Private Higher Education Institutions: Business Schools Internationalization Process and the Key Role of Faculty International Human Capital and Intercultural Sensitivity

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Private Higher Education Institutions: Business Schools Internationalization Process and the Key Role of Faculty International Human Capital and Intercultural Sensitivity

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Dedication

To my parents, sister, and brother.

To my husband and children.

I specially dedicate this dissertation to my mother, whose prayers, and encouragement constantly reminded that there is nothing too difficult. Your strong and sweet spirit accompanies me through my trials and successes. I thank you for your never-ending support in my pursuit of academic and personal objectives. For being the world's most amazing grandmother to my children.

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Abstract

Three topics represent the core chapters of this thesis: 1) business schools internationalization (activities, patterns, entry modes and foreign market selection), 2) faculty internationalization: faculty international human capital resources that represent a competitive advantage for the business school internationalization process, and 3) faculty intercultural sensitivity: demographic, school experience, and intercultural experience variables related to the IDI scores.

The objective of the first study was to analyze the process of internationalization among business schools from an international management perspective. Using the case study method, we analyze the internationalization activities, patterns, entry modes, and foreign market selection of five private business schools: Instituto de Estudios Superiores de la Empresa (IESE), and Escuela Superior de Administración y Dirección de Empresas (ESADE) in Spain, and Escuela de Graduados en Administración y Dirección de Empresas (EGADE), Instituto Panamericano de Alta Dirección de Empresas (IPADE) and Universidad de Monterrey (UDEM) in Mexico. Our observations reveal that, as is typical for businesses, these institutions follow sequential steps when internationalizing, by gradually intensifying the resource commitment of their entry modes. They begin with student and faculty exchanges, followed by joint degree and double-degree programs, then by the establishment of foreign extensions such as offices and finally branch campuses. The study also finds that in the beginning, foreign market selection is greatly influenced by the psychic distance concept, but later on, a customer/market potential strategy takes a predominant role.

The second study analyzes the faculty human capital resources involved in the international activities carried out by 83 UDEM´s business schools faculties, together with a description of faculty groups based upon the findings. The study developed a faculty internationalization survey based on service and higher education literature. It considers the Resource Based View (RBV) theory and human capital literature which assume that human capital may be a source of competitive advantage for institutions. Principal component analysis (PCA) was used to grouped research quantitative variables, followed, multiple correspondence

analysis (MCA) to reduce the number of the rest of nominal variables related to research, and teaching abroad programs. Subsequently, we chose the two-step cluster analysis technique in order to group faculty according to international factors obtained from the PCA and MCA together with other faculty demographic variables such as type of contract and department. We obtained three dimensions of faculty internationalization: research dimension with discrete data, research, teaching and education/training dimension with nominal and dichotomous variables, and organization and participation on students´ academic trips abroad nominal and dichotomous variables. The clustering analysis with object scores method was used to identify groups sharing similar characteristics. Our results led to the definition and identification of three faculty groups according their human capital resources related to internationalization.

The third study explored the intercultural sensitivity of 68 business school faculties in UDEM, a Mexican private institution. The purpose of the study was to assess faculty´s intercultural sensitivity and to identify demographic, school experience and intercultural experience variables related influencing intercultural sensitivity. The Developmental Model Intercultural Sensitivity (DMIS), a six-stage progression model that depicts how individuals construe their experience with cultural difference, was the theoretical framework for the study. The study followed a quantitative design, and used the Intercultural Development Inventory (IDI), version 3, a psychometrically valid instrument based on the DMIS, to measure intercultural sensitivity, and a questionnaire. Employing the SPPS, several statistical procedures were considered. In order to describe faculty profile we elaborate frequency and descriptive tables, later we present contingency tables (chi-square and Fisher test) in order to evaluate the relation between qualitative variables and DO grouped score. Afterwards, multiple correspondence analysis (MCA) was considered to reduce the qualitative variables. Finally, we ran a binary logistic regression with the factors obtained in the MCA in order to determine which demographic, schools experience and intercultural experience factor explains the DO grouped score variable. Results revealed that faculty at UDEM´s business school are working from at the Polarization stage (N= 68, DO score= 84.75). Binary logistic regression model showed that the factors school experience and intercultural experience explains faculty DO grouped score variable. Implications, limitations and conclusions are discussed.

Contents

GENERAL INTRODUCTION

International services are defined as "deeds, performances, and efforts, conducted across national boundaries in critical contact with foreign cultures" (Clark, Rajaratnam & Smith, 1996 p. 15). The service literature has long argued that the nature of goods and services is not the same (Knight, 1999), and that services face a unique set of challenges when crossing international boundaries. The intangible, perishable, inseparable, and heterogeneous characteristics that distinguish services from goods can impact international services (Bianchi, 2011), such as the foreign entry market mode decision (Erramilli & Rao, 1993).

Higher education institutions (HEI) are increasingly being viewed as knowledge intensive businesses services (KIBS) (Deiaco, Holmén & McKelvey, 2009), and the cross-border provision of HE services has similarities with that of KIBS, which include professional and business services.

Several attempts to relate higher education internationalization to business internationalization have appeared in literature (Bartell, 2003; Czinkota, Grossman, Javalgi, & Nugent, 2009; Healey, 2008; Howe and Martin, 1998; Railmond & Halliburton, 1995; Salt & Wood, 2004), but there remain gaps in our understanding of business schools internationalization as service business organizations. Furthermore, Doh (2010) expressed concerns than, in globalization, business schools fell behind business organizations, and few papers addressed the internationalization of management education.

In fact, during the last two decades, internationalization of universities has appreciably increased with reference to scope, volume and complexity and it has been also considered as a worthwhile 'business' which involves gains for students, universities and other stakeholders (Abbas, Yousafzai, & Khattak, 2015)

The first study analyze the process of internationalization among business schools from an international management perspective. Using the case study method, we considered the internationalization activities, patterns, entry modes, and foreign market selections of five private

business schools: IESE and ESADE in Spain, and EGADE, IPADE and UDEM in Mexico. Our observations reveal that, as is typical for businesses, these institutions follow sequential steps when internationalizing, by gradually intensifying the resource commitment of their entry modes. They begin with student and faculty exchanges, followed by joint degree and double-degree programs, which are then followed by the establishment of foreign extensions as offices and finally they establish branch campuses. The study also finds that in the beginning, foreign market selection is greatly influenced by the psychic distance concept, but later on, a customer/market potential strategy takes a predominant role.

The case study results also revealed that faculty plays an important role in business school internationalization, because professors usually carry out the internationalization initiatives. Furthermore, results show that some of the double-degrees programs started as informal relations among faculty.

Ma and Trigo (2011) pointed out that faculty is the key asset of any educational institution and clearly of market oriented business schools since it is the faculty who translate the well-designed mission and curriculum into the global competency of students.

In fact, knowledge intensive business services (KIBS), as education, consist of people and process rather than product-oriented and reliant on tacit knowledge embodied in skilled human capital (Hitt, Bierman, Uhlenbruck & Shimizu, 2006; Shukla & Dow, 2010). Skilled human and relational capital, and reputation, in particular, are key tacit assets of knowledge-intensive firms and can be linked to their pattern of internationalization (Erramilli & Rao 1993; Greenwood, Li, Prakash, & Deephouse 2005; Hitt el al., 2006; Shukla & Dow 2010).

Furthermore, the growing acceptance of internal resources such as sources of competitive advantage brought legitimacy to HR´s assertion that people are strategically important to firm success, showing the integration of the RBV of the firm into the Strategic Human Resource Management (SHRM) (Wright, Dunford, & Snell. 2001).

According to Bartlett and Ghoshal (2002) key strategic resource should be the human and intellectual capital. Recognizing that the company´s scarce resources are knowledgeable people. Likewise, significant international experience by top managers represents firm-specific tacit knowledge that is difficult to imitate (Peng, 2001).

In the same line, internationalization activities in higher education institutions are now recognized as highly specialized activities that require professional staff with proper academic training and years of international education experience (Paige, 2005).

Most of the research on higher education internationalization has focused on the organization per se, and not on their faculty. Additionally, most of the instruments developed to measure internationalization are for the whole institution and their faculty section considers only certain aspects as research, or they are highly customized for a specific institution. In as much as no instruments were found to measure faculty internationalization for a business school in a Latin-American context, there exists the need to design one that helps to determine faculty´s human capital resource (international knowledge, skills, and abilities) as a source of competitive advantage for institution´s internationalization process.

The second study analyzes the human capital resources involved in the international activities carried out by 83 UDEM´s business school faculties, together with a description of faculty groups based on the findings. The study developed a faculty internationalization survey based on service and higher education literature. It considered the RBV assumption that human capital may be a competitive advantage for institutions. Principal component analysis (PCA) was used to group research quantitative variables, followed by, multiple correspondence analysis (MCA) to reduce the number of the rest of nominal variables related to research, teaching and abroad programs. Subsequently, we chose the two-step cluster analysis technique in order to group faculty according to international factors obtained from the PCA and MCA together with other demographic faculty variables such as type of contract and academic department. We obtained three dimensions of faculty internationalization: research dimension with discrete data, research, teaching and education/training dimension with nominal and dichotomous variables, and organization and participation on students´ academic trips with abroad nominal and

dichotomous variables. The clustering analysis with object scores method was used to identify groups sharing similar characteristics. Our results led to the definition and identification of three faculty groups according their human capital resources related to internationalization.

When analyzing the different instruments for measuring internationalization, we found that some of them considered faculty intercultural competence, as an important driver of faculty internationalization (NVAO, 2011).

Cultural sensitivity and open-mindedness with respect to different cultures, as well as willingness to understand the ways in which cultures differ, can have an important impact on the perceived performance of the consumer service firms (Styles, Patterson & La, 2005).

