rationales related to institutional development than faculty studying social and creative sciences ($p < .05$). Moreover, internationalization for socio-cultural development is seen less as a rationale among faculty who study natural sciences than faculty studying arts and humanities, and social and creative sciences ($p < .05$). Also, faculty from applied sciences perceive socio-cultural development as a rationale less than faculty from arts and humanities, and social and creative Sciences ($p < .05$). However, it is important to note that the effect sizes for all differences are very small.

Table 20 presents the results of independent t -tests that were performed to identify significant differences in faculty responses according to faculty's graduate study experiences abroad. Since the Levene's homogeneity of variance test produced a significant value ($p < .05$), related software's 'equal variances not assumed' correction is used for the variables of involvement in internationalization, incentives (overall), and sub-dimensions of personal incentives and academic development.

Table 20.

Findings related to Differences in Faculty Responses according to Graduate Experience

Variable	Grad Study Abroad	N	\bar{X}	s.d.	t	d.f.	p*	d**	Dif.																																																																																																																																																																		
<i>Involvement in internationalization</i>	Yes	595	2.58	.85	6.15	896.57	.000*	.41	2<1																																																																																																																																																																		
	No	378	2.26	.72						<i>Rationales</i>	Yes	595	3.58	.68	2.46	971	.014*	.18	2<1	No	378	3.47	.74	Academic development	Yes	595	4.35	.72	2.41	691.10	.016*	.17	2<1	No	378	4.22	.87	Institutional development	Yes	595	3.68	1.05	2.66	971	.008*	.17	2<1	No	378	3.50	1.10	Sociocultural development	Yes	595	3.23	1.12	-1.07	971	.286			No	378	3.31	1.11	Student development	Yes	595	3.06	1.18	2.82	971	.005*	.18	2<1	No	378	2.85	1.15	<i>Incentives</i>	Yes	595	2.94	.66	4.42	732.11	.000*	.30	2<1	No	378	2.73	.74	Governmental incentives	Yes	595	2.20	1.02	1.86	971	.062			No	378	2.08	.92	Institutional incentives	Yes	595	2.50	1.14	-.65	971	.517			No	378	2.55	1.19	Personal incentives	Yes	595	4.11	.80	9.27	697.12	.000*	.62	2<1	No	378	3.56	.96	<i>Barriers</i>	Yes	595	2.92	.89	-.06	971	.973			No	378	2.92	.89	Financial/bureaucratic support	Yes	595	3.33	.95	.41	971	.678			No	378	3.30	1.00	Institutional culture	Yes	595	2.50	1.17	-.44	971	.661
<i>Rationales</i>	Yes	595	3.58	.68	2.46	971	.014*	.18	2<1																																																																																																																																																																		
	No	378	3.47	.74						Academic development	Yes	595	4.35	.72	2.41	691.10	.016*	.17	2<1	No	378	4.22	.87	Institutional development	Yes	595	3.68	1.05	2.66	971	.008*	.17	2<1	No	378	3.50	1.10	Sociocultural development	Yes	595	3.23	1.12	-1.07	971	.286			No	378	3.31	1.11	Student development	Yes	595	3.06	1.18	2.82	971	.005*	.18	2<1	No	378	2.85	1.15	<i>Incentives</i>	Yes	595	2.94	.66	4.42	732.11	.000*	.30	2<1	No	378	2.73	.74	Governmental incentives	Yes	595	2.20	1.02	1.86	971	.062			No	378	2.08	.92	Institutional incentives	Yes	595	2.50	1.14	-.65	971	.517			No	378	2.55	1.19	Personal incentives	Yes	595	4.11	.80	9.27	697.12	.000*	.62	2<1	No	378	3.56	.96	<i>Barriers</i>	Yes	595	2.92	.89	-.06	971	.973			No	378	2.92	.89	Financial/bureaucratic support	Yes	595	3.33	.95	.41	971	.678			No	378	3.30	1.00	Institutional culture	Yes	595	2.50	1.17	-.44	971	.661			No	378	2.54	1.13								
Academic development	Yes	595	4.35	.72	2.41	691.10	.016*	.17	2<1																																																																																																																																																																		
	No	378	4.22	.87						Institutional development	Yes	595	3.68	1.05	2.66	971	.008*	.17	2<1	No	378	3.50	1.10	Sociocultural development	Yes	595	3.23	1.12	-1.07	971	.286			No	378	3.31	1.11	Student development	Yes	595	3.06	1.18	2.82	971	.005*	.18	2<1	No	378	2.85	1.15	<i>Incentives</i>	Yes	595	2.94	.66	4.42	732.11	.000*	.30	2<1	No	378	2.73	.74	Governmental incentives	Yes	595	2.20	1.02	1.86	971	.062			No	378	2.08	.92	Institutional incentives	Yes	595	2.50	1.14	-.65	971	.517			No	378	2.55	1.19	Personal incentives	Yes	595	4.11	.80	9.27	697.12	.000*	.62	2<1	No	378	3.56	.96	<i>Barriers</i>	Yes	595	2.92	.89	-.06	971	.973			No	378	2.92	.89	Financial/bureaucratic support	Yes	595	3.33	.95	.41	971	.678			No	378	3.30	1.00	Institutional culture	Yes	595	2.50	1.17	-.44	971	.661			No	378	2.54	1.13																						
Institutional development	Yes	595	3.68	1.05	2.66	971	.008*	.17	2<1																																																																																																																																																																		
	No	378	3.50	1.10						Sociocultural development	Yes	595	3.23	1.12	-1.07	971	.286			No	378	3.31	1.11	Student development	Yes	595	3.06	1.18	2.82	971	.005*	.18	2<1	No	378	2.85	1.15	<i>Incentives</i>	Yes	595	2.94	.66	4.42	732.11	.000*	.30	2<1	No	378	2.73	.74	Governmental incentives	Yes	595	2.20	1.02	1.86	971	.062			No	378	2.08	.92	Institutional incentives	Yes	595	2.50	1.14	-.65	971	.517			No	378	2.55	1.19	Personal incentives	Yes	595	4.11	.80	9.27	697.12	.000*	.62	2<1	No	378	3.56	.96	<i>Barriers</i>	Yes	595	2.92	.89	-.06	971	.973			No	378	2.92	.89	Financial/bureaucratic support	Yes	595	3.33	.95	.41	971	.678			No	378	3.30	1.00	Institutional culture	Yes	595	2.50	1.17	-.44	971	.661			No	378	2.54	1.13																																				
Sociocultural development	Yes	595	3.23	1.12	-1.07	971	.286																																																																																																																																																																				
	No	378	3.31	1.11						Student development	Yes	595	3.06	1.18	2.82	971	.005*	.18	2<1	No	378	2.85	1.15	<i>Incentives</i>	Yes	595	2.94	.66	4.42	732.11	.000*	.30	2<1	No	378	2.73	.74	Governmental incentives	Yes	595	2.20	1.02	1.86	971	.062			No	378	2.08	.92	Institutional incentives	Yes	595	2.50	1.14	-.65	971	.517			No	378	2.55	1.19	Personal incentives	Yes	595	4.11	.80	9.27	697.12	.000*	.62	2<1	No	378	3.56	.96	<i>Barriers</i>	Yes	595	2.92	.89	-.06	971	.973			No	378	2.92	.89	Financial/bureaucratic support	Yes	595	3.33	.95	.41	971	.678			No	378	3.30	1.00	Institutional culture	Yes	595	2.50	1.17	-.44	971	.661			No	378	2.54	1.13																																																		
Student development	Yes	595	3.06	1.18	2.82	971	.005*	.18	2<1																																																																																																																																																																		
	No	378	2.85	1.15						<i>Incentives</i>	Yes	595	2.94	.66	4.42	732.11	.000*	.30	2<1	No	378	2.73	.74	Governmental incentives	Yes	595	2.20	1.02	1.86	971	.062			No	378	2.08	.92	Institutional incentives	Yes	595	2.50	1.14	-.65	971	.517			No	378	2.55	1.19	Personal incentives	Yes	595	4.11	.80	9.27	697.12	.000*	.62	2<1	No	378	3.56	.96	<i>Barriers</i>	Yes	595	2.92	.89	-.06	971	.973			No	378	2.92	.89	Financial/bureaucratic support	Yes	595	3.33	.95	.41	971	.678			No	378	3.30	1.00	Institutional culture	Yes	595	2.50	1.17	-.44	971	.661			No	378	2.54	1.13																																																																
<i>Incentives</i>	Yes	595	2.94	.66	4.42	732.11	.000*	.30	2<1																																																																																																																																																																		
	No	378	2.73	.74						Governmental incentives	Yes	595	2.20	1.02	1.86	971	.062			No	378	2.08	.92	Institutional incentives	Yes	595	2.50	1.14	-.65	971	.517			No	378	2.55	1.19	Personal incentives	Yes	595	4.11	.80	9.27	697.12	.000*	.62	2<1	No	378	3.56	.96	<i>Barriers</i>	Yes	595	2.92	.89	-.06	971	.973			No	378	2.92	.89	Financial/bureaucratic support	Yes	595	3.33	.95	.41	971	.678			No	378	3.30	1.00	Institutional culture	Yes	595	2.50	1.17	-.44	971	.661			No	378	2.54	1.13																																																																														
Governmental incentives	Yes	595	2.20	1.02	1.86	971	.062																																																																																																																																																																				
	No	378	2.08	.92						Institutional incentives	Yes	595	2.50	1.14	-.65	971	.517			No	378	2.55	1.19	Personal incentives	Yes	595	4.11	.80	9.27	697.12	.000*	.62	2<1	No	378	3.56	.96	<i>Barriers</i>	Yes	595	2.92	.89	-.06	971	.973			No	378	2.92	.89	Financial/bureaucratic support	Yes	595	3.33	.95	.41	971	.678			No	378	3.30	1.00	Institutional culture	Yes	595	2.50	1.17	-.44	971	.661			No	378	2.54	1.13																																																																																												
Institutional incentives	Yes	595	2.50	1.14	-.65	971	.517																																																																																																																																																																				
	No	378	2.55	1.19						Personal incentives	Yes	595	4.11	.80	9.27	697.12	.000*	.62	2<1	No	378	3.56	.96	<i>Barriers</i>	Yes	595	2.92	.89	-.06	971	.973			No	378	2.92	.89	Financial/bureaucratic support	Yes	595	3.33	.95	.41	971	.678			No	378	3.30	1.00	Institutional culture	Yes	595	2.50	1.17	-.44	971	.661			No	378	2.54	1.13																																																																																																										
Personal incentives	Yes	595	4.11	.80	9.27	697.12	.000*	.62	2<1																																																																																																																																																																		
	No	378	3.56	.96						<i>Barriers</i>	Yes	595	2.92	.89	-.06	971	.973			No	378	2.92	.89	Financial/bureaucratic support	Yes	595	3.33	.95	.41	971	.678			No	378	3.30	1.00	Institutional culture	Yes	595	2.50	1.17	-.44	971	.661			No	378	2.54	1.13																																																																																																																								
<i>Barriers</i>	Yes	595	2.92	.89	-.06	971	.973																																																																																																																																																																				
	No	378	2.92	.89						Financial/bureaucratic support	Yes	595	3.33	.95	.41	971	.678			No	378	3.30	1.00	Institutional culture	Yes	595	2.50	1.17	-.44	971	.661			No	378	2.54	1.13																																																																																																																																						
Financial/bureaucratic support	Yes	595	3.33	.95	.41	971	.678																																																																																																																																																																				
	No	378	3.30	1.00						Institutional culture	Yes	595	2.50	1.17	-.44	971	.661			No	378	2.54	1.13																																																																																																																																																				
Institutional culture	Yes	595	2.50	1.17	-.44	971	.661																																																																																																																																																																				
	No	378	2.54	1.13																																																																																																																																																																							

*p<.05; ** .2=small effect, .5=moderate effect, .8=large effect

Table 20 shows that there is a significant difference in faculty internationalization scores according to study abroad opportunities during their graduate experiences. Faculty who studied abroad during graduate education participate in international activities more than faculty who did not (\bar{X} =2.58; s.d=.85). The results in Table 20 also show that rationales of internationalization differ significantly by graduate level study abroad experiences in some sub-dimensions and overall values. Faculty who had studied abroad during their graduate education have more rationales for internationalization in general, and specifically for academic, institutional, and student development sub-dimensions ($p<.05$). In addition, there are also significant differences in personal incentives and incentives of internationalization overall. Faculty who studied abroad during graduate education have more motivators in

general, and they are motivated through personal incentives more than faculty who did not study abroad during their graduate period. Further, the effect size of the difference in personal incentives is at a considerable level, which is increasing from moderate to large ($d=.61$).

Table 21 demonstrates the results of independent *t*-tests that were applied to determine the differences in faculty responses related to existing managerial responsibility.

Table 21.

Findings related to Differences in Faculty Responses according to Managerial Duty

Variable	Man. Duty	N	\bar{X}	s.d.	t	d.f.	p*	d**	Dif.																																																																																																																																																																		
Involvement in internationalization	Yes	383	2.54	.85	2.68	971	.008*	.17	2<1																																																																																																																																																																		
	No	590	2.40	.79						Rationales	Yes	383	3.61	.66	2.66	872.51	.008*	.17	2<1	No	590	3.49	.73	Academic Development	Yes	383	4.28	.74	-.726	971	.468			No	590	4.31	.81	Institutional Development	Yes	383	3.72	1.01	2.46	869.97	.012*	.17	2<1	No	590	3.54	1.11	Socio-cultural Development	Yes	383	3.32	1.10	1.56	971	.120			No	590	3.22	1.13	Student Development	Yes	383	3.12	1.12	3.00	971	.003*	.20	2<1	No	590	2.89	1.20	Incentives	Yes	383	2.95	.68	3.35	971	.001*	.22	2<1	No	590	2.80	.71	Governmental Incentives	Yes	383	2.30	.98	3.71	991	.000*	.25	2<1	No	590	2.06	.97	Institutional Incentives	Yes	383	2.62	1.14	2.15	971	.032*	.14	2<1	No	590	2.46	1.17	Personal Incentives	Yes	383	3.93	.86	1.00	971	.317			No	590	3.88	.94	Barriers	Yes	383	2.87	.87	-1.47	971	.141			No	590	2.95	.90	Financial/Bureaucratic Support	Yes	383	3.28	.93	-1.15	971	.249			No	590	3.35	1.00	Institutional Culture	Yes	383	2.46	1.13	-1.30	971	.194
Rationales	Yes	383	3.61	.66	2.66	872.51	.008*	.17	2<1																																																																																																																																																																		
	No	590	3.49	.73						Academic Development	Yes	383	4.28	.74	-.726	971	.468			No	590	4.31	.81	Institutional Development	Yes	383	3.72	1.01	2.46	869.97	.012*	.17	2<1	No	590	3.54	1.11	Socio-cultural Development	Yes	383	3.32	1.10	1.56	971	.120			No	590	3.22	1.13	Student Development	Yes	383	3.12	1.12	3.00	971	.003*	.20	2<1	No	590	2.89	1.20	Incentives	Yes	383	2.95	.68	3.35	971	.001*	.22	2<1	No	590	2.80	.71	Governmental Incentives	Yes	383	2.30	.98	3.71	991	.000*	.25	2<1	No	590	2.06	.97	Institutional Incentives	Yes	383	2.62	1.14	2.15	971	.032*	.14	2<1	No	590	2.46	1.17	Personal Incentives	Yes	383	3.93	.86	1.00	971	.317			No	590	3.88	.94	Barriers	Yes	383	2.87	.87	-1.47	971	.141			No	590	2.95	.90	Financial/Bureaucratic Support	Yes	383	3.28	.93	-1.15	971	.249			No	590	3.35	1.00	Institutional Culture	Yes	383	2.46	1.13	-1.30	971	.194			No	590	2.55	1.17								
Academic Development	Yes	383	4.28	.74	-.726	971	.468																																																																																																																																																																				
	No	590	4.31	.81						Institutional Development	Yes	383	3.72	1.01	2.46	869.97	.012*	.17	2<1	No	590	3.54	1.11	Socio-cultural Development	Yes	383	3.32	1.10	1.56	971	.120			No	590	3.22	1.13	Student Development	Yes	383	3.12	1.12	3.00	971	.003*	.20	2<1	No	590	2.89	1.20	Incentives	Yes	383	2.95	.68	3.35	971	.001*	.22	2<1	No	590	2.80	.71	Governmental Incentives	Yes	383	2.30	.98	3.71	991	.000*	.25	2<1	No	590	2.06	.97	Institutional Incentives	Yes	383	2.62	1.14	2.15	971	.032*	.14	2<1	No	590	2.46	1.17	Personal Incentives	Yes	383	3.93	.86	1.00	971	.317			No	590	3.88	.94	Barriers	Yes	383	2.87	.87	-1.47	971	.141			No	590	2.95	.90	Financial/Bureaucratic Support	Yes	383	3.28	.93	-1.15	971	.249			No	590	3.35	1.00	Institutional Culture	Yes	383	2.46	1.13	-1.30	971	.194			No	590	2.55	1.17																						
Institutional Development	Yes	383	3.72	1.01	2.46	869.97	.012*	.17	2<1																																																																																																																																																																		
	No	590	3.54	1.11						Socio-cultural Development	Yes	383	3.32	1.10	1.56	971	.120			No	590	3.22	1.13	Student Development	Yes	383	3.12	1.12	3.00	971	.003*	.20	2<1	No	590	2.89	1.20	Incentives	Yes	383	2.95	.68	3.35	971	.001*	.22	2<1	No	590	2.80	.71	Governmental Incentives	Yes	383	2.30	.98	3.71	991	.000*	.25	2<1	No	590	2.06	.97	Institutional Incentives	Yes	383	2.62	1.14	2.15	971	.032*	.14	2<1	No	590	2.46	1.17	Personal Incentives	Yes	383	3.93	.86	1.00	971	.317			No	590	3.88	.94	Barriers	Yes	383	2.87	.87	-1.47	971	.141			No	590	2.95	.90	Financial/Bureaucratic Support	Yes	383	3.28	.93	-1.15	971	.249			No	590	3.35	1.00	Institutional Culture	Yes	383	2.46	1.13	-1.30	971	.194			No	590	2.55	1.17																																				
Socio-cultural Development	Yes	383	3.32	1.10	1.56	971	.120																																																																																																																																																																				
	No	590	3.22	1.13						Student Development	Yes	383	3.12	1.12	3.00	971	.003*	.20	2<1	No	590	2.89	1.20	Incentives	Yes	383	2.95	.68	3.35	971	.001*	.22	2<1	No	590	2.80	.71	Governmental Incentives	Yes	383	2.30	.98	3.71	991	.000*	.25	2<1	No	590	2.06	.97	Institutional Incentives	Yes	383	2.62	1.14	2.15	971	.032*	.14	2<1	No	590	2.46	1.17	Personal Incentives	Yes	383	3.93	.86	1.00	971	.317			No	590	3.88	.94	Barriers	Yes	383	2.87	.87	-1.47	971	.141			No	590	2.95	.90	Financial/Bureaucratic Support	Yes	383	3.28	.93	-1.15	971	.249			No	590	3.35	1.00	Institutional Culture	Yes	383	2.46	1.13	-1.30	971	.194			No	590	2.55	1.17																																																		
Student Development	Yes	383	3.12	1.12	3.00	971	.003*	.20	2<1																																																																																																																																																																		
	No	590	2.89	1.20						Incentives	Yes	383	2.95	.68	3.35	971	.001*	.22	2<1	No	590	2.80	.71	Governmental Incentives	Yes	383	2.30	.98	3.71	991	.000*	.25	2<1	No	590	2.06	.97	Institutional Incentives	Yes	383	2.62	1.14	2.15	971	.032*	.14	2<1	No	590	2.46	1.17	Personal Incentives	Yes	383	3.93	.86	1.00	971	.317			No	590	3.88	.94	Barriers	Yes	383	2.87	.87	-1.47	971	.141			No	590	2.95	.90	Financial/Bureaucratic Support	Yes	383	3.28	.93	-1.15	971	.249			No	590	3.35	1.00	Institutional Culture	Yes	383	2.46	1.13	-1.30	971	.194			No	590	2.55	1.17																																																																
Incentives	Yes	383	2.95	.68	3.35	971	.001*	.22	2<1																																																																																																																																																																		
	No	590	2.80	.71						Governmental Incentives	Yes	383	2.30	.98	3.71	991	.000*	.25	2<1	No	590	2.06	.97	Institutional Incentives	Yes	383	2.62	1.14	2.15	971	.032*	.14	2<1	No	590	2.46	1.17	Personal Incentives	Yes	383	3.93	.86	1.00	971	.317			No	590	3.88	.94	Barriers	Yes	383	2.87	.87	-1.47	971	.141			No	590	2.95	.90	Financial/Bureaucratic Support	Yes	383	3.28	.93	-1.15	971	.249			No	590	3.35	1.00	Institutional Culture	Yes	383	2.46	1.13	-1.30	971	.194			No	590	2.55	1.17																																																																														
Governmental Incentives	Yes	383	2.30	.98	3.71	991	.000*	.25	2<1																																																																																																																																																																		
	No	590	2.06	.97						Institutional Incentives	Yes	383	2.62	1.14	2.15	971	.032*	.14	2<1	No	590	2.46	1.17	Personal Incentives	Yes	383	3.93	.86	1.00	971	.317			No	590	3.88	.94	Barriers	Yes	383	2.87	.87	-1.47	971	.141			No	590	2.95	.90	Financial/Bureaucratic Support	Yes	383	3.28	.93	-1.15	971	.249			No	590	3.35	1.00	Institutional Culture	Yes	383	2.46	1.13	-1.30	971	.194			No	590	2.55	1.17																																																																																												
Institutional Incentives	Yes	383	2.62	1.14	2.15	971	.032*	.14	2<1																																																																																																																																																																		
	No	590	2.46	1.17						Personal Incentives	Yes	383	3.93	.86	1.00	971	.317			No	590	3.88	.94	Barriers	Yes	383	2.87	.87	-1.47	971	.141			No	590	2.95	.90	Financial/Bureaucratic Support	Yes	383	3.28	.93	-1.15	971	.249			No	590	3.35	1.00	Institutional Culture	Yes	383	2.46	1.13	-1.30	971	.194			No	590	2.55	1.17																																																																																																										
Personal Incentives	Yes	383	3.93	.86	1.00	971	.317																																																																																																																																																																				
	No	590	3.88	.94						Barriers	Yes	383	2.87	.87	-1.47	971	.141			No	590	2.95	.90	Financial/Bureaucratic Support	Yes	383	3.28	.93	-1.15	971	.249			No	590	3.35	1.00	Institutional Culture	Yes	383	2.46	1.13	-1.30	971	.194			No	590	2.55	1.17																																																																																																																								
Barriers	Yes	383	2.87	.87	-1.47	971	.141																																																																																																																																																																				
	No	590	2.95	.90						Financial/Bureaucratic Support	Yes	383	3.28	.93	-1.15	971	.249			No	590	3.35	1.00	Institutional Culture	Yes	383	2.46	1.13	-1.30	971	.194			No	590	2.55	1.17																																																																																																																																						
Financial/Bureaucratic Support	Yes	383	3.28	.93	-1.15	971	.249																																																																																																																																																																				
	No	590	3.35	1.00						Institutional Culture	Yes	383	2.46	1.13	-1.30	971	.194			No	590	2.55	1.17																																																																																																																																																				
Institutional Culture	Yes	383	2.46	1.13	-1.30	971	.194																																																																																																																																																																				
	No	590	2.55	1.17																																																																																																																																																																							

*p<.05; ** .2=small effect, .5=moderate effect, .8=large effect

As shown in Table 21, there is a significant difference in faculty involvement in internationalization according to carrying out managerial duties. Faculty who have managerial responsibilities engage in internationalization more than faculty who do not have a managerial role at their current institutions ($\bar{X}=2.54$; $s.d=1.16$). The table also reports that the rationales and the incentives of internationalization differ by the presence of managerial status. Faculty

who undertake managerial responsibilities have more rationales for internationalization in general (\bar{X} =3.61; s.d=.69), and specifically for institutional development (\bar{X} =3.72; s.d=1.01), and student development (\bar{X} =3.12; s.d=1.12). Moreover, they are motivated more for internationalization through governmental incentives (\bar{X} =2.30; s.d=.98), and institutional incentives (\bar{X} =2.62; s.d=1.14) than faculty who do not have administrative duties at their institution. However, the effect sizes of the differences in all sub-dimensions and in internationalization scores are small ($d < .05$).

