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An Examination of Agriculture Faculty Members' Involvement in and Perceptions of Study Abroad Programs

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AN EXAMINATION OF AGRICULTURE FACULTY MEMBERS' INVOLVEMENT IN AND PERCEPTIONS OF STUDY ABROAD PROGRAMS

A Dissertation

Submitted to the Graduate Faculty of the Louisiana State University and Agricultural and Mechanical College in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

in

The School of Human Resource Education and Workforce Development

by

Shelli Elizabeth Danjean
B.S., Louisiana State University, 2012
December 2017
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Having spent a decade as a student, the list of individuals who have contributed to my educational journey has grown quite long. While there is not room nor time to list you all, I am thankful for each person who has encouraged, supported, inspired, and instructed me at one point or another along the way.

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Globalization and internationalization are not new concepts. In the context of higher education, globalization can be viewed as the environment in which contemporary institutions function, while internationalization refers to the actions taken by universities and colleges in response to the changing environment. While internationalizing education has become popular rhetoric among institutions of higher education, is necessary to reflect on the actualization of internationalization goals in the closing of the decade. Can we hope to provide mechanisms for student engagement on an international level without continuing engagement of university faculty? As suggested by prior research, the answer is no. Faculty involvement in and perceptions of study abroad can influence significantly students’ decision to study abroad. However, research conducted to examine faculty involvement and the factors influencing their involvement remains limited. This dissertation study was conducted with agriculture teaching faculty at two 1862 land-grant institutions to gain a better understanding of agriculture teaching faculty involvement in and perceptions of study abroad. The objectives of this dissertation were organized and addressed by way of three articles in a series. An integrated review of literature was employed in article one to (a) describe the role of faculty in study abroad, (b) identify specific activities that constitute faculty involvement in study abroad, (c) identify institutional, professional, and personal dimension factors that influence faculty involvement in study abroad, and (d) propose a conceptual model for explaining faculty involvement in study abroad. Article two was conducted to provide a descriptive and comparative analysis of faculty involvement by institutional, professional and personal dimension factors. Lastly, structural equation modeling was employed in article three to provide a more in-depth examination of the structural relationships between variables in the personal dimension and faculty involvement in study
abroad. A conceptual framework for examining the personal, professional and institutional factors influencing faculty involvement was developed and further examined. Findings from this study provide a better understanding of agriculture faculty involvement in study abroad, as well as offer implications and directions for future practice and research in this area.
CHAPTER 1
INTRODUCTION

The forces of globalization have increased the social interaction and connectivity of people around the globe. Societies and cultures that were once separate and self-contained are now part of an interconnected and culturally integrated global community (Lechner & Boli, 2011).

Broadly defined, globalization refers to the multifaceted and complex process influencing world order, including the global political, economic and cultural order (Mitchell & Nielsen, 2012; Mohrman, Ma, & Baker, 2008; Paige, 2005). As open systems, institutions of higher education are largely susceptible to global environment created through this process. Thus, globalization has become an environmental factor of profound impact for colleges and universities (Mitchell & Nielsen, 2012; Mohrman et al., 2008; Naidoo, 2003).

While globalization pertains to the changing context in which higher education institutions function (e.g., the flow of technology, economy, knowledge, people, values and ideas across borders), internationalization involves the policies and practices employed by institutions in response to those changes (e.g., new curricula, international recruitment, international partnerships, study abroad programming, etc.; Knight, 2004; Mohrman et al., 2008; Paige, 2005). Specifically, internationalization refers to the process of integrating an international, intercultural or global dimension into the purpose, functions or delivery of institutions of higher education (Knight, 2004). Per this definition, process indicates the developmental nature of internationalization, in that internationalization involves ongoing and continuous effort. Further, integrating highlights the process of incorporating the central, not marginal, international/intercultural dimension into policies and programs. Lastly, an international, intercultural, and global dimension denotes the broad scope (breadth) and complexity (depth) of the process of internationalization. International speaks to the relationships among nations,
cultures and countries; *intercultural* relates to the diversity of cultures within countries, communities and institutions and is used to address the aspects of internationalization at home; *global* implies a sense of worldwide operation (Knight, 2004).

The contemporary higher education system comprises a variety of providers, delivery methods, and programs and can involve multinational companies, media companies, corporate universities, and networks of professional organizations and associations (Knight, 2004). However, for the purpose of this dissertation study, *higher education institutions* refers to public and private, campus-based universities with teaching, research and service functions that grant undergraduate and postgraduate degrees in various subjects.

In response to the pressures of globalization, initiatives to internationalize the educational experience have transpired across many U.S. institutions of higher education (ACE, 2012; Green, 2012). As the contemporary agriculture sector is one characterized by an interconnected global economy, increased competitiveness in a world market, and globalized commodities and services (Lewis & Gibson, 2008), initiatives to internationalize and develop globally competent future professionals have likewise been adopted among colleges of agriculture within universities. In fact, the National Association of State Universities and Land Grant Colleges (NASULGC, 2004) task force for international education identified the need for U.S land-grant institutions to become universities of the world to withhold a position at the forefront of global learning. Moreover, as the state university and land-grant college system is intended to respond to the needs of a changing society as they arise, U.S state and land-grant universities are particularly qualified and well suited for taking on a leadership role in establishing global higher education (NASULGC, 2004). In order to do so, the NASULGC (2004) identified internationalizing U.S
land-grant and public research institutions as a necessary action to transform higher education and establish the platform for necessary change.

The performance indicators of institutional internationalization identified most consistently be leading researchers in the field include (a) international research and collaboration, (b) international students and scholars, (c) institutional mission and leadership for internationalization, (d) international or intercultural campus events, (e) faculty international experience and involvement, and (f) study abroad and/or student exchange programs (Ellingboe, 1998; Knight, 2003; NASULGC, 2004; Nilsson, 2004; Nolan & Hunter, 2012; Paige, 2003; Paige, 2004; Qiang, 2003; Taylor, 2004; University of Ballarat, 2003). While each component is significant to the overall internationalization of higher education, the scope of this dissertation study was specific to the performance indicator study abroad. For the purpose of this study, study abroad refers to educational opportunities and programs affiliated with the university through which students travel to a destination abroad and participate in educational activities and/or course instruction.

The campaign to develop and promote study abroad opportunities has been based on the notion that study abroad facilitates the achievement of institutional goals for developing globally competent students (Childress, 2009; Parsons, 2010; Schnusenberg, de Jong, & Goel, 2012). In prior studies, outcomes observed among students who studied abroad included (a) more developed global perspective; (b) greater cultural competence skills, including cultural awareness, understanding, and sensitivity; (c) improved ability communicating and collaborating with people of cultures different than their own, (d) increased self-confidence and self-efficacy working in unfamiliar situations, (e) establishment of international networks benefitting to their careers; (f) a greater interest in pursuing an internationally focused career; and (g) continued
integration of study abroad experiences into their everyday lives (Anderson, Lawton, Rexeisen, & Hubbard, 2006; Briers, Shinn, & Nguyen, 2010; Chieffo & Griffiths, 2004; Clark, Flaherty, Wright, & McMillen, 2009; Czerwionka, Artamonova, & Barbosa, 2015; Kehl & Morris, 2008; Parsons, 2010; Rowan-Kenyon & Niehaus, 2011; Sjoberg and Shabalina, 2010).

While a steady increase in student participation in study abroad has been observed each year over the past decade, significant growth in participation rates is still needed to reach national goals (IIE, 2016b). This is especially true for agriculture students, as only 2.6 percent of students who studied abroad in the 2014/15 academic year were enrolled in agricultural majors (IIE, 2016b). The need to understand why participation rates remain low has resulted in a considerable amount of research conducted to examine factors that influence students’ decision to participate in study abroad. In the research conducted to examine why students do or do not study abroad, faculty have been identified as having considerable potential to impact students’ decision (Lukosius & Festervand, 2013; O’Hara, 2009; Paus & Robinson, 2008; Stohl, 2007; Umbach and Wawrzynski, 2005; Woodruff, 2009).

The primary factors examined in prior studies include students’ preferences of study abroad programs, students’ perceived motivations and barriers associated with studying abroad, and demographic characteristics that may describe differences in students who do and do not study abroad (Bunch, Blackburn, Danjean, & Stair, 2015; Danjean, Bunch, & Blackburn, 2015; Doyle, Gendall, Meyer, Hoek, Tait, McKenzie, & Loorlparg, 2010; Schneusenberg, de Jong, & Goel, 2012). While an extensive examination of student characteristics has contributed much to the understanding of describing the characteristics of students who are more likely to study abroad, less research has been purposed to examine the role of faculty in student participation in study abroad programs.
Significance of the Study

While internationalizing agricultural education is a multifaceted process that requires efforts made in each of the previously identified areas of internationalizing higher education (e.g., international research and collaboration, international students and scholars, faculty international experience, international curriculum), this dissertation study was designed to contribute to the body of knowledge specific to the internationalization indicator study abroad. Specifically, this dissertation study was conducted to contribute to the study abroad literature by way of examining the role of agriculture faculty in increasing student participation in study abroad programs, as well as examining factors that may influence the role faculty play. The objectives developed for each article in this dissertation series sought to address problems in both research and practice regarding agriculture teaching faculty involvement in study abroad.

Problem in Practice

The NASULGC (2004) task force concluded U.S state and land-grant universities have fallen short in their overall effort to internationalize the higher education experience. In prior studies, undergraduate students in agriculture have been found lacking in terms of their international awareness, knowledge and competence (Lindner & Dooley, 2002; NASULGC, 2004; Wingenbach, Boyd, & Lindner, 2003). Moreover, goals regarding student participation in study abroad have not been reached (NASULGC, 2004; IIE, 2016b). Findings from studies conducted to examine the factors influencing student participation in study abroad revealed faculty involvement as a key factor in students’ decision to study abroad (O’Hara, 2009; Paus & Robinson, 2008).

However, engaging faculty in study abroad and other components of internationalization remains a challenged faced by higher education institutions. Despite the intentions of universities
to engage faculty in internationalization activities, faculty involvement in study abroad has been deemed less than sufficient for realizing the desired study abroad outcomes (Ellingboe, 1999; Knight, 2004; Olson, Green, & Hill 2005). Researchers in the field of international higher education have thus identified a need for practical measures to move efforts from institutional rhetoric to actual practice (Stohl, 2007; O’Hara, 2009). However, it should be noted that significant gaps in the research specific to faculty involvement in study abroad are cause for difficulty when attempting to assess the true nature and extent of the problem in practice.

**Problem in Research**

Much of the relevant body of scholarly work comprises studies conducted to examine faculty perceptions of internationalization overall, and their perceptions and involvement regarding internationalizing the curriculum. However, research specific to faculty involvement in study abroad remains limited, and even more so with regard to studies conducted with agricultural faculty. Of the research that has examined faculty involvement in study abroad, involvement has been operationalized most frequently as faculty participation in leading a study abroad program. However, prior research suggests there exist activities in which faculty can be involved in study abroad aside from leading a program (Lukosius & Festervand, 2013; O’Hara, 2009; Umbach & Wawrzynski, 2005). In this respect, the body of literature is lacking in that it provides a discussion of what faculty should be doing in terms of their involvement without a thorough investigation to describe the ways in which faculty are already involved. One could argue that it would be futile to make recommendations regarding how agricultural faculty can better contribute to study abroad efforts without first gaining a more accurate understanding of what they are already doing to support student participation in study abroad.
For the purpose and objectives of this study, *faculty involvement in study abroad* was operationalized as the active involvement of agriculture faculty in activities identified in the literature as key elements of the study abroad process (e.g. informing students of study abroad programs, assisting students with the process of transferring credits, encouraging students to study abroad). As such, this dissertation study may provide a more in depth understanding of the extent to which faculty are involved in study abroad. Subsequently, operationalizing involvement in this manner may also provide a more extensive understanding of the factors influencing faculty involvement and better inform future practice and research.

Lastly, as faculty involvement in internationalization activities has been identified as a driving force that encompass teaching, research, service and advising appointment of faculty (Green & Olsen, 2003), there exists a need for a comprehensive conceptual framework for examining faculty involvement in study abroad. Therefore, the review of literature for this dissertation study was conducted, in part, to propose such a conceptual model by (a) examining existing models used to predict engagement or involvement that may be applied to faculty involvement in study abroad, and (b) identifying factors influencing faculty involvement in other areas of internationalization that may be transferrable to the context of study abroad.

**Overview of the Study**

**Population and Data Collection**

This dissertation study was conducted with agriculture teaching faculty from two 1862 land-grant institutions to examine their involvement in and perceptions of study abroad for students. Faculty employed in the College of Agriculture (CoA) at Louisiana State University (LSU) and the College of Agriculture and Life Sciences (CALS) at the University of Florida (UF) were purposively selected as the population for this study to account for differences in faculty
involvement and perceptions that may be attributed to their institutional affiliation. As suggested in prior research, faculty involvement in and perceptions of study abroad may be shaped by the mission, priorities, and overall climate of the institution at which they are employed (ACE, 2012; Bond, Qian, & Huang, 2003; Dewey & Duff, 2009; Schwietz, 2006).

Analysis of LSU CoA and UF CALS Web sites was conducted to describe the two institutions included in this study. First, the homepage of the agricultural college at each university was scanned for a direct link to an international agriculture program of any kind. If no direct link was found, a search was conducted on the homepage with the keywords international, global, and study abroad. Additionally, study abroad participation rates reported by the Institute for International Education (IIE, 2016a) were examined for each university. The web assessment revealed both LSU and UF have established goals pertaining to study abroad, as well as have an on-campus office dedicated to international programs for outbound students and incoming international students. However, unique to UF compared to LSU is the adoption of internationalizing higher education as the primary focus of the current UF Quality Enhancement Plan (QEP). Additionally, UF is among the top ten U.S institutions in terms of study abroad participation rates among students (IIE, 2016a). While these two universities are similar in structure, the slight differences in their mission and strategic plans regarding study abroad may offer insight into the influence of institutional factors on faculty involvement in study abroad.

As no instrument exists to examine faculty involvement in study abroad as operationalized in this study, an original instrument was developed by the researcher (see Appendix A). Prior to distributing the instrument, approval was received from the Institutional Review Board (IRB No. E10453, see Appendix B). Per IRB requirement, the invite sent to agriculture teaching faculty at LSU and UF included a description of the study, a statement of
confidentiality, informed consent, and the contact information of the research and IRB (see Appendix C).

**Organization of Dissertation Articles**

This dissertation study was conducted by way of three articles in a series, each purposed to further contribute to explaining agriculture faculty involvement in study abroad. This chapter provided a background and overview of the study. Chapters two, three, and four of this dissertation comprise the purpose, methods, findings, and conclusions for articles one, two, and three respectively. Finally, chapter five provides a summary of the overarching conclusions and recommendations based on the findings from each of the three articles. An overview of the purpose, objectives and methods of each article is provided in the following sections of this chapter.

**Article one.** An integrated review of literature was employed in article one to provide a conceptual framework for explaining faculty involvement in study abroad programs. The objectives of this review were to (a) describe the role faculty play in study abroad and identify study abroad activities that constitute involvement in study abroad, (b) identify institutional factors influencing faculty involvement, (c) identify professional factors influencing faculty involvement, (d) identify personal factors influencing faculty involvement, and (e) propose a conceptual model for assessing faculty involvement in study abroad. Further, the review of literature served to inform the development of the instrument employed in this study, as well as to direct the research objectives and assessment in articles two and three.

**Article two.** The purpose of article two was twofold: (a) to describe the involvement and perceptions of agriculture teaching faculty regarding study abroad programs; and (b) determine if differences existed in agriculture teaching faculty involvement, agreement with knowledge, skills
and abilities (KSAs) as outcomes of study abroad, perceived importance of KSA outcomes, study abroad awareness, study abroad priority, and prior international experience based on select personal and professional characteristics. Descriptive statistics and one-way ANOVA were used for data analysis in article two.

**Article three.** The purpose of article three was to examine factors within the personal dimension that may influence faculty involvement in study abroad. The objectives included in this study were to (a) describe personal factors of agriculture faculty, including perception of study abroad importance and personal interest in leading a study abroad program; and (b) develop a model to explain faculty involvement in study abroad in terms of personal dimension factors. Structural equation modeling was employed in article three to examine structural relationships between variables predicted to influence faculty involvement in study abroad. SEM analysis was selected due to its predictive ability, as well as the ability to examine the mediating effect of variables for which a direct effect may not be observed.

**References**


CHAPTER 2
AN INTEGRATED AND EXPLORATORY REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

As a result of the rapid evolution of higher education institutions into global actors (Mitchell & Nielsen, 2012; Naidoo, 2003), the impact of globalization and internationalization on the behavior and characteristics of universities, faculty, and students has become a more prevalent theme in recent research (ACE, 2012; Bedenlier & Zawacki-Richter, 2015; Cornelius, 2012; Finkelstein, Walker, & Chen, 2013; Green, 2012; Knight, 2015; Mitchell & Nielsen, 2012). As globalization and internationalization pertain to inherently complicated phenomena, their operational meanings often vary depending upon the context in which they have been applied (Enders, 2004; Knight, 1999; Mitchell & Nielsen, 2012). As such, the first two sections of this review were included to provide (a) a brief overview of globalization and its resulting impact on higher education and (b) discussion of the concept of internationalization, including rationales, approaches and institutional-level elements.

Globalization

Mitchell and Nielsen (2012) defined globalization in terms of spatial awareness and process of interactions. In terms of spatial awareness, globalization pertains to the interconnected relationship between cultures and the creation of a global society. As an interaction process, globalization describes the increased social interaction and connectivity of people around the globe (Mitchell & Nielsen, 2012). From a broad perspective, globalization can be defined as the multifaceted and complex process that influences the overall world order, including the world political, economic and cultural order (Mitchell & Nielsen, 2012; Paige, 2005).