Intercultural concepts and theory states that a broad understanding among international education professionals of the key intercultural concepts and theories is necessary (Paige & Goode, 2008). Deardoff (2008, p.50) wrote that "helping students acquire intercultural competence presumes that we know what the concept is". But such knowledge cannot be assumed. Teachers have to recognize and understand their own worldviews before they can assist students in developing their intercultural understanding. Ziegler (2006) found that international education professionals have varying degrees of knowledge regarding intercultural learning and competence and concluded that "the continued development of study abroad as a profession requires that workers in the field share a common knowledge base regarding cultural learning, intercultural communication, and intercultural competence development that can be articulated, implemented, assessed, and subjected to outside scrutiny" (Ziegler, 2006, p. 170).

The literature points to the potentially central role of teachers in intercultural education (Bennett, 1993). Paige and Goode (2008), in their study of faculty members in leading study abroad programs, found that there was a limited understanding of intercultural learning and how to facilitate it.

Teachers with a monocultural background are found to lack insight into the causes and manifestations of social and ethnic-cultural diversity and inequality. Teachers should be equipped

with intercultural competence and skills so as to be able to solve the problems caused by power differentials, racism and discrimination. The role of teacher education is therefore pivotal in developing intercultural competence, but is relatively under-studied. This study represents an initial attempt to readdress this problem in that it investigates the intercultural sensitivity of faculty and the demographic and personal/professional experience factors that affects it.

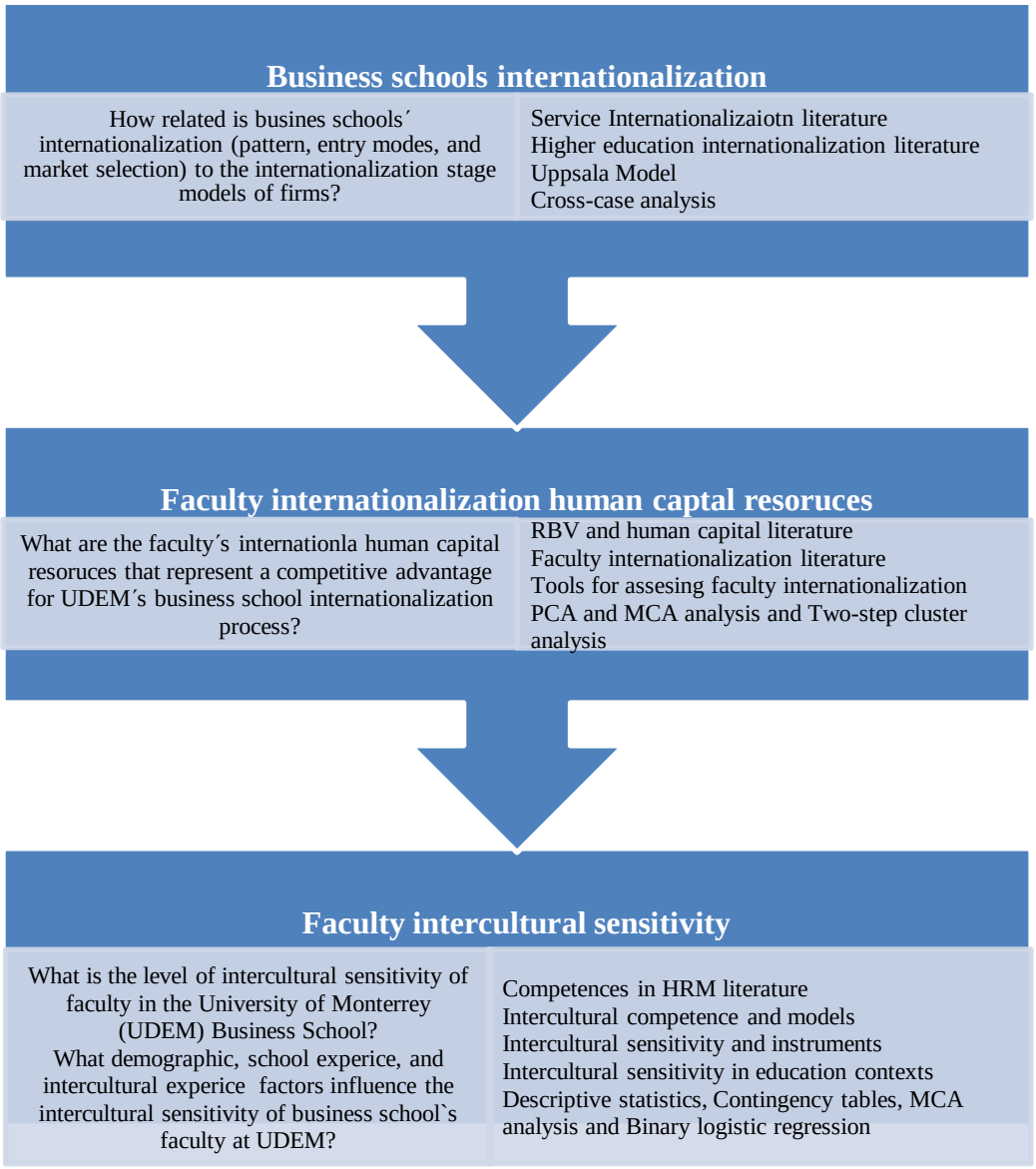
Several investigations have studied the intercultural sensitivity in educational institutions. Most of them have used the Intercultural Development Instrument (IDI), to assess the teacher's level of intercultural competence (DeJaegher & Cao, 2009; Yuen, 2010; Mahon, 2009), to investigate the level of intercultural competence of teachers in bilingual schools in US (Bayles, 2009), or schools outside the US (Fretheim, 2007; Yuen, 2010). Few studies examined teachers' level of intercultural competence in local K-12 schools (Mahon, 2006; Dejaegher & Cao, 2009), and others investigated the level of intercultural competency among educational leaders (Steuernagel, 2014). No studies to date, to the researcher's knowledge, have empirically studied the level of intercultural competency among Mexican faculty in a private institution.

The third research studied the intercultural sensitivity of 68 business school faculties in UDEM, a Mexican private institution. The purpose of the study was to assess faculty intercultural sensitivity and the variables influencing intercultural sensitivity. The Developmental Model Intercultural Sensitivity (DMIS), a six-stage progression model that depicts how individuals construe their experience with cultural difference, was the theoretical framework for the study. The study followed a quantitative design, and used the Intercultural Development Inventory (IDI), version 3, a psychometrically valid instrument based on the DMIS, to measure intercultural sensitivity. Other demographic and international experience variables were obtained from the questionnaire of study number two. Contingency tables, multiple correspondence analysis and binary logistic regression were considered in or to study the predictor variables of intercultural sensitivity. Results revealed that faculty at UDEM´s business school are working from at the Polarization stage, and the factors school experience and intercultural experience explains faculty intercultural sensitivity.

In view of these considerations, the main motivation for the present study is to extend the analysis made of business school internationalization together with faculty human capital resources regarding internationalization and faculty intercultural sensitivity.

Accordingly, in the present thesis we consider three main objectives; related to the analysis of business school internationalization, faculty international human capital resources as resource of sustained competitive advantage and faculty intercultural sensitivity. To achieve this goal, three studies were carried out (figure 1).

Figure 1 Structure of the thesis.



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CHAPTER 1: A Multiple Case-based Analysis of Spanish vs. Mexican Private Business Schools' Internationalization Activities, Pattern, Entry Modes, and Market Selection

1. Introduction

Many nations are experiencing liberalization, deregulation and privatization, especially in developing countries (Kundu & Merchant, 2008). It is acknowledged that services, in general, are relatively neglected in the extant internationalization literature compared to manufacturing firms (Knight, 1999), and that service research is relatively new in terms of building and testing theories (Javalgi & Martin, 2007). Moreover, the lack of focus on knowledge-intensive business services (KIBS) as a subset of service firms is even more apparent.

Higher education institutions (HEI) are increasingly being viewed as knowledge businesses (Deiaco, Holmén & McKelvey, 2009), and the cross-border provision of HE services has similarities with that of KIBSs, which include professional and business services.

KIBS are characterized as knowledge-intensive "soft" services, in which production and consumption are inseparable, based on professional skills, with highly intangible and sometimes customized service offerings, and low capital intensity (Erramilli & Rao, 1993; Sharma & Johanson, 1987).

These idiosyncratic features present special challenges for managerial decision-making (Coviello & Martin, 1999). One such challenge concerns the choice of the internationalization path of KIBS, particularly their foreign entry mode decision (Erramilli & Rao, 1993).

A growing body of literature exists regarding internationalization of HE focused mainly on topics from mobility, the mutual influence of HE systems, and the internationalization of the substance of teaching and learning to institutional strategies, knowledge transfer cooperation and competition, and national and supranational policies (Kehm, 2007; Marginson & van der Wende, 2007). However, it is only in recent years that HE as an international commercial activity has received attention. In fact Czinkota (2006) mentioned that HEI is not immune from the rules of

economics, particularly when it comes to issues for supply, demand and resources. In relation to this fact, Healey (2008) questions the extent to which the internationalization of universities is comparable to that of multinational corporations in other sectors and suggests that HE internationalization is a response to government policy, which according to Czinkota, Grossman, Javalgi and Nugent, (2009), makes the unregulated international student market more attractive than the highly regulated domestic market. Moreover, Salt and Wood (2014) studied the staffing practices of UK university campuses overseas employing Human Resource multinational enterprise literature. Additionally, several studies have considered the employment of stage internationalization models in order to explain the internationalization of professional service firms (PSF) (Roberts, 1999), the entrance of UK universities to China (Li & Roberts, 2012), and the internationalization of capital intensive service firms versus knowledge service firms (Shukla, Dow & Misra, 2012).