Table 22 reports the analysis results of independent *t*-tests that were performed to determine the differences among faculty in terms of their current institution type.

Table 22.

Findings related to Differences in Faculty Responses according to Institution Type

Variable	Inst.Type	N	\bar{X}	s.d.	t	d.f.	p*	d**	Dif.																																																																																																																																																																		
Involvement in internationalization	Public	857	2.43	.82	-2.06	971	.040*	-.20	1<2																																																																																																																																																																		
	Private	116	2.60	.81						Rationales	Public	857	3.54	.70	.08	971	.937			Private	116	3.53	.73	Academic Development	Public	857	4.31	.78	1.31	971	.189			Private	116	4.21	.84	Institutional Development	Public	857	3.60	1.07	-1.67	971	.096			Private	116	3.78	1.06	Sociocultural Development	Public	857	3.29	1.11	2.32	971	.021*	.22	2<1	Private	116	3.04	1.15	Student Development	Public	857	2.96	1.16	-1.37	971	.171			Private	116	3.12	1.26	Incentives	Public	857	2.85	.70	-1.48	971	.138			Private	116	2.95	.68	Governmental Incentives	Public	857	2.16	.98	1.42	971	.155			Private	116	2.04	.97	Institutional Incentives	Public	857	2.50	1.16	-1.67	971	.096			Private	116	2.69	1.15	Personal Incentives	Public	857	3.87	.91	-2.87	971	.004*	.29	1<2	Private	116	4.13	.87	Barriers	Public	857	2.96	.88	3.69	971	.000*	.37	2<1	Private	116	2.63	.90	Financial/Bureaucratic Support	Public	857	3.34	.97	1.90	971	.058			Private	116	3.16	.95	Institutional Culture	Public	857	2.57	1.16	4.38	971	.000*
Rationales	Public	857	3.54	.70	.08	971	.937																																																																																																																																																																				
	Private	116	3.53	.73						Academic Development	Public	857	4.31	.78	1.31	971	.189			Private	116	4.21	.84	Institutional Development	Public	857	3.60	1.07	-1.67	971	.096			Private	116	3.78	1.06	Sociocultural Development	Public	857	3.29	1.11	2.32	971	.021*	.22	2<1	Private	116	3.04	1.15	Student Development	Public	857	2.96	1.16	-1.37	971	.171			Private	116	3.12	1.26	Incentives	Public	857	2.85	.70	-1.48	971	.138			Private	116	2.95	.68	Governmental Incentives	Public	857	2.16	.98	1.42	971	.155			Private	116	2.04	.97	Institutional Incentives	Public	857	2.50	1.16	-1.67	971	.096			Private	116	2.69	1.15	Personal Incentives	Public	857	3.87	.91	-2.87	971	.004*	.29	1<2	Private	116	4.13	.87	Barriers	Public	857	2.96	.88	3.69	971	.000*	.37	2<1	Private	116	2.63	.90	Financial/Bureaucratic Support	Public	857	3.34	.97	1.90	971	.058			Private	116	3.16	.95	Institutional Culture	Public	857	2.57	1.16	4.38	971	.000*	.42	2<1	Private	116	2.11	1.05								
Academic Development	Public	857	4.31	.78	1.31	971	.189																																																																																																																																																																				
	Private	116	4.21	.84						Institutional Development	Public	857	3.60	1.07	-1.67	971	.096			Private	116	3.78	1.06	Sociocultural Development	Public	857	3.29	1.11	2.32	971	.021*	.22	2<1	Private	116	3.04	1.15	Student Development	Public	857	2.96	1.16	-1.37	971	.171			Private	116	3.12	1.26	Incentives	Public	857	2.85	.70	-1.48	971	.138			Private	116	2.95	.68	Governmental Incentives	Public	857	2.16	.98	1.42	971	.155			Private	116	2.04	.97	Institutional Incentives	Public	857	2.50	1.16	-1.67	971	.096			Private	116	2.69	1.15	Personal Incentives	Public	857	3.87	.91	-2.87	971	.004*	.29	1<2	Private	116	4.13	.87	Barriers	Public	857	2.96	.88	3.69	971	.000*	.37	2<1	Private	116	2.63	.90	Financial/Bureaucratic Support	Public	857	3.34	.97	1.90	971	.058			Private	116	3.16	.95	Institutional Culture	Public	857	2.57	1.16	4.38	971	.000*	.42	2<1	Private	116	2.11	1.05																						
Institutional Development	Public	857	3.60	1.07	-1.67	971	.096																																																																																																																																																																				
	Private	116	3.78	1.06						Sociocultural Development	Public	857	3.29	1.11	2.32	971	.021*	.22	2<1	Private	116	3.04	1.15	Student Development	Public	857	2.96	1.16	-1.37	971	.171			Private	116	3.12	1.26	Incentives	Public	857	2.85	.70	-1.48	971	.138			Private	116	2.95	.68	Governmental Incentives	Public	857	2.16	.98	1.42	971	.155			Private	116	2.04	.97	Institutional Incentives	Public	857	2.50	1.16	-1.67	971	.096			Private	116	2.69	1.15	Personal Incentives	Public	857	3.87	.91	-2.87	971	.004*	.29	1<2	Private	116	4.13	.87	Barriers	Public	857	2.96	.88	3.69	971	.000*	.37	2<1	Private	116	2.63	.90	Financial/Bureaucratic Support	Public	857	3.34	.97	1.90	971	.058			Private	116	3.16	.95	Institutional Culture	Public	857	2.57	1.16	4.38	971	.000*	.42	2<1	Private	116	2.11	1.05																																				
Sociocultural Development	Public	857	3.29	1.11	2.32	971	.021*	.22	2<1																																																																																																																																																																		
	Private	116	3.04	1.15						Student Development	Public	857	2.96	1.16	-1.37	971	.171			Private	116	3.12	1.26	Incentives	Public	857	2.85	.70	-1.48	971	.138			Private	116	2.95	.68	Governmental Incentives	Public	857	2.16	.98	1.42	971	.155			Private	116	2.04	.97	Institutional Incentives	Public	857	2.50	1.16	-1.67	971	.096			Private	116	2.69	1.15	Personal Incentives	Public	857	3.87	.91	-2.87	971	.004*	.29	1<2	Private	116	4.13	.87	Barriers	Public	857	2.96	.88	3.69	971	.000*	.37	2<1	Private	116	2.63	.90	Financial/Bureaucratic Support	Public	857	3.34	.97	1.90	971	.058			Private	116	3.16	.95	Institutional Culture	Public	857	2.57	1.16	4.38	971	.000*	.42	2<1	Private	116	2.11	1.05																																																		
Student Development	Public	857	2.96	1.16	-1.37	971	.171																																																																																																																																																																				
	Private	116	3.12	1.26						Incentives	Public	857	2.85	.70	-1.48	971	.138			Private	116	2.95	.68	Governmental Incentives	Public	857	2.16	.98	1.42	971	.155			Private	116	2.04	.97	Institutional Incentives	Public	857	2.50	1.16	-1.67	971	.096			Private	116	2.69	1.15	Personal Incentives	Public	857	3.87	.91	-2.87	971	.004*	.29	1<2	Private	116	4.13	.87	Barriers	Public	857	2.96	.88	3.69	971	.000*	.37	2<1	Private	116	2.63	.90	Financial/Bureaucratic Support	Public	857	3.34	.97	1.90	971	.058			Private	116	3.16	.95	Institutional Culture	Public	857	2.57	1.16	4.38	971	.000*	.42	2<1	Private	116	2.11	1.05																																																																
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	Private	116	2.95	.68						Governmental Incentives	Public	857	2.16	.98	1.42	971	.155			Private	116	2.04	.97	Institutional Incentives	Public	857	2.50	1.16	-1.67	971	.096			Private	116	2.69	1.15	Personal Incentives	Public	857	3.87	.91	-2.87	971	.004*	.29	1<2	Private	116	4.13	.87	Barriers	Public	857	2.96	.88	3.69	971	.000*	.37	2<1	Private	116	2.63	.90	Financial/Bureaucratic Support	Public	857	3.34	.97	1.90	971	.058			Private	116	3.16	.95	Institutional Culture	Public	857	2.57	1.16	4.38	971	.000*	.42	2<1	Private	116	2.11	1.05																																																																														
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	Private	116	2.04	.97						Institutional Incentives	Public	857	2.50	1.16	-1.67	971	.096			Private	116	2.69	1.15	Personal Incentives	Public	857	3.87	.91	-2.87	971	.004*	.29	1<2	Private	116	4.13	.87	Barriers	Public	857	2.96	.88	3.69	971	.000*	.37	2<1	Private	116	2.63	.90	Financial/Bureaucratic Support	Public	857	3.34	.97	1.90	971	.058			Private	116	3.16	.95	Institutional Culture	Public	857	2.57	1.16	4.38	971	.000*	.42	2<1	Private	116	2.11	1.05																																																																																												
Institutional Incentives	Public	857	2.50	1.16	-1.67	971	.096																																																																																																																																																																				
	Private	116	2.69	1.15						Personal Incentives	Public	857	3.87	.91	-2.87	971	.004*	.29	1<2	Private	116	4.13	.87	Barriers	Public	857	2.96	.88	3.69	971	.000*	.37	2<1	Private	116	2.63	.90	Financial/Bureaucratic Support	Public	857	3.34	.97	1.90	971	.058			Private	116	3.16	.95	Institutional Culture	Public	857	2.57	1.16	4.38	971	.000*	.42	2<1	Private	116	2.11	1.05																																																																																																										
Personal Incentives	Public	857	3.87	.91	-2.87	971	.004*	.29	1<2																																																																																																																																																																		
	Private	116	4.13	.87						Barriers	Public	857	2.96	.88	3.69	971	.000*	.37	2<1	Private	116	2.63	.90	Financial/Bureaucratic Support	Public	857	3.34	.97	1.90	971	.058			Private	116	3.16	.95	Institutional Culture	Public	857	2.57	1.16	4.38	971	.000*	.42	2<1	Private	116	2.11	1.05																																																																																																																								
Barriers	Public	857	2.96	.88	3.69	971	.000*	.37	2<1																																																																																																																																																																		
	Private	116	2.63	.90						Financial/Bureaucratic Support	Public	857	3.34	.97	1.90	971	.058			Private	116	3.16	.95	Institutional Culture	Public	857	2.57	1.16	4.38	971	.000*	.42	2<1	Private	116	2.11	1.05																																																																																																																																						
Financial/Bureaucratic Support	Public	857	3.34	.97	1.90	971	.058																																																																																																																																																																				
	Private	116	3.16	.95						Institutional Culture	Public	857	2.57	1.16	4.38	971	.000*	.42	2<1	Private	116	2.11	1.05																																																																																																																																																				
Institutional Culture	Public	857	2.57	1.16	4.38	971	.000*	.42	2<1																																																																																																																																																																		
	Private	116	2.11	1.05																																																																																																																																																																							

*p<.05;

**.2=small effect,

.5=moderate effect,

.8=large effect

According to Table 22, there is a significant difference in faculty involvement in internationalization with a small effect according to institution type. Faculty who work at private universities participate in internationalization more than faculty working in public higher education institutions ($\bar{X}=2.60$; s.d=.81). There are also significant differences in rationales and incentives of internationalization according to institution type. Faculty who work at private universities have fewer rationales related to socio-cultural development than faculty working in public universities ($\bar{X}=3.04$; s.d=1.15). However, considering personal incentives as a motivator for internationalization is more common among faculty working in private universities than faculty who work at public institutions. These results can be interpreted to indicate that faculty working in public universities have more socio-cultural reasons to internationalize; however, they tend to be motivated less through personal incentives compared to faculty who work at private universities. The effect size of the differences is small in socio-cultural development rationale ($d=.22$), and increasing from small to moderate in personal incentives ($d=.29$).

In addition to rationales and incentives, faculty responses related to barriers to internationalization in general, and in barriers related to institutional culture sub-dimension, differ significantly according to institution type. Faculty at private universities face fewer barriers to internationalization than faculty working at public universities ($\bar{X}=2.63$; s.d=.90). In addition, they are less hindered by institutional culture as a barrier to internationalization ($\bar{X}=2.11$; s.d=1.05). The effect sizes of the differences are increasing from small to moderate for both barriers in general ($d=.37$) and barriers related to institutional culture ($d=.42$).

Table 23 shows the analysis results of one-way ANOVA that were used to identify the differences in faculty responses according to establishment date of current institution.

Table 23.

Findings related to Differences in Faculty Responses according to the Establishment Date of Current Institution

Variable	Est. Date	N	\bar{X}	s.d.	F	d.f.	p*	η^{**}	Dif.
<i>Involvement in internationalization</i>	Pre-1992	570	2.51	.84	3.66	2	.026*	.01	2<1
	1992-2005	237	2.38	.77		970			3<1
	Post-2005	166	2.35	.80					
<i>Rationales</i>	Pre-1992	570	3.51	.71	2.04	2	.130		
	1992-2005	237	3.54	.72		990			
	Post-2005	166	3.63	.64					
Academic development	Pre-1992	570	4.32	.79	.972	2	.379		
	1992-2005	237	4.24	.81		990			
	Post-2005	166	4.32	.74					
Institutional development	Pre-1992	570	3.62	1.08	1.24	2	.288		
	1992-2005	237	3.60	1.11		990			
	Post-2005	166	3.55	.99					
Socio-cultural development	Pre-1992	570	3.17	1.11	4.78	2	.009*	.01	1<3
	1992-2005	237	3.36	1.10		990			
	Post-2005	166	3.43	1.15					
Student development	Pre-1992	570	2.94	1.18	.82	2	.442		
	1992-2005	237	3.01	1.17		990			
	Post-2005	166	3.06	1.15					
<i>Incentives</i>	Pre-1992	570	2.84	.70	.75	2	.475		
	1992-2005	237	2.88	.69		990			
	Post-2005	166	2.91	.71					
Governmental incentives	Pre-1992	570	2.07	.97	6.05	2	.002*	.002	1<2
	1992-2005	237	2.26	.98		990			1<3
	Post-2005	166	2.33	1.01					
Institutional incentives	Pre-1992	570	2.55	1.15	.94	2	.389		
	1992-2005	237	2.43	1.17		990			
	Post-2005	166	2.56	1.15					
Personal incentives	Pre-1992	570	3.90	.90	.50	2	.607		
	1992-2005	237	3.94	.95		990			
	Post-2005	166	3.85	.88					
<i>Barriers</i>	Pre-1992	570	2.92	.88	.96	2	.382		
	1992-2005	237	2.97	.93		990			
	Post-2005	166	2.84	.87					
Financial/bureaucratic support	Pre-1992	570	3.33	.98	1.12	2	.325		
	1992-2005	237	3.37	.96		990			
	Post-2005	166	3.23	.95					
Institutional culture	Pre-1992	570	2.52	1.16	.38	2	.681		
	1992-2005	237	2.56	1.16		990			
	Post-2005	166	2.46	1.11					

*p<.05; **: .00-.06 = very small effect., .06-.14 = moderate effect , .14-... = very large effect

Table 23 demonstrates that there is a significant difference in internationalization scores of faculty according to the establishment date of their current institution (\bar{X} =2.51; s.d=.84). According the findings in Table 23, faculty who work at institutions that were established before 1992 have the highest participation scores in internationalization. Tukey test results that were run to identify the difference between the groups showed that the most

internationally active faculty among the participants work at higher education institutions that were established before 1992. In addition, faculty working at institutions that were established between 1992 and 2005 participate in internationalization more than faculty who work at institutions that were established after 2006. Table 23 also shows that faculty who participate least in internationalization among the respondents work at universities that were established after 2006. However, it can be noted that the effect size of the establishment date of institutions on faculty involvement in internationalization is very small ($\eta^2 = .01$).

The findings in Table 23 indicate that there are significant differences in some sub-dimensions of internationalization rationales and incentives according to establishment date of institution. Considering socio-cultural development as a rationale for internationalization differs significantly by the establishment date of the faculty's current institution. According to Tukey post-hoc test results, socio-cultural development is considered less as a rationale for internationalization among faculty who work at institutions established before 1992 than faculty working at institutions established after 2006 ($\bar{X}=3.17$; $s.d=1.11$). In addition, responses on being motivated through governmental incentives significantly differ among faculty according to results in Table 23. Tukey post-hoc test results showed that faculty who works at institutions that were established before 1992 are less motivated through governmental incentives than both the faculty working at institutions that were established between 1992-2005 and institutions that were established after 2005 ($\bar{X}=2.07$; $s.d=.97$).

Table 24 presents the results of One-Way ANOVA tests that were performed to analyze the differences among participants in terms of geographical regions. Since the Levene's tests for homogeneity of variances produced significant values for rationale of academic development and governmental incentives sub-dimensions, Welch ANOVA correction was used to compare the group means for these two variables.

Table 24.

Findings related to Differences in Faculty Responses according to Geographical Region

Variable	Geog. Reg.	N	\bar{X}	s.d.	F	d.f.	p*	η^{**}	Dif.
<i>Involvement in internationalization</i>	Aegean	173	2.46	.75	2.57	6 966	.018*	.02	2<5
	Black Sea	91	2.26	.76					
	Cent. Ant.	224	2.50	.83					
	East. Ant.	75	2.29	.84					
	Marmara	318	2.55	.85					
	Mediterranean	76	2.35	.82					
	Southern East.	16	2.28	.68					
<i>Rationales</i>	Aegean	173	3.63	.66	1.58	6 966	.149		
	Black Sea	91	3.54	.68					
	Cent. Ant.	224	3.46	.71					
	East. Ant.	75	3.46	.81					
	Marmara	318	3.55	.72					
	Mediterranean	76	3.53	.66					
	Southern East.	16	3.80	.57					
Academic development	Aegean	173	4.34	.77	1.67	6 155.58	.128		
	Black Sea	91	4.27	.79					
	Cent. Ant.	224	4.24	.83					
	East. Ant.	75	4.19	.87					
	Marmara	318	4.35	.76					
	Mediterranean	76	4.23	.71					
	Southern East.	16	4.62	.57					
Institutional development	Aegean	173	3.73	.99	1.41	6 966	.208		
	Black Sea	91	3.50	1.01					
	Cent. Ant.	224	3.51	1.06					
	East. Ant.	75	3.49	1.17					
	Marmara	318	3.69	1.13					
	Mediterranean	76	3.52	1.03					
	Southern East.	16	3.69	1.11					
Socio-cultural development	Aegean	173	3.44	1.09	2.13	6 966	.048	.01	
	Black Sea	91	3.33	1.10					
	Cent. Ant.	224	3.20	1.13					
	East. Ant.	75	3.45	1.07					
	Marmara	318	3.13	1.14					
	Mediterranean	76	3.28	1.08					
	Southern East.	16	3.52	1.23					
Student development	Aegean	173	3.03	1.22	1.56	6 966	.155		
	Black Sea	91	3.07	1.05					
	Cent. Ant.	224	2.88	1.16					
	East. Ant.	75	2.71	1.25					
	Marmara	318	3.02	1.19					
	Mediterranean	76	3.08	1.04					
	Southern East.	16	3.37	1.19					
<i>Incentives</i>	Aegean	173	2.83	.73	.282	6 966	.946		
	Black Sea	91	2.82	.72					
	Cent. Ant.	224	2.85	.60					
	East. Ant.	75	2.83	.78					
	Marmara	318	2.90	.68					
	Mediterranean	76	2.90	.62					
	Southern East.	16	2.86	.66					

Table 24.
Continued.