Globalization in the academic sector constitutes a wide variety of components, including individual higher education institutions, academic disciplines or fields, and scholars and students
(Mitchell & Neilsen, 2012). In the most basic sense, globalization can be viewed as the context in which institutions of higher education function. In today’s globalized world, greater mobility of students and staff can be observed. As a result, the legitimacy of higher education institutions has become increasingly more dependent upon global name recognition and expansion (Mitchel & Neilsen, 2012). Therefore, institutions today must be able to compete on a global scale and attract the best students and scholars from around the world to thrive (Lechner & Boli, 2011; Mitchell & Neilsen, 2012).

The forces of globalization have been especially influential in the area of agriculture. The contemporary agriculture sector is one characterized by an interconnected global economy, increased competitiveness in a world market, and globalized commodities and services (Lewis & Gibson, 2008). Agricultural education must, therefore, be designed to prepare future agricultural and extension professionals to enter today’s global workforce. As the future of U.S agriculture is contingent upon its ability to produce globally skilled professionals, examination of how to do so has become a key theme in research. Further, the need to prioritize internationalization and prepare students to work in a global economy and society was identified in research priority area three of the American Association for Agricultural Education (AAAE) 2016-2020 national research agenda (Stripling & Ricketts, 2016). According to Etling (2001), “agricultural and extension educators who ignore globalization and its current manifestations are in peril of being left behind in current discourse” (p. 10).

**Internationalization**

While internationalization is not a new term, it is one that has largely increased in popularity in the education sectors since the early 1980s (de Wit, 2002). However, the increased use of the term *internationalization* is cause for greater confusion as to what exactly the term means
(Knight, 2004). As such, it is necessary to delineate an understanding of the term for analysis and discussion of areas in need of attention and support from policy makers and institutional leaders.

**Evolution of the Concept of Internationalization**

The definition of internationalization has evolved over recent decades. In the late 1980s, internationalization was largely defined in terms of activities at the institutional level. An example of this approach can be found in the definition proposed by Arum and van de Water (1992), in which internationalization was used to refer to “the multiple activities, programs and services that fall within international studies, international educational exchange and technical cooperation” (p. 202). In an attempt to reduce the limitations of an institutional based definition, Van der Wende (1997) proposed a broader definition of internationalization as “any systematic effort aimed at making higher education responsive to the requirements and challenges related to the globalization of societies, economy, and labor markets” (p. 18). However, this definition has been found faulty, because it limits internationalization to the external environment (i.e., globalization) and does not contextualize internationalization in terms of the educational sector (Knight, 2004). Soderqvist (2002) later proposed a definition concentrated on the process of educational change and holistic managerial view at the institutional level. Soderqvist (2002) defined internationalization of a higher education institution as,

> a change process from a national higher education institution to an international higher education institution leading to the inclusion of an international dimension in all aspects of its holistic management in order to enhance the quality of teaching and learning and to achieve the desired competencies. (Soderqvist, 2002, p. 29)

While this definition places internationalization within the institutional context, having specific rationales embedded in the definition limits its applicability to institutions and countries that perceive internationalization as more than teaching and development of competencies.

Considering the large number of proposed definitions and interpretations of internationalization,
the following conclusion by de Wit (2002) provides, perhaps, the most insight when discussing internationalization:

> a more focused definition is necessary if [internationalization] is to be understood and treated with the importance it deserves. Even if there is not agreement on a precise definition, internationalization needs to have parameters if it is to be assessed and to advance higher education. This is why the use of a working definition in combination with a conceptual framework for internationalization of higher education is relevant. (de Wit, 2002, p. 114)

**Definition for Current Study**

For the purposes of this article, the following definition of internationalization will be used: “the process of integrating an international, intercultural or global dimension into the purpose, functions or delivery of post-secondary education” (Knight, 2004, p. 2). As explained by Knight (2004), there are several key concepts included in this definition. The term *process* is included to denote the developmental nature of internationalization, in that internationalization involves ongoing and continuous effort (Knight, 2004). International, intercultural, and global dimension denote the broad scope (breadth) and complexity (depth) of the process of internationalization. *International* speaks to the relationships among nations, cultures and countries; *intercultural* relates to the diversity of cultures within countries, communities and institutions and is used to address the aspects of internationalization at home; *global* is included to contribute a sense of worldwide operation (Knight, 2004). *Integrating* is used to highlight the process of incorporating the central, not marginal, international/intercultural dimension into policies and programs.

Purpose, function, and delivery are concepts included in this definition and are to be considered in tandem. *Purpose* speaks to the role of higher education in a region or country and is specifically concerned with the mission of the institution; *function* refers to the key elements or tasks that characterize an institution (e.g., teaching/training, research and scholarly activities,
and service); delivery is more narrowly conceptualized and refers to the specific courses and programs offered. In the rationale provided by Knight (2004), delivery includes the delivery by traditional institutions of higher education, as well new providers not interested in the international dimension of a university or teaching, research and service functions. However, for the purpose of this study, delivery will refer only to the delivery by traditional higher education institutions.

**Internationalization and Higher Education**

In the 20th century, institutions of higher education operated within the boundaries of the nation-state. However, in light of the pressure for educational institutions to become more international in character (Paige, 2005), the scope and role of leading universities extends well beyond national borders today (Mohrman, Ma, & Baker, 2008). As open systems, institutions of higher educations are largely susceptible to the forces of their external environment, and globalization has become an environmental factor of profound impact for colleges and universities. This is especially true for public universities that are subject to the policy guidance of the nation, state, and public decisions. While globalization refers to events beyond the control of an institution (e.g., the flow of technology, economy, knowledge, people, values and idea across borders), internationalization in higher education involves the functions of individual institutions and is manifested in a series of policies and decisions within the control of that institution (e.g., new curricula, international recruitment, international partnerships, study abroad programming, etc.; Mohrman et al., 2008; Paige, 2005). In other words, globalization can be viewed as what is happening to higher education institutions, while internationalization is what higher education institutions are doing in response (Knight, 1999; Mitchell & Nielsen, 2012). Further, while
globalization may be uncontrollable in higher education, internationalization involves a series of choices (Altbach & Knight, 2007).

**Rationales for internationalizing higher education.** There exist a variety of motivations for implementing an international dimension into higher education. In order to create a framework for understanding rationales, Knight and de Witt (1999) arranged the potential rationales for internationalization into four groups (a) social/cultural, (b) political, (c) economic and (d) academic. The *political rationale* refers to the issues regarding national role and position in the world; the *economic rationale* refers to the economic effects of globalization, in which higher education is considered a contributor to the human resource capital needed for a nation to maintain international competitiveness; the *academic rationale* refers to those objectives relevant to the goals and functions of higher education, in which the international dimension of teaching, research and service is viewed as a value added component of higher education; the *cultural and social rationale* refers to the role of one’s own culture and the importance of understanding foreign cultures. The aforementioned categories are not specific to either national or institutional-level, which Knight (2004) argued is a necessary distinction. Moreover, Knight (2004) presented a list of emerging rationales that are perhaps of greater consequence. Institutional-level rationales include (a) international branding and profile, (b) income generation, (c) student and staff development, (d) strategic alliances, and (e) knowledge production.

**Approaches to internationalization.** As individual institutions each face their own unique challenges and opportunities, there exist various approaches to institutional internationalization (Knight, 2004; Qiang, 2003). For the purpose of this study, *approach* refers to the manner in which institutions conceptualize, promote and implement internationalization
(Knight, 2004; Qiang, 2003). Although the categories of approaches to internationalization have been relabeled by some researchers and sometimes include overlapping elements, four basic approaches can be used to describe the process of internationalization. These include (a) activity, (b) ethos, (c) competency, and (d) process approaches.

The activity approach has been the most prevalent, and describes internationalization in terms of specific activities or programs such as (a) study abroad, (b) curriculum and academic programs, (c) institutional partnerships and networks, and (d) international students (Knight, 2004; Qiang, 2003). From this approach, activities are often viewed as distinct programs in terms of their operation. According to Qiang (2003), this results in a fragmented approach to internationalization, in which consideration of the relationship, impact, and benefits between and among activities is excluded.

The ethos approach, alternatively labeled the *at home approach* by Knight (2004), emphasizes the creation of a university culture or climate that values and fosters international and intercultural ventures and perspectives (Knight & de Witt, 1999; Qiang, 2003). In this approach, the purpose of creating such a climate or culture is to support a particular set of principles and goals. Moreover, the international dimension is acknowledged as being fundamental to the definition of a higher education institution, and the international dimension could not be realized without the development of a strong value system and supportive campus-based culture (Knight, 2004; Qiang, 2003).

In the competency approach, the development of knowledge, skills, attitudes, and values among students, faculty and staff is emphasized (Knight & de Witt, 1999; Qiang, 2003). Thus, the concern principle to this approach is in the generation and transfer of knowledge that helps develop competencies among students and faculty that allow them to be more internationally
aware and interculturally adept (Qiang, 2003). As such, the development of an internationalized curriculum is not the end goal, but is rather a means toward developing the desired competencies among the institution’s students, faculty and staff. Knight (2004) relabeled this approach category as the outcome approach in an attempt to broaden this category from competencies to a wider interpretation of outcomes. From this broader perspective, internationalization involves outcomes in addition to student competencies, such as elevated institutional profile and more international partnerships or projects (Knight, 2004).

In the process approach, internationalization is viewed as the process of integrating an international/intercultural dimension into the teaching and learning process, research, and service functions of a university via a combination of various activities, policies and procedures (Knight, 2004; Qiang, 2003). As the sustainability of the international dimension is a major concern in this approach, emphasis is given to both program aspects and organizational elements such as policies and procedures (Qiang, 2003).

**Institutional-level performance indicators of internationalization.** As internationalization has become a key theme in recent literature, a number of researchers have examined the elements of internationalization at leading international universities. Moreover, professional associations and institutions in the U.S and elsewhere around the world have contributed perspectives on internationalization (Deardorff, de Wit, & Adams, 2012; Ellingboe, 1998; Knight, 2004; Nilsson, 2003; Nolan & Hunter, 2012; Paige, 2003; Paige, 2005; Taylor, 2004; University of Ballarat, 2003). Traditionally, internationalization at the institutional level has been considered a series of strategies and programs employed by the university. The institutional-level program strategies for internationalizing higher education identified most consistently across the literature include (a) study abroad and/or student exchange programs, (b)
faculty international experience and involvement in international activities, (c) an internationalized curricula, (d) international research and collaboration, (e) international students and scholars, (f) international or intercultural campus events, (g) institutional strategic plan or policy regarding internationalization, and (h) university leadership for internationalization (Deardorff, de Wit, Heyl, & Adams, 2012; Ellingboe, 1998; Knight, 2004; Nilsson, 2003; Nolan & Hunter, 2012; Paige, 2003; Paige, 2005; Taylor, 2004; University of Ballarat, 2003).

**Study Abroad**

As part of the effort to internationalize higher education, much attention has been given to increasing student participation in study abroad (Bunch, Blackburn, Danjean, Stair, & Blanchard, 2015; Childress, 2009; Danjean, Bunch, & Blackburn, 2015; Doyle, Gendall, Meyer, Hoek, Trait, & McKenzie, 2010; Lukosius & Festervand, 2013; Parsons, 2010; Schnusenberg, de Jong, & Goel, 2012; Van Hoof & Verbeeten, 2005; Zhai & Scheer). As suggested in the Commission on the Abraham Lincoln Study Abroad Fellowship Program, study abroad should become the norm, rather than the exception (Lincoln Commission, 2005). This campaign to increase study abroad participation is based on the postulation that studying abroad assists students in developing the global awareness and intercultural skills needed to succeed in today’s globalized workplace (Childress, 2009; Parsons, 2010; Schnusenberg et al., 2012). In prior studies, students who participated in a study abroad program demonstrated (a) greater global awareness and a more developed global mindset, (b) increased cultural awareness and higher acceptance of diverse culture groups, (c) increased skills communicating and working with people of cultures different from their own, (d) higher levels of confidence and self-efficacy when working in unfamiliar situations, (e) international networks beneficial to their careers, and (f) a greater likelihood of pursuing a globally focused career (Briers, Shinn, & Nguyen, 2010; Childress,
2009; Ludwig, 2007; Parsons, 2010; Ricketts & Morgan, 2009; Schnusenberg et al., 2012; Zhai & Scheer, 2002).

Unfortunately, the recent report by the Institute of International Education (IIE, 2016) indicated a 16 percent annual increase in study abroad participation is needed to reach the national study abroad goals by the end of the decade. Moreover, only 2.6 percent of the students who studied abroad in the 2014/15 academic year were in agriculture majors (IIE, 2016). While high levels of student interest in studying abroad has been reported in prior studies, a number of factors may deter students from actually participating (Briers et al., 2010; Bunch et al., 2015; Danjean et al., 2015; Bunch, Lamm, Israel, & Edwards, 2013). While some of the factors hindering student participation in education abroad may prove more difficult to overcome than others, many can be addressed by increasing the engagement of university faculty. Faculty engagement has been largely cited as an essential component of successful internationalization of institutions of higher education overall, as well as a driving force behind efforts to increase student participation in study abroad (Childress, 2007; Cornelius, 2012; Doyle et al., 2010; NSSE, 2008; O’Hara, 2009; Paus & Robinson, 2008; Stohl, 2007; Woodruff, 2009). While universities may provide students opportunities for education abroad, the desired participation rate will likely go unreached without greater faculty involvement (Stohl, 2007). As such, an examination of the role faculty play in study abroad is warranted.

**Faculty Engagement in Study Abroad**

A number of factors can influence, positively or negatively, the engagement of faculty in study abroad activities. However, there exist few conceptual models to assess the factors influencing faculty engagement in study abroad programs for students. Andreasen (2003) identified and discussed the factors inhibiting faculty engagement in international work as either internal or
external barriers. Examples of the external barriers identified include (a) lack of administrative support, (b) tenure position, (c) time and financial constraints, (d) foreign language ability, (e) conflict with courses taught or current research, and (f) lack of opportunity. Internal barriers included (a) ethnic or cultural prejudices, (b) fears of different cultures or of political unrest, (c) cultural bias and perceived American superiority, and (d) fear of losing opportunities at home (Andreasen, 2003). Identifying barriers as either internal or external may contribute to a better understanding of which factors can be alleviated as a result of policy change, as well as provide some direction for how to probe the intrinsic motivation of faculty to reduce the internal barriers. Additionally, further delineation of the external barriers may provide a more useful approach in assessing and understanding these factors.

The Faculty Engagement Model (FEM) developed by Wade and Demb (2009) provides a more comprehensive approach to assessing the factors influencing faculty engagement. Per the model, engagement is influenced by sets of factors organized within the (a) institutional, (b) professional, and (c) personal dimensions. The institutional dimension pertains to characteristics of institutional culture and the manner in which institutions establish and convey priorities. The professional dimension comprises factors relevant to the professional characteristics of faculty, such as (a) academic discipline, (b) rank, and (c) professional and departmental support. Lastly, the personal dimension includes factors that pertain to (a) faculty beliefs and attitudes, (b) personal experiences, and (c) demographic characteristics (Wade & Demb, 2009). In the original Model, Wade and Demb (2009) operationalized faculty engagement to include the entire scope of faculty research, teaching and service activities. For the purpose of this review, faculty engagement was narrowed to denote the active involvement of faculty in activities associated with student participation in study abroad programs. Institutional, professional, and personal
factors were then identified as part of this literature review to propose a conceptual model for explaining faculty engagement in study abroad.

**Purpose and Objectives**

The primary purpose of this review was to provide a conceptual framework for explaining faculty involvement in study abroad programs. The objectives that guided this review were to (a) describe the role faculty play in study abroad efforts, (b) identify study abroad activities that constitute faculty involvement in study abroad, (b) identify institutional, professional, and personal dimension factors that influence faculty involvement in study abroad.

**Methodology**

A systematic approach to identifying the literature was developed and utilized for this review. The process of article selection and criteria upon which the selected articles were assessed for inclusion in this study are described in following sections.

**Inclusion Criteria**

This literary analysis included scholarly and professional literature published across disciplines by peer-reviewed journals, as well as publications by governmental and non-governmental departments and organizations specializing in internationalizing higher education. Considering the limited body of research specific to the agricultural field, this review was limited to discipline specific search engines. Study designs included, but were not limited to, survey research design, empirical designs, and theoretical designs. Non-randomized designs were also included as they are common in the social science field. Further, this review was bounded by the criteria of being relevant to the higher education institution. Regarding the publications reviewed in the study abroad literature, only those involving student educational international travel were considered, and those pertaining to student personal travel were not included. Additionally, as
internationalization has been considered a comprehensive and integrated approach (Knight, 2015; Woodruff, 2009), studies involving faculty engagement in elements of internationalization other than study abroad were not excluded from the scope of discussion. With the exception of one article added in the final stage of the search, this review was intended to provide an account of recent research and does not include work prior to the year 2000. Lastly, as the article search was conducted in English, all included articles were written in English.

**Search Strategies**

The initial, exploratory search was conducted mainly by way of Google scholar, using key search terms intended to provide an initial exploratory examination of the literature. The terms used in the initial search included internationalization, higher education, study abroad, faculty role, motivators, and barriers. Combinations of terms used in the search included the following: (a) study abroad + internationalizing higher education; (b) study abroad + barriers; study abroad + motivators; (c) study abroad + role of faculty; factors + influencing + role of faculty; (d) faculty perceptions + study abroad; and (e) university support + faculty role + study abroad. The term higher education was used as a constant to exclude articles not concerned with higher education.