Despite such contributions, there remain gaps in our understanding of the internationalization of HEIs as business organizations. In particular, research is required to gain a deeper appreciation of how business schools (BS) develop their foreign market decisions and entry modes over time. The development of understandings of BSs internationalization can be assisted through empirical research and the consideration of research on the internationalization of business organizations (Johanson & Vahlne, 1977; Johanson & Wiedersheim-Paul, 1975) and especially service sectors firms (Aharoni, 1966, 2000; Dunning, 1988; Vandermerwe & Chadwick, 1989).

The purpose of this study is to qualitatively analyze the process of internationalization among business schools from an international management perspective. Using the case study method, we examined the internationalization activities, patterns, entry modes, and foreign market selection of five private business schools: IESE and ESADE in Spain, and EGADE, IPADE and UDEM in Mexico. A further purpose of this study is to qualitatively analyze the internationalization process of selected Iberoamerican business schools. We focused on private schools in order to reflect market choices rather than government fiat. We also investigated the extent to which gradual internationalization models proposed in the International Business literature (Johanson & Vahlne, 1977; Johanson & Wiedersheim-Paul, 1975) are helpful in

studying the internationalization patterns of business schools. Furthermore, by conducting qualitative case study research of private business schools in non-English speaking nations, we aim to evaluate higher education internationalization beyond the typical Anglo-Saxon horizon.

Based upon a systematic application of the multiple-holistic case study approach (Yin, 1994) we investigated five private internationally operating business schools, ESADE and IESE in Spain, and EGADE, IPADE and UDEM in Mexico. This study attempts to answer the following research question:

1. How related is a business school´s internationalization (pattern, entry modes, market selection) to the internationalization stage models of firms?

The study is organized as follows: first, we provide the conceptual framework; second, we describe the study methodology; third, we offer the cross-case analysis and discussion; fourth, we propose a business school internationalization model based upon gradual internationalization theoretical frameworks and case specific evidence; finally, we present our conclusions, limitations and suggestions for future research.

2. Conceptual framework

2.1. Internationalization of higher education institutions (HEI) as knowledge-intensive business services (KIBS)

Knowledge-intensive business services (KIBS) are recognized for "playing a critical role in national and regional innovation systems and as prominent feature of the knowledge based economy" (He & Wong, 2009, p.265). And yet, they are regarded as being still in their infancy and still evolving (Amar, 2002).

Typically growing types of services are knowledge-based, which include activities related to management consulting, engineering, education and information technology (Lovelock &

Gummesson, 2004). Among these, international education has taken on major economic importance, both as an end result and as an activity (Brown & Duguid, 2000).

Universities recently recognize internationalization not as a final goal, but as a process of development, a way of new thinking and understanding. Internationalization appears as a new tool for competitiveness in a global market (Greblikaitė, Barynienė, & Paužaitė, 2015).

The International Association of Universities (IAU) highlights the increasing perception of internationalization as a top priority for universities worldwide and affirm that internationalization is recognized as key to preparing students for a globalized workplace to strengthen research and knowledge production in an increasingly global knowledge economy, to enhance institutional prestige; and to allow access to global student markets (Egron-Polak & Hudson, 2014).

During last decades the process of internationalization becomes one of the most important issues in scientific and public discussions. Private and public organizations deal with one and the same question, how to become more internationalized and use this as the competitive advantage for the improvement of situation in volatile market (Greblikaitė, Barynienė, & Paužaitė, 2015). Moreover, Bennett and Kottasz (2011) in their study regarding the internationalization of 92 European universities, found that between a quarter and a third of the schools in the sample had highly competitive orientations towards internationalization and around a quarter had extremely co-operative orientations. Eight per cent of the schools were financed mainly from private sources; 80% predominantly by the state, and the remainder through an even mix of private and public contributions.

Internationalization can be studied at an institutional level, and/or at a national/sectoral level. However, it is usually at the individual institution level that the process of internationalization takes place. Therefore, this study of internationalization among higher education institutions uses an institutional approach.

According to Knight (2004), general approaches to internationalization at the institutional level are: activity, outcome, rationale, and process, differentiated into domestic, and cross-border. With respect to higher education institutions, internationalization can be described in terms of activities such as: study abroad, curriculum and academic programs, institutional linkages and networks, development projects, and branch campuses. Internationalization can also be presented in the form of desired outcomes, such as student competencies, increased visibility, international agreements, partners or projects. Internationalization is also described with respect to the primary motivations or rationales driving it. There can include academic standards, income generation, cultural diversity, and student and staff development.

From a process perspective, a higher education institution's internationalization considers the integration of an international dimension into the teaching, learning, and service functions of an institution. In the domestic approach, internationalization is interpreted as the creation of a culture or climate on campus that promotes and supports international/intercultural understanding through campus-based activities. In the cross-border approach, internationalization is seen as the cross-border delivery of education to other countries through a variety of delivery modes (face to face, distance, e-learning) and through different administrative arrangements (franchises, twinning, branch campuses, etc.).

In relation to the cross-border approach, there is an existing international framework for higher education institutions. The General Agreement on Trade in Services (GATS) Article I within the World Trade Organization establishes the following four types of cross-border abroad and their applicability to academia: 1) cross-border supply (program mobility), 2) consumption abroad (student mobility), 3) commercial presence (institution mobility), and 4) movement of natural persons (academic mobility)[1].

Mode 1 -cross-border supply- is equivalent to exporting in the traditional sense, and therefore, requires very little commitment. This mode could be related to distance learning,

[1] World Trade Organization. Retrieved from:
https://www.wto.org/english/tratop_e/serv_e/cbt_course_e/c1s3p1_e.htm

online education, but also sometimes it is related to contractual forms of overseas supply (Li & Roberts, 2012). Mode 2 -consumption abroad- requires little commitment, since it relates to business school activities toward seeking overseas students or facilitating exchange programs. Mode 3 -commercial presence- requires the highest level of commitment because it includes a significant allocation of resources in the form of foreign direct investment to establish a joint venture (JV) or a wholly owned operation. Mode 4 -presence of natural persons- is a low commitment level of delivery, which involves temporary movement of academic staff to deliver lectures and courses overseas. This mode is often linked to other methods of HE delivery (Li & Roberts, 2012).

Several researchers have employed GATS classification to study the internationalization process of HEI. Czinkota (2006) elaborates on the various GATS modes in the HE context focusing on the types of mobility that are involved: student, academic, program, and institution. In the context of US MBA programs, Czinkota et al. (2009) studied the institutional mobility to be the establishment of a commercial presence into licensing investment and franchising, JV and full equity investment modes. Li and Roberts (2012) employed a similar GATS mode of service supply conceptualization proposed by Czinkota et al. (2009). The main change was the classification of licensing and franchising as cross-border supply (mode 1), instead of commercial presence (mode 3), arguing that the moving element is the program and not the institution. The four GATS modes of cross-border service delivery are detailed in table 1, together with the comparable mode of internationalization in HE according Li and Roberts (2012) education examples and type of HE internationalization.

Table 1 Correspondence between GATS modes of service supply, forms of education services traded internationally and types of HE internationalization.

GATS mode of service supply	**Education examples/forms**	**Main feature**	**Type of HE Internationalization**
Cross-border supply (mode 1)	Distance education Online education Commercial franchising/twinning of a course	Program mobility	Exporting and contractual mechanisms
Consumption abroad (mode 2)	Students abroad (seek overseas students and students´ exchange programs)	Student mobility	Exporting
Commercial presence (mode 3)	Establishment of an educational institution or satellite campus Branch campus, including joint venture with local institutions	Institution mobility	Equity joint venture and wholly owned branch campus
Presence of natural persons (mode 4)	Professors, lectures, teachers, researchers providing education services abroad	Academic mobility	Exporting/contractual but generally linked to other methods

Source: Li & Roberts (2012, p. 1014).

2.2. Internationalization motives of higher education institutions

There are different motives behind the internationalization of higher education institutions. According to Knight (2004), these fall into four groups: social/cultural, political, economic, and academic. We will focus on the latter two groups since these are highly related to the internationalization process at an institutional level, while the first two are more related to the internationalization process at a national level.

The academic category includes the international dimension of research and teaching, the extension of academic horizons, institution building, profile and status, and international quality standards. Furthermore, given the increasing emphasis on competition at the international level, Knight (2004) proposed a new category that recognizes the importance that institutions are giving to branding, or the development of a strong international reputation. Similarly, Green (2012) states that the competitive environment requires institutions to differentiate themselves from the competition and to establish their brand or profile.

Interest in branding is leading institutions to seek accreditation and quality-assurance services as well as good ranking positioning. Accreditations and rankings are becoming an increasingly important measure of the internationalization and quality of higher education institutions such as business schools (Mazza, Sahlin-Andersson & Pedersen, 2005). Since in education services are difficult for consumers to assess, they have to rely on other sources of information such as rankings and accreditations. In fact, Bianchi (2011) found that institutional reputation enhanced international performance for educational institutions, and this reputation may be traduced on business schools´ ranking positions.

Media rankings also influence the users of educational recruiters, as well as the delivery of education and training by business schools (Safón, 2007). Apart from enhancing the prestige of individual schools, rankings can significantly influence the popular perception of the quality of schools, thus affecting graduates' starting salaries (Ray & Jeon, 2008). This is the reason that few administrators can afford to ignore the impact of external rankings on their institution, either to justify past decisions or to support new policy initiatives (Breu & Raab, 1994).

Collet and Vives (2013) state that being a "top school" has important implications, since it helps to attract MBA students, increases the interest of recruiters, and can serve as a quantitative measure of impact and success for deans and business school boards. But they argued that, while rankings may have contributed to the creation of an international playing field in the business school world, many students do not perceive any element of differentiation between schools other than their particular positions in the rankings in a given year. Furthermore, while most business schools recognize the increasing importance of rankings and their impact, they have little influence over the selection and weighting of rankings criteria. The authors mentioned that rankings are subject to being transformed, replaced, or displaced as society at large redefines its relationship with higher education in general and with the field of business education specifically.