Variable	Geog. Reg.	N	\bar{X}	s.d.	F	d.f.	p*	η^{**}	Dif.
Governmental incentives	Aegean	173	2.11	.99	2.30	6 152.74	.037*	.01	
	Black Sea	91	2.27	.99					
	Cent. Ant.	224	2.06	.97					
	East. Ant.	75	2.35	1.06					
	Marmara	318	2.11	.99					
	Mediterranean	76	2.39	.78					
	Southern East.	16	2.37	1.21					
Institutional incentives	Aegean	173	2.47	1.18	1.23	6 966	.286		
	Black Sea	91	2.41	1.18					
	Cent. Ant.	224	2.61	1.17					
	East. Ant.	75	2.53	1.14					
	Marmara	318	2.54	1.16					
	Mediterranean	76	2.60	1.10					
	Southern East.	16	1.90	.94					
Personal incentives	Aegean	173	3.93	.96	4.02	6 966	.001*	.02	4<5
	Black Sea	91	3.78	.92					
	Cent. Ant.	224	3.87	.91					
	East. Ant.	75	3.62	1.00					
	Marmara	318	4.04	.85					
	Mediterranean	76	3.70	.81					
	Southern East.	16	4.31	.67					
Barriers	Aegean	173	3.02	.88	3.28	6 966	.003*	.02	3<2
	Black Sea	91	3.13	.89					
	Cent. Ant.	224	2.80	.88					
	East. Ant.	75	3.00	.91					
	Marmara	318	2.84	.89					
	Mediterranean	76	2.90	.88					
	Southern East.	16	3.40	.71					
Financial/bureaucratic support	Aegean	173	3.46	.92	1.75	6 966	.107		
	Black Sea	91	3.46	.96					
	Cent. Ant.	224	3.25	.96					
	East. Ant.	75	3.18	1.05					
	Marmara	318	3.28	1.00					
	Mediterranean	76	3.26	.96					
	Southern East.	16	3.60	.77					
Institutional culture	Aegean	173	2.58	1.15	4.30	6 966	.000*	.03	3<4
	Black Sea	91	2.81	1.15					
	Cent. Ant.	224	2.35	1.17					
	East. Ant.	75	2.83	1.13					
	Marmara	318	2.40	1.13					
	Mediterranean	76	2.53	1.10					
	Southern East.	16	3.20	1.18					

*p<.05; ** .00-.06 = very small effect., .06-.14 = moderate effect., .14-... = very large effect

Table 24 demonstrates that there is a significant difference in involvement in internationalization according to geographical region of the faculty's current institution. The results of Tukey post-hoc tests that were performed to identify the differences between group means showed that faculty whose institution is located in the Black Sea region are involved in

internationalization less than faculty who work in the Marmara region ($p < .05$). However, the effect size of the geographical region on faculty internationalization involvement score is very small ($\eta = .02$). In addition to internationalization scores, faculty responses also differ significantly in some sub-dimensions of rationales and incentives for internationalization. The results in Table 24 also demonstrate that considering socio-cultural development as a rationale for internationalization differs according to geographical region. In addition, faculty responses related to being motivating through governmental incentives differ by the geographical region of participants' current institution. However, Tukey test results did not show any significant differences between groups in these two sub-dimensions. Furthermore, responses on the sub-dimension of personal incentives also differ according to geographical region. Being motivated for internationalization through personal incentives is seen more among faculty who work in the Marmara region than faculty whose institutions are located in Eastern Anatolia and the Mediterranean regions ($p < .05$).

With regard to barriers to internationalization for faculty, participant responses differ significantly in overall results according to geographical regions. In addition, faculty views on barriers specifically related to institutional culture sub-dimension differ significantly by geographical region, as well. According to Tukey test results, faculty working in the Black Sea region face more barriers to internationalization in general than faculty who work in the Central Anatolia region ($p < .05$). In addition, internationalization barriers related to institutional culture are seen more among faculty who work in the Central Anatolia region than faculty working in the Black Sea and Eastern Anatolia regions ($p < .05$). Moreover, according to faculty responses, barriers of institutional culture are seen less in the Marmara region institutions than in institutions located in the Black Sea region ($p < .05$). It is important to note that the effect size of the differences is at very small in all comparisons of rationales, incentives and barriers in terms of geographical region ($\eta < .06$).

Relationships between involvement in internationalization, rationales, incentives and barriers. The fifth research question focused on the relationships between faculty involvement in, rationales and incentives for, and barriers to, internationalization. To analyze the relationships, Pearson Correlation scores were computed and reported below in Table 25.

Table 25.

Correlations between Variables according to Faculty Responses

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
1. INT.	1.00												
2. RAT.	.23**	1.00											
3. R_ACA	.17**	.61**	1.00										
4. R_INS	.20**	.76**	.43**	1.00									
5. R_SOC	.03	.56**	.14**	.13**	1.00								
6. R_STU	.22**	.76**	.28**	.50**	.19**	1.00							
7. INC.	.20**	.47**	.27**	.41**	.36**	.24**	1.00						
8. I_GOV	.04	.31**	.08**	.19**	.27**	.25**	.73**	1.00					
9. I_INS	.08*	.28**	.09**	.33**	.21**	.21**	.74**	.32**	1.00				
10. I_PER	.31**	.42**	.42**	.32**	.28**	.28**	.58**	.20**	.10**	1.00			
11. BAR.	-.01	.10**	.09**	-.03	.12**	.09**	-.09**	.08*	-.31*	.09**	1.00		
12. B_FIB	.01	.11**	.11**	.02	.10**	.07*	-.09**	-.02	-.23**	.12**	.80**	1.00	
13. B_ICU	-.03	.06	.04	-.06*	.11**	.07*	-.07*	.14**	-.28**	.05	.86**	.39**	1.00

n=973; * p<.05; ** p<.01; (00-.03: low;.03-.05: moderate; .>0.5 high)

According to Table 25, there are significant correlations among some variables and sub-dimensions. *Involvement in internationalization* is significantly and positively correlated with *rationales* ($r=.23$; $p<.01$) and *incentives* ($r=.20$; $p<.01$). The correlations of *rationales-incentives* ($r=.47$; $p<.05$) and *rationales-barriers* ($r=.31$; $p<.05$) are positive and significant, as well. Moreover, there is also a significant but negative correlation between *incentives* and *barriers* ($r=-.09$; $p<.05$). These significant values may indicate common grounds and potential links among variables and can direct further investigations of influential relationships among variables (Çokluk, Şekercioğlu & Büyüköztürk, 2014).

Testing the theoretical model of faculty involvement in internationalization. The last quantitative research question was about testing the model of faculty involvement in internationalization. The model was constructed by the researcher through the conceptual and empirical literature, and aimed to explain faculty involvement in internationalization by the relationships among involvement, rationales, incentives and barriers.

Structural Equation Model (SEM) and path analysis were performed to test the theoretical model. Since SEM is a sensitive technique that can be affected by the sample size (Burnham & Anderson, 2002; Kline, 2011; Tabachnick & Fidel, 2007), the researcher decided to derive a random sample from the data set and perform the analysis on a smaller sample. To determine the size of the smaller sample, studies focusing on methodology of the SEM analysis were examined. Guo and Lee (2007) reviewed 139 SEM studies and reported that “perfect” SEM studies have a sample size between 169 and 290 (as cited in Türkmen, 2011, p. 32). Kline (2011) also indicated that studies which have a sample size between 200 and 300 provide more appropriate Chi-Square results in SEM analysis. Thus, 30 percent of the sample was derived randomly by using SPSS 23, and the analysis of the model test was performed over a data set of 297 cases.

Theoretical model for faculty involvement in internationalization. The purpose of the proposed model was to explain the faculty involvement in internationalization. According to this model, incentives have a mediating role among rationales, barriers and faculty involvement in internationalization. To better understand the influential role of rationales in faculty involvement in internationalization, an initial model examining the direct relationship between rationales and involvement was tested. Figure 4 presents the results of path analysis carried out to test the initial model.

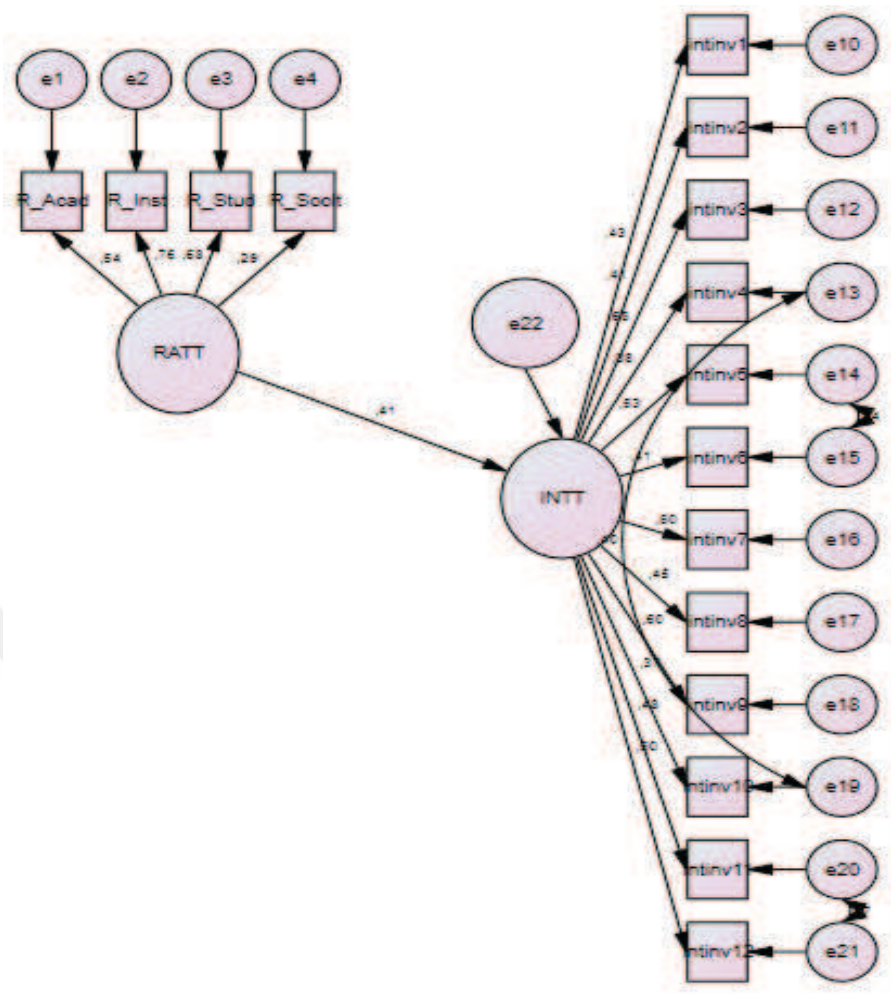


Figure 4. SEM for rationales and faculty involvement in internationalization.

The model was constructed to test the direct relationship between rationales and faculty involvement in internationalization. In order to improve the model fit, three modifications were made between items which cover similar international activities (Breckler, 1990). Therefore, inv4-inv10 (activities on international publications), inv5-inv6 (activities at university/student events international in nature) and inv11-inv12 (activities on international research collaboration) were modified. After the modifications, the model was tested and the fit indices were computed as $\chi^2=187.25$; $df=100$; $\chi^2/df=1.87$; $GFI=.921$; $AGFI=.892$; $CFI=.906$; $SRMR=.060$; $RMSEA=.054$ ($N=297$; $p=.000$). These values were found appropriate to accept the model according to Table 11 (see in Chapter III). Findings demonstrate that the standardized regression coefficient for the relationship between

rationales and faculty involvement in internationalization is $\beta=.41$ (41%), and rationales are one of the influential factors of faculty involvement internationalization.

Following the test of initial model, path analysis with same modifications was run to examine the proposed model for rationales, incentives, barriers and faculty involvement in internationalization. Figure 5 demonstrates the results of SEM analysis for tested model.

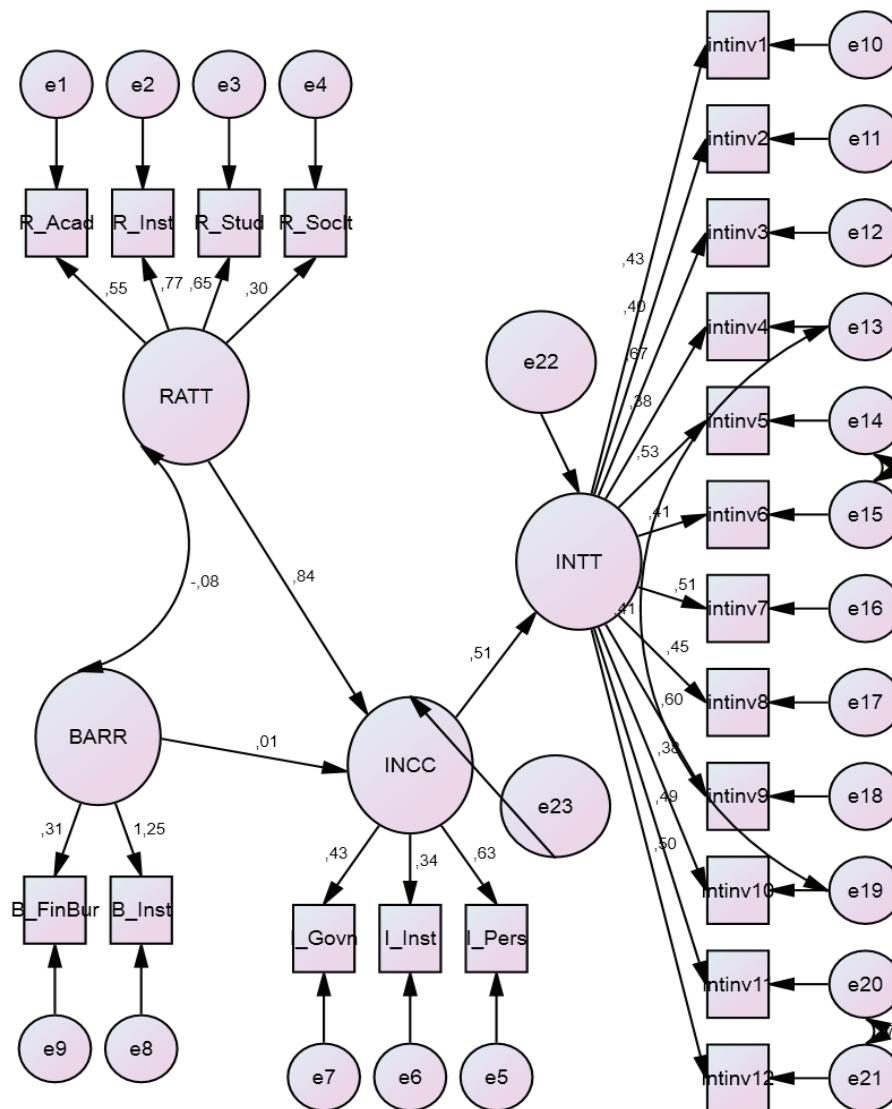


Figure 5. SEM for rationales, incentives, barriers and faculty involvement in internationalization.

The fit indices of the model were computed as $\chi^2=421.92$; $df=182$; $\chi^2/df=2.32$; $GFI=.879$; $AGFI=.847$; $CFI=.810$; $SRMR=.068$; $RMSEA=.067$ ($N=297$; $p=.000$). Since these values are acceptable according to cut-off values in Table 11 (see chapter III), the model is accepted as an explanation of faculty involvement in internationalization. According to Figure 5, through the mediating role of incentives, the standardized regression weight of the relationship for rationales-involvement is .43 ($\beta=.84 \times .51=.43$), and for barriers-involvement is .0051 ($\beta=.01 \times .51=.0051$). Furthermore, findings demonstrate that incentives play mediating role for the relationships among rationales, barriers and involvement ($\beta=.51$).

These findings indicate that the proposed model was accepted as an explanation of the faculty involvement in internationalization. According to model, 51% variance of the faculty involvement in internationalization is explained by the relationships of rationales-involvement and barriers-involvement through the mediating role of incentives. Findings show that faculty rationales have a powerful influence on incentives ($\beta=.84$), and explain %43 of the variance related to faculty involvement in internationalization through the mediating effects of incentives. However, the influence of barriers on faculty involvement can be considered very limited since the standardized regression weight of the relationship was computed near-zero.

As a result, through the accepted model, it was found that rationales and incentives are important predictors of faculty involvement in internationalization. In addition, the scope of faculty rationales has powerful influences on incentives for internationalization and involvement in internationalization. Furthermore, incentives have an influential role and mediating effects in the relationship between faculty rationales and involvement in internationalization.

Qualitative findings

By focusing on a different country context, the qualitative phase of this research aimed at exploring faculty activities, rationales, incentives and barriers related to internationalization in detail and understanding how the importance of the factors in the tested theoretical model would be described. For this reason, this section starts with findings on faculty activities related to internationalization in the selected US context. It then continues by reporting the results gathered on rationales, incentives and barriers of internationalization. Finally, the participant views on the importance of rationales, incentives, barriers and faculty involvement in internationalization are demonstrated at the end of the section.

Internationalization activities among faculty. Faculty members and administrative participants were asked about their international experiences in the academic profession and activities that are carried out for individual and institutional internationalization. Taking the traditional faculty roles into account, participant responses in this part reported in three main themes related to research, curriculum and outreach. In addition, institutional internationalization was included as an additional category at the end in order to provide a better classification for findings.

Research related internationalization activities. Several participants highlighted the international dimension in research to explain faculty's internationalization related activities. Carrying out research on global topics or adding comparative perspectives to existing studies were emphasized as international research activities (F1, F4, F6, F8, F9, F11). In addition, some participants pointed out that they seek opportunities to collaborate with colleagues from abroad in the process of global research development (F2, F3, F4, F6, F11). For instance, an assistant professor commented: "I always look for collaborators that I can work with and I can

trust. You have to understand the [field of study] not only from one country's perspective, but from multiple perspectives” (F11).

Building up academic networks through international conferences and membership in international scientific organizations were other forefront activities of internationalization among the participants (F1, F2, F3, F6, F9, F10, F11). The importance of international conference participation in academic network building was acknowledged by some participants. For instance, an associate professor described her/his international network building by commenting: “A lot of collaboration has been happening by attending conferences, and getting to know scholars in fields that I am interested in. That's how I had collaborations with scholars from [countries in South America]” (F2). A full professor similarly referred to her/his network building in Europe and emphasized the benefits of attendance to international conferences. S/he said: “For instance, I am involved in the [a European Scientific Association]. They have a conference every year. I always go present in that conference. So, that is a chance for me to be a regular participant of European scientific community” (F3).

Seeking international research grants and carrying out research projects abroad were other internationalization related scholarly activities among the interviewees. Some participants referred to grant-providing national and international organizations such as Fulbright Foundation, European Union or National Science Foundation while explaining faculty engagement in internationalization activities (F1, F3, F4, A2). Some others, in addition, emphasized the importance of existing networks in the process of applying for international grants. For instance, a full professor shared her/his experience for an EU project by commenting: “I am involved in a European research project funded by the EU. Part of the reason that I am involved in this is because; I know some of the people who are involved in the project. I worked with them before” (F3).

In a similar way, an assistant professor, who was born in a different country than US, told that s/he selected her/his home country as a research site for a comparative project because of her/his colleagues there (F11). Furthermore, some participants recognized the role of institutional units such as research centers and offices of global initiatives in faculty's international grant seeking process (F5, A3). A full professor, for example, acknowledged the function of a global research center at her/his institution, in her/his own words: "There is the opportunity for young faculty who do not have tenure to write grants. So, they hope to get the grant with this center, and it is great for their promotion" (F5).

In addition to actions given above, participants mentioned efforts of disseminating research globally to describe the international dimension in their academic work. Activities such as being an editor/reviewer in international scientific journals (F9), and disseminating scholarly work to global audience through websites (F4) were emphasized as parts of the international dimension in faculty's research. Furthermore, attending doctoral committees abroad was stated by a full professor as an international research related activity (F6).

Teaching and curriculum related activities. A considerable number of the participants underlined the international dimension in teaching and curriculum related activities to explain faculty internationalization. Interviewees commented on developing international oriented curriculum and including global dimension in lectures to explain the faculty role regarding internationalization at home (A8, F6, F2). For instance, a university administrator reported that s/he encourages faculty members to include a global aspect in their curricular content. She explained the reason behind this encouragement: "The interaction of the student with the faculty member may be the only time that they are asked to think in an international context. I do not want that opportunity to go by without us to bringing any perspectives to students' attention" (A8). Similarly, a full professor mentioned that adding an international dimension in class is important for her/his students in order for them to

understand different approaches at a global level (F6). Moreover, another participant said that because of her/his enthusiasm for international subjects, s/he has taught international oriented courses even though they were not related to her/his field. S/he commented: “For instance, I teach, or have taught in the past the course called [a course name] which truly has no interest in my field, but it was my passion” (F2, associate professor).

Leading/organizing students’ study/training experiences abroad was another prominent international activity among participants. Both administrative and faculty participants emphasized the importance of study abroad in order for their students to gain international perspective and experience (A3, A8, A10, A11, F1, F5, F8). For example, a university administrator said that s/he collaborates with faculty “for the undergraduate study abroad opportunities in terms of integrating study abroad and as much as international education experiences into the regular undergraduate curriculum” (A8).

Similarly, an assistant professor who designs a master’s program said: “We can decide what classes we want to offer and what students are required to take. Right now, we are developing a study abroad course for master's students. It is going to be an elective course. Our faculty will take our students for a few weeks to study there” (F8). Furthermore, organizing study visits for students from other countries was also stated as an international activity (F1, F2). An associate professor articulated her/his experiences on bringing students from abroad:

“One of them [international activities] is this project that I co-direct with [a research center at the university] in which we bring college students who are indigenous and Afro/Latin American to our institution to learn more about [field of study] and indigenous issues. They [the participant students] do this for them, to go back to their universities and communities to not only create a space for them to reflect some of their own problems that they are facing there, but perhaps for them to learn from each other” (F2)

Additionally, working with international students was underlined as one of the faculty's internationalization related activities by several participants (F4, F5, F6, F9, F10, F11). A full professor stated that international students or internationalization related topics in the class have an influence on the way s/he carries out teaching and supervising activities. S/he commented: "I learn more from the students, and what they are researching, and help them at that point to think through what they are trying to study and apply and analyze". S/he, then continued:

"I had several students who had come in, who I was advising or at least on their committee, they were students from Asia or European countries. With them, there might be some topic like 'Ok. Here in the US [the US context of the study topic]'. So, one of the students was studying on [the question that] 'Is this a developing sector in Asian countries?' It should be moved forward in this direction, what kind of investments are governments making in this" (F4).

In addition to class activities, a full professor mentioned that they carry out online teaching and distance education for international students at their institution (F5). Furthermore, another full professor stated that in order to recruit students from abroad they advertise their programs internationally. S/he said: "What you do is that you want to recruit students. You meet wonderful students in another city, in another state or in another country. And of course, you try to say your program is good" (F9).

International outreach activities. Several participants referred to international development activities to describe the faculty role in outreach and community service. International consulting and research activities in specific area of expertise through international development projects were considered an important part of global outreach by several participants (F3, F6, F7, F8, F10). For example, an associate professor, who was involved in an international development project with students from Asia, commented that

s/he thought s/he was able to contribute to the project through his/her expertise. S/he said: “I can do something. I think one of the key points is that faculty have their expertise in their area. If it is about your area, then I think yes, you should be all in, and I certainly was. Because, it was something that I could share, that would be meaningful and useful to these students” (F7).

Faculty participation to global development and capacity building projects was emphasized as a significant part of institutional internationalization (A3, A6). For instance, a university administrator responded that her/his role in the administration is building bridges between faculty, academic units and international development entities. S/he explained her/his role as:

“We are actively looking for projects and opportunities in ways of engaging in thematic areas that are linked to the university's large scale investments such as sustainability, teaching and educational innovation, health, rule of law, some large, broad thematic areas; and then, within that, to try to understand how [name of the university] can build up its connectivity in the industry” (A6).