The exploratory search yielded 61 articles. The abstracts of the 61 articles were then screened for relevancy, of which 47 articles were accepted for full review. Each of the 47 articles were read with consideration given to the questions (a) how and to what extent can faculty be involved in study abroad? (b) what institutional factors influence faculty involvement in study abroad? (c) what professional factors influence faculty involvement in study abroad? and (d) what personal factors influence faculty involvement in study abroad? Further, considering internationalizing higher education involves a comprehensive approach, faculty involvement in other components of internationalization (e.g., internationalizing the curriculum, international
research, international work) may be transferrable to their involvement in study abroad. As such, articles that answered these questions in other areas of internationalization were deemed within the scope of this review. Articles that did not address any of the aforementioned topics of inquiry were excluded from the review, which resulted in a reduced number of accepted articles to 20. The reference lists of all articles were then cross-checked to identify references that may have been overlook in the initial search. Two additional articles were reviewed and accepted for a total of 22 articles (see Figure 2.1).

Figure 2.1. Process of article search and selection for inclusion in literature review.

Results

Analysis of the literature revealed faculty have considerable capacity to influence student participation in study abroad programs. In addition to actually leading a study abroad program, several other activities associated with study abroad were identified in which faculty can be engaged. Lastly, institutional, professional, and personal factors that motivate or deter faculty involvement in study abroad were identified.

Objective One: Describe the Role of Faculty in Study Abroad

The first objective of this review of literature was to describe the role faculty play in facilitating student participation in study abroad. Examination of the literature revealed faculty attitudes and
behaviors can influence significantly the attitudes, behaviors, and experiences of students.

Moreover, the findings from this review have considerable implications regarding the important role faculty play in the study abroad initiatives and efforts of the institution (O’Hara, 2009; Paus & Robinson, 2008; Umbach & Wawrzynski, 2005; Woodruff, 2009)

Umbach and Wawrzynski (2005) assessed the impact of faculty behaviors and interactions with students in the classroom on students’ experience and learning. Although students often sought support from sources other than faculty, Umbach and Wawrynzki (2005) concluded faculty still play a critical role in students’ collegiate experience. Specifically, Umbach and Wawrynzki (2005) found the culture created by faculty attitudes and behaviors, both in and outside the classroom, had a positive relationship with students’ engagement, academic and personal gains, and overall perception of the university environment. As for the implications of this study, examining involvement in and attitudes toward study abroad can assist in gaining a better understanding of students’ decision to study abroad.

O’Hara (2009) provided a summary of research conducted to examine the role faculty play in (a) influencing students, (b) advancing international connections and research, (c) and influencing the campus community. Based on the review of research, O’Hara (2009) concluded faculty have significant influence in shaping student interest. While it is possible for a student to graduate without having had any interaction with personnel from residential life, academic/career counseling or other university offices, O’Hara (2009) maintained it is largely inconceivable that a student would graduate without having had any interaction with teaching faculty/advisors. Moreover, while faculty work may be very diverse and non-inclusive of teaching responsibilities for some, the student-to-faculty ratio indicates a significant degree of interaction occurs between faculty and students whether in the classroom, laboratory setting, community service
engagements, or research (O’Hara, 2009). Regarding the influence of faculty on student participation in study abroad, O’Hara (2009) identified faculty encouragement as being particularly critical.

Paus and Robinson (2008) examined factors that motivate or impede students’ participation in study abroad programs and organized determinants of study abroad participation into the categories (a) student background characteristics, (b) student comfort with risk and cultural differences, (c) college-related factors, and (d) encouragement effects. Paus and Robinson (2008) operationalized encouragement effects as the influence of those who encouraged students to study abroad (e.g. family, friends, faculty members) and found that more than three fourths of the students who had participated in a study abroad program had been encouraged to do so by parents or university faculty. Based on the findings of their study, Paus and Robinson (2008) concluded that increased faculty involvement in study abroad may be key to overcoming the barriers that deter students from studying abroad. Although encouragement from parents was found to be influential in students’ decision to study abroad, Paus and Robinson (2008) suggested future efforts be directed at how faculty can play a more active role in encouraging students to study abroad. As universities have significantly less direct contact with parents than faculty, increasing faculty involvement is likely a more feasible approach. Lastly, Paus and Robinson (2008) postulated that the faculty most likely to have played an influential role in a students’ decision to study abroad were faculty in that student’s major/department.

Examination of methods of practice among leading universities in education abroad provided further evidence of the critical role faculty play in increasing student participation in study abroad. The University of Minnesota implemented a Study Abroad Curriculum Integration...
initiative to establish a pathway for developing the study abroad capacity at the university. 

Woodruff (2009) provided a report on the goals, processes and outcomes of this initiative, in which the importance of faculty engagement was identified and discussed. Per the report provided by Woodruff (2009), the model of curriculum integration at the University of Minnesota was built upon learning outcomes defined by education abroad, as well as by academic units. Conversations with faculty and advisors in the various departments began with questions such as: What do you want to see students learning during an international experience? How do we want students to complement their undergraduate experiences with an experience abroad? How do you advise your students? According to Woodruff (2009), these conversations not only empowered faculty and advisors to become knowledgeable about study abroad, but also positioned them to be active in promoting and supporting the study abroad endeavors of their students. Involving faculty and advisors as partners in the effort to internationalize the undergraduate experience at the University of Minnesota changed the overall expectations of study abroad and helped establish a university culture that encourages student participation in study abroad opportunities. Additionally, this approach reshaped the idea of curriculum integration into the concept of colleague integration, which has been manifest in the partnerships established between university faculty and the office of international programming. According to Woodruff (2009), this culture of expectation has been and will continue to be the foundation of growth in education abroad.

Avenues for Faculty Involvement in Study Abroad

A second objective of this review was to identify specific ways in which faculty can be involved in study abroad initiatives and facilitate student participation in study abroad programs. Based on the review of literature, faculty can actively influence student participation in study abroad by (a)
encouraging students to study abroad, (b) promoting study abroad programs and distributing information to students, (c) engaging/establishing partnerships with the office of international programs on campus, (d) assisting students with study abroad processes, and (e) leading study abroad programs (Doyle et al., 2010; Lukosius & Festervand, 2013; O’Hara, 2009; Paus & Robinson, 2008).

Lukosious and Festervand (2013) examined the components of a student recruitment model for promoting and marketing study abroad programs to provide insight and recommendations for increasing participation among targeted audiences (e.g., university students). Regarding the promotion and marketing of study abroad programs, Lukosius and Festervand (2013) maintained this activity is one that needs to be planned and prepared for well in advance. In order to do so, it is necessary to understand the factors that drive students’ choice to participate in a given program. Using a model for student choice of academic institution, Lukosius and Festervand (2013) identified the following four stages experienced by students when choosing a study abroad program: (a) pre-search behavior, during which students passively absorb information about study abroad opportunities and form initial attitudes; (b) search behavior, where students have developed a list of programs they wish to learn more about and make decisions as they gather and relate information to their decision criteria; (c) choice and application, the stage in which students submit a formal application for their chosen study abroad program; and (d) registration and payment, the final stage in which students complete registration and make final payment for the program.

In the pre-search stage, it is necessary students be made aware of study abroad opportunities and gain interest (Lukosius & Festervand, 2013). As such, study abroad programs must be publicized at the institution. This can be accomplished via a variety of avenues such as
social media pages, the university’s office of international programs website, and study abroad fairs. Faculty can help facilitate initiation of this first stage by informing students of these types of informational sources. After initial interest is established, students must continue to expand that interest and gather more detailed information about available study abroad programs (Lukosius & Festervand, 2013). Faculty can aid in moving students through this stage by distributing informational flyers about study abroad programs offered in theirs or other departments to students in their classes. Moreover, as “selling memories” has been identified as a useful mechanism for building interest (Lukosius & Festervand, 2013, p. 490), faculty may further develop student interest in study abroad by inviting students who have studied abroad previously to guest speak in their classes and share their experiences. During these initial stages, faculty can also be active in encouraging students to begin or continue pursuit of study abroad opportunities (O’Hara, 2009; Paus & Robinson, 2008).

Unfortunately, students may not always receive the information needed. Doyle et al. (2010) conducted a study to investigate factors influencing New Zealand students’ participation in study abroad programs. The researchers employed a multimethod approach in this study, including a review of literature, case studies with five institutions, an online survey and focus groups with undergraduate students, and interview with select university faculty and staff. Findings from the student survey and interviews indicated that students lacked awareness and information about study abroad programs, as well as support during the study abroad planning process (Doyle et al., 2010). Similarly, Bunch et al. (2015) and Danjean et al. (2015) found that faculty and advisors were the sources least utilized by students when seeking information on study abroad opportunities. The final two stages comprise bureaucratic processes and, thus, require knowledge of appropriate procedures. Faculty serve as key players in these final stages
through their advisory functions. Students who participated in the study by Doyle et al. (2010) indicated they lacked the detailed knowledge needed to incorporate a study abroad experience as part of their undergraduate degree program. Thus, faculty knowledge of the proper administrative procedures can help reduce the number of students who drop out at in the later stages of the study abroad process (Lukosius & Festervand, 2013). Regarding the obstacle of financial support, Doyle et al. (2010) found that some students had allocated loans for their international experience. However, none of the students in this study reported having received substantive advice from faculty at their home institutions about applying for a student work visa or identifying opportunities for work while abroad (Doyle et al., 2010).

Factors Influencing Faculty Involvement in Study Abroad

Several factors can influence faculty involvement in study abroad. Moreover, these sets of factors can be categorized within the institutional, professional, and personal dimensions.

Institutional dimension factors pertain to the characteristics and culture of the university. Professional dimension factors pertain to the characteristics of faculty such as professional rank, tenure, and academic discipline. Personal dimension factors involve the personal beliefs, knowledge, and experiences of faculty.

Institutional dimension. The institutional factors identified as influential to faculty involvement in study abroad were associated primarily with the study abroad mission and priorities of the institution. Findings from a series of studies conducted by the American Council of Education (ACE, 2012), revealed significant growth in internationalization efforts across U.S. campuses in recent years. Many institutions have worked international education into their mission statements, as well as have placed internationalization among the top priorities in their strategic plans (ACE, 2012). However, as a result of the series of surveys conducted, the ACE
(2012) concluded a mixed picture remains as to whether institutional goals of internationalization are reflected in actual practice. Institutional dimension factors that may explain this gap in priority and actual practice include (a) clear communication of priorities and (b) administrative support, including tenure and promotion policies and availability of resources (ACE, 2012; Bond, Qian, & Huang, 2003; Dewey & Duff, 2009; Schwietz, 2006).

**Communication of institutional priorities.** The inclusion of study abroad in the institutional mission is not sufficient in and of itself for achieving associated goals for study abroad. Rather, the actualization of institutional goals for study abroad is dependent upon the degree to which these goals and associated strategic plans are communicated across the university (Bond et al., 2003; Schweitz, 2006). The body of literature is limited regarding studies conducted to examine the communication of study abroad priorities. As such, implications were drawn from the findings of studies conducted to examine the communication of institutional goals for other elements of internationalization. In a study conducted to examine faculty role in internationalizing the curriculum, Bond et al. (2003) found a clear disconnect existed between the priorities of the institution and actual practice among faculty. In a study conducted with faculty from 14 universities in Pennsylvania, Schweitz (2006) found most faculty perceived there was a general lack of internationalization initiatives at their university. Moreover, faculty reported uncertainty as to whether institutional commitment to internationalization efforts and activities (e.g., study abroad) was predominately symbolic or intended to be acted upon, as well whether this level of commitment was held by senior administrators at their university. Faculty also expressed uncertainty regarding whether international work was considered in the recruitment and hiring of new faculty, if fellow faculty and staff were involved actively in
international activities, and the availability of funding to support their development of international knowledge and skills (Schwietz, 2006).

**Administrative support.** Regarding administrative support for actualizing institutional mission and goals, faculty in the study Bond et al. (2003) perceived an inadequate level of institutional support and a general lack of discussion of critical issues. Faculty in this study also reported that, even when critical issues were brought to light, they were often unaccompanied by adequate provision of practical support (Bond et al., 2003). Regarding communication of study abroad priorities, Dewey and Duff (2009) reiterated the importance of coordination and clear lines of communication, as well as recommended a review of administrative policy and procedures be conducted to reduce barriers to faculty engagement in study abroad.

**Tenure and promotion policy.** Inclusion of international activities in the tenure, promotion and reward system of the university has been identified as a critical form of support in internationalizing higher education (Paige, 2005). However, the review of literature revealed the contemporary reward system in higher education as one that seldom acknowledges the international activities of faculty (Ellingboe, 1998; Green & Olsen, 2003). In prior studies, restrictive tenure and promotion policies have been among the most frequently reported barriers to faculty engagement in study abroad and other internationalization activities (ACE, 2012; Andreasen, 2003; Bendelier & Zawacki-Richter, 2015; Dewey & Duff, 2009; Ellingboe, 1998; Estes et al., 2016; Finkelstein, Walker, & Chen, 2013; Green & Olsen, 2003). Although ACE (2012) reported significant growth in internationalization efforts among institutions between the years 2006 and 2011, no growth was reported regarding the percentage of institutions with tenure and promotion policies inclusive of international work. Regarding this lack of formal recognition, Green and Olsen (2003) maintained that the practice of overlooking international
service and scholarship serves as a disincentive to faculty. Estes et al. (2016) also posited that barriers perceived by faculty may be an outcome of the lack of recognition of international engagement in tenure and promotion decisions.

*Time and financial resources.* As per the ACE (2012) report, there has been a decline in the percentage of institutions offering funding for international travel for faculty. However, a slight increase was reported for the percentage of institutions providing funding for faculty to lead students on study abroad programs (ACE, 2012). Despite this slight increase, time and financial considerations remain factors reported more often as barriers than motivators. Ellingboe (1998) and Estes et al. (2016) found financial constraints prevented faculty from participating in study abroad programs, especially considering the costs involved in traveling overseas. Further, Ellingboe (1998) reported institutional administrators perceived faculty development as their responsibility of faculty member and were, therefore, unwilling to provide funding to internationalize the faculty.

*Professional dimension.* Regardless of the institutional priority given to study abroad, faculty engagement in study abroad activities may be influenced by various professional-level factors. The factors identified in the review of literature include (a) professional rank and tenure status, (b) the international nature of the academic discipline of faculty, and (c) study abroad priority within faculty members’ academic departments.

Even with adequate communication of institutional priorities, the decentralized organizational sub systems of faculty scholarship may hinder the actualization of those priorities. In other words, academic disciplines and departments within a university often function as their own, separate entities. The teaching, research and service priorities of faculty have been reported often in prior studies as being contingent upon the needs and expectations of their respective
discipline or academic department (Childress, 2007). Some academic disciplines may be inherently international or globally focused in nature, whereas other disciplines construct their knowledge base from a largely domestic point of view (Ellingboe, 1998). For example, Bond et al. (2003) found the faculty who agreed least with the role of faculty being important in internationalizing the curriculum were faculty in science disciplines. In follow up interviews, some faculty expressed their belief that their academic discipline does not lend itself to the internationalization of the curriculum (Bond et al., 2003). These department specific differences can thus thwart institution-wide internationalization initiatives and strategies (Childress, 2007).

In this respect, faculty commitments to their disciplines and departments can limit even the most enthusiastic faculty in their ability to engage in international activities (Green & Olsen, 2003).

**Personal dimension.** In addition to institutional and professional dimension factors, individual characteristics of faculty may influence their involvement in study abroad. The personal characteristics identified most frequently in the relevant literature include (a) faculty attitudes and beliefs toward study abroad, (b) faculty knowledge and awareness of study abroad programs and processes, and (c) faculty prior international experience.

**Faculty attitudes and beliefs.** Faculty perception of the importance of study abroad, as well as their general attitudes toward internationalization, can largely impact their involvement. Green and Olson (2003) found faculty were less inclined to engage in study abroad activities if they did not value international education. If faculty perceive studying abroad produces beneficial outcomes, as well as perceive those outcomes as important skills for students to develop, they may be more likely to engage in promoting and facilitating study abroad participation among their students. In fact, data from the National Survey of Student Engagement (NSSE) (2008) indicated that a one-point increase in faculty response on a Likert-type scale
rating of importance of study abroad translated into a 20 percent increase in student participation in study abroad. Unfortunately, only 43 percent of U.S. faculty perceived study abroad as being important for students (O’Hara, 2009). Considering the less than desired number of students studying abroad each year (IIE, 2016), attention must be given to developing faculty that encourage and support students’ participation in study abroad programs (O’Hara, 2009).

**Faculty knowledge and awareness.** Faculty international awareness overall, as well as their knowledge specific to study abroad, can influence their involvement in study abroad activities (Lukosius & Festervand, 2013). In an analysis of students’ choice process to study abroad, Lukosius and Festervand (2013) maintained the role of faculty is especially in helping students move through the final two stages of the study abroad process. Faculty must have adequate knowledge of the bureaucratic process involved with studying abroad to assist students properly and reduce the likelihood students will drop out of a study abroad program (Lukosius & Festervand, 2013). However, over one third of faculty respondents in the study by Bond et al. (2003) expressed concern about theirs and other faculty members’ abilities to support internationalization of the university. Moreover, Bond et al. (2003) found that lack of faculty involvement and familiarity with the university’s international programs office was an inhibiting factor in their ability to assist in increasing student participation in study abroad programs. Similarly, Doyle et al. (2010) found most faculty, with the exception of those teaching a foreign language course, had limited involvement with their international exchange office. These faculty also reported that, aside from providing minimal academic advice, they had little contact with the outbound students and limited knowledge of study abroad opportunities or scholarships for which students could apply for. As such, Doyle et al. (2010) concluded that faculty and advisors’
engagement with study abroad was limited to their specific role requirements, such as course approval and credit transfer.