Economic rationales are mainly found in the business internationalization literature. Some authors distinguish between defensive motives, which are based on the protection of current

markets, and offensive motives, which are based on the exploitation of new markets (Dunning, 1995).

Trend-following is one such defensive motive, consisting of following national clients and competitors or market leaders. Client followers can be expected to select high-control modes to protect their competitive advantage, based on the knowledge of specific customer needs (Bouquet, Hébert & Delios, 2004). Coviello and Martin (1999) found that service firms' market selection was driven mainly by the location of clients and network contacts. Most of the time, those who follow competitors or the market leaders react to the overseas expansion of competing firms by establishing wholly owned subsidiaries, which is a quicker strategy than collaborating modes (Erramilli & Rao, 1990).

Market-seeking motives, which represent an offensive strategy, aim to acquire new clients, by seeking countries with a growing market potential or those located in specific geographical areas. These firms are more likely to seek collaborative agreements to access external resources and serve local customers (Erramilli & Rao, 1990).

Although many KIBS do engage in client following strategies, particularly in their initial phase of internationalization (Roberts, 1998), the expansion of universities into overseas markets is predominantly market seeking with a view to enhance revenues, engaging in a range of contractual and cooperative arrangements (Li & Roberts, 2012).

2.3. Internationalization patterns in higher education institutions vs. firms

On the topic of internationalization patterns, higher education studies suggest that universities and business schools may follow a sequential process. Railmond and Halliburton (1995) illustrate the internationalization of business schools using four basic sequential stages by which a school at first is focused on the local market, then internationalizes its curriculum and promotes faculty exchange, and eventually develops into a fully international school. Howe and Martin (1998) propose a theoretical model of four stages: 1) domestic school, 2) international/multi-domestic school, 3) global multinational school, and 4) transnational school.

This model summarizes the positions adopted by multinational corporations (MNCs) in internationalization strategies and its application to the range of potential rationales and strategies that business schools could adopt based on global integration/cost leadership and national responsiveness/local differentiation. Bartell (2003) applies the metaphor of the industrial/commercial world to higher education in order to explain universities' internationalization processes through a four step model: 1) domestic ethnocentric perspective, 2) multi-domestic phase, study abroad and research centers, 3) multinational phase –branch campuses and foreign extensions, and 4) global or transnational phase -distance learning programs-.

The aforementioned categorizations related to MNC literature are related to Bartlett and Ghoshal´s (1989; 1998) research. The authors proposed a classification of Multinational Enterprises (MNEs) operating in the international business environment such as 'multinational', 'global', 'international', and 'transnational' firms. Multinational companies, which build a strong local presence through sensitivity and responsiveness to national differences; global companies, which build cost advantages through centralized global-scaled operations; international companies, which exploit parent company knowledge and capabilities through worldwide diffusion and adaptation; and transnational companies which recognize that the necessity to be responsive to local demands and the pressure to develop competitive efficiency on a global scale are simultaneous. In some way, they combine characteristics of both global and multinational companies. Organizational characteristics of MNCs based on Bartlett and Ghoshal (1989; 1998) are shown in table 2. Additionally, table 3 presents detailed information regarding the higher education studies that have employed a sequential internationalization pattern and MNC literature.

Table 2 Multinational corporation categorization.

Organizational characteristics	**Multinational**	**Global**	**International**	**Transnational**
Configuration of assets and capabilities	Decentralized and nationally self-sufficient	Centralized and globally scaled	Sources of core competences centralized, other decentralized.	Dispersed, interdependent, and specialized

Organizational characteristics	Multinational	Global	International	Transnational
Role of overseas operations	Sensing and exploring local opportunities	Implementing parent company strategies	Adapting and leveraging parent company competencies	Differentiated contributions by national units to integrated worldwide operations
Development and diffusion of knowledge	Knowledge developed and retained within each unit	Knowledge developed and retained at the center	Knowledge developed at the center and transferred to overseas units	Knowledge developed jointly and shared worldwide

Source: Bartlett & Ghoshal (1989; 1998).

Table 3 Higher education studies employing a sequential internationalization pattern and MNC literature.

Author (year)	Stages
Railmond and Haliburton (1995)	1. Strictly National. The faculty and programs are predominantly national. Subject is taught as it is practice nationally. Faculty are mostly local nationals, educated nationally, publishing only in local journals, researching locally. Few foreigner students. 2. Beginning to Europeanize. Language courses are added. Foreign case material and teaching materials are added. Cordial relations are established with foreign schools. Some students are exchanged. Program content, student intake and faculty are still, for most part, national. 3. European Cooperation. Program content is multinational and multicultural. The program is based in one country but includes a period of time studying in another country. Faculty are exchanged. At first the foreign teachers fulfil the role of guest lectures, dropping in to lectern then dropping out again. This leads on to joint teaching and joint programs. 4. The Multinational Business School. Students are taught in two or more countries. The school have two or more national bases. The school may have campuses in more than one country, or the network may have closely cooperating bases in more than one country. Faculty are chose form their experience of several countries. Teaching material is multicounty. Students study in two or more languages. The school has developed an expertise in multinational management which can be transfer to companies via courses, research and consulting.
Howe and Martin (1998)	1. Domestic School. Home market and export. Ethnocentric strategy. 2. International/ Multidomestic School. Extensive use of franchising. Polycentric strategy. 3. Global/Multinational School. Cost advantages/integration. Regiocentric strategy. 4. Transnational school. Organization learning. Geocentric strategy.
Bartell (2003)	1. Domestic. Ethnocentric perspective. 2. Multidomestic. Study abroad movement. Research center located in a particular country for the requirements of scholars. 3. Multinational. The development of international business schools as self-supporting enterprises of a parent institution, using local adjunct faculty. Another example is the development of overseas professional education institutions. 4. Global/Transnational. Distance learning technologies, as videoconferences. At the institutional level the challenge is to globalize the entire research and scholarly enterprise.

Source: Bartell (2003); Howe & Martin (1998); Railmond & Haliburton (1995).

Service internationalization studies have also considered a stage internationalization approach. Roberts (1999) found evidence that business service firms (advertising, accountancy, management consultancy and computer services) progress through various stages in the process of internationalization beginning with exportation and ending with the establishment of overseas production sites. Also, Healey (2008) applied Uppsala`s four modes: exporting, licensing production, joint ventures, and sole ventures in the international operations of higher institutions from Austria, Canada, United Kingdom and the United States. Chadee and Naidoo (2009) found that exporting remained the main overseas delivery mode of US and UK universities until the home campuses reached full capacity, at which time delivery occurs in the form of franchising and joint ventures (JVs). Shukla and Dow (2010) find that knowledge-intensive firms tend to gradually increase offshore investment naming it "evolutional growth", but argued that the Uppsala model is better for explaining intensive capital services than knowledge based services. Philippe and Leo (2011) proposed a model of service internationalization considering the international involvement (share of turnover obtained internationally) and the international network development. Researchers pointed out that at the beginning a firm has no network. As a result, they move clients or staff cross-border. Then the school starts partnerships or cooperation networks (most of them informal). Next, staff takes a commercial network approach employing agencies. Then the firm decides to select a partly controlled network strategy by arranging joint venture. Finally the firm prefers controlled networks by establishing subsidiaries or franchises. Li and Roberts (2012) state that UK universities expanding to China do not follow a uniform pattern of internationalization due to differences in resource availability, motivations and access to personal networks, even though, a developmental route is observed through which export and contractual arrangements are demonstrated as key stages of internationalization. Abdelzaher (2012) proposes a spider web-like approach internationalization model to explain how professional service firms follow a cautious gradual order for expanding abroad. See table 4 for a detailed description regarding the sequential internationalization steps in the service literature.

Table 4 Service studies employing a sequential internationalization pattern.

Author (year)	Stages
Roberts (1999)	1. Provision of services to domestic clients only (no exports). 2. Provision of services to foreign clients in the domestic market (domestically located exports). 3. Provision of services to foreign markets through embodied service exports, transhuman exports and wired exports. 4. Establishment of a presence through which to deliver a service largely produced in the domestic market (intra-firm export). 5. Establishment of service production facility in the overseas market.
Healey (2008)	1. Exporting. University exports educational services to foreign students who enrolled on their institution. There is also the virtual higher education export (distance and on-line learning programs). 2. Licensing production. The equivalent for higher education institutions will be franchising, where a university sub-contracts a local provider in another country to offer part or all of its degree programs. 3. Joint ventures. It is the establishment of offshore production facilities most of the time through a collaborative agreement with a local partner. They are training centers that can share facilities with other institution, government or company .The creation of dedicated teaching rooms and laboratories is all that distinguishes these from conventional franchising or twining arrangements. 4. Sole ventures. They represent wholly owned branch campuses abroad.
Chadee and Naido (2009)	1. Passive indirect export: Pre 1970. Foreign students from low-income countries studying on exchange programs and aid programs of advanced industrialized countries. Institutions did not seek foreign students and did not engage in any aggressive marketing campaign to offer programs overseas. 2. Direct-export stage: Mid 1970 – Mid 1980. Growth of international students. English speaking countries opened their doors for commercial purposes. Promotion program for attracting students from Asia and Latin America. Export to home institutions and other strategies. 3. Strategic export growth: 1985-2000. Joint ventures with local higher education providers (franchise programs and joint degrees). 4. Export maturity: 2000 – Present. The opening of offshore campuses.
Philippe and Leo (2011)	1. No networks. Move of clients and staff. 2. Staff partnerships. Cooperation networks, most of the time informal. 3. Commercial network through agencies. 4. Participation controlled network through joint ventures. 5. Controlled networks through subsidiaries and franchises.
Li and Roberts (2012)	1. Export. Attracting foreign students to the institution employing recruitment agents (indirect exports) or recruiting form the open market (direct export). 2. Validation. It refers to the contractual forms and happens when an institution cooperates with other foreign one in order to provide a degree course with delivery being split between the two countries. This mode implies the movement of the program, the students and in some cases of the academic staff. 3. Franchise. Here a degree course is completed in two countries. Part of course taught in institution A is franchised by institution B and it is therefore almost purely designed by institution B. 4. Joint program. Occurs when institution A co-operates with institution B on a degree course delivered in institution B with the award of institution A degree o or dual degrees from each partner´ universities. 5. Joint venture. Equity and non-equity joint venture. An equity joint venture involves the establishment of a new separate legal educational entity operating within the territory of one country and established by two universities (one from abroad and the other from the local market).