In addition to research, consulting and grant-based development projects, carrying out voluntary work on global issues was pointed out as an internationalization outreach activity in the interviews (F1, F2, F5). For instance, a full professor told that s/he has colleagues who do voluntary work in less developed parts of the world. S/he commented: “I have a friend in another global research center, and they do volunteer work, for instance. Their last work was in South-East Asia. He says to me he just enjoys the work so much” (F5). Moreover a professor referred to her/his efforts to found a non-profit organization abroad to provide developmental work in that country (F1).

Institutional internationalization activities. While most of the activities reported above can be linked to institutional efforts at internationalization, some participants distinctly

underlined institutional actions to explain faculty's international work. More specifically, a considerable number of the interviewees stated that they help their institutions to establish international collaboration and seek partnerships (F2, F3, F5, F6, F8, F9). For example, by emphasizing the administrative role in establishing institutional international partnerships, a department head commented on her/his experience: “[As a department head] I try to encourage and support the faculty in the department on international collaborations. So, sometimes that means we set up institutional agreements with other places” (F3). A college administrator similarly explained the faculty role in establishing institutional agreements in the words below:

“Then there are more institutionalized international efforts through things like building memoranda of understanding with other universities around the world, and we have done a number of that. That usually derives from the work of individual faculty members. They [faculty members] come back and they say ‘I have a relationship with somebody in South America’, or in Asia, or in Europe, and we would like to create a memorandum of understanding” (A1).

In a similar way, an associate professor provided an example of her/his participation in the process of establishing an institutional partnership agreement as:

“For instance, last year a university in [country in Central America] wanted to collaborate not with me but the college, as whole. And, I was the point person to create inter-institutional agreement. It was greatly facilitated here by my department chair, and by the dean. They really wanted it to happen. So we talked with the administrations, and it was made possible in less than a year” (F2).

Furthermore, an assistant professor commented on helping the institution to write grants for international development projects as a part of faculty's internationalization experiences (F8). Some participants also pointed out their efforts in hosting visiting scholars from abroad to describe the faculty role in institutional internationalization (F3, F5). A

department head reported that s/he promotes both individual and institutional internationalization, in her/his own words: “Sometimes that [support for internationalization] means more individual faculty level, sometimes it means hosting post-doctoral and visiting scholars. We often have two-three of those coming every year. That is my job as department head; trying to make sure that we strengthen those connections and encouraging faculty” (F3). Figure 6 summarizes findings on faculty’s internationalization activities in the selected US context.

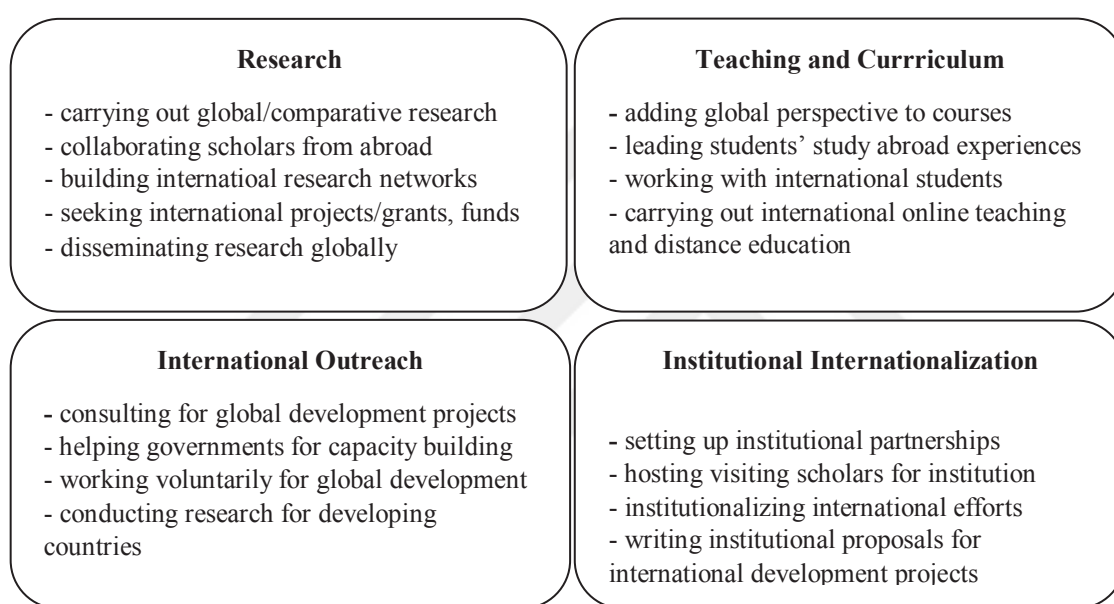


Figure 6. Faculty’s internationalization activities in the selected US context

Faculty rationales for internationalization. This study defines faculty rationales for internationalization as motivations for integrating international, intercultural or global dimension into the teaching, research and service roles of faculty. Taking this definition into account, interviewees were asked to share their experiences and views on faculty rationales for internationalization. Classification of rationales in the quantitative phase; academic development, institutional development, socio-cultural development, and student development, in the quantitative phase; guided the themes for qualitative analysis. In addition,

international development is taken into consideration as an emerging theme according to findings gathered from the US context.

Academic development. Several interviewees including administrative and faculty participants mentioned that academic development is one of the important aims for faculty involvement in internationalization (A1, A3, A5, F3, F6, F8, F9, F10, F11). The nature of scientific and intellectual inquiry and expanding academic knowledge through international experiences were underlined as a rationale for faculty involvement internationalization. For instance, a college administrator commented on rationales: “one of the goals is to understand what is happening internationally, and how it affects us and knowledge production. Basically, knowledge production does not happen in a vacuum, it would benefit from collaboration not only locally, but also internationally.” (A3). The same administrator continued by explaining how faculty understanding on global knowledge production leads internationalization at the college. S/he said: “There are also lots of faculty members who have strong links internationally, and they view this process of globalization and internationalization as a part of knowledge generation. Injection of multiple perspectives and views would be more meaningful for them.” (A3).

Similarly, a full professor emphasized how important natural curiosity about understanding other parts of the world is for her/his academic perspective. S/he said: “First, there is a natural curiosity. It is fascinating how different societies organize and conduct their work and frame their institutions.” (F6). S/he then continued by explaining the role of gaining international perspective to develop new academic insights. S/he commented: “So, if you are going to really understand where you are, you have to expand your horizons and understand the ways of organizing systems and societies. It is a way of giving perspective to your understanding where you are situated” (F6). An associate professor similarly mentioned

her/his academic curiosity as a rationale for participating in an international project. S/he said: “You have to have a degree of curiosity about how the rest of the world is working. We can know how it works here, and we learned how different the organizations and the authority structures were” (F10).

In addition to motivations related to scientific inquiry, some participants also underlined that gaining different perspectives than a US viewpoint can help them advance in their research (A3, A5, F1, F2, F6, F11). For example, an associate professor explained her/his international experience and motivation: “having studies at the [a university abroad] provided me the impetus to do research, to want to do professional development conferences, and provided a different perspective, from my perspective as ‘Anglo’ from the US in terms of the culture, also in terms of my work now” (F1). Another faculty member similarly said: “I think it is important to understand what has been produced outside of the US, and what has been produced in non-English speaking circles. So, that is my impetus for doing that [international work]” (F2). A full professor, moreover, pointed out that an international dimension in her/his work emerges from two main factors that are related to gaining new perspective and building new academic collaboration networks. S/he shared on this about her/his experience:

“For me, for my research that I do, thinking about where I do it really comes down to two things: [The first one] Is there something, a unique thing that we can learn that is very different, different perspectives? The second one is who are my colleagues? I find interesting people to work with, and then wherever they work, I go work with them. I think those are the two driving factors” (F3)

Advancing in one’s research field through international experiences and collaboration was also mentioned by administrative participants as a faculty rationale for internationalization (A3, A5). For example, an administrative staff said that faculty seek

possible opportunities that they can use and expand their research and expertise during institutional internationalization. S/he commented:

“I think, quite a lot [of faculty] are interested in the possibility of doing collaborative research. [giving an example of a group of faculty]. Having these relationships with partner universities where they are engaging with faculty members in research that incorporates their expertise and their contextual experiences is what they need to achieve. They are really excited about building those relationships and being able to advance research and contacts” (A5).

Furthermore, some participants stated that bringing an international dimension or engaging in international collaboration is a natural requirement in their study field (F9, F11). An assistant professor said that s/he uses comparative aspects in her research in order to examine the problems in her/his research field (F11). S/he then continued by referring to the need of international collaboration in her/his research field. S/he said: “I think the way that I approach those research projects, it is probably impossible if I try to do by myself. So, I always look for collaborators that I can work with and I can trust” (F11). Similarly, a full professor who is affiliated with research centers said that although the research centers s/he worked with are local, s/he brings international perspective to those centers since her/his field includes an international/global dimension (F9).

Institutional development. Participants referred to institutional development opportunities while they were explaining faculty rationales for participation in internationalization (A1, A3, A4, A7, A8, F2, F4, F5, F6, F7, F10). A department head mentioned that as a part of her/his administrative role s/he engages in dialogues with delegates from abroad in order to help institutional efforts at establishing international collaboration. S/he said: “For my administrative role, there is some international dimension to it. Because, there are international groups who come and want partnerships. So, you have

meetings with groups from [countries from Asia]" (F6). An associate professor similarly linked her/his international efforts to institutional goals and supporting college's agenda to explain the reason why s/he participated in an international development project. S/he commented:

"I think the connecting piece would be that serving the college is the best interest, or being a college person, somebody who is supporting the college's agenda and moving forward. If the college has something to do with international education, and need my expertise and assistant on that, then certainly this is consistent with moving the college forward" (F7).

Some participants acknowledged the need for institutional revenue generation as a rationale that links faculty's international efforts to institutional internationalization. An associate professor who was involved in international projects mentioned that generating revenue through international development projects helps both the institution and faculty expand their capacity. S/he said: "The number one thing that our dean talks about always is that we need to continue to grow our research budget, we need to grow external funding mechanisms. Because those dollars help us support PhD students, and other things we try to do. I would not say it is the number one driver, but that is always in play. We cannot ignore it" (F10). Similarly, by referring to the need for expanding institutional capacity and resources, a college administrator said:

"It is not only bringing money through international students, but also going after alternative sources of funding that could be brought to the university. It is entrepreneurial in one sense; bringing new type of money to institutions, but also philosophically, it is different type of engagement where universities are not isolated from practices any longer. They are bringing theories and practice together. It does not only talk about how to do international development, but also it does international development as a researching and theorizing institution" (A3).

Some of the interviewees also mentioned the motivation for inclusiveness and diversifying their programs and institutions as a rationale for faculty efforts on internationalization. A full professor said: “We have really good students applying from [an Asian country], and we don't exclude them just because they are from Asia. We look for good students. And of course we pay attention to the local students, we try to have a balance” (F9). S/he then explained the perspective on student recruitment in her/his unit as:

“Our criteria for selectivity are trying to be as diverse and accessible as possible. We want to be recognized for the students that we accepted, not the number of students that we exclude. We don't really care if we have 95 % of access rate, if we would accept we could do that, but we can't. Because we cannot afford that. But for us, the mark of the quality is that who we are including to the program, not who we are excluding” (F9).

Similarly, an administrative staff referred to the aim of enhancing institutional diversity while s/he was describing her/his observation on faculty motivation for supporting institutional internationalization. S/he commented:

We are an inclusive university that is open to people of all cultures and backgrounds, ethnicities and linguistic backgrounds, and we are really excited about that. So, our goal and mission is to include as many international students as we are able to. And with that increase in international cultures, we understand that there might be cultural or academic or other sources of uniqueness that would need somebody to build bridges” (A7).

Socio-cultural development. Several participants referred to socio-cultural development opportunities as rationale for their involvement in internationalization activities (F1, F3, F5, F6, F8, F10). For instance, a full professor said that although arranging scholarly visits for professor from abroad takes a lot of time and energy, s/he continues to host visiting scholars. S/he explained the rationale behind this activity by commenting: “I like languages. I enjoy travelling, meeting people from all over the world. So, for me it is great, fun” (F5). S/he then continued the by explaining one of the motivations behind her/his involvement in

internationalization: “I think for those of us who work internationally, it is really enjoyable meeting people from other countries, and learning their experiences” (F5).

Another full professor underlined the socio-cultural opportunities to explain her/his viewpoint on rationales by saying that “there is natural [rationale] like loving the travel, try other food and cultures” (F6). Similarly, an associate professor mentioned her/his travel and international experience by commenting: “The travel was long, but it was so fascinating to be in a different culture. I did not know the language. But, they were patient with us, with the questions that we asked. And, we learned a lot, and we think the others learned a lot from us. For me, the internal motivation was ‘this is a great opportunity’” (F10).

Some participants emphasized that they need to learn from people who have different cultures and backgrounds in the geographically isolated environment. An associate professor underlined that being culturally, economically and geographically insular as a global power can have an influence on how faculty behave in academia. S/he said: “The US has been an imperial power, and it is also too much navel-gazing. Scholars tend to look very much at what happens in the US, and have less experience or interest in what happens outside the US. And, I think that is a big mistake. I think it is important to understand what has been produced outside of the US” (F2). A full professor similarly explained her/his rationale behind involving international activities by commenting:

“I guess the rationale would be that I worry that in America, we are too insular, and we spend almost all of our time on thinking about ourselves. There is a great deal we can learn from people in other places, and I don't think we enough pay attention to that in our country. So, the opportunity of working with other countries, working with people from other cultures and share ideas and get better ideas, diverse thinking might be the rationale behind that” (F3).

In addition to gaining socio-cultural opportunities individually, some participants also referred to the opportunity of meeting the local community's social and cultural needs to explain the rationale behind engaging in internationalization. For example, a full professor mentioned the geographical needs and focus while s/he was explaining the prior motivation in her/his international borderland efforts. S/he said: "We get lots of our funds from the state, so we have to respond to the local. For example, we do have some borderlands initiatives, so there has been a great emphasis on that; I think we could do more" (F1). A university administrator mentioned the local focus in faculty's internationalization experiences by commenting: "I think part of it is the local rationale or motivation. We are close to the border. We are part of a multi-lingual world. This local priority is about how we work with our neighbors, how we advance good citizenship" (A11).

In the same manner, a college administrator explained the local motivation for internationalization at her/his institution by referring to the socio-cultural needs of the society. S/he commented: "Our priority is to make sure that we are preparing educators and researchers that know how to in turn educate diverse audiences; audiences that do not have a voice, audiences that due to issues such as low economic status or ethnic and minority status affiliation. Those doors are not closed to them because of where they come from, so, that is a huge priority for us" (A2).

In addition, another college administrator underlined that community needs have an important influence on internationalization since they drive faculty at her/his institution and her/his colleagues for internationalization. S/he explained her observation: "Some of it [internationalization efforts] was driven internally by the interests of some faculty members, and college's response to changing domestic and international context. Global education is defined not only going outside and mobility, but also looking inside, and trying to understand

how globalization affects locally”. S/he then continued the motivation for internationalization in her/his college by commenting:

“At the college level, I think the primary motivation [for internationalization] is to respond to globalization issues in a local context. Because the student population is right now still very domestic, US centric. But, the schools are changing, communities face migration issues, and the political issues happening in the world affect the state. Part of it is also responding to these very local issues that are now being affected by globalization. If the communities and schools are changing, we need to change, too” (A3).

Student development. Participants also mentioned that they seek opportunities for international activities in order to help their students gain a better education experience. Several participants emphasized that they consider international activities as a tool that enhances their students’ social and professional perspectives (F1, F5, F6, F7). For example, an associate professor who previously participated in an international development project stated that one of her/his main motivations in getting involved in the project was meeting the students’ needs through her/his expertise. S/he said: “I think the motivation is meeting students' needs, and having the expertise in the background and giving this expertise to these students.” (F7). Similarly, a full professor pointed out that s/he sees internationalization as a way of providing global experiences to her/his students. S/he said:

“We are in a global world that our students need to be able to work with people from all over the world. For my teaching job, I also work with companies, and all these companies are global. So, the students have to know how to work in a global world. So, I have personal super important value that is globally we have many different perspectives. If they are teachers, they are going to have students from all over the world. If they are a worker in a company they are going to be working on global teams” (F5).

Furthermore, an associate professor pointed out that the need to enhance student skills in the era of globalization is a rationale for an international dimension in her/his research.

S/he commented:

“What I am trying to promote for my research is an understanding that international development, internationalization is something that we have to take on, we have to grasp. It is a natural thing, it is going to happen one way or another. How can we facilitate this growth? What kind of opportunities can we provide to students to facilitate that development in themselves, personally and professionally?” (F1).

In regard to the links between faculty efforts toward internationalization and student development, college and university administrators also commented on their observations and climate at their institutions (A2, A8, A10). For example, a college administrator stated that faculty at her/his college see internationalization as a way of broadening their students’ understanding about society and other parts of the world. S/he commented:

“Their [faculty's] students are going to be graduated, they are going to be broader thinkers. And how they view their place in society, their place as scientist, as researchers, engineers? They are going to be more inclusive about ideas that come from different places, different experiences. All of this is important, because the more inclusive you are about ideas, the more innovative you are as a researcher, engineer, educator or whatever” (A2).

In the same manner, a university administrator underlined that efforts toward internationalization bring the opportunity of expanding students’ education experience with global perspectives. S/he said:

“It is not just what you do or what you read, it is also how you have to engage with people. It is a piece of that knowledge empowerment. It is that your students coming here deserve to be exposed to other people. They are not going to have a genuinely relevant experience without that. They can have a technical education, but you are not necessarily learning that global context without exposure to others” (A10).

In addition to providing more global opportunities for students, some participants mentioned that they are driven toward internationalization because of student needs and interests (F4, F7, F11). For instance, an assistant professor mentioned that s/he engages in international topics as the students have interest in global subjects. S/he said: “I think for me the reason I would work with students on international topics is because of their background and interest. It is relevant to their previous background. I think it is beneficial for them to develop research in that area” (F11). In a similar manner, a full professor shared her/his experience:

“I feel I am driven to pay attention to these [international] issues, but it is mainly, actually through student interests. I feel like I am not a driver of it [internationalization]. But, I learn more from the students, and what they are researching, and help them at that point to think through what they are trying to study and apply and analyze. It is usually since they are interested. So, it is the ones who are already interested, which are not driven by me.” (F4).

International development. Several participants referred to the opportunities related to international development to explain the rationales behind internationalization. For example, a college administrator mentioned the faculty international projects and emphasized that faculty at her college aim to provide international community development in global projects. S/he said: “A lot of that [internationalization] is not only about students, but also working with the communities where their [faculty’s] research has taken place. We have a lot projects taking place in [South America], those folks need education outreach to the local communities that exist there” (A2).

In the same way, an assistant professor stated that the opportunity to touch the problems in other parts of the world through her/his expertise is one of the important reasons to get involved in international development projects. S/he said: “when these [international] projects started coming my way, I really saw this idea of making impact in a larger sense on

public good. I thought, it would be really amazing to be able to apply what we know, and my expertise to other settings. I would actually have an impact, and I thought this is fantastic” (F8). Similarly, an associate professor commented on her/his motivation to participate international development projects: “There are too many big problems to solve, and it is crucial to help whatever countries continuing to develop. Many of them need a lot of help in the higher education. They don't have the system features, they lack the talent” (F10). However, the same participant added that the learning process in international development should be mutual, and s/he prefers not to infuse university's expertise as the only solution in global projects. S/he explained her/his view as: “We were experts, and I do not like that role. Because that positions people like ‘you do not know, and we do know, and now we are going to help you to know’” (F10).

Related concerns regarding the rationale of international development were mentioned by some other participants, as well. For example, a full professor commented that since the US is a major player in the world, involvement in internationalization is a responsibility to the rest of the world for her/him. However, s/he emphasized that avoids recommending US oriented solutions. S/he said: “When I am travelling, I really think of myself as an ambassador. But, I am not trying to promote the US, I am trying to caution: ‘Do not believe everything you hear, we have our own issues as well’.”(F6). S/he added that part of her/his motivation to get involved in internationalization is the “social responsibility to the larger world; to contribute to it by not trying to colonize it with US ideas” (F6).

Furthermore, a college administrator said that some of the US based international development programs presume that the US experts have the solutions and answers for the problems of developing countries. S/he underlined that this perspective is avoided at her/his institution, and her/his college aim at “not positioning” themselves “as saviors to everyone, or

having all the answers to everybody” (A3). S/he explained the understanding of international development projects at her/his college: “Whatever we do, we also really need to think about our own learning, mutually transformative and reciprocal learning. These international projects are not just in one-way. It would be Westernization [in that way]. But we need to think how we can make it more circular to different directions, not only transferring solutions from here to somewhere else” (A3). Figure 7 shows the summary of findings on faculty rationales in the selected US context.