*Personal experience of faculty.* Lastly, the prior experience of faculty may influence their degree of engagement in internationalization activities. Findings from prior research on the influence of faculty prior international experience remains somewhat mixed. Some researchers have suggested that faculty may lack the knowledge and skills to engage if they lack exposure to different cultural perspectives (Bond, 2003; Green & Olsen, 2003). Moreover, researchers have maintained that faculty who have lived, traveled, or worked abroad may be more inclined to integrate an international component in their teaching, research, and service (ACE, 2012; Bond, 2003; Green & Olsen, 2003).

In contrast with other studies, Woodruff (2009) reported that the prior international experiences of faculty did not directly translate into increased promotion of study abroad among their students. Faculty with some degree of international engagement had positive attitudes toward study abroad, but were not necessarily knowledgeable about the study abroad opportunities available to their students, nor did they encourage study abroad more so than faculty with less international experiences. However, faculty who were both engaged in the curriculum integration initiative and held a high degree of personal international engagement had greater knowledge of study abroad and were more likely to encourage their students to study abroad. These findings indicate that personal international engagement may be predictive of faculty perceptions of the value of study abroad, but alone may not be predictive of the degree to which faculty will be actively engaged in promoting and facilitating study abroad among their students. Further research is needed to examine the influence of faculty prior international experience and their engagement in study abroad.
Paus and Robinson (2008) noted that, while many faculty members claimed to support study abroad, that support did not necessarily translate from abstract into actual practice. Faculty members may not have given much consideration to the importance of study abroad, may not be well-informed about opportunities for study abroad, or may consider facilitating study abroad participation as outside of their responsibility (Paus & Robinson, 2008). However, Paus and Robinson (2008) also maintained “when faculty are convinced of the value of learning abroad and see how it would fit into their students’ course of study and the kind of opportunities that are available, they are much more likely to encourage their students to pursue such possibilities” (p. 47). Hulstrand (2009) suggested that one approach to engaging more faculty in study abroad is to offer faculty the opportunity for hands-on experiences by sending them along with other faculty leading a study abroad. Students who have internationally involved and experienced professors are more likely to pursue an international experience themselves (Hulstrand, 2009).

**Discussion and Implications**

There exists an abundance of published work in which authors have identified faculty engagement in internationalization activities as critical to the success of internationalizing higher education. However, studies specific to the role of faculty in student participation in study abroad programs remain limited, particularly studies conducted with agriculture faculty. Moreover, much of the existing work provides only a discussion of what faculty should be doing in terms of their engagement in internationalization without thorough investigation or empirical evidence to describe (a) the degree to which faculty are currently in internationalization activities (e.g., education abroad) and (b) the factors that may influence their involvement. One could argue it would be nonsensical to make recommendations regarding what agricultural faculty *should* be doing regarding their involvement in study abroad without first gaining an understanding of what
faculty are already doing. In the same respect, efforts to engage faculty in study abroad may prove futile without adequate consideration given to factors that facilitate or impede faculty involvement.

The results of this integrated literature review revealed faculty do play a key role in student participation in study abroad programs. In addition to leading study abroad programs, faculty can be engaged in study abroad efforts by utilizing time in their courses to encourage student participation in study abroad and to distribute information regarding study abroad opportunities (Lukosius & Festervand, 2013; O’Hara, 2009; Paus & Robinson, 2008). Additionally, faculty may engage in study abroad efforts through their role as a student advisor by aiding students through the study abroad process (Lukosius & Festervand, 2013). Regarding factors influencing faculty involvement in study abroad, factors within the institutional, professional, and personal dimensions were identified. Based on the findings of this review, the following conceptual model was proposed for examining the involvement of faculty in study abroad (see Figure 2.2).
Considering faculty were identified as being key players in institutional efforts to increase student participation in study abroad, university and department administrators should seek to increase faculty involvement in study abroad. Based on the results of this review, administrators should seek to increase faculty involvement in (a) encouraging students to study abroad, (b) promoting study abroad programs, (c) informing students of study abroad opportunities, (d) connecting students with appropriate personnel in the office of international programs, and (e) assisting students with the study abroad process. Further, as faculty knowledge and awareness of study abroad was identified as a deterrent to their involvement, it could be beneficial for department administrators to conduct a needs assessment to identify the capacities needed by faculty to better assist the students they advise with the study abroad process. Future efforts...
should be also directed to establishing clear lines of communication across the campus regarding institutional goals and priorities of study abroad. Additionally, institutional and departmental administrators should seek international opportunities for faculty, and encourage faculty to pursue those opportunities. Lastly, reexamination of the contemporary promotion and reward system regarding recognition of faculty international work is warranted.

Per the proposed conceptual model (see Figure 2.2), future research to explain faculty involvement in study abroad should examine the following: (a) institution factors, including institutional mission and priorities, communication of priorities, tenure and promotion policies, and time and financial support provided; (b) professional factors, including professional rank, academic discipline, and study abroad perceptions at the departmental levels; and (c) personal factors, including faculty perceptions of the importance of study abroad, faculty awareness of study abroad programs and processes, and prior international experiences of faculty (ACE, 2012; Bond et al., 2003; Dewey & Duff, 2009; Ellingboe, 1998; Green & Olsen, 2003; Hulstrand, 2009; O’Hara, 2009; Paige, 2005; Schwietz, 2006). As the body of research specific to faculty involvement in study abroad is limited, this review of literature was largely exploratory in nature. Moreover, the factors identified in this study offer only a preliminary first step in future research to explain faculty involvement in study abroad. As such, future qualitative research is needed to identify other factors within each dimension that may have been overlooked in this study. Additionally, an examination of the structural relationships between variables within each dimension of the proposed model is warranted.

References


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CHAPTER 3
A DESCRIPTIVE AND COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF FACULTY INVOLVEMENT IN AND PERCEPTIONS OF STUDY ABROAD

In light of the push to internationalize higher education and produce globally competent professionals, increasing student participation in study abroad programs has become adopted widely into the mission and strategic plans of higher education institutions (ACE, 2012). In prior studies, the knowledge, skills and abilities (KSA) observed as outcomes among students who studied abroad included (a) a more developed global perspective; (b) greater cultural competence skills, including cultural awareness, understanding, and sensitivity; (c) improved ability communicating and collaborating with people of cultures different than their own, (d) increased self-confidence and self-efficacy working in unfamiliar situations, (e) establishment of international networks benefitting to their careers; (f) a greater interest in pursuing an internationally focused career; and (g) continued integration of study abroad experiences into their everyday lives (Anderson, Lawton, Rexeisen, & Hubbard, 2006; Briers, Shinn, & Nguyen, 2010; Chieffo & Griffiths, 2004; Clark, Flaherty, Wright, & McMillen, 2009; Czerwionka, Artamonova, & Barbosa, 2015; Kehl & Morris, 2008; Parsons, 2010; Rowan-Kenyon & Niehaus, 2011; Sjoberg and Shabalina, 2010).

Due to the continued need to increase student participation rates to reach nation goals for study abroad (IIE, 2016b), much of the prior research in this area has examined factors that motivate or deter students from studying abroad (Bunch, Blackburn, Danjean, Stair, & Blanchard, 2015; Danjean, Bunch, & Blackburn, 2015). A variety of factors have been found to student participation in study abroad, including the behaviors and attitudes of university faculty (Lukosius & Festervand, 2013; O’Hara, 2009; Paus & Robinson; Stohl, 2007). While prior research has been conducted to examine faculty involvement in other areas of
internationalization, such as internationalizing the curriculum and international research collaboration, there remains a need for research specific to faculty involvement in study abroad. Moreover, in much of the research that has been conducted on faculty involvement in study abroad, involvement has been operationalized most frequently as faculty participation as leaders of study abroad programs. However, there exist ways in which faculty can be involved in study abroad aside from leading a program (Lukosius & Festervand, 2013; O’Hara, 2009; Umbach & Wawrzynski, 2005). As such, examination of the full extent of faculty involvement, as well as examine factors influencing their involvement, is warranted.

**Literature Review and Conceptual Framework**

The conceptual model developed in article one of this dissertation series served as the conceptual framework for this dissertation article (see Figure 1). Wade and Demb’s (2009) Faculty Engagement Model (FEM) was modified by the researcher via a review of literature to provide a comprehensive framework for examining faculty involvement in study abroad. For the purpose of this study, faculty engagement was confined to faculty involvement in activities associated with student participation in study abroad programs. As per the proposed model, faculty involvement in study abroad is influenced by sets of factors organized within the institutional, professional, and personal dimensions (see Figure 3.1).
Institutional Dimension

The institutional dimension pertains to characteristics of the institution and the manner in which institutions establish and convey priorities (Author, n.d; Wade & Demb, 2009). Wade and Demb (2009) maintained “understanding the role of institutional culture and the way institutions set priorities and create meaning are important considerations when assessing engagement-oriented faculty behavior” (p. 8). Findings from a series of studies conducted by the American Council on Education (ACE, 2012) revealed many institutions have included international education into their mission statements and strategic plan priorities. However, the ACE (2012) reported mixed findings regarding the actualization of institutional goals and priorities in campus-wide practices. This gap between institutional rhetoric and actual practice may be attributed to inadequate
institutional and administrative communication and support (ACE, 2012; Bond, Qian, & Huang, 2003; Dewey & Duff, 2009; Schwietz, 2006). In a study by Schwietz (2006), faculty reported uncertainty as to whether institutional commitment to internationalization was predominately symbolic or intended to be acted upon. Similarly, in a study conducted by Bond et al. (2003) to examine the role of faculty in internationalizing the curriculum, a clear disconnect between the priorities of the institution and actual practice among faculty was identified. Faculty in this study reported a general lack of discussion of critical issues, as well as lack of practical support provided when critical issues were brought up. (Bond et al., 2003). In respect to faculty engagement in study abroad, Dewey and Duff (2009) reiterated the importance of coordination and clear communication of institutional priorities and recommended a review of administrative policy and procedures be conducted to reduce barriers to faculty engagement in study abroad.

Additionally, the institutional dimension includes the university tenure, promotion, and reward system. In respect to internationalizing higher education, the inclusion of international activities in tenure and promotion decisions has been identified as critical to successful internationalization (Paige, 2005). However, despite significant growth in internationalization efforts among institutions between the years 2006 and 2011, the ACE (2012) reported no growth during these years regarding the percentage of institutions with tenure and promotion policies inclusive of international work. The aggregate body of research on this topic suggests the contemporary reward system is one that seldom recognizes the international activities of faculty and, therefore, serves as a barrier to faculty engagement in study abroad and other international activities (ACE, 2012; Andreasen, 2003; Bendelier & Zawacki-Richter, 2015; Dewey & Duff, 2009; Ellingboe, 1998; Estes, Hansen, & Edgar, 2016; Finkelstein, Walker, & Chen, 2013; Green & Olsen, 2003).
Professional Dimension

The professional dimension comprises factors relevant to the professional characteristics of faculty, such as professional rank and tenure status, the global nature of faculty academic discipline or field of study, and support and priority among faculty and administrators within specific academic department (Author, n.d). Regarding the influence of academic discipline on faculty involvement in international activities, Childress (2007) identified the teaching, research and service priorities of faculty as being contingent upon the needs and expectations of their respective discipline or academic department. This occurrence may serve as a barrier to the study abroad involvement of faculty in some departments due to some academic disciplines being inherently internationally focused and others having a largely domestic frame of reference (Ellingboe, 1998). For example, Bond et al. (2003) found that some faculty perceived their academic discipline as one that did not lend itself to the internationalization of the curriculum. As such, even the most enthusiastic faculty can be limited in their ability to engage in study abroad activities by their commitments to their disciplines and academic departments, as well as by their attitudes held by their fellow colleagues in their department (Green & Olsen, 2003).

Personal Dimension

The personal dimension includes factors that pertain to faculty beliefs and attitudes, personal experience, and demographic characteristics (Author, n.d; Wade & Demb, 2009). Personal characteristics identified in prior studies as influencing faculty involvement in study abroad include (a) faculty beliefs regarding the importance of study abroad, (b) faculty knowledge and awareness of study abroad programs and associated procedures, and (c) prior international experience of faculty.
Faculty beliefs and attitudes. Faculty perceptions regarding the importance of study abroad can motivate or hinder their involvement in study abroad activities. If faculty perceive studying abroad as an effective means of producing learning outcomes among students, as well as perceive those outcomes as important for students to develop, they will be more likely to engage in promoting, encouraging and facilitating study abroad participation among their students (Green & Olsen, 2003; NSSE, 2008). In a study by Green and Olson (2003), faculty who did not perceive international education as valuable for students were less inclined to engage in study abroad activities. Similarly, Paus and Robinson (2008) concluded that faculty are more likely to encourage their students to pursue international opportunities if they are personally convinced of the value of study abroad and can see how it relates to their students course of study.

Describing faculty attitudes and beliefs is especially critical to study abroad efforts because of the significant capacity of faculty to impact student participation in study abroad. Data from the National Survey of Student Engagement (NSSE) (2008) demonstrated a one-point increase in faculty response on a Likert-type scale rating of importance of study abroad was related to a 20 percent increase in student participation. Unfortunately, a national study conducted by O’Hara (2009) revealed only 43 percent of U.S. faculty perceived study abroad as being important for students. Considering a 16.5 percent annual growth rate in study abroad participation is needed to achieve the national study abroad goals by the end of the decade (IIE, 2016b), further examination of faculty perceptions of study abroad importance is warranted.

Faculty knowledge and awareness. Faculty engagement in study abroad activities may be facilitated or thwarted by their knowledge of study abroad opportunities and associated procedures. Lukosius and Festervand (2013) conducted an analysis of students’ choice process to
study abroad and identified ways in which faculty can facilitate students’ progression through each stage of the process. The first two stages of the process involve student interest and gathering of study abroad program information. As such, important faculty activities in this stage include promoting of study abroad programs, distributing information to students, and encouraging students to pursue available opportunities (Lukosius and Festervand, 2013). As such, it is necessary faculty be aware of study abroad opportunities. Additionally, Lukosius and Festervand (2013) identified the final two stages of the process as being largely bureaucratic and maintained faculty advisors must have adequate knowledge of the study abroad process to assist students with tasks such as enrollment and credit transfer. However, faculty lack of awareness and involvement has been reported in prior studies as an inhibiting factor in their ability to assist students in the study abroad process (Bond et al., 2003; Doyle, Gendall, Meyer, Hoek, Trait, McKenzie, & Loorparg, 2010).

Prior international experience. Lastly, the prior experience of faculty may influence their degree of involvement in study abroad activities. According to Hulstrand (2009), students who have internationally involved and experienced professors are more likely to pursue international experiences themselves. As such, examination of faculty international experiences is needed. In some prior studies, faculty who had lived, traveled, or worked abroad were found to be more inclined to incorporate international components into their teaching, research and service responsibilities (ACE, 2012; Bond et al., 2003; Green & Olsen, 2003). In contrast, Woodruff (2009) found the prior international experiences of faculty did not directly translate into increased promotion of study abroad opportunities. In this study, faculty with some degree of international engagement had positive attitudes toward study abroad. However, these faculty were not necessarily knowledgeable about the study abroad opportunities available to their
students, nor did they encourage students to study abroad more so than did faculty with less international experiences (Woodruff, 2009). The inconclusive findings of prior research in this area suggest the need for further study regarding the influence of faculty international experience on their study abroad involvement.

**Purpose and Objectives**

The primary purpose of this descriptive and comparative study was to better understand agriculture teaching faculty involvement in study abroad. Specifically, this study was purposed to (a) describe agriculture teaching faculty on their study abroad involvement, perceptions, and knowledge and (b) examine the influence of select personal, professional, and institutional factors on agriculture teaching faculty study abroad involvement, perceptions, and knowledge.

The following research objectives guided this study:

1. Describe agriculture teaching faculty on the following characteristics:
   - Involvement in study abroad
   - Agreement with the knowledge, skills and abilities (KSAs) students gain as outcomes of study abroad
   - Perceived importance of KSA outcomes for professionals in their field
   - Awareness of study abroad opportunities and associated elements
   - Perceived priority placed on study abroad at the institutional, college, departmental and collegial levels
   - Prior international experience(s)

2. Compare agriculture teaching faculty by institutional affiliation on the following characteristics of faculty:
   - Involvement in study abroad
3. Compare agriculture teaching faculty by tenure status on the following characteristics of faculty:
   - Involvement in study abroad
   - Agreement with KSAs as outcomes of study abroad
   - Perceived importance of KSA outcomes for professionals in their field of study
   - Awareness of study abroad
   - Perceived priority of study abroad
   - Prior international experience(s)

4. Compare agriculture teaching faculty by professional rank (instructor, assistant professor, associate professor, full professor) on the following characteristics of faculty:
   - Involvement in study abroad
   - Agreement with KSAs as outcomes of study abroad
   - Perceived importance of KSA outcomes for professionals in their field of study
   - Awareness of study abroad
   - Perceived priority of study abroad
   - Prior international experience(s)

5. Compare agriculture teaching faculty by gender on the following characteristics of faculty:
   - Involvement in study abroad
o Agreement with KSAs as outcomes of study abroad
o Perceived importance of KSA outcomes for professionals in their field of study
o Awareness of study abroad
o Perceived priority of study abroad
o Prior international experience(s)

6. Compare agriculture teaching faculty by ethnicity on the following characteristics of faculty:
   o Involvement in study abroad
   o Agreement with KSAs as outcomes of study abroad
   o Perceived importance of KSA outcomes for professionals in their field of study
   o Awareness of study abroad
   o Perceived priority of study abroad
   o Prior international experience(s)

Methodology

Population and Sample

The population for this study consisted of all faculty employed in the College of Agriculture (CoA) at Louisiana State University (LSU; N = 173) and in the College of Agricultural and Life Sciences (CALS) at the University of Florida (UF; N = 388) who held a formal teaching appointment at the time the study was conducted (combined N = 561). Responses were collected from 246 of the 561 faculty for a 44 percent response rate. Frame error regarding faculty teaching appointment was discovered during analysis. A total of 50 faculty did not meet the criteria of holding a formal teaching appointment and were removed from the study. Additionally, one faculty member opted out and 12 faculty were removed due to incomplete
responses, which yielded a revised sample of 498. Useable responses were collected from 184 faculty for a 37 percent response rate.