Source: Chaidee & Naido (2009); Healey (2008); Li & Roberts (2012); Philippe & Leo (2011); Roberts (1999).

Some of the aforementioned studies considered the Business International Uppsala model (U-Model), which characterizes business internationalization as a process of interplay between the development of foreign market knowledge and commitment (Johanson & Vahlne, 1977, 1990). The model was first empirically developed by Johanson and Wiedersheim-Paul (1975) among four large Swedish firms.

Four progressive stages are proposed according to the U-Model: 1) no regular export activities; 2) export via independent representatives (agents); 3) sales subsidiary; and 4) production/manufacturing subsidiary. The main assumption is that the firm gradually progresses through a series of learning and commitment stages, where internationalization is the consequence of a series of incremental decisions.

In this model, firms improve their foreign market knowledge through initial expansion, characterized by low risk, indirect exporting approaches and the targeting of psychically close markets. Over time and with the accumulation of experience, the firm gradually extends its foreign activities to markets with greater psychic distance. Psychic distance is defined as "factors, such as differences in the language, culture, political systems, level of education, or level of industrial development which prevent or disturb the flow of information between firm and market" (Johanson & Vahlne, 1977, p.24).

In their study of foreign market entry, Johanson and Vahlne (1992) note the importance of the development and maintenance of relationships. More recently, they have revised the stages approach to internationalization and now view the business environment as one characterized by a web or network of relationships rather than a pure neo-classical market with independent suppliers and customers (Johanson & Vahlne, 2006, 2009). While newly internationalizing businesses continue to develop their internationalization in stages, the nature of the stages may vary according to levels of knowledge and trust available in networks that may serve to reduce the uncertainties involved in the internationalization process. In a sense, trusting relationships between parties in the home and host countries can help in bridging "psychic distance".

Networks and relational networks facilitate the internationalization process of service firms by reducing psychic distance (Coviello & Martin, 1999; Faulconbridge & Muzio, 2007; Glucker, 2006). They also influence the foreign market selection (Freeman, Cray & Sandwell, 2007; Glucker, 2006), and they were found to have a greater effect on international performance for professional services characterized by a high degree of face-to-face contact (La, Patterson & Styles, 2005). In fact, education services internationalize through formal and informal networks of relationships, which are essential for attracting foreign customers (Bianchi, 2011).

Supplying education services through exports and contractual mechanisms allows business schools to gradually build experience and knowledge of the foreign market, thereby, reducing the risks and uncertainty involved in the process of internationalization. As business schools develop knowledge of a foreign market, it may be willing to invest more resources and develop its activities in that market. As a result, like firms in the other sectors, a university may take an ownership share in the local presence and even gain full ownership.

The process/stage models have been both vehemently criticized and supported by academics studying the internationalization process of firms. Some authors have challenged the validity of the psychic-distance postulate in selecting markets (Bell, 1995). Others have described these models as too deterministic (Reid, 1983), and others still argue that the use of only one key explanatory variable -experiential knowledge- is not likely to provide a sufficient explanation of a firm's choice of foreign entry modes (Andersen, 1997).

Nevertheless, Forsgren (1989) argues that the model provides important knowledge of the early stages of the internationalization process, and Andersson (2004) claims that it is useful in explaining the internationalization process of traditional firms. Javalgi and Martin (2007) state that firm manufacturing-based theories, such as the Uppsala model, provide a strong theoretical background for further extension and modification of the existing research to a service context. Finally, according to Erramilli's (1990) service classification, it is possible to employ theoretical developments derived from manufacturing firms to study the internationalization of education services.

2.4. Higher education foreign market entry modes according to business service literature

When internationalizing, higher education institutions decide which strategy to follow and which activities to pursue. These elements that an institution may employ in order to internationalize are called international activities in the higher education literature. In the business literature these activities, especially those related to cross-border delivery of education to other countries through a variety of delivery modes, are called entry modes. In drawing a parallel, Healey (2008) suggests higher education entry modes in terms of: export, licenses production, joint ventures, and sole ventures.

In higher education, international activities are usually divided into: 1) enrollment (recruiting of foreign students), 2) learning process (international business degrees, language learning, study abroad), and 3) exports (franchising courses to partner institutions based abroad, among others) (Parsons & Fidler, 2005).

The key elements of internationalization of a business school include, but are not limited to: recognition of international dimension in mission statements and other policy documents; internationalized curricula; student/faculty exchange programs; international students; cross-cultural diversity in faculty and students, language of instruction and learning, teaching/learning process; cross-cultural training; work/study abroad; joint research projects; international conferences and seminars; international collaboration, articles and papers published in international journals (Alon & McAllaster, 2006; Kedia & Cornwell, 1994; Kwok & Arpan, 1994; Ma & Trigo, 2011; Manuel, Shooshtari, Fleming & Wallwork, 2001).

According to several service classifications (Clark, Rajaratnam & Smith, 1996; Lovelock, 1983; Lovelock & Yip, 1996; Vandermerwe & Chadwick, 1989), business schools are services that require a close relation with clients (students) in order to better serve them or to adapt the service (e.g. course, program) to their needs. Service classification is also known as a people-processing service, since the client (student) must be physically or mentally present and clients (students) become part of the production process (knowledge), which occurs simultaneously to the consumption. The client (student) goes to the service provider (business school), or the

service (school) goes to the client, and most of the time, the service provider needs to maintain physical facilities near the location of the client. We mentioned these service characteristics since according to literature, they can influence the KIB´s foreign market entry mode selection.

With regard to entry mode selection, some authors argue that service-oriented firms start their internationalization using low resource entry modes and move to licensing with increasing foreign experiential knowledge (Majkgard & Sharma, 1998). Others mention that an underlying strategy of higher education institutions is meant to initially send employees abroad, and then to move into a fuller global mode, such as foreign direct investment, mergers, or acquisitions (Vandermerwe & Chadwick, 1989). In fact, Li and Roberts (2012) and Chadee and Naidoo (2009), found in their studies that universities traverse an evolutionary path in their internationalization from exports to contractual modes.

Recent studies argue that high control entry mode will be preferred when the amount of tacit knowledge shared is high, when the service is customized and involves co-production and partners are unfamiliar (Rosenbaum & Madsen, 2012), when there is a high degree of service complexity and intangibility (Villar, Pla-Barber & León-Darder, 2012); or when motivation is often driven by a desire to enhance reputation as well as long-term global strategic positioning (Li & Roberts, 2012).

Other arguments in favor of high resource entry modes asserts that knowledge of intensive service tends to have low initial setup cost in a foreign market. For example the establishment of a wholly owned subsidiary may be limited to establishing an office which can be rented (Shukla et al., 2012). Additionally, services can rarely be patented, which makes them vulnerable to being copied by competitors. Thus services must move quickly in order to secure their market, therefore, they cannot afford a slow and gradual entry, but rather will tend to make a relatively quick single step to establish local presence (Shukla et al., 2012). Other groups of researchers also argue that entry modes such as the direct provision of services or the establishment of branch offices are the main options chosen by service companies (Coviello & Martin, 1999; Erramilli & Rao, 1993; Shukla et al., 2012; Winsted & Patterson, 1998). On the other hand, Erramilli (1990) found that service firms appear to prefer high-control entry modes

(joint ventures, subsidiaries, etc.) in the early and late stages of internationalization, and low-control modes in the middle stages.

Other authors mention that KIBS are less inhibited by distance and national borders and can, exploit international opportunities in a flexible manner, since they are low tangible asset organizations with clients abroad and global standardization (Contractor, Kundu & Hsu, 2003). Ball, Lindsay and Rose (2008) find that knowledge-intensive firms have greater flexibility over international modes of entry and are further supportive of the idea that knowledge intensity accelerates incremental internationalization. Erikson, Majkgard and Sharma (2000) qualify such arguments by finding that the pace of internationalization depends on the similarity between the foreign environment and the firm´s stock of prior knowledge.

Factors influencing the choice of foreign markets include market size and market growth, competition, servicing costs, and host countries' environment. One major determinant of market selection appears to be market similarity. Market similarity refers to the similarity in language and culture of the foreign market to the firm's current market, and it is reminiscent of the psychic distance concept proposed in the Uppsala model.

Firms prefer similar markets to minimize resource commitment, risks, and cost (Erramilli & D'Souza, 1993). This congruity facilitates transfers of technology and managerial resources and helps to reduce uncertainty (Davidson, 1983). Preference for similar markets appears to be also conditioned by the firm's past international experience (Davidson, 1980).

Findings related to service industry firms are sometimes contradictory. On one side, studies find that service firms choose culturally similar foreign markets at low levels of international experience and favor increasingly unfamiliar territories at higher levels of experience (Erramilli, 1991; Erramilli & Rao, 1993; Stare, 2002). Other studies find no evidence that service firms first enter markets at a small cultural distance (Sharma & Johanson, 1987) or that cultural distance does not significantly influence the choice of entry mode by service firms (Sanchez-Peinado, Pla-Barber & Hébert 2007). Finally, another group of authors argues that market selection, dominated by concerns of uncertainty in the early phases of international

expansion, increasingly becomes a function of economic opportunity as the firm accumulates more experience abroad (Davidson, 1980).