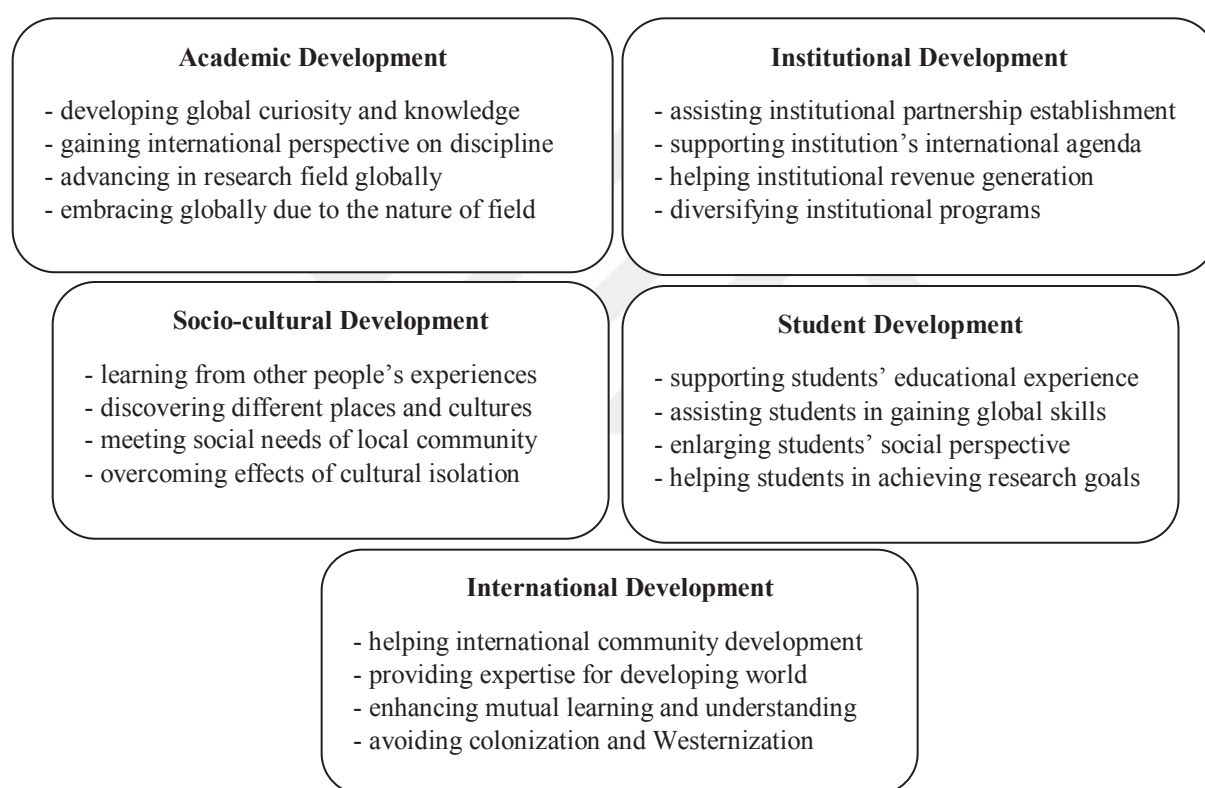


Figure 7. Faculty rationales for internationalization in the selected US context

Incentives of internationalization for faculty. For the purpose of this research, incentives for internationalization are defined as strategies, procedures and individual experiences that motivate faculty to get more involved in internationalization. During the interviews, participants were asked about the mechanisms and experiences that incentivize faculty efforts toward internationalization. Considering the sub- dimensions in the proposed

theoretical model, governmental, institutional and personal incentives are identified as the main categories for qualitative reporting.

Governmental incentives. Some of the respondents referred to federal or international governmental mechanisms that enable them to engage more in international activities. For instance, United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) and European Union (EU) programs and scholarships are underlined as international grant providing opportunities that are beneficial (F1, F3). In addition, federal governmental agencies and foundations such as National Science Foundation (NSF), Fulbright Foundation, National Institute of Health (NIH), National Aeronautics and Space Administration (NASA), and US Agency for International Development (USAID) are pointed out as grant providing institutions that faculty use to get involved in international activities (A1, A2, A3, A6, F1, F7, F8, F10). Moreover, some participants also mentioned institutes or organizations that are affiliated with foreign governments as faculty internationalization incentivizing mechanisms (A2, F6).

Institutional incentives. Several participants emphasized that institutional incentives help faculty to engage more in internationalization related activities. One of the institutional incentives emphasized by participants was the recognition and motivation provided by the institutional leadership (A1, A4, F1, F2, F5). For instance, a full professor said that people from the leadership at her/his college give talks about the opportunities for learning and adventure in international projects, and junior faculty members can get motivated and involved in global development projects after these talks (F5). An associate professor in a similar way said that at her/his college, the dean's explicit message on the value and recognition of international efforts is an important incentive to her/him and her/his colleagues. S/he said: "One [incentive] is by words; meeting and saying we want you to do international

work. So, there is an explicit message about this. Leading by example, for instance our dean; s/he has established collaborations with institutions in [an Asian country]. I do not do anything with those universities but I have colleagues who go and do some work there” (F2). Similarly, a full professor who leads study abroad experiences at her/his institution mentioned that s/he gained more motivation on her/his international efforts when her/his department head showed interest and visited her/his program abroad. S/he said:

“I have had my program in [a country abroad] for many years, and my department head actually came down and visited my program last summer, and s/he talked very positively when s/he came back. So, I think talking with the faculty on what they are engaged, and things like that what the leadership can see [on] what the impact of faculty; they [leaders] have to show real interest by supporting their faculty and incentivizing them by giving them additional support to promote that. I think that is critical. If that doesn't happen, then there is not a value” (F1).

In addition, according to participant experiences, institutional communication tools and publications are also used as tools to recognize faculty’s international efforts and motivate them to participate much more in international activities. For example, a college administrator said that recognizing faculty’s international work in institutional publications and environment help to engage faculty in international work at her/his college. S/he said: “One settled mechanism is just the recognition, try to recognize the people and their work. We write about them in our faculty publications, we ask them to write their stories about their work and publish them in our magazines. When they publish a book, they give me a copy and I put them in the office, like ‘these are the books of our faculty in our office’” (A1). Moreover, some participants also mentioned that being recognized about their work on the website, keeping their institutional websites up to date, and having the opportunity to disseminate their research globally incentivize their international efforts (F1, F4).

Participants also underlined the institutional structures that help faculty in writing international grant proposals and managing the bureaucracy during the application process (A1, A2, F1, F2, F5). A college administrator stated that a unit which includes administrators, accountants and budget planners is set up at her/his institution in order to help faculty when they are applying for international grants (A1). Another college administrator at the same institution explained the details on how the grant writing support unit works. S/he commented: “We have a team of grant support people that help with them [faculty] more; like forms you need to submit, and additional paperwork like that. That team also works on budget and help them design project” (A2). The same college administrator continued by explaining the need of grant writing support for faculty: “When you are writing a grant, there are so many parts and you can get overwhelmed, and we want faculty to only focus on research writing. So, we don't want them to worry about all the paperwork, on facilities management” (A2).

Participants also referred to institutional strategies aimed at mapping faculty's international interest and expertise and matching federal and/or international grants with those interests, facilitating faculty participation in internationalization. For instance, a college administrator said that they are categorizing the research done by their faculty on a website to match them with possible grant opportunities. S/he continued by explaining their further strategy: “We are going to start emailing faculty and staff, let them know [about] ‘we have this website, we want you to share what you are doing’” (A2). In a similar way, a university administrator mentioned the mapping strategy at the university level and explained their matching and incentivizing strategy on faculty involvement in international development projects:

“We are looking to identify challenging areas which we will engage with the highest level of scientific motivation through faculty and academic units and match that with the ability

to fund those motivations. We have some metrics that are about engagement. Some of those metrics are driven by the faculty and academic units and the definitions of scientific achievements; what needs to be achieved, what an exciting advancement looks like. And then, we are coupling that, looking to identify what are the large scale sponsored projects that faculty can engage with” (A6).

Beyond given incentivizing tools and strategies, institutional travel and conference grants were also mentioned as a motivator for faculty participation in internationalization. A college administrator said that travel grants or providing workshop opportunities can be used at her/his institution to value internationalization. S/he commented: “If you value international work, you can say: ‘We have a small grant, we will give one grant this year to somebody who writes international research proposal’. That is one, you can hold workshops, bring people here, etc. There are variety of sticks you can try to use; funding for international travels maybe” (A4). Similarly, several faculty members mentioned that they use international travel grants from their institution in order to participate in international conferences or establish collaboration with scholars from abroad (F1, F2, F3, F5, F10). Moreover, offering international study abroad experiences, providing summer pay, and flexible teaching schedule for faculty were also mentioned as incentives to encourage faculty to participate much more in international activities (A1, A3, A8, F2, F4, F10).

Personal incentives. Participants also referred to some personal experience or background that enables, motivates or facilitates faculty to participate much more in international activities. For instance, some interviewees emphasized their country of origin and/or native language as a motivator that enhances their participation process in international activities (A2, A3, F5). A full professor commented that being raised in a bilingual family that came from a different country made it easier for her/him to participate in and adapt to international environments (F5). Similarly, an associate professor who leads study abroad

experiences for students from South/Latin America said: “I grew up in [a country in Latin America]. So, for me, actually it is very important to be able to give back a little bit of what I have received. I have been privileged to study in this country, and my intention is to give back a little bit of what I have been given by bringing all the students here” (A2).

In a similar way, some participants mentioned that their previous international experiences and networks help them to better engage in international activities (A5, F1, F3, F11). For example, a full professor commented on her/his bachelor study abroad and said: “Having studies at the [university abroad] provided me the impetus to do research, to want to do professional development conferences, and provided a different perspective, from my perspective as ‘Anglo’ from the US in terms of the culture, also in terms of my work now” (F1). In addition, an administrative staff emphasized that her/his previous work in Africa motivated her/him and made it easier to follow a career in an internationalization related field. S/he said: “In that part of the world, people were really interested in going abroad and work internationally. And during that period, it became really interesting to contribute to the development of local leadership and community development, and how those experiences could be enriched by collaborating with other universities” (A5). Furthermore, a full professor told that her/his previous international work and network helped her/him in engaging internationally when s/he started her/his academic career. S/he explained her experience:

“Before I even went to get my PhD, I already had been working internationally with some of these [people]. It was really about trying to help and figure out better ways of engaging learners/students with the natural world. We were sharing our experiences and learning from experiences of those other countries. So, when I got my PhD, I became a professor, I just continued that work. I continue to work in some of this countries and with some people” (F3)

Figure 8 demonstrates the summary of the findings on incentives of internationalization for faculty in the selected US context.

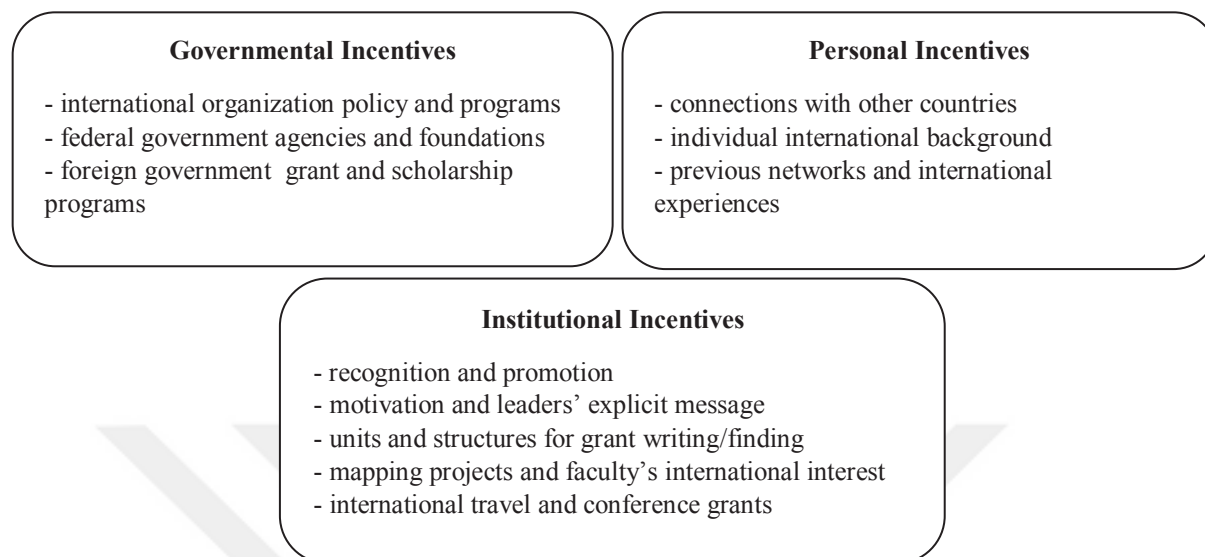


Figure 8. Incentives of internationalization for faculty in the selected US context

Barriers to internationalization for faculty. This study defines barriers as the obstacles to faculty internationalization that are caused by policy, strategy and incentive-related issues as well as personal attitudes. Drawing on the sub-dimensions in the quantitative phase and the theoretical model, barriers are examined in the categories related to bureaucratic, financial and institutional obstacles.

Bureaucratic/legal barriers. Several participants referred to legal regulations or bureaucratic requirements as obstacles related to faculty involvement in internationalization. Difference in national education systems and accreditation was one of the legal barriers to internationalization according to some participants. For example, a university administrator said that it is hard to find faculty participants for study abroad programs since the differences in two countries' national education system complicate accreditation requirements (A8). An administrative staff member similarly mentioned the accreditation requirements and faculty concerns regarding the process of planning study abroad. S/he said that every year the process has to be renewed mutually in order to make sure the faculty from each side meet the

requirements. S/he commented: “Every year we have to decide the programs to offer to students. We have to open up a new setup conversation about how we are going to navigate. And both sides, sending institutions and our side, need to be determining on ‘is this going to be counted’. There is also the national accreditation issue. They [Faculty] want to make sure of the credits at the study level” (A5).

In the same way, a college administrator told that a group of faculty from abroad felt less satisfied than they expected during a visit to her/his college. S/he explained the reason behind this problem: “I think they wanted to come here and do some courses that would fill into their curriculum when they are at home. That requires courses for their home institution that to be taken here. And I think, the alignment with our courses and their courses was not perfectly possible” (A1). Similarly a college administrator commented that requirements related to professional certification hindered organizing study abroad programs and faculty participation in internationalization at her/his institution. S/he said: “When we talk about the internationalization of curriculum and the study abroad, some of the administration responded at one point as “it is not possible to internationalize the curriculum, because [professional] certification in the state is so strict. There is no way we can replace one course as study abroad. Because, that would then revoke” (A3).

Reaching to the infrastructures and people regarding data collection in another country was emphasized as another bureaucratic problem that hinders faculty to engage in international work. A full professor gave an example of a problem related to collecting data in a developing Asian country and said: “If you are not studying countries in the West, your studying data are less reliable. It is harder to get access to them, it is harder to do the work that you want to do, and there is less of infrastructure for you to engage” (F6). The same participant continued by underlining the problems related to required human capital for the

proposed research in the selected country. S/he commented: “There are also less local people who have particular sophistication of doing research to partner with. That is also an obstacle. [Questioning] What kind of infrastructure is out there for doing that work, and what sort of human capacity and the faculty is available?” (F6). An assistant professor commented on similar concerns and told that when s/he carries out comparative international research it can be hard to reach equivalent data in different countries. She provided an example:

“For example for this study, I work with colleagues from abroad. When it turns out [a Latin America country] there is no systematic data. Ok, we can't do for it. And, then the Asian case for instance, there is systematic data but you need to explain what kind of information you need, why you need this data, and etc. So, it is really difficult to get the data. Even if there is data, it might not be the data you exactly need” (F11).

The same participant added that sometimes there might be additional problems beyond infrastructure that are related to attitudes toward scholars from abroad. S/he commented that once s/he needed to collect data from her/his home country [different than US], and she thought that people at her/his home country “put a line between insider and outsider” (F11). S/he shared her/his experience:

“Even if I have the same origin, I got my bachelors and masters there, and I still have some connections that I might use; however, when I explain my research, I say I want to access these data, I have some problems. This might be something personal, people need to understand your research, maybe they are not from the same field, or I am a brand new faculty asking some data from them, or the country I am working in. But whatever it is, sometimes people throw a line and behave like ‘Oh, wait a minute. You are an outsider, and we do not want to share information with you’. And, that could sometimes create barriers to do international research, too” (F11).

Some participants also mentioned that strict grant providing policies that prioritize the geographical location and aim of the research can create obstacles to faculty participation in

internationalization. For instance, a full professor stated that when s/he was an assistant professor s/he could not carry out many international oriented projects since the funding agencies in the US tend to support domestic research more (F6). Similarly, another full professor, who got involved in EU projects said that s/he had to seek a different source of funding because of the EU program policies. S/he then added that the situation can be restrictive for the US funding sources as well. S/he commented:

“It is difficult to find US grants that pay for international work. Because, it is ‘American money’, they want to spend it in America. You can get some, but it is tricky. Similar situation is in European project. EU wants spending money not outside Europe. So, the money was allowed for Europe for this project, but I have to get my own money, here, from [a national funding agency]. So, countries are protective in that way which makes it hard, makes it difficult” (F3).

In addition to policies and restrictions related to grant providing countries and institutions, some interviewees also emphasized the detailed bureaucracy and workload that is required for proposals as barriers to internationalization. An assistant professor said that since her/his university is massive and very bureaucratic, sometimes it may become difficult for her/him to reach a relevant person and handle the paperwork for internationalization (F8). Moreover, a full professor underlined her/his application process for EU grants and said that s/he spent enormous amount of time on the application and needed additional help to complete the whole process. S/he shared her/his experience:

“It has been very very complicated; just the paperwork and logistics, bureaucracy on EU [project]. I have never seen anything like it before. The bureaucracy is just unbelievable. And, I have had involved people in our research office, people in our global initiatives office, people in contracts and legal, and it has been a nightmare. So, a lot of people have been pitching in the hell [to help] with this. It has not been easy, and there is no way that I can do it on my own” (F3).

Additionally, several participants underlined the travel and visa policies of the governments as potential obstacles to the internationalization process (A1, A7, A9, F5, F6, F8). For instance, an administrative staff said that requirements, restrictions and paperwork related to the visa process hinder faculty participation in internationalization (A9). Moreover, developments and changes related to travel policies were emphasized as concerns for internationalization. For example, a full professor said that governmental agencies require an annual justification process for faculty members for trips to a South American country, since that country is identified as “dangerous” according to legal authorities (F6). Further, an assistant professor mentioned that travel bans for citizens of specific countries to the US caused some concerns related to internationalization. S/he commented:

“I have already several colleagues from different countries who are asking ‘Should we go do our research? Can we leave or we may not be able to get back in?’ And, I would have the same concerns, maybe I want to do this project in [an African country] and if our federal government creates some holds about the citizen of that country coming to US, and they will respond and say “No Americans”. Then I won't be doing my project” (F8).

Financial barriers. Several interviewees referred to financial constraints as barriers that hinder faculty to participate more in internationalization (F2, F5, F6, A1, A3, A8). For instance, an associate professor who leads study abroad experiences said that lack of funding restricts her/his efforts on internationalization. S/he said: “If I could, I would love to spend more time to bring here more students and [to] collaborate students from the US. That would be my real passion. But there are financial constraints. Because none of these are paid by the university. It is paid by private foundations, or government. So, finding funds is a real challenge” (F2). Similarly, a college administrator said that financial barriers are the most restrictive elements for internationalization at her/his college. S/he commented: “I think there is a lot of space to explore different internationalization ideas, but it is the financial aspect that

probably is the most difficult one” (A3). Moreover, another college administrator said that due to financial circumstances it was not possible to assign a person for internationalization at their college and that caused opportunity losses for institutional internationalization. S/he shared the situation:

“From time to time we thought about appointing somebody with internationalization responsibilities. We have not done that because, financially in order to do that, [you have] to pay a salary and then provide the funding. Because if you are going to have someone do that, they have to have enough money to travel. They can't sit on their desk for a year and try to create relationships and partnerships in all parts of the world without getting on an airplane frequently and flying around. That's a lot of money, to pay that salary to the person, and the travel, and for them to have a development budget so that they can invest money to activities to make it work” (A1).

More specifically, participants highlighted the need for funds for international travel and conference participation. For example, a full professor said that s/he was not able to visit her/his colleague in an Asian country for a research project since there is no grant provided for international trips at her/his college (F5). Another full professor compared the situation in the US to European countries, in her/his own words: “Yes, we are in the US, and we have lots of money. But we do not have lots of money for that kind of travel. And, it is not like travelling between countries in Europe. There is no [an airline brand] flies for fifty dollars or euros to another country. So, it is a huge expense” (F6). Similarly, an associate professor underlined that her/his “collaboration with international scholars has only come from international conferences, not from national ones” and financial support provided at her/his institutions is insufficient to cover international conference costs. (F2).

Furthermore, some participants also mentioned costs of programs and operations as barriers to internationalization. For example, a full professor's tuition fees for a joint-masters

program became a barrier for an international collaboration opportunity. S/he commented: “The only thing that I found as a barrier is that we wanted to have a joint master's program with someone from another country, we could not make it work. Because, of course [university] asks normal tuition and the students couldn't pay that. We could not work it out” (F5). In addition, a university administrator mentioned that financial costs and lacking funding model of study abroad restrict internationalization operations and faculty participation at her/his institution. S/he commented:

“For us right now, cost and funding is a huge barrier; cost both to the student and academic program. We want more faculty to do faculty directed [international] programming at the semester level. And, we do not have a funding model to support this yet. But, when you go to directors of the schools for this, they say: ‘I cannot send my faculty 7.5 weeks. I do not have anyone to replace them with’. So, how can we figure out [how to] continue to fund the units and the place when that person is not in campus? Because they need teachers in the class to teach” (A8).

Institutional barriers. Participants also referred to organizational and institutional policies, implementations and situations that hinder faculty to participate more in internationalization. For example, institutional reward, tenure and promotion policies were mentioned by several interviewees as an obstacle (A2, A4, A6, A8, A10, F1, F3, F8). In more detail, a university administrator said that engaging in international development projects can become a hard decision for younger faculty since the expectations in international development projects and traditional faculty needs for tenure are different (A6) Similarly, another university administrator said that s/he has heard discussion between faculty and department heads because of the lack of departmental support for tenure and promotion regarding internationalization (A10). The same participant underlined that while the tenure and promotion policy has been realigned at her/his institution, similar problems can still exist. S/he commented: “I have seen a couple of tenure denials, where someone spent a lot of time,

putting together a large international conference and working with colleagues from their home country was denied tenure. There may have been other reasons for this tenure-denial, but at the bottom line they did not have the same number of articles. So, that core incentive set is difficult” (A10). Furthermore, a college administrator explained the contradiction between tenure/promotion process and the general aim in international development projects as follows:

“Most of the international projects, whether through [name of the international development program] or others, are not research projects in the classic sense of the word. But faculty can get tenure and be promoted by doing research. Most of these projects are what I called ‘guns for hire’. Because, we would expect you with your expertise to come and do something for us, and then we will send you back. That becomes very hard [for] faculty to accept, because they think; ‘I go there, and I want data so that I can write a paper’ and I think that becomes a challenge” (A4).

In the same way, a full professor emphasized that the whole academic reward system lacks promotion of internationalization. S/he said: “There is nothing in the promotion and tenure process that you have to do international work. Now, to become full-professor, doing international work is helpful, but it is not necessary. People who get full-professorship don't do any. So, there is nothing in the system that says [that] this is something you need to do” (F3). Similarly, an assistant professor commented that while s/he was very much willing to participate, s/he had to leave an international development project due to her/his concerns on tenure and promotion (F8). S/he explained her experience:

“I thought all the website and conversations about having impact with our scholarship and inspired research, the tenure process and promotion process would value that kind of work. But it does not. We were trained traditional tenure structure. We still have external reviewers that are evaluating our cases and writing letters. So, there is certainly disconnect

between the tenure and promotion process here and these larger values around engaging and having impact globally. That is the reality of it” (F8).