As suggested in prior research, faculty involvement in and perceptions of study abroad may be shaped by the mission, priorities, and overall climate of the institution at which they are employed (ACE, 2012; Bond et al., 2003; Dewey & Duff, 2009; Schwietz, 2006). As such, the two 1862 land-grant institutions were purposively selected to gain a better understanding of the impact of institutional factors of faculty involvement in study abroad. Both universities have established goals pertaining to study abroad, as well as have on-campus offices dedicated to international programs for outbound students and incoming international students. However, unique to UF compared to LSU is the adoption of goals and strategies to internationalize higher education as the primary focus of UF’s current Quality Enhancement Plan (QEP). Additionally, UF is listed among the top ten U.S institutions regarding student participation rates study abroad programs (IIE, 2016a). As such, the two universities provided a means of examining the influence of institutional mission and priorities on faculty involvement in study abroad.

Faculty in this study were employed in the CoA at LSU ($f = 54; 29\%$) and the CALS at UF ($f = 130; 71\%$). Regarding professional status, more faculty held the rank of full professor ($f = 74; 40\%$) and the majority were tenured ($f = 109; 59\%$). Additionally, slightly more faculty were males ($f = 103; 56\%$), and the majority were White, Non-Hispanic ($f = 149; 81\%$; see Table 3.1).

Table 3.1. Demographic Characteristics of Agriculture Teaching Faculty (N = 184)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>$f$</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Professional Rank a</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Full Professor</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>40.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(table cont’d.)
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>$f$</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Assistant Professor</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>23.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Associate Professor</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>19.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instructor</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>13.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ethnicity $^b$</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>White, Non-Hispanic</td>
<td>149</td>
<td>81.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asian</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>6.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hispanic</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Black or African American</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Multiracial</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.50</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$^a$ Responses missing from 6 participants  
$^b$ Responses missing from 8 participants

**Data Collection**

A listserv of LSU CoA faculty and UF CALS faculty was obtained from college administrators and used to distribute an online questionnaire to faculty via Qualtrics email service. The email to faculty included a description of the purpose of the study, consent protocol, and a link to the Qualtrics questionnaire. A modified approach to Dillman, Smyth and Christians (2009) Tailored Design Method was used to collect responses from faculty at both universities. A second request for participation was sent to faculty who had not yet responded one week following the initial contact. A third reminder and request for participation was sent one week following the second reminder. Due to low response rate, a fourth, and final, reminder was sent two weeks following the third email.

**Instrumentation**

An original instrument was developed by the researcher to assess agriculture teaching faculty involvement in and perceptions of study abroad for students. To ensure content validity, an
extensive review of the literature was conducted to identify (a) activities associated with study abroad programs in which faculty can be or are involved; (b) the knowledge, skills and abilities (KSAs) most frequently identified as being outcomes of study abroad programs; and (c) institutional and individual-level factors found to influence agriculture faculty involvement in and perceptions of study abroad programs, as well as (d) factors that influence agriculture faculty involvement and perceptions of other components of internationalizing higher education that may be transferrable to study abroad. The developed questionnaire was then reviewed for content validity by panel of faculty and face validity by one graduate student with collective proficiencies in study abroad program development and instrument development. The panel deemed the instrument acceptable. Lastly, post hoc reliability estimates were calculated using Cronbach’s alpha.

The following seven sections of the survey instrument were used for data analysis in this study: (a) agriculture teaching faculty involvement in study abroad programs; (b) agriculture teaching faculty agreement with KSAs as outcomes of studying abroad, (c) agriculture teaching faculty perceived importance of KSA outcomes, (d) agriculture teaching faculty awareness of study abroad programs, (e) agriculture teaching faculty perceptions of study abroad programs as a priority, (f) prior international experiences of agriculture teaching faculty, and (g) agriculture teaching faculty personal and professional characteristics.

The first section of the instrument was designed to assess the active involvement of agriculture teaching faculty in activities associated with increasing student participation in study abroad programs. Faculty participants were asked to indicate by checking all that apply which of the 12 activities they have conducted. Examples of the activities listed include “I have encouraged students I teach/advise to study abroad”, “I have used time in class to inform
students I teach of study abroad opportunities in the College of Agriculture”, and “I have helped design a study abroad program for students.” Responses were coded (0 = item not selected; 1 = item selected), and a composite score was computed.

The second section of the instrument was designed to measure agriculture teaching faculty perceptions of the KSAs students develop as a result of studying abroad. Select items were identified through the review of literature as the KSAs most frequently reported as student outcomes of study abroad. Exploratory factor analysis revealed the KSA Outcome Agreement construct comprised seven items. Faculty were asked to indicate their agreement with statements such as “studying abroad increases students’ acceptance of other cultures” and “studying abroad increases students’ knowledge of global issues”. Responses were collected using a 6-point Likert-type scale (1 = disagree strongly, 2 = disagree, 3 = disagree slightly, 4 = agree slightly, 5 = agree, 6 = agree strongly). Real limits were set to interpret responses (1.00 to 1.50 = disagree strongly; 1.51 to 2.50 = disagree; 2.51 to 3.50 = disagree slightly; 3.51 to 4.50 = agree slightly; 4.51 to 5.50 = agree; 5.51 to 6.00 = agree strongly). A mean score was created to represent faculty agreement with KSAs as outcomes of study abroad. The internal consistency reliability for this scale was $\alpha = .92$.

The third section of the instrument was designed to measure agriculture teaching faculty perceptions of the importance of select KSAs for professionals in their field. Items in this construct were intended to mirror the items in the KSA Agreement construct. Exploratory factor analysis revealed the KSA Outcome Importance construct comprised 10 items. Faculty were asked to indicate their agreement with statements such as “being accepting of other cultures is important for professionals in my field” and “having knowledge of global issues is important for professionals in my field”. Responses were collected using a 6-point Likert-type scale (1 =
disagree strongly, 2 = disagree, 3 = disagree slightly, 4 = agree slightly, 5 = agree, 6 = agree strongly). Real limits were set to interpret responses (1.00 to 1.50 = disagree strongly; 1.51 to 2.50 = disagree; 2.51 to 3.50 = disagree slightly; 3.51 to 4.50 = agree slightly; 4.51 to 5.50 = agree; 5.51 to 6.00 = agree strongly). A mean score was created to represent agriculture teaching faculty perceptions of KSA importance. The internal consistency reliability for this scale was $\alpha = .94$.

The fourth section of the instrument was designed to assess agriculture teaching faculty knowledge and awareness of study abroad programs and associated policies and procedures. Items to include were explored through a review of literature to identify areas in which faculty need to be aware to facilitate the student participation in study abroad programs. Exploratory factor analysis resulted in the inclusion of 5 items in the Study Abroad Awareness construct. Faculty were asked to indicate their agreement with statements such as “I am aware of study abroad opportunities for my students” and “I am familiar with the process of transferring study abroad credits to students’ degree plan at home”. Responses were collected using a 6-point Likert-type scale (1 = disagree strongly, 2 = disagree, 3 = disagree slightly, 4 = agree slightly, 5 = agree, 6 = agree strongly). Real limits were set to interpret responses (1.00 to 1.50 = disagree strongly; 1.51 to 2.50 = disagree; 2.51 to 3.50 = disagree slightly; 3.51 to 4.50 = agree slightly; 4.51 to 5.50 = agree; 5.51 to 6.00 = agree strongly). A mean score was created to represent agriculture teaching faculty awareness of study abroad programs. The internal consistency reliability for this scale was $\alpha = .87$.

The fifth section of the instrument was developed to measure agriculture teaching faculty perception of the priority given to increasing student participation in study abroad programs. Select items in were intended to measure faculty perceptions of study abroad priority at the
institutional, college, departmental, and individual levels. Exploratory factor analysis resulted in the inclusion of five items in the Study Abroad Priority construct. Faculty were asked to indicate their agreement with statements such as “increasing student participation in study abroad is an institutional priority at my university” and “increasing student participation in study abroad is a priority among faculty in my department”. Responses were collected using a 6-point Likert-type scale (1 = disagree strongly, 2 = disagree, 3 = disagree slightly, 4 = agree slightly, 5 = agree, 6 = agree strongly). Real limits were set to interpret responses (1.00 to 1.50 = disagree strongly; 1.51 to 2.50 = disagree; 2.51 to 3.50 = disagree slightly; 3.51 to 4.50 = agree slightly; 4.51 to 5.50 = agree; 5.51 to 6.00 = agree strongly). A mean score was created to represent agriculture teaching faculty perceptions of study abroad priority. The internal consistency reliability for this scale was $\alpha = .89$.

The sixth section of the instrument was designed to assess the prior international experience (PIE) of agriculture teaching faculty. To measure PIE, a summated score was computed. Faculty participants were asked to indicate by checking all that apply which of the 13 experiences they had acquired. Examples of the activities listed include “I have participated in international activities on campus”, “I have worked in a country other than the U.S.”, and “I have participated in a study abroad program for faculty.” Responses were coded (1 = item selected, 0 = item not selected), and a composite score was computed.

Lastly, six demographic items were used to describe the population including institution and examine if differences existed in faculty perceptions based on these demographic factors. The demographic characteristics included academic discipline, professional rank, tenure status, ethnicity, and gender.
Data Analysis

Data were analyzed using the SPSS24 software package. Data analysis for research objective one consisted of calculative descriptive statistics (e.g. means, standard deviations, frequencies, and percentages). Research questions two through six were analyzed by employing a one-way ANOVA. Multiple ANOVAs were selected for analysis for objectives two through six as this research study was exploratory in nature, and the research questions of this study were intended to explore individual outcome variables (Field, 2013; Huberty & Morris, 1989). A statistical significance level of .05 was established a priori for all statistical tests employed. Prior to employing a one-way ANOVA, Levene’s test was utilized to ensure the assumption of equality of error variances was not violated. Robust tests of equality of means included Welch’s statistic for tests that failed the assumption of homogeneity of variance. Multiple comparisons employed included Tukey’s HSD when variances were equal and Games-Howell for unequal variances (Field 2013).

Findings

Objective 1: Describe Agriculture Faculty

Objective one sought to describe agriculture teaching faculty on the following characteristics: (a) involvement in study abroad; (b) agreement with KSAs students gain as outcomes of studying abroad; (c) perceived importance of KSA outcomes for professionals in their field; (d) awareness of study abroad opportunities and associated elements; (e) perceptions of the priority placed on study abroad at the institutional, college, departmental and collegial levels; and (f) prior international experience(s).

Involvement in study abroad. The first section of objective one was concerned with agriculture teaching faculty involvement in study abroad. A composite score was computed for
overall involvement in study abroad, and frequencies and percentages were reported for individual involvement items (see Table 3.2). The overall mean of the summated scores for involvement was 4.60 ($SD = 3.17$). The involvement items reported by the highest number of faculty participants were (a) *I have encouraged student I teach to study abroad* ($f = 128; 69.6\%$), followed by (b) *I have encouraged students I advise to study abroad* ($f = 115; 62.5\%$). The involvement items reported by the fewest faculty were (a) *I have met with students I advise to assist them with allocating scholarships/other sources of funding for studying abroad* ($f = 28; 15.2\%$), followed by (b) *I have invited someone from the international programs office to guest speak in one or more of my classes* ($f = 23; 12.5\%$, see Table 3.2).

Table 3.2. Agriculture Teaching Faculty Involvement in Study Abroad (N = 184)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>$f$</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I have encouraged students I teach to study abroad</td>
<td>128</td>
<td>69.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I have encouraged students I advise to study abroad</td>
<td>115</td>
<td>62.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I have used time in class to inform students I teach of study abroad opportunities in the College of Agriculture</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>44.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I have met with students I advise to assist them with the academic planning associated with studying abroad</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>33.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I have helped design a study abroad program for students</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>28.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I have used time in class to inform students I teach of scholarships/other sources of funding for studying abroad</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>25.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I have personally led a study abroad program for students</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>23.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I have helped connect students I advise with a study abroad coordinator (or other personnel) from the international programs office on campus</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>21.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I have used time in class to inform students I teach of upcoming study abroad fairs</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>21.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(table cont’d.)
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>( f )</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I have invited students who have studied abroad previously to guest speak in one or more of my classes</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>16.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I have met with students I advise to assist them with allocating scholarships/other sources of funding for studying abroad</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>15.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I have invited someone from the office of international programs to guest speak in one or more of my classes</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>12.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note:* Percentages do not total 100% as a result of multiple selection format.

Involvement Summate Score Mean = 4.60, \( SD = 3.17 \)

**Agreement with KSAs as outcomes of study abroad.** This section of objective one was concerned with agriculture teaching faculty agreement with select KSAs as being outcomes of studying abroad. The overall mean of the KSA outcome agreement construct was 4.94 (\( N = 183; SD = .80 \)). All KSA outcome agreement items fell within the limits of *Agree*, with the highest agreement reported for (a) *studying abroad better prepares students for international careers* (\( M = 5.19; SD = .89 \)), followed by (b) *studying abroad increases students’ knowledge of global issues* (\( M = 5.14; SD = .89 \)). The KSA outcome item with the lowest agreement from faculty was *studying abroad increases students’ ability to think critically to solve problems in diverse settings* (\( M = 4.56; SD = 1.10 \)).

**Importance of KSA outcomes.** This section of objective one was concerned with agriculture teaching faculty perceptions of the importance of select KSA outcomes associated with study abroad. Responses were missing from three faculty participants. The overall mean of the KSA outcome importance construct was 5.17 (\( N = 180; SD = .76 \)). The highest rated KSA outcome importance item was *thinking critically to solve problems in diverse setting is important for professionals in my field* (\( M = 5.57; SD = .64 \)), which fell within the limits of *Agree strongly*. All remaining KSA outcome importance items fell within the limits of *Agree*. The items with the
lowest agreement were (a) *developing international networks is important for professionals in my field* \( (M = 4.92; \ SD = 1.04) \), followed by (b) *being able to compete in the global job market is important for professionals in my field* \( (M = 4.82; \ SD = 1.08) \).

**Study abroad awareness.** This section of objective one was concerned with agriculture teaching faulty awareness of select elements associated with study abroad. The overall mean of the study abroad awareness construct was 3.93 \( (N = 179; \ SD = 1.13) \). The highest rated awareness items were (a) *I am aware of study abroad opportunities relevant to my students* \( (M = 4.41; \ SD = 1.26) \), followed by (b) *I am familiar with the office of international programs at my university* \( (M = 4.39; \ SD = 1.35) \). The mean scores for these items were within the limits of Agree slightly. The lowest rated awareness item was *I am familiar with the process of transferring study abroad credits to students’ degree plan at their home university* \( (M = 3.28; \ SD = 1.45) \), which fell within the limits of Disagree slightly.

**Study abroad priority.** This section of objective one was concerned with agriculture teaching faulty perceptions of the priority given to increasing student participation in study abroad at the institutional, departmental and individual levels. The overall mean of the study abroad priority construct was 3.93 \( (N = 178; \ SD = 1.06) \), and the mean scores of all items fell within the limits of Agree slightly. Faculty reported highest agreement for the study abroad priority items (a) *increasing student participation in study is an institutional priority of my university* \( (M = 4.37; \ SD = 1.15) \), followed by (b) *increasing student participation in study abroad is a priority of the College of Agriculture (and Life Sciences) at my university* \( (M = 4.34; \ SD = 1.20) \). The study abroad priority item for which faculty reported the lowest agreement was *increasing student participation in study abroad is a priority among faculty in my department* \( (M = 3.58; \ SD = 1.25) \).
**Prior international experience.** The final segment of objective one was concerned with the prior international experience (PIE) of agriculture teaching faculty. The summated scores for PIE ranged from 1 to 12, with an overall mean score of 6.88 ($SD = 2.59$, see Table 3.4). The international experiences reported by the highest number of agriculture teaching faculty were (a) *I have interacted with international students, international faculty members, and/or visiting scholars at my university* ($f = 165; 89.7%$); followed by (b) *I have colleagues from a country other than the United States* ($f = 163; 88.6%$). The international experiences reported by the fewest number of faculty were (a) *I have led a study abroad program for students* ($f = 45; 24.5%$), (b) *I was born in a country other than the United States* ($f = 42; 22.8%$), and the least reported (c) *I have participated in a study abroad program for faculty* ($f = 26; 14.1%$, see Table 3.3).

Table 3.3. Agriculture Teaching Faculty Prior International Experience (N = 184)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>$f$</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I have interacted with international students, international faculty</td>
<td>165</td>
<td>89.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>members, and/or visiting international scholars at my university</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I have colleagues from a country other than the United States</td>
<td>163</td>
<td>88.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I have attended an international conference (includes those located</td>
<td>162</td>
<td>88.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>in the United States)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I have been involved in international collaborative research</td>
<td>126</td>
<td>68.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I lived a country other than the United States for a period of one month</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>54.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>or more</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I have participated in international activities on campus</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>48.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I have worked in a country other than the United States</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>46.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I have traveled abroad with students</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>45.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(table cont’d.)
Variable | f | %
--- | --- | ---
I have taught a course on campus with an international focus | 61 | 33.2
I have taught at a university in a country other than the United states | 59 | 32.1
I have led a study abroad program for students | 45 | 24.5
I was born in a country other than the United States | 42 | 22.8
I have participated in a study abroad program for faculty | 26 | 14.1

*Note:* Percentages do not total 100% due to multiple selection format of items.