3. Methodology

The present study uses the (multiple) case-based approach as a qualitative methodology. Case study methodology was selected in order to achieve a full and comparative understanding of the internationalization process, as well as of the context within which business schools' international relations officers act and the influence that this context has on their actions (Maxwell, 1998).

On the other hand, as a qualitative technique, case studies are gaining acceptance as a scientific research instrument in the international business field (Ghauri, 2004). The strength of the case study method lies in facilitating the study of the process from several perspectives, and this holistic approach (a characteristic feature of case-based research) allows researchers to understand the complex interactions among organizations, decisions and context. Furthermore, case study enables a more thorough analysis of each specific condition than what is possible with survey based research (Arenius, 2005). In this sense, literature recognizes that case research is useful when the unit of analysis is broad and complex, when a holistic, in-depth investigation is needed, and when the unit of analysis cannot be studied outside the context in which it occurs (Benbasat, Goldstein & Mead, 1987; Bonoma, 1985; Dubé & Paré, 2003; Feagin, Orum & Sjoberg, 1991; Yin, 1994).

According to Pauwels and Matthyssens (2004), the architecture of an elaborate multiple case study design is built upon four pillars –theoretical sampling, triangulation, pattern-matching logic, and analytical generalization- and one roof –validation through juxtaposition and iteration.

This research implements an explanatory-oriented case study. These case studies are suitable for doing causal studies, mainly to test theories (in our case, the gradual internationalization models) and/or build new theory (Eisenhardt, 1989; Yin, 1994). In this particular context, the use of rival theories might also become relevant (Lee, 1989; Yin, 1994).

We have followed Doz's (1996) methodology and the methodological suggestions provided by, Dubé and Paré (2003), Eisenhardt (1989), Ghauri (2004), Pauwels and Matthyssens (2004), and Yin (1994).

Likewise, we selected a multiple-holistic case study approach since the evidence from multiple case studies is often considered more "compelling and the results more robust" (Miles & Huberman 1994, p.29). Additionally, by "looking at a range of similar or contrasting cases, we can better understand each single case finding, by specifying how and where and, if possible, why, the case develops as it does" (Miles & Huberman 1994, p.29). Moreover, multiple cases reduce the risk of reporting chance associations (Eisenhardt, 1989).

The empirical evidence is based upon the experience of five purposefully selected private international business schools established in the Iberoamerican context: two in Spain, and three in Mexico. The selection of these particular business schools was mainly based on the search for a theoretical, non-biased sampling composition, which focuses on theory-driven variance and divergence in the data rather than in the number of cases itself (which, by the way, meets Eisehardt's (1989) recommendation to deal with a number of cases between four and ten), covering two different Iberoamerican countries that have already been compared by the literature analyzing the effect of globalization in their development (Werlin, 2003). This author points out that both countries, Spain and Mexico, fully embraced globalization during and after the 1980s but, unfortunately, Mexico has not benefited nearly as much as Spain from globalization. By selecting schools from two nations on different continents having the same language and a highly related cultural heritage, we are also able to consider the potential economic differences between them. As Pettigrew (1989) points out, comparisons among sites may help demonstrate the influence of variability in context, and therefore, yield more general research results than single cases (Benbasat et al., 1987; Yin, 1994). Furthermore, the locations where these business schools were originally established are considered to be leading industrialized regions in their respective countries. Therefore, we explore two different but culturally interconnected worlds and analyze the differences and similarities found among some of their most representing business schools' internationalization patterns.

Public institutions were not considered in the sample, since they may contemplate different internationalization activities from private institutions due to government funds, autonomy to take decisions, other type of funding, and endowment processes. Moreover, Berry and Taylor (2014) found that there are considerable differences between the internationalization process in public and private institutions in Mexico and Colombia. In their study, private universities have the freedom to determine their own priorities, and therefore may choose to channel resources into developing a more integrated strategy with clear, commercial objectives. For public universities, reliant on government funds and restricted by government bureaucracy, the process may be a long, uphill struggle.

In addition, Bennett and Kottasz (2011) mention that schools that enjoyed high degrees of autonomy from their universities seemed to be better able to translate their managers' wishes regarding internationalization (and their schools' resources) into positive action. According their results, few of the respondents in the UK reported that their schools enjoyed high degrees of autonomy, and they state that the outcomes to the study suggest that this phenomenon might be common across continental Europe.

Furthermore, Antunes and Thomas (2007) explain the evolution of business schools located in the United States and in Europe. The authors found that the pattern in the US is of a competitive abundance of private school, alongside public or state schools, whereas in Europe it is a clear dominance of publicly-funded schools (with more constrained resource bases). The funding and endowment of business schools is also a major difference between these two regions. The US business schools started fundraising campaigns and, thus, generated financial resources from sponsors, corporations, and loyal alumni. In comparison, European business schools either have very small endowments or not at all. This make them more reliant on annually funds and budgets and particularly the revenue stream from the business programs (e.g. MBA programs) to manage and develop their resources.

There is also the case of many universities located in countries where governments cut public funding and encouraged international ventures—Australia and the United Kingdom, for example. Most initiatives—including branch campuses, franchised degree programs, and

partnerships with local institutions—are focused on developing and middle-income countries (Altbach & Knight, 2007). Other studies have not found any difference among private versus public institutions. Javalgi and Grossman (2014) research regarding 62 US MBA programs, where one-half of the schools were public institutions, employed as control variable the public versus private business schools. They found that this variable was not significant, leading to the conclusion that the degree of internationalization of business schools is not impacted by whether the school is public or private.

The selected cases in our sampling are five Iberoamerican top-ranked private business schools, which are highly involved in international activities, and successfully operate in non-English speaking nations, an area, here to fore almost completely neglected by the research community. Specifically, the five private international business schools analyzed are: ESADE and IESE in Spain, and EGADE, IPADE, and UDEM in Mexico. In addition, we should also indicate that we mainly focused on their respective Doctorates, Masters and executive education programs, where competition among business schools is mostly based upon course offerings.

Data from these five business schools´ cases were collected by means of a research protocol in 2014/2015. Regarding the protocol design, one of the tactics proposed by Yin (1994) to ensure reliability, was created prior to the data collection phase and contained procedures and general rules that were followed in relation to research instruments throughout the study. In fact, the research protocol focused on the general research questions related to business school international operations, entry modes and market selection through time and, more particularly, on aspects such as: the mission statement, the importance of internationalization on strategic plans, the international accreditations, the internationalization motives, the issues that have accelerated internationalization, the academic partners for student/faculty exchanges and twining programs, the double-degree programs, the institutional networks and memberships, the foreign extensions and joint ventures, the foreign campuses, and the countries reached when internationalizing.

In order to collect all of this data, a series of personal interviews with key managers of these five business schools, who were more directly involved in the internationalization decision-

making processes, took place over nine months (September 2014 through May 2015). Specifically, the researcher interviewed the head of the International Relations Department at ESADE, the director of the Corporate Unit Information Office at IESE, the head of the International Affairs Office at EGADE, the director of the International Office at IPADE and the director of the International Relations Department at UDEM. During the interviews, which lasted 60 to 90 minutes, notes were taken and audio was recorded. Then, full write-ups were created for each business school in the form of detailed case studies focusing on specific characteristics of each case. For each business school case, the final number of interviews depended upon the match between information necessities and information processing capabilities.

On the other hand, dealing with data triangulation, the researcher collected other documentation for each case from institutional web pages, memories, internal reports, institutional presentations or published news in a dossier; so the information was also organized to provide multiple but dissimilar data regarding the same phenomena (Gallivan, 1997; Jick, 1979; Mingers, 2001). Therefore, for each business school being considered, the researcher had, at the end, a case study database containing raw material, including interview transcripts, researcher's field notes, documents collected during data collection, and survey material.

Finally, once the information was fully assorted and analyzed, it was sent back to each participanting business school's informants, giving them the opportunity to review and, if necessary, modify those issues that they considered ambiguous or unclear in our preliminary report (Devers, 1999; Patton, 1999; Yin, 1994).

In table 5, we summarize the list of attributes earlier presented by Duré and Paré (2003) regarding the research design, data collection and data analysis as the ones the state-of-the art of positivist case research deems to be major considerations with the aim of providing both validity and reliability to the analysis being developed.

Table 5 Attributes of an explanatory case study (as adapted to this research).

AREA 1: RESEARCH DESIGN	
Clear research question	How is the internationalization process followed by the Business School?
Theory of interest	Gradual internationalization models.
Predictions form the theory	Business schools may follow a sequential process.
Rival Theories	Non-gradual internationalization process (i.e. eclectic paradigm).
Multiple-case design	5 cases were developed.
Nature of single-case design	Explanatory.
Replication logic in multiple-case design	Theoretical replication logic (conditions of the case lead to predicting contrasting results).
Unit of analysis	Business Schools.
Context of the case study	Two cases are from Spain and the other three from Mexico. They are retrospective cases, with different data collection period. Data collection took place over nine months (September 2014 through May 2015). The researcher was able to gain sufficient access to the cases.
AREA 2: DATA COLLECTION	
Elucidation of the data collection process	Interviews as one data collection method. Sampling strategy: convenient. Data available from other secondary sources
Multiple data collection methods	Interviews and other documentation (questionnaire in the second investigation).
Mix of qualitative and quantitative data	Different quantitative and qualitative variables were available.
Data triangulation	Triangulation of data is done.
Case study protocol	The researcher prepared a case study protocol.
Case study database	A database was developed for each case.
AREA 3: DATA ANALYSIS	
Elucidation of the data analysis process	The five Business Schools are first individually described and then cross-compared.