Losing motivation and lack of colleague/institutional interest were highlighted by some other participants as hindering faculty from participating more in internationalization. For example, a college administrator said that faculty can lose their motivation after being rejected repeatedly, especially in more competitive grants (A2). Moreover, a full professor said that attitudinal barriers among colleagues and in the department can cause lack of motivation in some circumstances regarding internationalization. S/he commented:

“Everybody says: ‘Oh, it is a good idea’. But, that is not enough. How does somebody emphasize that in the department? Because, I feel in my department, I do a lot of international work, but I do not have a lot faculty asking me, they are not interested. I do my work, I have been doing this for a long time, and nobody really ever approached me like ‘Oh, this is great. What kind of details else are in [it this international work]?’ (F1).

The same participant, who has led a study abroad program for a long while, underlined that lack of administrative vision to institutionalize internationalization efforts can be another problem for internationalization involvement. S/he continued: “When I retire from the [F1's university], I don't know if this [study abroad] program is going to continue. Probably, not. So, how you institutionalize these things is important. It has to be a vision, it has to be a goal, it has to be a part of all vision of your college and your university” (F1). A college administrator similarly emphasized the role of leadership and underlined that internationalization operations need high-quality administrative process in order for them to institutionalize. S/he commented, in her/his own words: “At the end of the day, leadership really counts, and it is not just vision leadership, it is management, getting things done. If you can't get those two things together, you are not going to be effective” (A1). Figure 9 shows

the summary of the findings on barriers of internationalization for faculty in the selected US context.

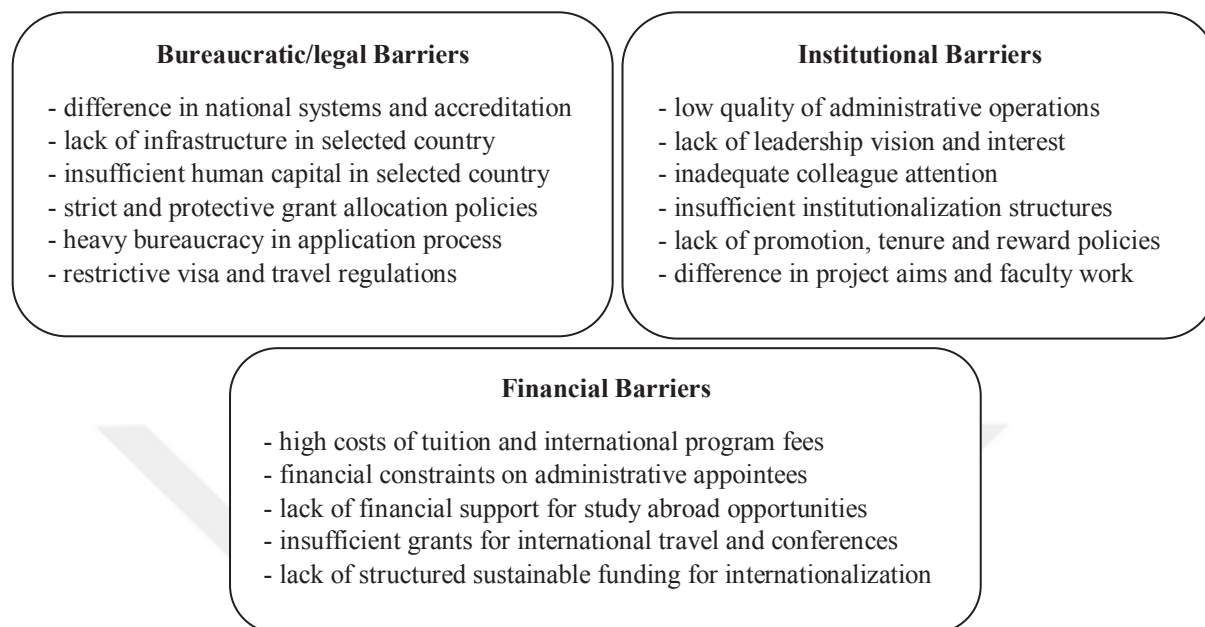


Figure 9. Barriers to internationalization for faculty in the selected US context

Participant views on the importance of rationales, incentives and barriers for faculty involvement in internationalization. Interviewees were also asked for their views regarding the role of rationales, incentives and barriers in the process of faculty internationalization. Drawing on their observations and experiences, several participants responded to this. Related findings on descriptions and views are specified in this section as separate items as follows:

Rationales and internal motivations are important for faculty as a starting point for internationalization. Several participants mentioned that faculty start seeking opportunities to participate in international activities through their own internal motivation regarding academic values and achievements (F1, F2, F3, F5). For example, a full professor said that s/he started to carry out international work mostly because of her/his own individual beliefs and values. S/he commented: “I think it [motivation for internationalization] has to come from you, your personal motivation. You cannot really wait for other people to tell you to do it.

You have to ‘take the bull by the horns’ and do it yourself, and arrange it” (F1). Similarly, an assistant professor who grew up in Latin America said that as a personal motivation, giving a little bit back to her home country is an important reason for her/him to participate in international activities (F2).

A college administrator underlined that individual motivation in research achievement is important for faculty participation in internationalization. S/he said: “Individual faculty members have their own motivations for their own research. And most of our faculty, who do international work, are pretty much motivated by their set of values. So, we do not have any other faculty members, who are just trying to make money for example” (A1). Similarly, a university administrator emphasized the self-motivation of faculty by commenting: “I am not telling anybody what they have to do. I cannot do that. It does not work like that. Most of my experiences about who have gone into academia show [that] they are self-motivated. They have understood what is driving them. It is about figuring out if you can meet them, and help [so that] they can channel that motivation to a new problem space” (A6).

A university administrator in the same way said that faculty motivation and efforts to collaborate with colleagues from abroad plays an important role in starting internationalization development projects. S/he commented: “Usually most of the faculty are approaching these challenge areas, these [international] problems. They are approaching from specific perspectives, maybe a perspective of funding institutions. But, usually it is not a problem of a discussion about internationalization or globalization with the faculty. They are already there” (A6). Similarly, another university administrator said: “Looking at our intentional strategic partner universities abroad, and how do we cultivate partnerships for research possible; it is often more a faculty member here who knows a faculty member there; one professor to another professor” (A11).

Incentivizing internationalization matters to enhance faculty involvement in internationalization. Participants emphasized that providing incentives plays a critical role in advancing internationalization at both individual and institutional levels. For example, a full professor commented that s/he would expect more support beyond verbal motivation from her/his institution to better engage in international activities. S/he commented: “I think everybody says that this is a good idea, these are good ideas. But, how do you support them, how do you promote them, how do you give opportunities to faculty to really become engaged in these kind of things?” (F1). Another full professor said that the incentives provided for international work in the US higher education system are usually just normal research support. S/he emphasized that the encouragement given by her/his institution is very important, but more would be needed. She commented: “My University cares about it. But there is no necessarily extra incentives. If you want to do [something] they support [it]. The encouragement from the university and college is very important. But, you do not get any extra” (F5).

Participants emphasized that there is a need for structured incentivizing strategy and mechanism in the whole institutional and/or national system in order to advance in internationalization. A full professor said that s/he would need a vision from the leadership to institutionally incentivize her/his study abroad initiative after her/his retirement. According to the same participant, s/he pursued ways to maintain her/his efforts during her/his time at the institution, but continuing this initiative would be harder without institutional promotion and incentive strategy after s/he retires (F1). Similarly, a university administrator mentioned that in order for her/his university to enhance the faculty participation in study abroad experiences, they would need a working structural financial incentive mechanism (A8). Furthermore, a full professor commented that supporting incentive structures for internationalization are needed at the national level in the US. S/he gave a comparative example of a European case:

“Look at the structures in smaller countries, when you do a dissertation, you need not only people from outside the university, but from outside the country. I have served as an opponent for a dissertation in [a European country]. That is the requirement, you have to get somebody from outside the country. Somebody has to do because the scale of the country. But, the point is [that] there are structures within the profession, within the higher education system. They do not just not present obstacles, they actually require and support you to do international work and to be international in that perspective. And those are just totally lacking in the US” (F6).

Barriers to internationalization exist, but faculty find a way to overcome. It was underlined that although some obstacles exist for internationalization, faculty who have internal motivations for internationalization and whose research is global oriented usually find mechanisms, connections or ways to engage in international activities. For example, an associate professor who brings students from abroad to her/his institutions said that despite all the financial constraints s/he pursued external fund-raisers and maintained her/his efforts at internationalization (F2). Similarly, a full professor who has been leading study abroad initiatives for a long while stated that while s/he has faced some obstacles during her/his long run in internationalization, s/he said: “Basically, I did this initiative. I started it, and I found a fundraiser for it. The funding is not coming from my institution. It is my foundation, I raised money outside” (F1). Another full professor in the same manner commented: “Almost everything that I have done internationally, I've done on my own. I haven't used the university resources a great deal on that” (F3).

A college administrator acknowledged that faculty who have international orientations and networks pursue international collaboration opportunities on their own and find ways to enhance their networks. S/he commented: “That [faculty] is the most key aspect because it is embedded on the work of the faculty members, and they are highly motivated for their international work, they do it. They hope to have university and college support for that work,

but they would do it anyway. Because that's who they are” (A1). In a similar way, a university administrator underlined that in most cases faculty who are internationally engaged do not need extra motivation to find mechanisms to proceed the collaboration process. S/he said:

“it is actually not convincing [faculty]. Sometimes, it is even convincing people to a little bit slow down to coordinate. That becomes more challenging, because people are eager to go and do. That is much more how academia is functioning. They see a problem, and they go and start a research project, they find a colleague, and then they look for the funding, which is great” (A6).

Figure 10 provides a final scheme of factors influencing faculty involvement in internationalization in the selected US context.

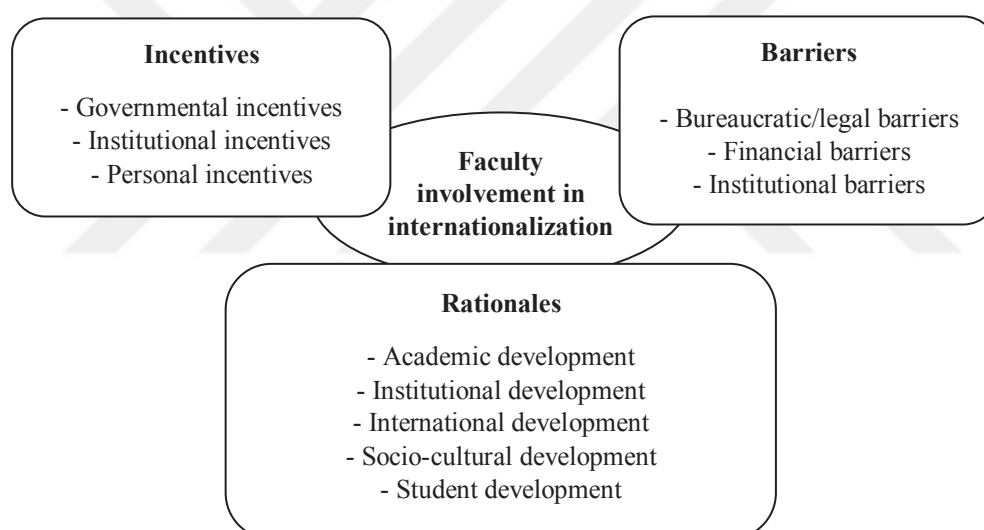


Figure 10. Factors influencing faculty involvement in internationalization in the selected US context

Summary

This chapter presented the findings that were obtained through data analysis. It first demonstrated the quantitative results, and then reported the findings of the qualitative data analysis. The next chapter discusses the quantitative and qualitative findings together, provides a conclusion and presents recommendations for practice and further research.

Chapter V: Discussion, Conclusion and Recommendations

As the last part of dissertation, this chapter first discusses the research findings in line with the related literature. It then provides a summarized conclusion by taking the order of research questions into account. Finally, some recommendations for practitioners and researchers are presented at the end of the chapter.

Discussion

The study aims at examining the activities, rationales, incentives and barriers of internationalization for faculty as well as significant differences related to these factors according to demographic characteristics. The study also intended to investigate the relations between rationales, incentives, barriers and involvement as influencing factors of faculty involvement in internationalization and to explore the importance of these factors in a different country context. Gathered findings are discussed below in accordance with the purposes of the research.

Internationalization activities among faculty. Results indicated that *publishing in international journals as well as books, presenting in international conferences and being an editor/reviewer for international publications* are the most common international activities among faculty. This finding is consistent with previous studies on the internationalization of faculty and research including Beatty (2013), Cummings et al. (2014), Huang (2009), Kwiek (2015) as well as Rostan, Cerevalo and Metcalfe (2014). For instance, Huang (2009) indicated that publishing research results in an environment that aims to reach an international audience is one of the predominant internationalization activities among Japanese faculty. Likewise, according to Kwiek (2015), research collaboration through international conferences and publications is considered a common means to internationalize research among European faculty. Furthermore, similar patterns were also found on a global scale by Rostan et al.

(2014) revealing that co-authorship with scholars from abroad is an important indicator of international research collaboration.

It is acknowledged that international academic publications as research media and physical mobility through international conferences are important forms of knowledge transfer at a cross-border level (Teichler, 2004). In addition, language plays a crucial role in establishing international research collaboration. Participating in international conferences and publishing with co-authors from other countries in English are considered common means of internationalization especially for faculty in non-English-speaking countries (Huang, 2009; Kwiek, 2015; Rostan et al., 2014). Thus, it can be thought that international publication activities might be considered predominant means to internationalize for higher education in Turkey, as an example of non-English speaking country.

On the other hand, it was found that faculty participate in international activities regarding *teaching, outreach, and institutional internationalization* in addition to *international research and publishing*. In accordance with this result, several studies indicated that faculty's international orientation and interest cover a broad range of activities. For example, research conducted by Beatty (2013) and Schwietz (2006) emphasized that faculty members engage in international oriented activities such as carrying out projects abroad, developing and teaching global curriculum as well as leading the cross-border experiences of students. Furthermore, due to growing emphasis on internationalization at organizational level, faculty also take responsibilities for their institutions in terms of international consulting, partnership development and collaboration (Beatty, 2013; Huang, 2009; Klyberg, 2012; Knight, 2004).

As Boyer (1990) and Altbach et al. (2009) emphasize, traditional faculty responsibilities have been evolving in the academic profession. Due to the growing influence

of globalization on higher education, academic work goes beyond the classical form of research and teaching activities (Slaughter & Rhoades, 2004; Teichler et al., 2013). Related studies conducted by Knight (2004) and Altbach and Knight (2007) asserted that stakeholders of higher education develop various strategies for internationalization in order to respond to the cooperative and competitive notion of globalization. These responses include a great variety of internationalization strategies—at the program level: academic programs, scholarly collaboration, external relations and extracurricular activities; and at the organizational level: governance, operations, services and human resources (Knight, 2004, pp.14-15). Therefore, faculty undertake new emerging roles and responsibilities regarding global knowledge transfer, delivery of education and cross-border institutional operations (Knight, 2004; Teichler, 2004). Considering the changing nature of scholarly work, it may be expected that the respondent faculty can carry out several international oriented activities within a diversified range of individual and institutional internationalization actions and strategies.

Faculty involvement level in internationalization and significant differences.

Results indicated that a great majority of the faculty in Turkey's higher education institutions participate in international activities *at a very low or low level*. It was also found that faculty involvement in internationalization differs according to some *individual characteristics* such as *academic rank, scientific discipline, graduate experiences abroad, carrying out managerial duty* and *some institutional features such as control type, establishment date and geographical region*.

According to study results, *assistant professors are the least active faculty group in terms of participating in international activities while full professors are the most internationally engaged faculty*. These findings are consistent with literature since previous studies showed that personal background and experiences play an important role regarding

faculty involvement in internationalization. For example, Jung, Kooji and Teichler (2009) found that senior academics had more international character compared to junior members of the academy. Similarly, Finkelstein and Cummings (2008) indicated that senior faculty in the US higher education institutions participate in international oriented activities more than new entrants. In addition, Rostan (2008) reported that collaborating with international contacts is common especially among full professors in Italy. Schwietz (2006) also found that professors were the most internationally active faculty group among all participants in Pennsylvania. It is stated that tenure and seniority play a vital role in faculty decision about what to research and devote academic time as well as effort (Altbach, 2005; Brown & Kurland, 1990). As Coates et al. (2009) point out, faculty teaching loads reduce after getting tenure and becoming a senior academic in many countries. Similarly, the environmental and institutional support taken by the faculty on issues such as academic communication and freedom, administrative decision process and facilities increases for senior faculty (Beytekin & Arslan, 2013; Coates et al., 2009; Geurts & Maassen, 2005). Taking into account these institutional and environmental factors and the nature of the academic profession, it can be thought that full professors in Turkey may find more time, opportunity and resources to participate in international activities for their scholarly work.

Findings also revealed that *faculty in applied sciences participate in international activities more than faculty who study social sciences*. Considering this result, consistent studies can be found in the literature. For example, Welch (2005) reported results of a comparative study that business faculty were found to be the least international engaged group among all study fields. Similarly, Rostan (2008) indicated that faculty from Life Sciences and Physical Sciences were the most internationally active group while Business and Social Sciences faculty were the least engaged field in internationalization among the Italian faculty. Further, Vabø, Padilla-González, Waagene and Næss (2014) pointed out that according to the

findings of the Changing Academic Profession (CAP) survey, faculty from hard disciplines participated in internationalization more than faculty studying soft ones. Rostan (2008) states that faculty of Applied Sciences such as medicine, engineering and architecture are viewed as more open to society and participate in more professional activities. Moreover, governmental fund providers such as TUBITAK (2017) and European Union (2016) have developed several domestic and international research and development grant programs regarding prior fields in science, technology, engineering and math. Therefore, it can be thought that due to the nature of their disciplines as well as broad domestic and global funding opportunities, Applied Science faculty in Turkey may participate in social and professional activities at international level more than the faculty in Social Sciences.

In addition to academic rank and discipline, results demonstrated that *faculty who studied abroad for their graduate education are more likely to participate in international activities than faculty who did not*. It was also found that *faculty who carry out managerial duties at their institution tend to participate more in internationalization than faculty who do not*. Consistent with these results, findings of a comparative study reported by Welch (2005) showed that faculty who earned their degree abroad tended to participate more in international activities than faculty who did not. In addition, interviews with faculty demonstrated that faculty who have managerial roles such as department head or center director play an important role on establishing international collaboration and developing internationalization policy at the organizational level. Thus, it can be expected that faculty who are in managerial positions or had graduate international experiences might find more opportunities to participate in individual and/or institutional international activities.

It is important to note that according to research results, *there is no significant gender difference regarding faculty involvement in internationalization*. Some of the previous

studies, however, indicated that there are some gender patterns in academia related to academic employment and reaching managerial positions (Bilen-Green, Froelich & Jacobson, 2008; Donaldson & Emes, 2000); participation to and advancement in STEM disciplines (Fox & Colatrella, 2006); and internationalization of research as well as faculty collaborations (Bentley, 2012; Elsevier, 2017; Vabø et. al, 2009). In order to overcome negative consequences of gender inequalities, policy and implementations regarding representation and empowerment of women are taken into consideration in the academia (Aguirre, 2000; Levine, 1991). While women in Turkish academia face similar inequality problems and gender bias in the workplace (Çalışkan Maya, 2012; Healy, Özbilgin & Aliefendioglu, 2005; Ucal, O'Neil & Toktas, 2015; Ince Yenilmez, 2016), results of this study showed that participation in international activities occurs without any gender difference.

Findings also indicated that *faculty working at private universities participate in international activities more than faculty who work at public institutions*. In a similar way, Vural Yılmaz (2016) revealed that due to their strengths regarding location, incentivizing mechanisms and internationalized campus climate, private universities in Turkey had more enhanced internationalization strategies compared to public institutions. It is accepted that universities establish several relationships with industry regarding a variety of fields including partnerships, infrastructures, consultancy, academic entrepreneurship, scientific license and other informal interactions at both domestic and international level (Guimon, 2013; Perkmann et al., 2013). However, due to the important role of industry especially in the foundation and funding of some private universities, strict governmental control on public institutions regarding priorities as well as bureaucracy and enhanced communication mechanisms, private universities can more easily pursue chances related to international collaboration with industry and business (Kim, 2008; Lee, 2008). In addition, a growing market and changing student needs in the globalized higher education environment force private institutions to

establish more partnerships and strategic alliances at the international level (Altbach & Knight, 2007). Therefore, it can be expected that faculty from private institutions may find more possible environments to participate in international activities through industrial as well as academic partnerships.

Results revealed that *faculty who work at higher education institutions that were established after 2005 are the least internationally engaged group in the Turkish academia*. While there were no studies found examining the relationships between involvement in internationalization and establishment date of institution, previous research indicated that faculty working at long-established universities feel more satisfied with the infrastructure and resources related to technology and research facilities at their institutions (Locke, 2008). Moreover, through the establishment of 88 new universities, the number of higher education institutions in Turkey has rapidly increased to 188 over the last ten years. These newly established institutions unsurprisingly prioritize domestic objectives rather than international orientation; and they are still dealing with survivability problems regarding human capital, academic appointments and physical infrastructures (Akyol & Arslan, 2014; Doğan, 2017; Özer, 2011). Considering the insufficient human, technological and financial resources and the need for physical and organizational infrastructure in newly established institutions, it can be expected that faculty working at the institutions that were established after 2005 might have fewer opportunities to participate in international activities.

Additionally, findings demonstrated that *faculty working at institutions that are located in Marmara Region involve international activities more than the faculty who work in Black Sea Region*. While there was no previous research directly examining the regional differences in internationalization involvement found, Kezar (2013) in her study pointed out that higher education institutions located in urban areas can have more progressive and liberal

culture comparing to suburban and rural areas. In addition, Kezar and Lester (2009) indicated that universities located in the suburban and rural areas can have less resources, while institutions in urban areas can reach resources more easily. Furthermore, as Gür (2016) states, newly established universities in Turkey are generally located in less-developed parts of the country such as the regions of Black Sea Region, Eastern Anatolia and South-Eastern Anatolia. Thus, considering the limited resources and less international oriented culture in different regions and universities, it can be thought that finding opportunities to be involved in internationalization might be harder for faculty in some regions comparing to other parts of the country.