**Objective 2: Comparison of Agriculture Teaching Faculty by Institutional Affiliation**

A one-way ANOVA was employed for objective two to compare agriculture teaching faculty by institutional affiliation on their involvement in study abroad, agreement with KSAs as outcomes of study abroad, perceived importance of KSA outcomes, study abroad awareness, perceived priority of study abroad, and PIE. To ensure the assumption of equality of error variances was not violated, Levene’s test was employed prior to the one-way ANOVA. Levene’s statistic was significant only for Study Abroad Priority ($p = .03$). The only significant difference observed between institutional groups was PIE, for which the ANOVA yielded $F(1, 174) = 4.94; p = .028; \eta^2 = .028$ (see Table 3.4). The mean score for PIE was greater for UF faculty ($M = 7.15; SD = 2.51$) than for LSU faculty ($M = 6.21; SD = 2.69$).

Table 3.4. ANOVA Summary Table of Agriculture Teaching Faculty PIE by Institutional Affiliation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>SS</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PIE</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>32.49</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>32.49</td>
<td>4.94</td>
<td>.028</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>1144.76</td>
<td>174</td>
<td>6.58</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>1177.25</td>
<td>175</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Objective 3: Comparison of Agriculture Teaching Faculty by Tenure Status

A one-way ANOVA was employed for objective three to compare agriculture teaching faculty by tenure status on their involvement in study abroad, agreement with KSAs as outcomes of study abroad, perceived importance of KSA outcomes, study abroad awareness, perceived priority of study abroad, and PIE. Levene’s test was utilized to ensure the assumption of equality of error variances was not violated. Levene’s statistic was not significant, therefore, equality of error variance was assumed. The only significant difference observed between groups was PIE, for which the ANOVA yielded $F(1, 174) = 4.85; p = .029; \eta^2 = .027$ (see Table 5). The mean score for PIE was greater for tenured faculty ($M = 7.21; SD = 2.59$) than for untenured faculty ($M = 6.34; SD = 2.52$).

Table 3.5. ANOVA Summary Table of Agriculture Teaching Faculty PIE by Tenure Status

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>SS</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PIE</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>31.93</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>31.93</td>
<td>4.85</td>
<td>.029</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>1145.32</td>
<td>174</td>
<td>6.58</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>1177.25</td>
<td>175</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Objective 4: Comparison of Agriculture Teaching Faculty by Professional Rank

One-way ANOVA was employed for objective four to compare agriculture teaching faculty by professional rank (instructor, assistant professor, associate professor, full professor) on their involvement in study abroad, agreement with KSAs as outcomes of study abroad, perceived importance of KSA outcomes, study abroad awareness, perceived priority of study abroad, and PIE. Levene’s test was utilized to ensure the assumption of equality of error variances was not violated. Levene’s statistic was not significant, therefore equality of error variance was assumed.
The only significant difference observed between groups was PIE, for which the ANOVA yielded $F(3, 171) = 2.71; p = .047; \eta^2 = .045$ (see Table 3.6). Multiple comparisons for PIE were used to identify differences among faculty with the professional rank of instructor ($M = 5.54; SD = 2.25$), assistant professor ($M = 6.90; SD = 2.51$), associate professor ($M = 7.14; SD = 2.61$), and full professor ($M = 7.20; SD = 2.59$). The results of the multiple comparisons of PIE revealed significant differences between instructors and full professors. Full professors held the highest mean score for PIE, while instructors held the lowest mean score.

Table 3.6. ANOVA Summary Table of Agriculture Teaching Faculty PIE by Professional Rank

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>$SS$</th>
<th>$df$</th>
<th>$MS$</th>
<th>$F$</th>
<th>$p$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PIE</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>53.12</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>17.71</td>
<td>2.71</td>
<td>.047</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>1115.82</td>
<td>171</td>
<td>6.53</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>1168.94</td>
<td>174</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Objective 5: Comparison of Agriculture Teaching Faculty by Gender**

One-way ANOVA was employed for objective five to compare agriculture teaching faculty by gender on their involvement in study abroad, agreement with KSAs as outcomes of study abroad, perceived importance of KSA outcomes, study abroad awareness, perceived priority of study abroad, and PIE. Significant differences were observed only for KSA Importance (see Table 3.7). Levene’s test was employed prior to the one-way ANOVA to ensure the assumption of equality of error variances was not violated and was significant for KSA Importance ($p = .001$). Therefore, Welch’s F statistic was reported for KSA Importance, $F(1, 174) = 6.87; p = .010$ (see Table 3.7). Female faculty ($M = 5.34; SD = .56$) perceived greater importance of KSA outcomes associated with study abroad than did male professors ($M = 5.07; SD = .84$).
Table 3.7. ANOVA Summary Table of Agriculture Teaching Faculty Perceived KSA Importance by Gender

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>SS</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>$F$</th>
<th>$p$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>KSA Importance</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>3.28</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.28</td>
<td>6.87*</td>
<td>.010</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>94.63</td>
<td>174</td>
<td>.541</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>97.91</td>
<td>175</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Welch’s $F$ reported

Objective 6: Comparison of Agriculture Teaching Faculty by Ethnicity

A one-way ANOVA was employed to determine if differences existed in agriculture teaching faculty involvement in study abroad, KSA agreement, KSA importance, study abroad awareness, study abroad priority, and prior international experience (PIE) based on ethnicity. No significant differences were found between groups.

Conclusions and Recommendations

Agriculture teaching faculty in this study were minimally involved overall in study abroad activities. The activities in which more faculty were involved included means of encouragement. Two thirds of faculty reported having encouraged students they teach to study abroad, and slightly less than two thirds had encouraged students they advise to study abroad. As faculty encouragement has been identified in prior studies as a positive influence on student participation in study abroad (O’ Hara, 2009; Paus & Robinson, 2008), future research should examine why agriculture faculty do or do not encourage students they teach and/or advise to study abroad. Specifically, this line of research should examine faculty motivations for encouraging students to study abroad to determine if (a) faculty personal beliefs toward study abroad motivate them to encourage students, and/or if (b) encouragement is a more frequent activity among agriculture faculty merely because it requires relatively less time and financial
investment than other forms of involvement. That being said, a follow up study to examine why one third of the agriculture teaching faculty in this study had never encouraged students to study abroad is warranted. Considering the vague nature of the statement, “I have encouraged students to study abroad,” the follow up study should include qualitative inquiry with faculty who have encouraged students to study abroad to better identify how and to what extent these faculty encourage students. An approach of this nature may provide more insight than offered by the findings of the present study.

Less than half of the agriculture teaching faculty in this study had been involved in any of the other activities associated with study abroad. The activities conducted by fewest faculty were assisting students with allocating funding for studying abroad and having invited someone from the office of international programs to guest speak in their class(es). Faculty involvement regarding inviting a guest speaker from the office of international programs was contradictory to faculty responses regarding their awareness of study abroad, as faculty reported agreement with being familiar with the office of international programs on campus. As faculty can help facilitate student participation in study abroad by connecting students to the office of international programs (Lukosius & Festervand, 2013), future research should examine factors other than awareness that may influence this form of involvement by faculty. However, it should be noted that inviting personnel from the office of international programs to guest speak in class has not been identified as a best or only method for faculty to use to help connect students to the office of international programs. As such, future research should explore means for faculty to connect students to the office of international programs other than inviting personnel from international programs to guest speak in their class(es). Lower faculty involvement in assisting students with allocating funding was less surprising. The study abroad elements with which faculty were least
aware were (a) scholarships or other sources of funding for students to study abroad and (b) the process of transferring study abroad credits to students’ degree plan at home. Faculty awareness and involvement with assisting students in allocating funding for study abroad is consistent with prior research (Bond et al., 2003; Doyle et al., 2010) and warrants further examination.

Regarding faculty attitudes and beliefs toward the KSA outcomes of study abroad, faculty agreed studying abroad produces KSA outcomes among students and agreed strongly that these KSA outcomes were important for professionals in their field. Comparison of these findings suggest faculty perceived the outcomes associated with study abroad as important, but remained slightly less convinced that studying abroad actually produces these outcomes. For example, the ability to think critically in diverse settings was perceived by faculty as the most important KSA for professionals in their field. However, when asked about the outcomes of studying abroad, faculty agreed least with the statement that studying abroad increases students’ ability to think critically to solve problems in diverse settings. The same, yet inverse effect, was observed regarding the ability to compete in the global job market. Faculty agreed most with the statement that studying abroad better prepares students for global careers, yet perceived the ability to compete in the global job market as the least important KSA for professionals in their field. These findings suggest that the nationally recognized need to produce globally cognizant agricultural professionals (Roberts, Harder, & Brashears, 2016; Stripling & Ricketts, 2016) has not been adopted by all agriculture faculty, and/or agriculture faculty do not perceive study abroad as the ideal means of producing such students. As such, recommendations for future research include (a) further examination of faculty perceptions of the benefits of study abroad for students, including why some faculty do not believe the study abroad outcomes reported
frequently in prior research actually occur; and (b) further examination of faculty perceptions regarding the implications of globalization for professionals in agriculture.

Priorities regarding study abroad may also differ across campuses. Agriculture teaching faculty in this study agreed that increasing student participation in study abroad was an institutional priority of their university, as well as a priority in their college. However, as consistent with prior research (Bond et al., Paus & Robinson, 2008; Schweitz, 2006) faculty reported slightly less agreement regarding the priority of increasing student participation in study abroad among administrators in their department. More so, faculty agreed least with increasing student participation in study abroad as a priority among fellow colleagues within their department. These findings pertain to professional dimension factors and warrant a more in depth assessment of the relationship between professional factors and faculty involvement in study abroad.

Analysis of variance revealed significant differences between LSU and UF faculty regarding prior international experiences (PIE). However, no significant differences were observed for study abroad involvement, KSA agreement, KSA importance, study abroad awareness, and study abroad priority. This finding was surprising as it is inconsistent with the widely accepted postulation that institutional differences account for difference in faculty involvement in study abroad and other elements of internationalization (ACE, 2012; Dewey & Duff, 2009; Schwietz, 2006). However, as departmental differences have also been postulated as being largely influential in faculty involvement in study abroad (Bond et al., 2003; Childress, 2007; Green & Olsen, 2003), the findings of this study provoke consideration of departmental differences as carrying more weight than institutional differences. Differences in faculty involvement and perceptions of study abroad based on academic department were not reported in
this study due to a limitation of the survey instrument format. As such, this study should be replicated to include academic department as a factor.

Differences based on tenure status were observed only for PIE. Tenured faculty had more international experience than untenured faculty. Similarly, PIE was the only significant difference observed between faculty based on professional rank, specifically regarding differences between instructors and full professors. Full professors had more international experience than instructors. The only other significant difference observed in this study was the importance of KSA outcomes based on gender. Female faculty agreed with more KSA outcomes as being important for professionals in their field than did male faculty. While differences in PIE by tenure status and professional rank is consistent with prior research, the lack of differences observed for any other factor is not. Tenure and promotion has been cited widely as a barrier to new faculty involvement in international activities (ACE, 2012; Andreasen, 2003; Bendelier & Zawacki-Richter, 2015; Dewey & Duff, 2009; Ellingboe, 1998; Estes et al., 2016; Green & Olsen, 2003). However, few of these existing studies were conducted with agriculture faculty. As such, it is recommended this study be replicated with a larger population of agriculture faculty to better determine the influence of tenure and promotion on agriculture faculty involvement in and perceptions of study abroad.

Finally, future research is needed to better assess the conceptual model utilized in this study, as well as to identify additional factors not currently included in the model. Due to the limitations of the small population of this study, as well as the unequal population of LSU and UF faculty, this study should be replicated with faculty employed at other institutions to better describe the influence of institutional dimension factors on faculty involvement in study abroad. Regarding professional dimension factors, future research is needed to compare faculty study
abroad involvement and perceptions by academic department. Moreover, the findings of this study warrant further examination of the influence of tenure and professional rank on agriculture faculty involvement in study abroad. As the findings of this study provided support for the inclusion of the personal dimension factors in the conceptual model, a recommended next step in this line of research is to examine the structural relationship between the personal dimension factors of the model.

References


CHAPTER 4
AN EXAMINATION OF FACULTY PERCEPTIONS, AWARENESS, INTEREST AND EXPERIENCES AS PERSONAL DIMENSION VARIABLES IN INVOLVEMENT

Initiatives to produce globally competent students have transpired across many U.S. institutions over the past decade (ACE, 2012; Green, 2012). As a means of supplementing on-campus initiatives to internationalize the educational experience, efforts have been direct to the development and promotion of study abroad opportunities (ACE, 2012; Childress, 2009). While a steady increase in student participation in study abroad programs has been observed each year, there remains room for growth in national study abroad participation rates (IIE, 2016). Much of the increase in numbers of students studying abroad may be attributed to an observed shift from traditional, semester long programs to short-term (i.e., one to six weeks) faculty-led programs (Dwyer, 2004; IIE, 2016; McCabe, 2001; Zamastil-Vondrova, 2005).

Although faculty involvement may still be critical to student participation in long term exchanges, the increase in student interest in short-term, faculty led study abroad programs demonstrates a more pressing need to involve faculty. In addition to leading study abroad programs, faculty involvement in study abroad is needed regarding dissemination of study abroad information to students, encouraging study abroad participation, and assisting students through the process of studying abroad (Lukosius & Festervand, 2013; O’Hara, 2009; Umbach & Wawrzynski, 2005). Moreover, Green and Olson (2003) identified faculty engagement as a driving force behind successful internationalization overall, and noted this engagement as encompassing the teaching, research, service, and advising appointments of faculty. As such, a comprehensive approach to examining faculty involvement in study abroad is needed. Moreover, in much of the research pertaining to the involvement of faculty study in abroad programs, involvement has been defined as faculty participation in leading a study abroad program for

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students. Considering the other activities in which faculty can participate and facilitate student participation in study abroad, future research is needed to examine faculty involvement in this respect.

**Literature Review and Conceptual Framework**

The conceptual model developed in article one of this dissertation series served as the guiding conceptual framework for this article. This model was modified from the Faculty Engagement Model proposed by Wade and Demb (2009) to include the active involvement of faculty in study abroad activities as the targeted engagement behavior. Further, institutional, personal, and professional level factors specific to faculty involvement in study abroad were built into the proposed model. For the purposes of this study, specific variables within the personal dimension were identified vis-à-vis an extensive review of literature and incorporated as an expansion of the model developed in article one of the series (see Figure 4.1).

![Figure 4.1. Personal dimension factors influencing faculty involvement in study abroad.](image-url)
**Personal Dimension**

The variables within the personal dimension hypothesized to influence faculty involvement in study abroad include (a) faculty attitudes beliefs regarding the importance of study abroad, including their perceptions of KSA outcomes produced by study abroad and the importance of those KSA for professionals in their field; (b) faculty awareness and knowledge regarding study abroad opportunities for students, the international programs office through which students study abroad, and study abroad policies and procedures; and (c) faculty prior international experiences, including both personal and professional experiences (see Figure 4.1).

**Faculty beliefs and attitudes.** Faculty perceptions of the importance of study abroad may influence positively or negatively their degree of involvement in study abroad activities. If faculty perceive studying abroad as an effective means of producing learning outcomes among students, as well as perceive those outcomes as important for students to develop, they will be more likely to engage in promoting, encouraging and facilitating study abroad participation among their students (Green & Olsen, 2003; NSSE, 2008; Paus & Robinson, 2008). However, faculty may be less inclined to engage in study abroad activities if they do not perceive studying abroad as a valuable endeavor for students (Green & Olsen, 2003). In a study by Green and Olson (2003), faculty who did not perceive international education as valuable for students were less inclined to engage in study abroad activities. As such, understanding faculty attitudes and beliefs regarding the importance of study abroad is hypothesized as being especially critical to their involvement in study abroad.

**Prior international experience.** The international experience acquired by faculty has been found to influence significantly faculty personal attitudes and beliefs, faculty attitudes and behaviors in their professional setting, and the attitudes and behaviors of their students (ACE,
Gains in international experience can influence faculty perception of internationalization overall, as well as their involvement in study abroad. In a study conducted with agriculture faculty, Akpan and Martin (1996) found that faculty who had traveled to a foreign country held more positive perceptions of internationalizing the agricultural education curriculum than faculty who did not have international experience. Additionally, faculty who have lived, traveled or worked abroad have been found to be more inclined to incorporate international components into their teaching, research and service responsibilities (ACE, 2012; Bond et al., 2003; Green & Olsen, 2003).

In a study conducted to examine the outcomes of the U.S Fulbright Scholar Program, the largest U.S exchange program for research and teaching professionals, the majority of faculty participants (a) developed a greater understanding of their host country and shared information about their host country with colleagues, (b) continued to collaborate with host country or institutional colleagues, and (c) incorporated their experiences into their curricula or teaching methods (SRI, 2002). Regarding the impact of faculty international experiences on their involvement in study abroad, Hulstrand (2009) found that prior international experiences of faculty influenced their degree of involvement in study abroad activities, and students with internationally involved and experienced professors were more likely to pursue international experiences themselves. Similarly, in a follow up study with faculty Fulbright participants, 80% reported having encouraged their students to study abroad (O’Hara, 2009).

Faculty international experience may also assist faculty in leading a study abroad program. When examining the informal preparation of faculty study abroad directors, Goode (2008) found that the personal international experiences of some faculty better prepared them to
lead students abroad. The types of international experiences reported by faculty included (a) study abroad participation as a student, (b) attending a seminar or international conference abroad, (c) studying a foreign language abroad, (d) working or volunteering in another country, and (e) conducting research abroad. Additionally, some faculty noted the most helpful experience was their first experience as a study abroad director (Goode, 2008).