Field notes	Captured during the interviews.
Coding and reliability check	The researcher had at their disposal a coding scheme that was also improved with the first case.
Flexible and opportunistic process	Data analysis was done overlapping with data collection.
Logical chain of evidence	Evidence presented in the case reports allows the readers to visualize a logical chain of evidence.
Empirical testing	Pattern matching with theory within cases. Confrontation of observation from the field with predictions deduced from the theory. Empirical pattern is compared with a predicted one and internal validity is enhanced when the patterns coincide.
Time series analysis	Large number of data points was gathered and patterns over time were identified.
Searching for cross-case patterns	The researcher looked for between cases similarities.
Use of natural controls	Business Schools do not develop the internationalization process equally in all the foreign markets they are located on.
Quotes (evidence)	Quotes are used allowing the reader to reach an independent judgment regarding the merits of the analysis (Yin 1994).
Project reviews	Once the information was fully cleaned and analyzed, it was sent back to each company's informants, giving them the opportunity to review and, if necessary, modify those issues that they considered ambiguous or unclear in our preliminary report.

Source: Self-devised.

4. Cross-case analysis and discussion

In this section, we first present a summarized description of the five selected business school cases and most of the results of the cross-case analysis are shown. Our analysis is focused on showing how these particular business schools interpret the internationalization process concept; why they decide to internationalize; the internationalization pattern being followed in each case; the activities/entry modes involved in their internationalization process; and their foreign market selection approach.

ESADE Business School (Spain)

ESADE (Escuela Superior de Administración y Dirección de Empresas) was founded in 1958 in the city of Barcelona, Spain by a group of businessmen and the Jesuit order. Originally, it offered undergraduate courses, but very soon the school started introducing programs for executives and companies. Today, ESADE has three national campuses (Barcelona, Madrid and Sant Cugat), and international offices in Brazil, Mexico, Colombia, Peru, Argentina, Chile and El Salvador. Its academic offerings can be divided into three major areas: the Business School, the Law School, and the Executive Language Center. The Business School offers undergraduate degrees, master degrees, research programs, and executive programs. The undergraduate degrees consist of Bachelor of Business Administration and the Double-degree in Business Administration and Law. The master programs in management are: Master in Innovation and Entrepreneurship, Master in Marketing Management, Master in Finance, Master in International Management, and CEMS MIM[2]. The executive masters programs are: Executive Master in Marketing and Sales (English and Spanish program), Executive Master in Finance (Spanish program), Executive Master in Operations and Innovation (Spanish program), Executive Master in Corporate Finance and Law, Executive Master in Digital Business, and the Executive Master in Public Administration. MBA programs are: Full-time MBA, Part-time MBA, Executive MBA (EMBA), Global Executive MBA (GEMBA), Multinational MBA (MMBA) and Corporate International Master (CIM). The research programs are the PhD in Management Sciences and the Master of Research in Management Sciences (MRes). The executive education programs consist of General Management Programs, Short Focused Programs and Custom Programs. The business school is currently linked with Ramon Llull University of Barcelona. Its international operations are carried out by an International Relations Department.

IESE Business School (Spain)

IESE (Instituto de Estudios Superiores de la Empresa), an initiative of Opus Dei -a religious group, was founded in 1958 in Barcelona, Spain, as the graduate business school of the University of Navarra. Today the school has two campuses in Spain: Barcelona and Madrid, and

[2]The CEMS Master's in International Management (CEMS MIM) is a postgraduate, pre-experience degree open to a select group of students enrolled in a Master's program in one of the 29 CEMS member schools.

two international campuses: New York, USA, and Munich, Germany. The school has national offices in four Spanish cities (Bilbao, Pamplona, Valencia and Zaragoza), and international offices in China, Poland, Chile, and Brazil. The schools offers the following MBA programs: Full-time MBA, Executive MBA, Global Executive MBA, and The World Executive MBA. The school also offers a PhD in Management and executive education programs (Industry Specific Programs, Focused Programs, Industry Meetings, Fast Forward Program and Custom Programs). The School's international duties are carried out by the IESE´s Corporate Information Unit, in coordination with each academic department.

EGADE Business School (Mexico)

In 1995, the Tecnológico de Monterrey, a Mexican private university, founded the Escuela de Graduados y Dirección de Empresas (EGADE) –a not for profit private school designed to concentrate solely on business administration for graduate students. Some of EGADE's business programs had been offered since 1964 as part of the university curriculum. Today, the school offers a variety of Masters (MBA, MBA in Global Business and Strategy, One MBA, Executive MBA, and Master in Finance), Graduate Degree Certificate in Energy Management, a Ph.D. in Business Administration, a Ph.D. in Financial Science, and nine executive education programs. Today, the school has three national campuses in Mexico: Monterrey, Mexico City, and Guadalajara; and two international campuses in: Lima, Peru and Panama, Panama. EGADE together with the Instituto Tecnológico de Monterrey have 16 international offices abroad located in USA, Canada, Spain, Switzerland, United Kingdom and Ireland, China, Colombia, Chile, Peru, Panama and Ecuador. EGADE's international activities are carried out by the International Affairs Office, located in the school.

IPADE Business School (Mexico)

IPADE (Instituto Panamericano de Alta Dirección de Empresa) is the business school of the Universidad Panamericana, a private catholic university in Mexico. The business school was founded in 1967 in Mexico City by a notable group of Mexican businessmen, together with the Opus Dei Catholic institution, and with the guidance of IESE and Harvard Business School. The

school has three national campuses: Mexico City, Monterrey and Guadalajara. IPADE has several national offices in the Mexican cities of Chihuahua, Mérida, Puebla, San Luis Potosí and Villahermosa and one international office in Costa Rica. Currently, IPADE offers Top Management Programs (AD, AD-2 and D-1), Executive MBA (MEDEX), Full-time MBA (MEDE) and other company´s programs (Focused Programs, In Company Programs and Continuous Updating Management Program). Their international operations are carried out by the International Office.

UDEM Business School (Mexico)

UDEM (Universidad de Monterrey) was founded in 1969 in the city of Monterrey, N.L., Mexico by a group of religious congregations, professionals and business leaders. UDEM`s Business School is linked to UDEM, sharing physical location, classrooms, faculty, among others elements. Originally, the business school offered only undergraduate courses. In 1976 the school started introducing graduating programs as the Master of Organizational Development (MDO) and the MBA in 1978. Today, UDEM has one single national campus in Monterrey, N.L. The Business School offers undergraduate degrees, master degrees, specializations, and executive programs. The undergraduate degrees are: Bachelor in Accounting and Finance, Bachelor in International Finance, Bachelor in Business Administration, Bachelor in Economics, Bachelor in Human Resource Management, Bachelor in International Tourism, Bachelor in International Marketing, Bachelor in Global Businesses, Bachelor in Entrepreneurship and Innovation. The master programs are: MBA part-time, Master of Health Care Service Management, Master of Organizational Development, and Master of Organizational Change and Development (online). The specializations programs are: Specialization in Competitiveness and Business Innovation, Specialization in Finance, Specialization in Sales and Marketing Strategies and Specialization in Organizational Change. The executive education programs are seminars, workshops and mentoring programs. The courses are usually offered to company´s employees and focus on a specific need. The school's international operations are carried out by the International Relations Department.

In table 6, the main international traits and activities of these five institutions are comparatively summarized.

Table 6 Business schools internationalization elements and activities.

ELEMENTS	ESADE	IESE	EGADE	IPADE	UDEM
Most internationalized program(according to international students)	Global Executive MBA (GMBA) with 93% international students	PhD program with 95% international students	One MBA with 73% international students	MBA Full-time with 14% international students	MBA with 13% international students
Relation between mission statement and internationalization	Implicit "…training of **professionally competent and socially responsible people**…" "focused on the knowledge creation relevant to the improvement of organizations and society…"	Implicit "**Develop leaders** who aspire to have a deep, positive and lasting **impact on people, firms and society**…" "to educating **leaders** to whom we can confidently entrust **the future of business and society**"	Explicit "… develop **internationally competitive business leaders** …"	Explicit "…educate **leaders** enabled to positively transform organizations, society, and make an impact on the world, embedded with a **global vision**…"	Explicit "…**leaders** who are aware of their social responsibility, within a **global business environment** …"
Internationalization as the top five priorities of strategic plans	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
International Committee for international efforts	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Percentage of international faculty	35 %	58 %	35%	20 %	9% business school and 33% MDO
Academic partners for exchanges, joint degrees, research, etc.	92 institutions	42 institutions	42 institutions	74 institutions	200 institutions

ELEMENTS	ESADE	IESE	EGADE	IPADE	UDEM
Double-degree programs[3]	3 academic programs with a double-degree option with institutions located in USA, Chile and China	4 academic programs with a double degree option with institutions located in USA and China	5 academic programs with various double degree options each of them with institutions located in USA, China, France, Spain, Norway, The Netherlands, and Brazil	None	1 academic program with a double degree option with an institution located in Spain
Networks and Institucional Memeberships[1]	AACSB, ABIS , AMBA , BALAS, CEMS, CLADEA, EBEN, EDAMBA, EFMD, EMBAC, EUDOKMA, GMAC, IAJBS, PIM , SEKN , UN Global Compact and UNICON	AACSB, AMBA, EFMD, EMBAC ,GMAC and UN Global Compact	AACSB,ABEST21ACACIA, AMBA, BALAS,CFA,CLADEA, EFMD, EMBAC, GAIN, GNAM, NIBES, PILA, PIM,PRME, SEKN, SUMA Network, Sumaq Alliance, UN Global Compact, and UNICON	AACSB, AMBA, EFMD, EMBAC GBSN, GMAC, and UN Global Compact	CGOU, CIEE, CONAHEC, CREPUQ, DAAD, ISEP, IODA, Magellan, ODN and UMAP
International offices[4]	<u>America:</u> São Paulo, Brazil; Lima, Peru; Mexico City, Mexico; Bogotá, Colombia; Satiago, Chile; San Salvador, El Salvador; and Buenos Aires, Argentina	<u>America:</u> São Paulo, Brazil; and Santiago, Chile <u>Asia:</u> Shanghai, China; <u>Europe:</u> Bilbao, Zaragoza, Pamplona, and Valencia in Spain;	<u>America:</u> Bogota, Colombia; Lima, Peru; Panama, Panama; Quito, Ecuador; and Santiago, Chile; Boston, Dallas, New Haven and Miami in USA; Montreal and Vancouver in	<u>America:</u> San José, Costa Rica	None

[3] Double degree-programs are those where students take courses and receive a degree or diploma from each participating institution.