Rationales, incentives and barriers of internationalization for faculty. Findings revealed that *rationales related to academic development are the most prevalent motivations for faculty to internationalize*. According to research results, *faculty involved in internationalization through academic motivations such as following international developments in the study field, identifying new technology to use in research and lectures and supporting research and lectures with more international content*. These findings are consistent with the related literature as it is possible to encounter previous studies in which academic and educational benefits are highlighted as important motivations for internationalization. For example, in a European survey conducted by European Association for International Education (EAIE), improving the overall quality of education at the institution was found to be the most important reason for internationalization among several motivations (Engel et al., 2015). Similarly, results of another survey carried out by International Association of Universities (IAU) indicated that academic rationales such as mobility and exchange of professors and students, collaboration on research and teaching and academic quality were the most prevalent three reasons for internationalization among 66 different countries (Knight, 2003). Moreover, another survey of IAU indicated that improved

quality of teaching and learning experiences was one of the important expected benefits for internationalization among 1336 participants. The same IAU study also revealed that academic goals were emphasized as forefront rationales in many higher education institutions' internationalization strategies (Egron-Polak & Hudson, 2014).

Additionally, findings revealed that *institutional development is another important rationale for internationalization among faculty*. According to research results, *faculty become involved in internationalization in order to support the institution's internationalization objectives and international recognition, and to transfer international developments to their institution*. Furthermore, findings also revealed that *faculty's internationalization rationales regarding institutional development include revenue generation and diversifying the institution structure and programs*. In a similar way, institutional motivations for internationalization were broadly reported in previous studies. For example, Klyberg (2012) found that some of the faculty had beliefs about performing institutional roles and duties in order to respond to the organizational need for internationalization. In addition, Beatty (2013) indicated that supporting the institution's wide-ranging mission was one of the two reasons for faculty participation in internationalization. Moreover, as Navarro (2004) emphasized, faculty can take responsibilities regarding developing international curriculum at institutional level.

It is acknowledged that faculty work encompasses three main fields; research, teaching and community outreach (Boyer, 1990). Going beyond discipline differences, faculty culture and the nature of the academic profession provide an environment for carrying out activities in these fields primarily through academic actions such as carrying out and disseminating research as well as instructing students (Austin, 1990). Moreover, as internationalization has evolved into a multidimensional priority in higher education, faculty

can be enabled to pursue several academic opportunities at the international level through diversified institutional and individual strategies (Altbach et al., 2009). Therefore, it can be thought that faculty may consider internationalization as an important tool to carry out professional academic activities at the international level. On the other hand, due to the shift in priorities and market forces that globalization has brought in higher education and the influence of new-managerialism, the importance of institutional objectives and faculty participation to institutional strategies and activities have gained more emphasis (Beytekin & Arslan, 2012; Musselin, 2013). Taking the new higher education environment, rising needs and expectations related to institutions' global aims and diversified ways of carrying out academic work into account, it can be expected that faculty might also consider institutional internationalization activities as opportunities to seek academic and institutional achievement.

Results indicated that *personal incentives are the most motivating tools that encourage faculty to participate more in internationalization*. According to findings, *faculty are being motivated to more actively engage in internationalization through the influence of past experiences, personal background and previous contacts*. Several previous studies similarly emphasized the importance of personal background and prior participation in the process of incentivizing faculty involvement in internationalization. For instance, Doyle (2013) found that faculty who had travelled outside of the US for academic purposes were more encouraged to include international perspective in their curricular content. In a similar way, Beatty (2013) stated that faculty were driven to participate more in internationalization-related activities through previous work experiences overseas. Moreover, Klyberg (2012) indicated that personal characteristics such as being raised in a multicultural or immigrant family and the influence of previous study or travel experiences abroad motivate faculty to participate more in internationalization.

Findings also revealed that *institutional incentives play a crucial role for faculty engagement in internationalization*. According to results, *faculty are being motivated to participate more in internationalization through the efforts of academic leaders, guidance of internationalization units, and supportive organizational climate provided at the institution*. Moreover, it was found that *institutional reward and promotion policies, communication and information systems for internationalization, and grants for international conference and travel support faculty to get more engaged in internationalization-related activities*. These findings are consistent with the literature as related studies underlined the influential role of institutional elements and structures for the process of faculty engagement in internationalization. In particular, it was reported in the IAU survey that organizational leaders were the most important drivers within the institution, followed by responsible units or people for internationalization (Egron-Polak & Hudson, 2014). Similarly, Knight (2003) revealed that administration is one of the most driving catalysts for internationalization together with faculty in higher education institutions. Furthermore, Klyberg (2012) indicated that while faculty primarily highlighted internal motivations for internationalization, they expect to be encouraged through more rewarding policies on tenure and promotion.

It is stated that in most circumstances, internal drives and disciplinary processes play a vital role in faculty's motivation for scholarly work (Austin, 1990; Becher & Trowler, 2001; Eimers, 1997). Structures supporting internal faculty motivations such as contributing to knowledge, making greater impact through influential work and recognizing disciplinary achievements can play an important role for faculty engagement in scholarship in the academic workplace (Becher & Trowler, 2001; Henkel, 2005). Considering the growing internationalization-related opportunities, it can be expected that through personal incentives and internal motivations, faculty may take international activities into account as ways of contributing to the knowledge society and academic achievement on a global scale. On the

other hand, as Rhoades (2000) emphasizes, institutional incentives and leadership can play a crucial role during the change process of higher education organizations. Positive attitudes and verbally expressed encouragement from leadership, institutional recognition, and incentivizing efforts through promotion and tenure can enhance faculty engagement in both individual as well as institutional development processes (Klyberg, 2012; Lee & Rhoads, 2004; Rhoades, 2000; Taylor, 2005). Therefore, it can be thought that faculty may also get motivated to participate more in international activities through institutional internationalization incentives and reward structures in addition to personal and internal motivations.

Regarding barriers, it was found that *lack of financial and bureaucratic support is the most hindering obstacle for faculty involvement in internationalization*. The results also indicated that *financial constraints and lack of funding, heavy bureaucracy, restrictive international travel policies, and lack of institutional promotion and leadership vision discourage faculty to participate in internationalization*. These findings include concurrent obstacles that were previously emphasized in the literature. As an example, in the IAU 4th Global Survey report, Egron-Polak and Hudson (2014) stated that inadequate funding was the most important barrier to internationalization for participant institutions. Similarly, Knight (2003) pointed out that insufficient funding for internationalization was one of the most impeding factors for internationalization, in addition to need for comprehensive internationalization strategy. In addition, Grasset (2013) revealed that visa issues and problems of international travel were an obstacle for internationalization in the Spanish context. Furthermore, Klyberg (2012) found that negative attitudes and lack of promotion and reward policies discouraged faculty from getting more involved in the internationalization process. Similarly, Selvitopu (2016) indicated that lack of communication insufficient rewarding policies and financial constraints had negative consequences for

internationalization strategies in some Turkish universities. Considering the influences of both individual and institutional obstacles (Green, 2003, 2007), it can be thought that faculty may be discouraged from internationalization due to the hindering influence of legal/bureaucratic barriers, financial constraints, and lack of supportive academic culture at their institution.

Significant differences in rationales, incentives and barriers of internationalization for faculty. Findings revealed that *there are gender differences in some sub-dimensions of rationales and incentives of internationalization for faculty*. According to results, *female faculty have more rationales for academic development and socio-cultural development to become involved in internationalization than males*. In addition, *compared with male faculty, females are more likely to participate internationalization through personal incentives, but they are less likely to use governmental incentives*. While no studies directly examining the gender differences in rationales and incentives of internationalization were found, previous research has shown that gender differences can have an influence on faculty efforts toward internationalization. In particular, Vabø et al. (2014) stated that female faculty participated less in international collaboration activities than males in all regions, according to Changing Academic Profession (CAP) 2007 survey results. Bentley (2012) revealed that the lower international collaboration opportunities for female faculty were an influential factor of the lower faculty productivity for females compared to males. In addition, Leahey, Crocket and Hunter (2008) indicated that male faculty had broader academic networks and more opportunity to use these networks. Further, Arthur, Patton and Giancarlo (2007) pointed out that female faculty deal with challenges when they pursue involvement in international projects. Considering the entire gendered environment related to opportunities of internationalization stated in previous studies, it can be thought that female faculty tend to endeavor overcoming negative circumstances related to internationalization as they have more

academic and socio-cultural rationales and are more motivated through personal incentives compared to males, although they appear to use fewer governmental incentives.

Regarding academic rank, it was found that *there are significant differences in some sub-dimensions of faculty's internationalization rationales*. Results indicated that *full professors consider student development as rationale for internationalization more than both associate and assistant professors*. However, *they take socio-cultural development less into account as a rationale than associate and assistant professors*. In addition, *considering institutional development as a rationale for internationalization is more common among full professors than assistant professors*. Jung et al. (2014) examined the CAP 2007 survey results with respect to senior/old generation academics and junior/young generation members of the academy. According to their study, senior faculty were more internationally mobile compared to younger academics. In addition, senior academics emphasized international content more while working with students in the class and had more teaching experiences abroad. Considering the previous international mobility and teaching experiences of full professors, it can be thought that full professors may have fewer rationales for socio-cultural development but more motivations regarding student development compared to associate and assistant professors. Furthermore, qualitative findings of this study demonstrated that institutional motivations for internationalization can appear especially among faculty members who have administrative roles. Taking into account Turkey's higher education regulations regarding the requirement of being a full professor for several administrative appointments (YÖK, 1982), it can be thought that full professors may consider institutional perspectives more regarding rationales for internationalization compared to assistant professors.

Findings indicated that *there are significant disciplinary differences in some sub-dimensions of internationalization rationales for faculty*. According to findings, *Social Science faculty consider academic development and institutional development less as*

rationale for internationalization than faculty from Natural Sciences. However, they tend to participate more in internationalization for socio-cultural development compared to faculty from both Natural and Applied Sciences. While there were no previous studies specifically focusing on disciplinary differences regarding faculty's internationalization rationales, related scholarly work revealed that discipline often has an influential role regarding tendency to participate in internationalization activities (Rostan, 2008; Vabø et al., 2014; Welch, 2005). In addition, the nature of the academic discipline is viewed as one of the main characteristics that shape the priorities and motivations in the academic workplace. (Becher & Trowler, 2001; Henkel, 2005). Thus, although some disciplines can also have varied field characteristics and diversified needs in different regional contexts (Trowler, 2014), it can be expected that faculty from Social Sciences may prioritize socio-cultural rationales with respect to the nature of discipline or field more than Applied and Natural Science faculty.

It was also found that *rationales for internationalization for faculty differ significantly according to having graduate experiences abroad.* In particular, *faculty who had graduate study experiences abroad have more rationales for internationalization in general and in academic, institutional and student development sub-dimensions than faculty who did not study abroad.* Moreover, *incentives in general and personal incentives are considered motivations to engage in internationalization more among faculty who had graduate experiences abroad.* As reported by Welch (2005), faculty who had graduate studies abroad appeared to establish international collaboration more in their scholarly work. Further, qualitative findings in this study showed that past international experiences have an influential role in faculty's personal motivations to become more involved in internationalization. Therefore, it can be expected that faculty's graduate study experiences abroad may have an important role in considering more rationales and personal incentives for internationalization opportunities.

Findings indicated that *faculty rationales and incentives for internationalization significantly differ according to carrying out managerial duties at one's institution*. In more detail, *faculty who have managerial duties at their institution have more rationales for internationalization in general*. In addition, *they tend to consider institution development and student development as rationales for internationalization more than faculty who do not have administrative appointments*. It was also found that *being motivated for internationalization through governmental and institutional incentives is more common among faculty who have managerial positions than faculty who do not*. Qualitative findings of this study demonstrated that faculty who have managerial positions such as department head or center director can have administrative roles and responsibilities regarding institutional internationalization. Moreover, they tend to establish collaboration with colleagues and representatives abroad in order to enhance the internationalization process at their institution. Results of the IAU 4th global survey matched with these findings, as Egron-Polak & Hudson (2014) stated that internationalization was found to be mainly driven by leaders at higher education institutions. Considering their administrative role and responsibilities, it can be expected that faculty who have managerial positions may consider institutional development as rationale more than who do not. Also, they might be more able to use institutional travel grants and other incentives for internationalization compared to faculty who do not have administrative appointments.

With respect to type of institution, findings revealed that *there are significant differences in some sub-dimensions of rationales, incentives of internationalization for faculty*. It was also found that *barriers to internationalization for faculty differ significantly in general and in institutional culture sub-dimension according to type of institution*. In particular, *faculty in public universities have more rationales related to socio-cultural development compared to private universities' faculty*. However, *being motivated through personal incentives is more common among faculty in private universities*. These results on

rationales and incentives may indicate that, although faculty at public institutions have more desire to internationalize for socio-cultural motivations compared to private universities' faculty, they appear to use personal incentives and past experiences less to better become involved in internationalization. It is also important to note that according to findings, *faculty in public universities face more barriers to internationalization in general and in institutional culture sub-dimension compared to private universities' faculty*. Considering the need for supportive culture and leadership roles regarding internationalization at higher education (Arslan, 2005; Green, 2003, 2007) and strict bureaucratic climate (Lee, 2008), it can be thought that negative attitudes and less supportive culture for international activities in public universities may bring more barriers for internationalization compared to private universities.

Relationships between involvement in internationalization, rationales, incentives and barriers. Findings indicated that *there are significant relationships between faculty involvement in internationalization, rationales, incentives and barriers*. In particular, it was found that *faculty involvement in internationalization is positively correlated with rationales and incentives*. In a similar way, previous studies revealed significant correlations between some attitudes, beliefs and experiences regarding rationales, incentives and internationalization. For example, Schwietz (2006) examined attitudes and beliefs regarding internationalization in a three-factor scale which included some reasons and motivations for internationalization. She found significant relationships between faculty involvement in internationalization and scholarship of teaching and research (factor 1), instruction and curriculum (factor 2), and impact of curriculum on students (factor 3). Schwietz (2006) also indicated that funding operations to support internationalization and previous international experiences of faculty were significantly related to faculty involvement in internationalization. Similarly, Iuspa (2010) found significant correlations between faculty's international experiences and, perceptions regarding support for internationalization and

benefits of internationalization. Moreover, in her study that examined the internationalization at comprehensive universities, Green (2005b) revealed that external funding, having articulated commitment, faculty promotion and tenure policies, and organizational infrastructures regarding internationalization had significant correlations with level of internationalization. Considering all the above, one can assert that rationales and incentives have influential roles in the process of faculty involvement in internationalization.

Findings also indicated that although *barriers of internationalization have significant negative relationships with incentives, they were not significantly correlated with faculty involvement in internationalization*. Previous conceptual work (Green, 2003, 2007; Hawawini, 2011) however revealed that barriers can hinder participation to internationalization in some circumstances. Further, in her empirical study Grasset (2013) pointed out that barriers in cultural traits, governance, regulations, human resources and branding had an influence on the internationalization process in the selected higher education institutions. Thus, it may be claimed that despite all the hindering roles of potential obstacles, faculty involvement in internationalization is not significantly correlated with barriers.

Theoretical model of faculty involvement in internationalization. In line with the literature, the theoretical model was constructed by the researcher in order to explain faculty involvement in internationalization through the relationships among rationales, incentives, barriers and faculty involvement. Results indicated that *there are indirect relationships between rationales, barriers and faculty involvement in internationalization*. In addition, *incentives have a mediating role in both the relationships between rationales and involvement, as well as barriers and involvement*. According to the accepted model, *rationales have an important influence on faculty involvement in internationalization through the mediating effects of incentives*. The model also indicated that *although there is an indirect*

relationship between barriers and faculty involvement, the influence of barriers on faculty involvement is very limited.

In one of the few predictive studies related to faculty internationalization, Li and Tu (2016) explained that individual motivation was a critical predictor of faculty engagement in internationalization, and had an important mediating effect between environmental motivation and faculty engagement. Similarly, in Finkelstein and Sethi's (2014) study, country characteristics; size, region and language, organizational characteristics; faculty driven internationalization initiatives and type of institution, and a set of professional as well as personal characteristics including academic field, teaching and research preferences, previous international mobility and graduate experiences were presented as predictors of faculty's internationalization level.

Furthermore, Schwietz (2006) found predictive relationship between previous international experiences and faculty involvement in internationalization. Schwietz (2006) also revealed that faculty's internationalization attitudes and beliefs on: a) scholarship on teaching and research, b) instruction and curriculum, and c) impact of curriculum on students, had predictive relationships with faculty involvement in internationalization. After all, one can assert that rationales play an important role as initial motivations for faculty involvement in internationalization. It can also be claimed that incentives have a supportive influence on faculty involvement and that they improve faculty willingness to participate in internationalization. It is also important to note that barriers' effect on faculty involvement is very limited. Thus, it appears that through the help of incentivizing mechanisms, faculty who have strong rationales find convenient solutions to overcome the barriers and to participate in internationalization.

Rationales, incentives, barriers and faculty activities of internationalization and the importance of examined factors in a different country context. This research also intended to contribute to the efforts toward understanding faculty experiences, rationales, incentives and barriers of internationalization by focusing on a different country context in detail and to explore how the importance of dimensions in the proposed model are described. For this purpose, 22 participants from two public research universities in the Southwest region of the US were interviewed. Results revealed that *faculty participate in international activities related to research, teaching and community service. In addition, activities on enhancing institutional internationalization were found prominent among respondents.* It was also found that *faculty have academic, institutional, international, socio-cultural and student development rationales to internationalize and are being motivated through personal, institutional and governmental incentives.* Moreover, according to findings, *faculty in the selected US context face bureaucratic/legal, financial and institutional barriers in the process of participation in internationalization.*

Findings above match with results of some previous studies focusing on faculty internationalization in the broader North American context. In more detail, Friesen (2013), Knight (2004) and de Wit (2002) described the rationales for internationalization by highlighting the academic, economic, socio-cultural and political motivations in both individual and institutional contexts. In addition, Klyberg (2012), Li and Tu (2016), and Rumbley (2010) underlined the importance of environmental factors and personal incentives as well as motivations to enhance the faculty involvement in internationalization. Moreover, Hawawini (2011) and Green (2003, 2007) emphasized the financial, bureaucratic and institutional obstacles as well as negative attitudes as hindering factors of internationalization. It is important to note that international development and institutional internationalization activities are indicated as emerging actions and motivations in the differently selected country

context. Considering this varied environment, one can claim that different country cases, institutional priorities and personal background as well as motivations bring diversified orientations to both individual faculty and institutional internationalization experiences.

Finally, results implied that although the reasons and priorities can vary in different country, institutional and individual cases, rationales and incentivizing strategies play a critical role in enhancing faculty involvement in internationalization. Findings also suggested that despite the fact that there are some obstacles, with the help of supportive incentive mechanisms, faculty who have diversified motivations and personal previous experiences can find ways to overcome barriers of internationalization in different circumstances.

Conclusion

The main purpose of this study was to examine the factors influencing faculty involvement in internationalization. For this purpose, drawing on Rumbley's (2010) delta cycle for internationalization framework, rationales, incentives, barriers and activities of internationalization for faculty were analyzed. In addition, relationships between these factors and a theoretical model for faculty involvement in internationalization were investigated. Finally, rationales, incentives, barriers and activities of internationalization were explored in a different country context in order to understand the nature and the importance of these factors in detail. Based on research results, conclusions can be drawn as follows:

- *Global research dissemination is in the forefront among faculty as international activity.* The most prominent internationalization activities among Turkish faculty are mainly related to dissemination of research results at the international level. It appears that through the recent developments promoting international conference attendance and publications, faculty members in Turkey tend to place international

conference and publication activities in the forefront in terms of involvement in internationalization.

- *Faculty involvement in internationalization is at low levels.* Although international publication and conference attendance are prominent, faculty participation in international activities at Turkish universities occur at low levels in general. Further, more than three-quarters of the faculty participate in internationalization at a very low or low level.
- *Full professors are the most internationally active group, while assistant professors are the least.* With the potential help of their tenured positions, existing networks and administrative responsibilities, full professors appear the most internationally engaged faculty groups. On the other hand, assistant professors are the least internationally active faculty as they might have concerns regarding their priorities on tenure and promotion.
- *Disciplinary orientation, previous graduate experiences and administrative roles are significant for faculty involvement in internationalization.* Faculty members working in applied fields tend to participate in international activities more than social science faculty. In addition, previous international experiences and administrative duties can have a significant role in enhancing faculty involvement in internationalization.
- *Faculty in public universities participate in international activities less than the faculty from private institutions.* Faculty working at public universities appear to participate less in internationalization due to the potential institutional difficulties regarding bureaucratic governmental control, limited alliances, financial constraints and cultural attitudes.

- *Faculty working at post-2005 universities are the least internationally active group according to founding date of institution.* As can be expected, newly established universities often deal with survival problems regarding human and financial capital as well as physical and organizational infrastructures and focus more on local/domestic priorities. Considering the financial and organizational requirements as well as the need for broader networks for advanced internationalization, it appears that faculty members from post-2005 institutions more face difficulties in finding opportunities for participating in international activities.
- *Regional differences exist in faculty participation in internationalization.* With regard to its potential educational and industrial links at the international level as well as advancement, universities in Marmara Region appear as the most active institutions in terms of faculty involvement in internationalization. On the other hand, faculty working in the regions which could be considered less urban and include several newly established universities such as Black Sea, Southern-East and East Anatolia participate relatively less in internationalization.
- *Academic development and institutional development are the most prevalent rationales for internationalization among faculty.* Faculty participate in internationalization mostly for academic reasons including following international developments in the field and strengthening research and teaching through international content. On the other hand, supporting institutional objectives such as international recognition, network building and organizational development appear as emerging rationales for faculty to internationalize.

- *Personal incentives and institutional support structures are the most critical tools for faculty encouragement in internationalization.* Past international experiences and opportunities for an international career as well as protecting academic freedom are the most influential incentives for faculty to participate more in internationalization. Also, faculty members seek institutional incentivizing structures, guidance of internationalization units and supportive organizational culture are important for ~~to~~ getting more involved in international activities.
- *Financial and bureaucratic regulations are considered the most impeding factors for internationalization by faculty.* Financial constraints are the most hindering obstacle for faculty regarding efforts toward internationalization. In addition, faculty have concerns ~~on~~ about visa and travel regulations as well as perceived lack of institutional support from leadership in terms of participation in international activities.
- *Gender patterns exist in faculty rationales and incentives for internationalization.* It appears that female faculty tend to overcome the obstacles in gendered academia by pursuing more academic and socio-cultural development opportunities at the international level. They seem more likely to be motivated through personal incentives and internal motivations, but less likely to benefit from governmental incentives compared to males.
- *Academic rank has a significant role in faculty priorities to internationalize.* Taking into account their previous career experience and roles in the institution, full-professors tend to prioritize institutional and student oriented motivations for internationalization; however, they consider socio-cultural objectives to internationalize less compared to other ranks.