Conversely, Woodruff (2009) revealed prior international experiences of faculty did not directly translate into increased promotion of study abroad opportunities. While faculty in this study who had some degree of international experience held positive attitudes toward study abroad, they did not encourage students to study abroad more so than faculty with less international experience (Woodruff, 2009). The inconclusive findings observed in prior research in this area warrants further examination of the relationship between faculty international experience and their involvement in study abroad.

**Faculty knowledge and awareness.** The extent to which faculty are involved in study abroad may also be explained by their degree of awareness of study abroad programs, knowledge of the administrative policies and processes associated with study abroad, and their familiarity with the international programs office on campus (Bond et al., 2003; Doyle, Gendall, Meyer, Hoek, Trait, McKenzie, & Loorparg, 2010; Lukosius & Festervand, 2013; Woodruff, 2009). When examining students’ decision process to study abroad, Lukosius and Festervand (2013) identified faculty knowledge of administrative procedures as necessary for helping students move through the final steps of the study abroad process and reducing the likelihood they will drop out at this point. However, faculty lack of awareness and involvement has been reported previously as an inhibiting factor in faculty study abroad involvement (Bond et al., 2003; Doyle et al., 2010). Moreover, faculty knowledge and awareness may counteract factors that would
otherwise motivate faculty involvement in study abroad. For example, faculty knowledge may explain why Woodruff (2009) found no differences in faculty involvement based on their prior international experiences. Faculty in this study who had international experiences had positive perceptions of study abroad, but they reported having a lack of knowledge and awareness of study abroad opportunities available to their students (Woodruff, 2009). As such, examination of the relationships between factors influencing faculty involvement is needed to better understand the complex interactions of these factors and how they influence faculty involvement.

**Personal interest in leading a study abroad program.** Faculty involvement in study abroad was operationalized intentionally in this study to include a range of faculty activities in addition to leading a study abroad programs. However, as increasing student participation in study abroad is highly dependent upon faculty willing to lead study abroad programs (Stohl, 2007), faculty interest in leading a study abroad program deserves examination. Barriers to faculty involvement in leading study abroad programs identified in prior studies include (a) time constraints, (b) perceived lack of support from administration, and (c) lack of guidance and formal preparation (Dewey & Duff, 2009; Goode, 2008). In a study conducted by Dewey and Duff (2009) to examine barriers to faculty involvement in leading study abroad programs, faculty emphasized the issue of time required to develop or direct a study abroad program. To this, faculty also noted that, considering the amount of time and work required, it is discouraging or even off putting when administration views faculty participation in study abroad as a merely a fringe benefit (Dewey & Duff, 2009). Additionally, faculty in the study by Dewey and Duff (2009) identified the lack of useful templates or guidelines for initiating a new study abroad program as problematic. Similarly, Goode (2008) examined the formal and informal preparation of faculty study abroad directors and found faculty had little to no formal preparation, nor did
they perceive that their academic program supported their consideration of leading a study abroad program.

**Purpose and Objectives**

The purpose of this study was to examine factors within the personal dimension that may influence faculty involvement in study abroad. The objectives included in this study were to (a) describe the personal factors of agriculture teaching faculty, including perception of study abroad importance and personal interest in leading a study abroad program; and (b) develop a model to explain agriculture teaching faculty involvement in study abroad in terms of personal dimension factors.

**Methodology**

**Population**

The population for this study consisted of all faculty employed in the College of Agriculture (CoA) at Louisiana State University (LSU; \( N = 173 \)) and in the College of Agricultural and Life Sciences (CALS) at the University of Florida (UF; \( N = 388 \)) who held a formal teaching appointment at the time the study was conducted (combined \( N = 561 \)). Frame error was discovered during analysis, and a total of 50 faculty were removed due to not meeting the criteria of holding a formal teaching appointment. Additionally, one faculty member opted out and 12 faculty were removed due to incomplete responses, which yielded a revised sample of 498. Useable responses were collected from 184 faculty for a 37% response rate.

Agriculture teaching faculty in this study were employed in the CoA at LSU (\( f = 54; 29\% \)) and the CALS at UF (\( f = 130; 71\% \)). Regarding professional status, more faculty held the rank of full professor (\( f = 74; 40\% \)) and the majority were tenured (\( f = 109; 59\% \)). Additionally,
slightly more faculty were males \((f = 103; 56\%)\), and the majority were White, Non-Hispanic \((f = 149; 81\%)\).

**Data Collection**

An electronic mail (email) listserv of LSU CoA faculty and UF CALS faculty was obtained from college administrators and used to distribute an online questionnaire via Qualtrics email service. The email to faculty included a description of the study and a link to the questionnaire. A modified approach to Dillman, Smyth, and Christians’ (2009) Tailored Design Method was used to collect responses. A second request for participation was sent to non-responding faculty following the initial contact. A third reminder and request for participation was sent one week following the second reminder. Due to lack of response, a fourth and final reminder was sent.

**Instrumentation**

An original instrument was developed by the researcher to assess agriculture teaching faculty involvement in and perceptions of study abroad for students. To ensure content validity, an extensive review of the literature was conducted to identify (a) activities associated with study abroad programs in which faculty can be or are involved; (b) the knowledge, skills and abilities (KSAs) most frequently identified as being outcomes of study abroad programs; and (c) institutional and individual-level factors found to influence agriculture faculty involvement in and perceptions of study abroad programs, as well as (d) factors that influence agriculture faculty involvement and perceptions of other components of internationalizing higher education that may be transferrable to study abroad. The developed questionnaire was then reviewed for content validity by an expert panel consisting of the researcher and faculty with collective proficiencies in study abroad program development and instrument development. The panel deemed the
instrument acceptable. Lastly, post hoc reliability estimates were calculated using Cronbach’s alpha.

The following seven sections of the survey instrument were used for data analysis in this study: (a) agriculture teaching faculty involvement in study abroad programs, (b) agriculture teaching faculty perceived importance of study abroad for students, (c) agriculture teaching faculty agreement with KSAs as outcomes of studying abroad, (d) agriculture teaching faculty perceived importance of KSA outcomes, (e) agriculture teaching faculty awareness of study abroad programs, (f) agriculture teaching faculty personal interest in leading a study abroad program for students, and (g) and prior international experiences of agriculture teaching faculty.

The first section of the instrument was designed to assess the active involvement of agriculture teaching faculty in activities associated with increasing student participation in study abroad programs. To measure involvement, faculty responses to check all that apply items were coded (0 = item not selected; 1 = item selected), and a composite score was computed. Faculty participants were asked to indicate by checking all that apply which of the 12 activities they have conducted. Examples of the activities listed include “I have encouraged students I teach/advise to study abroad”, “I have used time in class to inform students I teach of study abroad opportunities in the College of Agriculture”, and “I have helped design a study abroad program for students.”

The second section of the instrument was designed to assess agriculture faculty perceived importance of study abroad for students. Faculty participants were asked to indicate their level of agreement with the following statement: “I believe study abroad is important for students.” Responses were collected using a 6-point Likert-type scale (1 = disagree strongly, 2 = disagree, 3 = disagree slightly, 4 = agree slightly, 5 = agree, 6 = agree strongly). Real limits were set to interpret responses (1.00 to 1.50 = disagree strongly; 1.51 to 2.50 = disagree; 2.51 to 3.50 =
disagree slightly; 3.51 to 4.50 = agree slightly; 4.51 to 5.50 = agree; 5.51 to 6.00 = agree strongly)

The third section of the instrument was designed to measure agriculture teaching faculty perceptions of the KSAs students develop as a result of studying abroad. The KSA Outcome Agreement construct comprised even items identified through the review of literature as the KSAs most frequently reported as student outcomes of study abroad. Faculty were asked to indicate their agreement with statements such as “studying abroad increases students’ acceptance of other cultures” and “studying abroad increases students’ knowledge of global issues”. Responses were collected using a 6-point Likert-type scale (1 = disagree strongly, 2 = disagree, 3 = disagree slightly, 4 = agree slightly, 5 = agree, 6 = agree strongly). Real limits were set to interpret responses (1.00 to 1.50 = disagree strongly; 1.51 to 2.50 = disagree; 2.51 to 3.50 = disagree slightly; 3.51 to 4.50 = agree slightly; 4.51 to 5.50 = agree; 5.51 to 6.00 = agree strongly). A mean score was created to represent faculty agreement with KSAs as outcomes of study abroad. The internal consistency reliability for this scale was $\alpha = .92$.

The fourth section of the instrument was designed to measure agriculture teaching faculty perceptions of the importance of select KSAs for professionals in their field. The KSA Outcome Importance construct comprised 10 items intended to mirror the items in the KSA Agreement construct. Faculty were asked to indicate their agreement with statements such as “being accepting of other cultures is important for professionals in my field” and “having knowledge of global issues is important for professionals in my field”. Responses were collected using a 6-point Likert-type scale (1 = disagree strongly, 2 = disagree, 3 = disagree slightly, 4 = agree slightly, 5 = agree, 6 = agree strongly). Real limits were set to interpret responses (1.00 to 1.50 = disagree strongly; 1.51 to 2.50 = disagree; 2.51 to 3.50 = disagree slightly; 3.51 to 4.50 = agree slightly; 4.51 to 5.50 = agree; 5.51 to 6.00 = agree strongly).
slightly; 4.51 to 5.50 = agree; 5.51 to 6.00 = agree strongly). A mean score was created to represent agriculture teaching faculty perceptions of KSA importance. The internal consistency reliability for this scale was $\alpha = .94$.

The fifth section of the instrument was designed to assess agriculture teaching faculty knowledge and awareness of study abroad programs and associated policies and procedures. The Study Abroad Awareness construct comprised five items representative of the areas in which faculty need to be familiar to facilitate student participation in study abroad programs. Faculty were asked to indicate their agreement with statements such as “I am aware of study abroad opportunities for my students” and I am familiar with the process of transferring study abroad credits to students’ degree plan at home”. Responses were collected using a 6-point Likert-type scale (1 = disagree strongly, 2 = disagree, 3 = disagree slightly, 4 = agree slightly, 5 = agree, 6 = agree strongly). Real limits were set to interpret responses (1.00 to 1.50 = disagree strongly; 1.51 to 2.50 = disagree; 2.51 to 3.50 = disagree slightly; 3.51 to 4.50 = agree slightly; 4.51 to 5.50 = agree; 5.51 to 6.00 = agree strongly). A mean score was created to represent agriculture teaching faculty awareness of study abroad programs. The internal consistency reliability for this scale was $\alpha = .87$.

The sixth section of the instrument was designed to assess the prior international experience (PIE) of agriculture teaching faculty. To measure PIE, faculty responses to check all that apply items were coded (0 = item not selected; 1 = item selected), and a composite score was computed. Faculty participants were asked to indicate by checking all that apply which of the 13 experiences they had acquired. Examples of the activities listed include “I have participated in international activities on campus”, “I have worked in a country other than the U.S.”, and “I have participated in a study abroad program for faculty.”
Lastly, agriculture teaching faculty were asked to indicate their personal interest in leading a study abroad program for students. Responses were collected using a 4 point Likert-type scale (1 = definitely not, 2 = probably not, 3 = probably yes, 4 = definitely yes).

Data Analysis
Objective one was descriptive in nature and was reported using means and standard deviations. For objective two, structural equation modeling (SEM) was employed to examine structural relationships between the personal dimension variables predicted to influence agriculture teaching faculty involvement in study abroad. SEM analysis was selected due to its predictive ability, as well as the ability to examine the mediating and moderating effect of variables for which a direct effect may not be observed. SEM procedures were conducted using the MPlus 7.31 software package. Indices of absolute fit included the standardized root mean square residual (SRMR) and Steiger’s (1999) root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), with smaller values indicating a better fit to the data. SRMR values range from 0 to 1, with values less than .08 indicating a good fit (Hu & Bentler, 1999); RMSEA values below .10 indicate a good fit, and values below .05 indicate a very good fit (Steiger, 1990). Indices of comparative fit included the comparative fit index (CFI) and the Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI). The CFI ranges from 0 to 1, with values exceeding .95 as indicative of a good fit (Hu & Bentler, 1999). The TLI, or non-normed fit index is a measure of incremental fit that attempts to (a) capture the percentage improvement of a hypothesized model over the null model, (b) adjust this improvement for the number of parameters in the hypothesized model. Values exceeding .95 indicate good fit (Hu & Bentler, 1999).
Findings

Objective One

Objective one sought to describe agriculture teaching faculty perceptions of the importance of study abroad for students, as well as their personal interest in leading a study abroad program. Descriptive information for other variables examined in this study were reported previously in article two of this dissertation series and were, therefore, not reported in this article. Regarding agriculture teaching faculty perceptions of the importance of study abroad, faculty agreed that study abroad was important for students ($M = 5.17; SD = .86$). Regarding their personal interest in leading a study abroad program for student, agriculture faculty indicated low, but possible interest ($M = 2.71; SD = .94$).

Objective Two

Objective two sought to develop a model to explain agriculture teaching faculty involvement in study abroad in terms of personal factors. The dependent variable was faculty involvement in study abroad. Independent variables included agreement with KSAs as outcomes of study abroad, study abroad awareness, and prior international experiences. Possible mediating variables included perception of the importance of KSA outcomes and perceived importance of study abroad.

The chi-square statistic for the full mediation model was statistically significant (see Table 4.1, M2). The absolute fit index for SRMR was borderline, and RMSEA was within Steiger’s recommended range of values for good fit of the data. Further, the comparative fit indices CFI and TLI did not meet the recommended cutoff value of .95 (Hu & Bentler, 1999; see Table 4.1, M2). As such, this model was not considered a good fit and a partial mediation model was examined. The chi-squared statistic was significant for the first partial mediation model (see
Table 4.1, M3). The absolute and comparative indices showed mixed results with slight improvements to SRMR and TLI; however, the overall model did not suggest a good fit for the data (see Table 4.1, M3). As such, two exploratory partial mediation models were examined (see Table 4.1, M4, M5). Chi-square statistic was significant for both models. Again, neither absolute nor comparative indices for either model suggested a well-fitted model. The absolute index SRMR, as well as the comparative indices CFI and TLI, were slightly better for the second exploratory partial mediation model (see Table 4.1, M5). As such, this model was deemed the best fit of the models examined (see Figure 4.2).

Table 4.1. Full and Partial Mediation Exploratory Model Fit

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>X^2</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>RMSEA^a</th>
<th>CFI</th>
<th>TLI</th>
<th>SRMR</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Null (M1)</td>
<td>69.01</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>.092</td>
<td>.908</td>
<td>.869</td>
<td>.143</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Full (M2)</td>
<td>764.80</td>
<td>272</td>
<td>.093</td>
<td>.843</td>
<td>.827</td>
<td>.092</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Partial 1 (M3)</td>
<td>742.56</td>
<td>269</td>
<td>.091</td>
<td>.849</td>
<td>.832</td>
<td>.080</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Partial 2 Exploratory (M4)</td>
<td>751.64</td>
<td>270</td>
<td>.092</td>
<td>.847</td>
<td>.830</td>
<td>.089</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Partial 3 Exploratory (M5)</td>
<td>738.53</td>
<td>270</td>
<td>.091</td>
<td>.851</td>
<td>.834</td>
<td>.083</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. RMSEA, Root-Mean-Square Error of Approximation; CFI, Comparative Fit Index; TLI, Tucker-Lewis Index; SRMR, Standardized Root-Mean-Square Residual.

^a 90% confidence interval

***p <0.001

All factors in the model (see Figure 4.2) contributed to faculty involvement in study abroad to some degree. Faculty awareness of study abroad had a direct effect on faculty involvement in study abroad. The effect of faculty agreement with KSAs as outcomes of study abroad on their involvement in study abroad was partially mediated by their perception of the importance of KSA outcomes for professionals in their field, as well as by their perception of the overall importance of study abroad. Additionally, faculty perception of the importance KSA outcomes for professionals in their field was partially moderated by their prior international experiences (see Figure 4.2).
Figure 4.2. Partial mediation model for personal dimension factors influencing faculty involvement in study abroad.

Conclusions and Recommendations

While none of the models met the criteria for a well-fitted model, all of the models exhibited elements of close fit in some areas with marginal fit in other areas. Per the accepted model, the personal dimension factors that predicted agriculture teaching faculty involvement in study abroad include (a) their agreement with knowledge, skills, and abilities (KSAs) as outcomes of study abroad, (b) their perception of the importance of those KSA outcomes for professionals in their field, (c) their perception of the overall importance of study abroad for students, (d) their awareness of study abroad programs and procedures, and (e) their prior international experience (PIE).

The effect of agriculture teaching faculty agreement with KSAs as being outcomes of study abroad on their involvement in study abroad was partially mediated by their perceptions of the importance of those KSA outcomes and the overall importance of study abroad for students.
As indicated by the relationships observed in this model, agriculture faculty who believe studying abroad produces KSA outcomes among students will perceive studying abroad as more important and will be more likely to be involved if they also perceive those KSA outcomes as important for professionals in their field. Consistent with prior research, the findings of this study support the notion that convincing faculty of the value of study abroad programs can influence positively their involvement in efforts to increase student participation in such programs (Green & Olsen, 2003; Paus & Robinson, 2008). Future research should, therefore, be conducted to examine why agriculture faculty do or do not perceive select KSAs as being outcomes of study abroad, as well as why agriculture faculty do or do not perceive those KSA outcomes as being important for professionals in their field. In this respect, and considering the high potential for the global nature of academic disciplines to influence faculty perceptions (Ellingboe, 1988; Bond et al., 2003), it may be beneficial to include academic discipline in future models to explain faculty perceptions of the importance of KSA outcomes.

Additionally, faculty perceptions of the importance of KSA outcomes was moderated by their prior international experience. Consistent with prior research, agriculture faculty in this study are more likely to perceive KSA outcomes of study as important for professionals in their field if they have acquired international experiences themselves (ACE, 2012; Akpan & Martin, 1996; O’Hara, 2009). As such, efforts should be directed toward increasing the international experience of faculty. Qualitative inquiry to explore how specific international experiences have impacted faculty beliefs toward study abroad programs could aid in determining the types of opportunities that should be offered for faculty.

Agriculture faculty awareness of study abroad had a direct effect on their involvement. As consistent with prior research, agriculture faculty are more likely to be involved in study
abroad if they are aware of study abroad opportunities and processes associated with study abroad (Bond et al., 2003; Doyle et al. 2010; Woodruff, 2009). Therefore, future efforts should also be directed toward faculty professional development and training regarding study abroad. Such efforts may include informational sessions or seminars designed to inform faculty of upcoming study abroad programs within their departments and communicate to faculty how those programs can benefit their students.

The complexity of the model employed in this study causes limitations regarding the power of this model (see Figure 4.2). As such, it would be beneficial to explore separate, more simplified models in future research to better explain the personal dimension factors influencing faculty involvement in study abroad. Moreover, considering the limitation posed by the small sample size in this study, it is recommended future studies of this nature be conducted with a larger sample size that includes agriculture faculty from other institutions. Finally, as this the purpose of this study was to explore relationships between variables in the personal dimension, future research should be conducted to examine the relationships between variables in the professional and institutional dimensions to further develop and test the conceptual model for faculty involvement in study abroad (see Figure 4.1).

References


CHAPTER 5
SUMMARY

This dissertation study examined the involvement of agriculture teaching faculty in study abroad, as well as the factors influencing their involvement. The review of literature conducted in article one of this dissertation series revealed that faculty engagement in internationalization activities (e.g. study abroad) is critical to the success of internationalizing higher education. However, much of the existing work provided only a discussion of what faculty should be doing in terms of their involvement without any empirical data to describe the ways in which they are currently involved and the factors that may influence their involvement. In this respect, the body of literature on faculty involvement in study abroad remains limited. This is particularly true regarding research conducted with agriculture faculty.

Of the research that has been conducted on faculty involvement in study abroad, “involvement” has been largely operationalized as faculty participation as leaders of study abroad programs. This dissertation study sought to address this gap in the research through the operationalization of faculty involvement in study abroad as inclusive of a variety of activities in which faculty may be engaged. Moreover, this dissertation study addressed gaps in the research conducted to explain faculty involvement in study abroad by identifying and describing institutional, professional and personal dimension factors that may influence their involvement. Additionally, as a result of this study, a conceptual framework for examining faculty involvement in study abroad was proposed. In articles two and three of this dissertation series provided a descriptive and comparative assessment of faculty involvement in study abroad by (a) institution factors, including institutional mission and priorities, communication of priorities, tenure and promotion policies, and time and financial support provided; (b) professional factors, including professional rank, academic discipline, and study abroad perceptions at the
departmental levels; and (c) personal factors, including faculty perceptions of the importance of study abroad, faculty awareness of study abroad programs and processes, and prior international experiences of faculty. Article three of this dissertation study was then conducted to examine further the personal dimension of the proposed conceptual model by assessing the structural relationships between personal dimension variables.

Overall, agriculture faculty in this study were minimally involved in study abroad. The activities in which most faculty were involved included encouraging students they teach or advise to study abroad. However, one third of the faculty reported having never encouraged students they teach or advise to study abroad. As faculty encouragement has been identified having a positive influence on student participation in study abroad (O’Hara, 2009; Paus & Robinson, 2008), a follow up study to examine why one third of the faculty in this study had never encouraged students to study abroad is warranted. Further, future research should be conducted to determine if faculty personal beliefs toward study abroad motivate them to encourage students, or if encouragement is a more frequent activity among faculty merely due to the relatively less time and financial investment required to encourage students than to engage in other forms of involvement. Lastly, the findings in this study regarding encouragement may be limited by the vague nature of the statement, “I have encouraged students to study abroad.” As such, replication of this study would benefit from a mixed method approach that includes follow up, qualitative inquiry with faculty who have encouraged students to study abroad would better identify how and to what extent these faculty encourage students.

Aside from encouraging students to study abroad, less than half of the faculty in this study had conducted any of the other activities associated with study abroad. The least conducted activity was having assisted students with allocating funding for studying abroad and having
invited someone from the office of international programs to guest speak in their class. As this finding was somewhat contradictory to faculty responses regarding their awareness of select factors associated with study abroad, future research should be conducted to examine factors other than awareness that may influence this form of involvement by faculty.

Regarding faculty awareness of study abroad, the study abroad elements with which faculty were least aware were (a) scholarships or other sources of funding for students to study abroad and (b) the process of transferring study abroad credits to students’ degree plan at home. Agriculture faculty overall awareness of study abroad had a direct effect on their involvement in study abroad. As consistent with prior research, agriculture faculty are more likely to be involved in study abroad if they are aware of study abroad opportunities and processes associated with study abroad (Bond et al., 2003; Doyle et al. 2010; Woodruff, 2009). Therefore, future research should be conducted to identify barriers to faculty knowledge and awareness of study abroad to better inform future practice for faculty training and development.

Agriculture faculty in this study agreed that increasing student participation in study abroad was an institutional priority of their university, as well as a priority in their college. However, faculty reported slightly less agreement regarding the priority of increasing student participation in study abroad among administrators in their department. More so, faculty agreed least with increasing student participation in study abroad as a priority among fellow colleagues within their department. This finding is consistent with prior research (Bond et al., Paus & Robinson, 2008; Schweitz, 2006). As the inability to compare faculty involvement and perceptions by academic department was a major limitation of this study, this study should be replicated to include academic department as a key variable for comparison.
Regarding agriculture faculty attitudes and beliefs toward study abroad, discrepancies were found between faculty perceptions of the KSA outcomes of study abroad and their perception of the importance of those outcomes for professionals in their field. Faculty in this study believed the KSA outcomes associated with study abroad were important for professionals in their field, but remained slightly less convinced that study abroad actually produces those outcomes. For example, the ability to think critically in diverse settings was perceived by faculty as the most important KSA for professionals in their field. However, when asked about the outcomes of studying abroad, faculty agreed least with the statement that studying abroad increases students’ ability to think critically to solve problems in diverse settings. The same, yet inverse effect, was observed regarding the ability to compete in the global job market. Faculty agreed most with the statement that studying abroad better prepares students for global careers, yet perceived the ability to compete in the global job market as the least important KSA for professionals in their field.

Analysis of the model in article three of this dissertation study provided further indication that a significant relationships exists between faculty attitudes and beliefs and their involvement in study abroad. Specifically, the effect of agriculture faculty agreement with KSAs as being outcomes of study abroad on their involvement in study abroad was partially mediated by their perception of the importance of those KSA outcomes. As suggested by these findings, agriculture faculty who perceived study abroad produces KSA outcomes among students are more likely to be involved in study abroad if they also perceive KSA outcomes as important for professionals in their field. Based on the findings of this study, research should be conducted to further examine why agriculture faculty do or do not believe that the study abroad outcomes reported frequently in prior research actually occur, as well as why faculty do or do not believe
those outcomes are important for agricultural professionals. Additionally, considering the high potential for the global nature of academic disciplines to influence faculty perceptions, it may be beneficial to include academic discipline in future models to explain faculty perceptions of the importance of KSA outcomes.

The prior international experience (PIE) of faculty was significant in their study abroad involvement and perceptions. As consistent with prior research, agriculture faculty in this study were more likely to perceive KSA outcomes of study abroad as important for professionals in their field if they have acquired international experiences themselves (ACE, 2012; Akpan & Martin, 1996; O’Hara, 2009). As such, efforts should be directed toward increasing the international experience of faculty. While institutional differences were observed for PIE, no significant differences were observed for study abroad involvement, KSA agreement, KSA importance, study abroad awareness, and study abroad priority. This finding was surprising at it is inconsistent with prior research. Considering the potential for departmental differences to influence faculty involvement, beliefs, and knowledge of study abroad, the findings from this study warrant examination of departmental differences. These differences may perhaps carry more weight than institutional differences. Differences in faculty involvement and perception based on academic department were not reported in this study due to a limitation with the format of the survey instrument. As such, this study should be replicated using a modified version the academic discipline section of the original instrument.

Due to the limitations of the small population of this study, as well as the unequal population of LSU and UF faculty, it is recommended this study be replicated with a larger population. Further, this study should be replicated to include faculty at other institutions to better examine the impact of institution on faculty involvement in and perceptions of study
abroad. Additionally, the complexity of the model employed in article three of this study causes limitations regarding the power of this model. As such, it would be beneficial to explore separate, more simplified models in future research to better explain the personal dimension factors influencing faculty involvement in study abroad. Moreover, considering the limitation posed by the small sample size in this study, it is recommended that future studies be conducted with a larger sample size that includes agriculture faculty from other institutions. Finally, as this the purpose of this study was to explore relationships between variables in the personal dimension, future research should be conducted to examine the relationships between variables in the professional and institutional dimensions to further develop and test the conceptual model for faculty involvement in study abroad.
APPENDIX A

INSTRUMENT

TITLE: Involving Agriculture Teaching Faculty in Study Abroad: Examining Faculty Involvement in and Perceptions of Study Abroad Programs

Thank you for your willingness to participate in this study.

While your responses are valued greatly, your participation in this study is strictly voluntary. There are no more than minimal risks associated with this research study. There is no penalty for not participating, nor will compensation be offered for participating. The Qualtrics number assigned to your entry is for follow up, tracking purposes only. Your confidentiality is guaranteed and no names will be associated with the findings of this study.

This questionnaire will take approximately 10 – 15 minutes to complete. Should you need to exit the survey and finish at a later time, you can re-enter where you left off by clicking the survey link again. Please note the save/continue feature only works if you return on the same browser and computer. After one week, responses are recorded as is.

Please click the forward arrow tab to begin the questionnaire.

Q1. Do you currently hold a formal teaching appointment at your university?

Yes  ○
No    ○

Q1. Considering your teaching/advising experience, please check all that apply.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>○</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I have encouraged students I teach to study abroad</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I have used time in class to inform students I teach of study abroad opportunities in the College of Agriculture.</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I have used time in class to inform students I teach of upcoming study abroad fairs.</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I have used time in class to inform students I teach of scholarships or other sources of funding for studying abroad.</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I have invited someone from the Office of International Programs to guest speak in one or more of my classes.</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I have invited students who have studied abroad to guest speak in one or more of my classes.</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I have encouraged students I advise to study abroad.</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I have met with students I advise to assist them with the academic planning associated with studying abroad.</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
I have met with students I advise to assist them with allocating scholarships or other sources of funding for studying abroad.  
I have helped connect students I advise with a study abroad coordinator (or other appropriate personnel) from the Office of International Programs on campus.  
I have helped design a study abroad program for students.  
I have personally led a study abroad program for students.  

Q2. Please indicate your level of agreement with the following statement:

“I believe studying abroad is important for students.”

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Disagree Strongly</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Disagree Slightly</th>
<th>Agree Slightly</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Agree Strongly</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Q3. Please indicate your level of agreement with the following statements regarding the outcomes of study abroad.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Study abroad increases students’ acceptance of other cultures.</th>
<th>Disagree Strongly</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Disagree Slightly</th>
<th>Agree Slightly</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Agree Strongly</th>
</tr>
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<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Study abroad increases students’ ability to work with people from cultures different than their own.</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Study abroad increases students’ knowledge of global issues.</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Study abroad increases students’ ability to address local issues within a global context.</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Study abroad increases students’ knowledge of international agriculture policies, principles, and/or practices.</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Study abroad increases students’ ability to think critically to solve problems in diverse settings.</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Study abroad better prepares students for international careers.</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Q4. Considering the knowledge, skills and abilities needed among professionals in your field of study, please indicate your level of agreement with the following statements.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Disagree Strongly</th>
<th>Disagree Slightly</th>
<th>Agree Slightly</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Agree Strongly</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gaining international experience is important for professionals in my field.</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Developing a global perspective is important for professionals in my field.</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Being accepting of other cultures is important for professionals in my field.</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Being able to work with people from cultures different than one’s own is important for professionals in my field.</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Having knowledge of global issues is important for professionals in my field.</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Being able to address local issues within a global context is important for professionals in my field.</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thinking critically to solve problems in diverse settings is important for professionals in my field.</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Being able to compete in the global job market is important for professionals in my field.</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Developing international networks is important for professionals in my field.</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Q5. Please indicate your level of agreement with the following statements.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Disagree Strongly</th>
<th>Disagree Slightly</th>
<th>Agree Slightly</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Agree Strongly</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I am familiar with the Office of International Programs at my university.</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am aware of study abroad opportunities for my students.</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am aware of scholarships or other sources of funding for students to study abroad.</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am familiar with the process of transferring study abroad credits to students’ degree plan at their home university.</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am aware of opportunities for me to be personally involved in a faculty-led study abroad program.</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Q6. Please indicate your level of agreement with the following statements.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Disagree Strongly</th>
<th>Disagree Slightly</th>
<th>Agree Slightly</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Agree Strongly</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Increasing student participation in study abroad is a priority among administrators in my department.</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increasing student participation in study abroad is a priority among the faculty in my department.</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increasing student participation in study abroad is a priority of the College of Agriculture (and Life Sciences) at my university.</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increasing student participation in study abroad is an institutional priority of my university.</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increasing student participation in study abroad is part of my responsibilities as a faculty member.</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Q7. Please check all that apply

I have taught a course on campus with an international focus.  
I have participated in international activities on campus.  
I have interacted with international students, international faculty members,  
and/or visiting international scholars at my university.  
I have taught at a university in a country other than the United States.  
I have worked in a country other than the United States.  
I lived a country other than the United States for a period of one month or more.  
I was born in a country other than the United States.  
I have been involved in international collaborative research.  
I have colleagues from a country other than the United States.  
I have attended an international conference (includes those located in the United States).  
I have led a study abroad program for students.  
I have traveled abroad with students.  
I have participated in a study abroad program for faculty.

Tell us a little about yourself:

Q8. At which university are you a faculty member? _______________________________

Q9. What is your academic discipline? ________________________________

Q10. What is your professional rank?
   [ ] Instructor  
   [ ] Assistant Professor  
   [ ] Associate Professor  
   [ ] Full Professor

Q11. What is your full time equivalent (FTE)?
   % Teaching ________
   % Research________
   % Service ________

Q12. Are you tenured?
   [ ] No  
   [ ] Yes
Q13. Are you personally interested in leading a study abroad program for students?
   [ ] Definitely not
   [ ] Probably not
   [ ] Probably yes
   [ ] Definitely yes

Q14. Which best describes your ethnicity?
   [ ] Asian
   [ ] Native American or Alaska Native
   [ ] Black or African American
   [ ] Native Hawaiian/Pacific Islander
   [ ] White, Non-Hispanic
   [ ] Hispanic
   [ ] Multiracial
   [ ] Other _____________________

Q15. Gender
   [ ] Male
   [ ] Female
APPENDIX B
IRB APPROVAL

From: Institutional R Board
Sent: Tuesday, April 18, 2017 8:28:27 AM
To: Shelli E Danjean
Cc: Melissa D Cater
Subject: IRB Application

The IRB chair reviewed your application, Examining the Role of Agriculture Faculty in Student Participation in Education Abroad, and determined IRB approval for this specific application (IRB# E10453) is not needed. There is no manipulation of, nor intervention with, human subjects. Should you subsequently devise a project which does involve the use of human subjects, then IRB review and approval will be needed. Please include in your recruiting statements or intro to your survey, the IRB looked at the project and determined it did not need a formal review. You can still conduct your study.

It falls under a certain category that does not need IRB approval.

Elizabeth Cadarette
IRB Coordinator
Office of Research and Economic Development
Louisiana State University
130 David Boyd Hall, Baton Rouge, LA 70803
office 225-578-8692 | fax 225-578-5983
eantoll@lsu.edu | lsu.edu | www.research.lsu.edu
APPENDIX C

ELECTRONIC MAIL PARTICIPANT CONSENT AND INFORMATION SHEET

Protocol Title: An Examination of Agriculture Faculty Members’ Involvement in and Perceptions of Study Abroad Programs

Investigators: Shelli Danjean, Doctoral Candidate
Melissa Cater, Assistant Professor

The purpose of this study is to contribute to efforts to internationalize the agricultural curriculum, specifically regarding student participation in education abroad. As faculty have great potential to influence the likelihood students will participate, the key objectives of this study are to assess yours and other agriculture faculty perceptions of and involvement in education abroad, as well as to identify factors that may hinder involvement.

The questionnaire will take approximately 10-15 minutes to complete. Should you choose to participate, you will be asked questions regarding your involvement in helping students participate in education abroad opportunities, your perceptions of the importance of education abroad, as well as a few questions regarding your personal/professional characteristics.

While your participation is greatly appreciated, participation is strictly voluntary. There are no more than minimal risks associated with this research study. There is no penalty for not participating, nor will there be compensation offered for participating. Your individual responses are confidential and will not be linked to you. By following the online questionnaire link provided below, you are giving your consent to participate in this study.

For any general questions concerning this research study, please contact Shelli Danjean via email at sdanje1@lsu.edu, or by phone at 985-607-4045. If you have questions about subjects’ rights or other concerns, you may contact Dennis Landin, LSU Institutional Review Board, at (225) 578-8692, irb@lsu.edu, or www.lsu.edu/irb.

Thank you in advance for your time,

Shelli E. Danjean

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The author is a native of Louisiana. She received her bachelor’s degree in Agricultural Education from Louisiana State University in May 2012. During her undergraduate experience, she studied for a semester at Moscow Agro-Engineering University in Moscow, Russia and developed an interest in international education in study abroad. Her doctoral degree is in Agricultural and Extension Education and Evaluation, and her anticipated date of graduation is December 2017.