- *Discipline orientations can shape faculty rationales for internationalization.* In line with the potential match between the nature of international opportunities and field orientations, social science faculty tend to highlight socio-cultural reasons for internationalization more than other disciplines. On the other hand, academic rationales are viewed as more prominent among applied science faculty compared to other fields.
- *Graduate experiences abroad and managerial duties are important for faculty's rationales and incentives regarding internationalization.* With the potential influence of prior participation, faculty who had graduate experiences abroad appear to have more motivations and use personal incentives to internationalize compared to faculty without graduate opportunities abroad. In addition, as expected, faculty who carry out administrative duties bring institutional rationales and incentives more to the forefront compared to faculty members who do not have any managerial role.
- *Institution type is critical for faculty's rationales, incentives for and barriers to internationalization.* Socio-cultural rationales for internationalization are more prominent among public university faculty members compared to faculty in private universities. However, due to the possible lack of previous experiences and strategic networks, they can use fewer personal incentives. Further, it appears that compared to private universities, public university faculty members tend to confront more barriers regarding institutional culture and attitudes on internationalization.
- *Rationales and incentives have strong positive correlations with faculty involvement in internationalization.* The level of faculty involvement in

internationalization has significant relationships with faculty rationales and incentives of internationalization.

- *Rationales and incentives are important predictors of faculty involvement in internationalization, while barriers' effect is very limited.* Rationales and incentives have a critical influence on faculty involvement in internationalization. However, the predictive effect of barriers on faculty involvement is very limited. Therefore, it can be asserted that diversifying faculty rationales and enhancing incentivizing mechanisms rather than focusing on barriers can improve faculty involvement in internationalization.
- *Rationales, incentives and barriers can vary in different country, institution or individual cases.* As the definitions, understandings and priorities of internationalization can change in different circumstances, rationales and incentives for as well as barriers to internationalization vary.
- *Understanding the faculty motivations and rationales and providing incentives to faculty are critical in most circumstances.* Although the rationales, incentives and obstacles can change in different circumstances, understanding how faculty prioritize, how faculty is motivated, and which incentive mechanisms are needed, plays a crucial role in improving faculty involvement in internationalization. It can be claimed that although there are barriers that can lower internationalization efforts, through supportive incentive structures, faculty who have diversified rationales and personal previous experiences can find opportunities to overcome barriers and participate in internationalization.

Recommendations

In line with gathered findings, recommendations for practice and further research are provided below.

Recommendations for practice. Drawing on research results, recommendations regarding the practice of faculty internationalization are ordered as follows:

- *Varied rationales and priorities and the need for incentives can be taken into consideration for the advancement of internationalization.* Faculty take into account various rationales and objectives for internationalization, and they strengthen their participation in international activities through diversified incentives. Thus, institution leaders, policy developers and practitioners can be aware of the varied context of faculty rationales that covers a broad span of factors regarding academic, institutional, socio-cultural and student development, and diversify the incentive mechanisms in personal, institutional and governmental areas in order to improve the internationalization process.
- *Academic development, internal motivations and prior experiences can be emphasized in the strategies and actions of internationalization.* As mentioned, faculty motivations for internationalization encompass a broad range of rationales. However, faculty can enhance their participation in internationalization specifically through their academic desires, personal and professional values, and the influence of previous international experiences. Thus, rationales and incentives regarding these motivations can be highlighted in the development of policy and strategy regarding internationalization.

- *Governmental and institutional incentives for internationalization can be strengthened and more structured.* Faculty expect structured governmental and institutional incentive mechanisms in order to more participate in international activities. While a broad range of internationalization strategies are implemented at institution and government levels, providing more comprehensive and systematic incentive structures especially for tenure, reward and academic mobility can help promote faculty involvement in internationalization.
- *Financial support for internationalization can be increased and organized in more sustainable mechanisms.* Financial constraints emerge as one of the important obstacles to internationalization. In addition, faculty seek structured and sustainable financial models to maintain their participation in international activities. Thus, increasing financial support through a more structured and systematic funding model can help improve the quality of internationalization.
- *Internationalization units at different levels, stratified mapping strategies and communication structures can enhance the effectiveness of institutional internationalization.* As the rationales and priorities can vary for different institutional levels, units at both university and college levels can help plan and implement diversified strategies for internationalization. Matching faculty's international expertise and interest and organizational needs and providing institutional online and physical communication structures at different levels through these units can support effective resource allocation and faculty engagement in internationalization.
- *Travel policies and visa regulations can be reviewed and revised.* Faculty in some cases can expect flexible travel regulations for their academic international

activities, and governmental policies and visa requirements can hinder faculty from getting more engaged in international activities. Therefore, reviewing visa and travel regulations and providing some flexible opportunities can enhance faculty mobility and participation regarding international activities.

- *Internationalized curriculum and foreign language medium classes can be expanded.* In many circumstances internationalizing curriculum through global, intercultural and international elements can enhance faculty interest in the international dimension of higher education. Efforts on curriculum internationalization can also increase student awareness and institutional attention for internationalization. Therefore, strategies on foreign language medium programs and curriculum internationalization can be helpful in the process of developing more comprehensive higher education strategies at both governmental and institutional level. These strategies can also support faculty internationalization process as faculty appear as one of the main bodies in the curriculum development process.

Recommendations for further research. Taking into consideration the research process and results, recommendations for further studies are made as follow:

- *Qualitative in-depth studies with faculty can be conducted in different Turkish institutional/disciplinary/individual cases.* A part of this study helped examining the general tendency in the Turkey through a correlational survey. Further qualitative studies deeply examining specific cases can help understand the varied nature of internationalization in the diversified context of Turkish higher education.

- *Institutional understandings and priorities can be examined in addition to faculty experiences.* Internationalization can be described through different aspects and meanings. As expected, each and every stakeholder of higher education can put more forward their own description. Since the organizational aspect is an important part of higher education that should be taken into account, it can be difficult to understand the wider picture of internationalization without giving attention to the administration and management side.
- *Governmental perspective of internationalization can be studied through different dimensions.* Governmental bodies play various strategic roles in planning and implementing higher education as well as internationalization in different country cases. In some decentralized countries such as the US, governmental agencies take part more as fund-providers or general regulators, while in some others like Turkey, these bodies have more centralized administrative authority on issues such as budget, funding, appointees and promotion. Considering the rising and varied role of government in higher education, rationales, incentives for and barriers to internationalization can be also examined from the governmental viewpoint.
- *Different dimensions of internationalization can be studied to broaden the practical field of higher education.* Although it is possible to encounter some studies on rationales, incentives and barriers, including this research, little work has been done to describe different aspects of internationalization. Studies that attempt to examine the issues of internationalization such as leadership role, financial models, and student and local society needs can provide wider solutions for emerging concerns of higher education.

- *More theoretical research can strengthen understanding and interpretation of developments in the internationalization of higher education.* For a considerable while, field of higher education was mainly considered a practice and policy related area of study. However, it has become an emerging interdisciplinary academic field within today's changing knowledge, policy, education and scientific environment (Altbach, 2014; Kehm, 2015). Yet, there is still a need for conceptualization in the field and theorizing the changing nature of higher education as well as internationalization (Bedenlier, Kondakci & Zawacki-Richter, 2017; Kehm & Teichler, 2007; Tight, 2015; Yemini & Sagie, 2016). While this study can contribute to the conceptualization of faculty internationalization, further studies that aim to examine different aspects by employing different theories can expand theoretical understandings of internationalization.

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Appendices

Appendix A. Permission granted from Dr. Rumbley to use the reprinted version of delta cycle for internationalization

Alper Çalikoğlu <alpercalikoglu@gmail.com> May 2  

to rumbley 




Dear Dr. Rumbley,


My name is Alper Calikoglu. I am a PhD candidate in the program of Educational Administration at Canakkale Onsekiz Mart University, Turkey. I am studying on faculty internationalization for my dissertation entitled as "Factors Influencing Faculty Involvement in Internationalization".

I would like to utilize the delta cycle for internationalization as a conceptual basis for my research, and I was wondering if I could use the figure of delta cycle for internationalization in my dissertation by providing required citations to your work.

If you grant the permission, I will cite your work as (Rumbley, 2010, p.220) for the figure in-text, and provide the reference at the end of dissertation as <<Rumbley, L. E. (2010). Internationalization in the Universities of Spain: Changes and Challenges at Four Institutions. in F. Maringe & N. Foskett (eds.). *Globalization and Internationalization in Higher Education: Theoretical Strategic and Management Perspectives*. London: Continuum International Publishing Group>>

Thank you for your support.
Kind regards,
Alper Calikoglu

Laura Rumbley > May 2   

to me 

Dear Mr. Çalikoğlu,

Thank you very much for your kind message. I'd be very happy to have you use the delta cycle for internationalization in your dissertation.

I'd also be very interested in seeing something from your final dissertation to know what you discovered in your work.

Best of luck to you.

Sincerely,
Laura Rumbley

Appendix B. Permission from Dr. Schwietz for adapting questionnaire items

Alper Çalikoğlu <alpercalikoglu@gmail.com>
to mschwietz

3/23/15 ☆



Dear Dr. Schwietz,

I am a PhD candidate at Canakkale Onsekiz Mart University, Canakkale, Turkey and studying on my dissertation tentatively titled "Factors Influencing Faculty Involvement in Internationalization" under the supervision of Assoc. Prof. Dr. Hasan Arslan.

I have an intend to investigate influencing factors of faculty internationalization and explore the relationships between these factors and involvement level. For this purpose, my plan includes to develop a scale for measuring involvement level of faculty in internationalization.

While reviewing the literature, I saw your doctoral study about internationalization of the academic profession and the survey instrument that includes a part for faculty involvement in internationalization.

I would like to ask your permission to use an adapted version of this section (Faculty involvement in internationalization, Section VI) in the process of developing a scale for measuring involvement level of faculty in internationalization. I will inform you about the articles and other publications which might be reproduced from my dissertation.

Please let me know if you have any questions regarding my research.

Thank you for your support and cooperation.

Sincerely,
Alper CALIKOGLU
(Doctoral Candidate)
Canakkale Onsekiz Mart University,
Canakkale, Turkey

Michele Schwietz <
to me

3/23/15 ☆



Dear Alper,

Thank you for your message. I am very interested in your research and do grant permission for you to use an adapted version of my survey instrument related to *Faculty Involvement in Internationalization, Section VI*.

I would very much appreciate it if you would share with me copies of any articles, publications, and even a link to your dissertation as a result of your research.

I wish you the very best.

Michele

Appendix C. Permission from Dr. Beatty for adapting questionnaire items

Alper Çalikoğlu <alpercalikoglu@gmail.com>

3/16/15 ☆



to mbeatty ▾

Dear Dr. Beatty,

I am a PhD candidate at Canakkale Onsekiz Mart University, Canakkale, Turkey and studying on my dissertation tentatively titled "Factors Influencing Faculty Involvement in Internationalization" under the supervision of Assoc. Prof. Dr. Hasan Arslan.

I have an intend to investigate influencing factors of faculty internationalization in Turkey, and explore the relationships between these factors and involvement level. For this purpose, my plan includes to develop a scale for measuring involvement level of faculty in internationalization.

While reviewing the literature, I saw your doctoral study about influencing factors of faculty participation at the University of Minnesota, and the survey instrument that includes a part for faculty participation in international activities.

I would like to ask your permission to use an adapted version of this section (Section One) in the process of developing a scale for measuring involvement level of faculty in internationalization. I will inform you about the articles and other publications which might be reproduced from my dissertation.

Please let me know if you have any questions regarding my research.

Thank you for your support and cooperation.

Sincerely,
Alper CALIKOGLU

Matthew Beatty <mbeatty@cord.edu>

3/17/15 ☆



to me ▾

Dear Alper Calikoglu,

Thanks for your message. I appreciate your email and request as you begin collecting data for your dissertation study.

Yes, I grant you permission to use an adapted version of the inventory. Hopefully some of it will prove useful for the purpose of your study.

As you probably noticed, I gleaned information and survey items from several previous studies. If you haven't already, I encourage you reach out to those authors as well. Based on my experience, they are very supportive.

Best of luck with your research. Once you're finished, I would enjoy reading your dissertation to understand how the population's involvement in internationalization may differ.

Sincerely,
Matt

Appendix D. Survey Instruments (Turkish version)

ÖĞRETİM ELEMANLARI İÇİN ULUSLARARASILAŞMA ETKİNLİKLERİ ANKETİ							
Lütfen aşağıda uluslararasılaşmaya katılım ile ilgili olarak verilen etkinlikleri son üç yılda kaç defa gerçekleştirdiğinizi yan taraftan işaretleyiniz.	0	1	2	3	4	5	5+
1. Diğer kültürleri, ülkeleri ya da küresel konuları içeren kaç ders verdiniz?							
2. Yurtdışındaki yükseköğretim kurumlarında kaç defa eğitim verdiniz?							
3. Çalışmalarınızı sunmak için kaç farklı uluslararası kongre, seminer, panel ya da sergiye katıldınız?							
4. Yurtdışında yayımlanan kitap ya da dergilerde kaç çalışmanız yer aldı? (Yayım sürecinde olanlar dahil)							
5. Üniversitenizde uluslararasılık boyutu olan kaç etkinlik/program hazırladınız?							
6. Üniversitenizde uluslararasılık boyutu olan kaç öğrenci topluluğu ile çalıştınız?							
7. Öğrencilerinize yurtdışı deneyimi kazandıran kaç etkinliğe liderlik ettiniz?							
8. Mesleki gelişim programlarına katılmak için kaç defa yurtdışına çıktınız?							
9. Merkezi yurtdışında bulunan kaç adet uluslararası eğitim-araştırma kuruluşuna üyeliğiniz bulunmaktadır?							
10. Yurtdışında yayımlanan kaç farklı dergide ya da kitapta editörlük/hakemlik yaptınız?							
11. Yurtdışından bilim insanları ile kaç adet ortak araştırma yürüttünüz?							
12. Yerel ya da yurtdışından bir ortakla uluslararasılık boyutu olan kaç projede çalıştınız?							
Lütfen aşağıda verilen yargıların başına ilgili cümleyi ekleyerek, ifadeye hangi düzeyde katıldığınızı işaretleyiniz (1:Hiç Katılmıyorum ←--→ 5:Tamamen Katılıyorum)							
ÖĞRETİM ELEMANLARI İÇİN ULUSLARARASILAŞMANIN GEREKÇELERİ ÖLÇEĞİ							
Uluslararasılaşma ile ilgili etkinlik ve süreçlere katılma gerekçelerimden biri, ...	1	2	3	4	5		
1. Öğrencilerimin uluslararası burs, hibe, teşvik gibi destekler bulabilmelerine yardımcı olabilmektir.							
2. Öğrencilerimin kültürlerarası becerilerini geliştirmelerine yardımcı olabilmektir.							
3. Öğrencilerimi küresel iş piyasasına daha donanımlı bir şekilde hazırlayabilmektir.							
4. Çalıştığım kurumun uluslararasılaşma hedeflerine destek olabilmektir.							
5. Çalıştığım kurumun uluslararası alandaki tanınırlığının artırılmasına yardımcı olabilmektir.							
6. Uluslararası alandaki yenilikleri çalıştığım kuruma aktarabilmektir.							

7. Çalıştığım konularla ilgili uluslararası alandaki gelişmeleri daha yakından takip edebilmektir.					
8. Akademik çalışmalarında (eğitim/araştırma) kullanabileceğim yeni teknolojileri tanıyabilmektir.					
9. Akademik çalışmalarında (eğitim/araştırma) uluslararası konu ve içeriğe daha çok yer verebilmektir.					
10. Farklı ülkelere seyahat ederek yeni yerler görebilmektir.					
11. Farklı toplumları daha yakından tanıyabilmektir.					
12. Farklı toplumların birbirini tanımasına yardımcı olabilmektir.					
ÖĞRETİM ELEMANLARI İÇİN ULUSLARARASILAŞMANIN TEŞVİKLERİ ÖLÇEĞİ					
Uluslararasılaşma ile ilgili etkinlik ve süreçlere katılımımı teşvik edip kolaylaştırarak, motivasyonumu artıran etkenlerden biri, ...	1	2	3	4	5
1. Çalıştığım kurumdaki akademik kültürdür.					
2. Çalıştığım kurumdaki uluslararası destek biriminin rehberliğidir.					
3. Çalıştığım kurumdaki akademik liderlerdir.					
4. Kariyer hedeflerimdeki uluslararası boyuttur.					
5. Geçmişte yaşadığım uluslararası deneyimlerin yarattığı etkilerdir.					
6. Akademik özerkliğimi koruma isteğimdir.					
7. Diğer ülke hükümetlerinin politika uygulamalarıdır.					
8. Avrupa Birliği'nin yükseköğretim konusundaki politika uygulamalarıdır.					
9. Devletin ve merkezi hükümetin yürüttüğü politika uygulamalarıdır.					
ÖĞRETİM ELEMANLARI İÇİN ULUSLARARASILAŞMANIN ENGELLERİ ÖLÇEĞİ					
Uluslararasılaşma ile ilgili etkinlik ve süreçlere katılmamı zorlaştıran etkenlerden biri, ...	1	2	3	4	5
1. Çalıştığım kurumdaki akademik kültürün yarattığı sorunlardır.					
2. Çalışma arkadaşlarımla uluslararasılaşma süreç ve etkinliklerine olan ilgisizliğidir.					
3. Çalıştığım kurumdaki akademik liderlerin konuya yaklaşımlarının doğurduğu sorunlardır.					
4. İlgili etkinlik ve süreçler için mali kaynak bulmaya ilişkin sorunlardır.					
5. Merkezi hükümetin uluslararası akademik etkinliklerle ilgili politikalarındaki sorunlardır.					
6. Çalıştığım kurumdaki uluslararasılaşma ile ilgili bürokratik işleyişin yarattığı sorunlardır.					

Appendix E. Survey Instruments (English version*)

INTERNATIONALIZATION ACTIVITIES FOR FACULTY QUESTIONNAIRE							
Please indicate how many times you participated the internationalization activities given below in the past three years	0	1	2	3	4	5	5+
1. Courses taught including international, intercultural or global subjects?							
2. Courses taught at higher education institutions abroad							
3. International conferences attended to present research							
4. Publications published abroad (including submission)							
5. University events organized that are international in nature							
6. Student clubs/associations worked with that are international in nature							
7. Events leaded that provides international experiences for students							
8. Travels abroad to participate professional development programs							
9. Memberships of international research associations established abroad							
10. Editorships/reviews for publications abroad							
11. Research collaborated with researcher(s) from abroad							
12. Projects conducted with local or international partners that are international in nature							
Please indicate your agreement level for each statement given below by adding the initial introductory sentence at the beginning (1: Completely Disagree ←--→ 5:Totally Agree)							
INTERNATIONALIZATION RATIONALES FOR FACULTY SCALE							
One of the rationales for me to participate in activities and process related to internationalization is ...,	1	2	3	4	5		
1. To help my students find international grants and scholarships							
2. To help my students develop intercultural skills							
3. To prepare my students more competent for the global job market							
4. To support my institution's internationalization objectives							
5. To help increasing the international prestige of my institution							
6. To transfer developments in the international area to my institution							
7. To follow international developments in my scholarly subjects closely							
8. To get to know new technologies that I can utilize in my academic (teaching/research) work							
9. To introduce more international content in my academic (teaching/research) work							
10. To travel other countries for discovering new places							
11. To get to know other societies more closely							
12. To help different societies get to know each other closely							

INTERNATIONALIZATION INCENTIVES FOR FACULTY SCALE					
One of the incentivizing factors that motivate me to participate more in activities and process related to internationalization is, ...	1	2	3	4	5
1. The academic culture at my institution					
2. The guidance of internationalization office at my institution.					
3. The academic leaders at my institution					
4. The international dimension in my career goals					
5. The influence of my previous international experiences					
6. My desire to protect my academic freedom					
7. The policy implementations of foreign governments.					
8. The higher education policy implementations of the European Union.					
9. The policy implementations of state and central government					
INTERNATIONALIZATION BARRIERS FOR FACULTY SCALE					
One of the barriers that hinder my participation in the activities and process related to internationalization is, ...	1	2	3	4	5
1. The problems resulting from the academic culture at my institution					
2. The lack of my colleagues' interest in internationalization activities and process					
3. The problems resulting from the academic leaders' approach to internationalization at my institution					
4. The problems related to finding funds for activities and process related to internationalization					
5. The problems resulting from the central government's policy approach to international academic activities					
6. The bureaucratic operations related to internationalization at my institution					

*: The English version of the survey is translated from the original Turkish version by the researcher, and is provided to prompt further studies. It was not administered during the research process.

Appendix F. Interview questions*

INTERVIEW QUESTIONS FOR FACULTY

1. Could you please briefly describe yourself and your position at this institution?
2. How do you describe the international dimension for your academic work?
3. In which activities do you participate related to international dimension of HE?
4. What are the rationales, priorities and motivations for you to involve in international activities? [e.g. Academic, Economic, Cultural, Social, Institutional, Student development, Local/National/Global development]
5. How crucial are your institution's internationalization objectives for your work and studies?
6. Which barriers have you experienced regarding your participation in international activities?
7. Which incentive mechanisms are implemented for faculty internationalization at your institution? (e.g. Personnel policies, funding, promotion)
8. How do you behave when your values and international objectives clash/conflict with your institution's priorities?
9. What are the principle factors in need of strengthening your institution's incentive mechanisms regarding faculty involvement in internationalization?
10. Is there anything you would like to add about factors influencing faculty involvement in internationalization at your institution?

INTERVIEW QUESTIONS FOR UNIVERSITY ADMINISTRATORS AND INTERNATIONALIZATION ADMINISTRATIVE STAFF

1. Could you please briefly describe yourself and your position at this institution?
2. How do you describe internationalization for your institution?
3. What are the rationales and motivations of internationalization for your institution?
4. Why is the faculty involvement crucial in order to achieve your institution's internationalization objectives? [Global competencies, global campus climate, international rankings, branding, etc.]
5. Which incentive mechanisms do you implement for faculty to more involve in internationalization?
6. What barriers does your institution experience while spreading efforts on improving internationalization?
7. What are the differences between the internationalization objectives of your institution and your academic staff/faculty? How/why do they emerge from? [Concerns related to academic identities, department/discipline relations, lack of faculty motivation]
8. What are the reasons that cause lack of faculty motivation for being committed to/identifying with institutional internationalization? [barriers that faculty overcome]
9. What do you expect from your academic staff/faculty to improve the quality of internationalization efforts at your institutions? [expectations related to organizational commitment and identifying]
10. Is there anything you would like to add factors influencing internationalization at your institution?

* Interview questions were addressed through the protocols and human subject consent form which were approved by the IRB committee at the overseas host institution.