[4]International offices can be physically located at a local university, or at a separate own location. Their objectives most of the time are to recruit international students and faculty, to develop/monitor international collaborations, to promote faculty development programs for teaching and research, to make strategic partnerships with local institutions, governments or corporations.

ELEMENTS	ESADE	IESE	EGADE	IPADE	UDEM
		and Warsaw, Poland	Canada. <u>Asia:</u> Shanghai, China <u>Europe:</u> Barcelona and Madrid in Spain; Friburgo, Switzerland; United Kingdom and Ireland		
Foreign branch campuses (equity and non-equity joint ventures)[5]	**Equity:** <u>America:</u> São Paulo, Brazil; Lima, Peru; Mexico City, Mexico; Bogotá, Colombia; Satiago, Chile; San Salvador, El Salvador; and Buenos Aires, Argentina **None equity:** None (The school had in the past a campus located in Buenos Aires, Argentina but today is closed)	**Equity:** <u>America:</u> São Paulo, Brazil; and Santiago, Chile <u>Asia:</u> Shanghai, China; <u>Europe:</u> Bilbao, Zaragoza, Pamplona, and Valencia in Spain; and Warsaw, Poland **Non-equity:** New York, USA; and Munich, Germany	**Non-Equity**: Lima, Peru and Panama, Panama	**Equity:** <u>America:</u> San José, Costa Rica	None
International accreditations[2]	AACSB, AMBA and EQUIS.	AACSB, AMBA and EQUIS.	AACSB,AMBA, EQUIS and SACS	AACSB and AMBA	AACSB (in process)

[5]A foreign branch campus (equity or non-equity joint venture) is a physical presence, wholly or jointly owned and operated by the awarding institution, providing degrees through face-to-face instruction, supported by traditional physical infrastructure such as a library, labs, classrooms, and faculty and staff offices.

ELEMENTS	ESADE	IESE	EGADE	IPADE	UDEM
Foreign market sequence selection[6]	1. Northern America (USA, Canada) 2. Central and South America (Brazil, Mexico, Colombia, Peru, Panama, Argentina, Chile, El Salvador) 3. Europe (Germany, France, Portugal, Italy, Russia, Denmark, Hungary, The Netherlands, United Kingdom Finland, Sweden, Ireland, Belgium, Poland, Austria) 4. Easter Asia (China, Hong Kong, Taiwan, Korea) 5. Southern Asia (India) 6. Australia and New Zealand 7. South-Eastern Asia (Singapore) 8. Southern Africa (South Africa) 9. Western Asia (Turkey, Israel, Qatar, United Arab Emirates)	1. Northern America (USA, Canada) 2. Central and South America (Brazil, Chile, Argentina, Ecuador, Uruguay, Colombia, Mexico, Peru, Guatemala) 3. Europe(Germany, Poland, Portugal, France, The Netherlands) 4. Eastern Asia (China, Hong Kong, Taiwan, Japan, South Korea) 5. Southern Asia (Idia) 6. South-Eastern (Singapore, Philippines) 7. Northern Africa (Egypt) 8. Easter Africa (Kenya) 9. West Africa (Nigeria, Cote d'Ivoire) 10. Southern Africa (South Africa)	1. Northern America (USA, Canada) 2. Central and South America (Colombia, Peru, Panama, Ecuador, Chile, Argentina) 3. Europe (Spain, Italy, France, Germany, Switzerland, United Kingdom, The Netherlands, Norway) 4. Eastern Asia(China, Hong Kong) 5. Southern Asia (India) 6. Sourth-Easter Asia (Singapore) 7. Western Asia (Turkey, Israel) 8. Southern Africa (South Africa)	1. Northern America (USA, Canada) 2. Central and South America (Colombia, Uruguay, Peru, Chile, Guatemala, Argentina, Costa Rica) 3. Europe (Spain, France, Italy, Germany, United Kingdom, The Netherlands, Switzerland, Hungary, Croatia, Ireland) 4. Eastern Asia (China, Hong Kong) 5. Southern Asia (India) 6. South-Eastern Asia (Singapore) 7. Western Asia (Israel)	1. Northern America (US, Canada) 2. Central and South America (Venezuela, Colombia, Cuba, Ecuador, Chile) 3. The Caribbean (Cuba) 4. Europe (Spain, France, Germany, United Kingdom, Italy, Austria, Switzerland) 5. Asia (China, Japan and Korea) 6. Australia 7. Southern Asia (India) 8. Africa (South Africa)

[2]AACSB= International Association to Advance Collegiate Schools of Business, ABEST21=Alliance on Business Education and Scholarship for Tomorrow , ABIS= The Academy for Business in Society, ACACIA= Academy of Administrative Sciences, A.C., AMBA= Association of MBAs, BALAS= Business Association for Latin American Studies, , [1]CEMS= Community of European Management Schools, CFA: Chartered Financial Analyst, CGOU=

[6] The BSs´ foreign market sequence selection refers to the first world region reached through an academic collaboration. Even though some BSs are recently reaching the same world region they considered before but entering to other country or other institution in the same country. For example, they entered the Chinese market in the middle phase of their internationalization, but recently they are building new collaborative relations with other institutions located in China.

Compostela Group of Universities , CIEE= Council on International Education Exchange, CLADEA= Latin American Council for Business Schools, CONAHEC= Consortium for North America Higher Education Collaboration, CREPUQ= Conference of Rectors and Principals of Quebec Universities, DAAD= German Academic Exchange Services, EBEN= European Business Ethics Network, EDAMBA= European Doctoral Programs Association in Management and Business Administration, EFMD=European Foundation for Management Development, EMBAC=Executive MBA Council, EQUIS= European Quality Improvement System, EUDOKMA= European Doctoral School on Knowledge and Management, GAIN: Global Adaptation Institute , GBSN= Global Business School Network, GMAC= Graduate Management Admission Council , GNAM= Global Network for Advanced Management, IAJBS= International Association of Jesuit Business Schools, IODA= International Organization Development Association, ISEP= International Student Exchange Program, NIBES=The Network of International Business and Economic Schools, ODN= Organization Development Network, PILA= Red de Propiedad Intelectual e Industrial de Latinoamérica, PIM: Network Partnerships in International Management, , PRME= Principles for Responsible Management Education, SACS= Southern Association of Colleges and Schools, SEKN: Social Enterprise Knowledge Network, SUMA Network= Financial Sustainabiliy of Latin America Universities, SUMAQ Alliance= Alliance of leading Portuguese and Spanish speaking business schools , UMAP= University Mobility in Asia and the Pacific, UN Global Compact= United Nations Global Compact, UNICON= The International University Consortium for Executive Education.

Source: Self-devised.

4.1. Internationalization: conceptualization and motives

The meaning itself of internationalization varies from one school to another. ESADE describes internationalization in terms of the characteristics and of individuals involved in the internationalization process, as well as on the international activities they carried out. UDEM states that internationalization should be conceived inside the main activities carried out by the university.

"Internationalization is represented by the international character of our students and administrative and teaching staff, business and academic partners, and our wide range of activities" (ESADE).

"Internationalization is giving an international dimension to the basic functions of the university: teaching, research and extension" (UDEM).

On the other hand, EGADE, IESE and IPADE conceive internationalization rather in terms of the activities being used to produce certain outcomes. In this case well trained executives or global students are involved.

"EGADE views internationalization as a result of having students, faculty, curricula and research projects focused in a global vision" (EGADE).

"Internationalization is a part of the University's culture and it comes naturally since each program aims to provide a global experience for the students" (IESE).

"IPADE considers internationalization to be a component of giving students a global vision of a company. In other words, in order for them to have a more international vision, other aspects of the university must do so as well" (IPADE).

From the above internationalization definitions we can identify different views according to Knight (2004). ESADE considers their motivations (international character of students) and international activities. UDEM focuses on internationalization as a process that involves the main areas of education as teaching, learning and service. Finally, EGADE, IESE and IPADE express their definition of internationalization in terms of desired outcomes as student competencies, among others.

On the other hand, regarding internationalization motives. Earlier studies have shown that business schools' incentives for internationalization include academic and economic enrichment, combined with gains in status and international recognition. The interviewed school officials remarked that part of their internationalization efforts were aimed at developing several academic enhancing practices and having their academic quality internationally recognized through international accreditations and/or at maintaining and/or improving positioning in widely referred international rankings.

Based on Knight (2004), the most important academic reasons for focusing in internationalization that BSs mentioned were to improve student preparedness for a global era, and to increase the impact and outreach of the institution through international development. At the interview participants mentioned some of their academic motives besides the institutional mission and objectives. For example ESADE mentioned that they are also willing to respond to

the growing public demand for global competition in knowledge. IESE wants to tell the society they have well-trained and experienced faculty involved in the education process. EGADE mentioned their competence in building student character. UDEM mentioned their efforts in attracting foreign visiting professors, increasing the student exchange offer, and investing in home internationalization initiatives. Finally, IPADE stated that they want to establish more academic relations with international institutions and companies in order to offer better opportunities to their students.

"To respond to the global demand of knowledge and innovation, ESADE´s research into key issues such as business management is internationally renowned. (ESADE).

"IESE provides a global experience to participants by having faculty from all over the world and classes infused with the reality of the globalized economy providing a very strong international and cross cultural perspective" (IESE).

"EGADE`s mission is to provide students the character and competence to create, lead and transform business and organizations globally" (EGADE).

"UDEM used to have foreign visiting professors each semester. Additionally, we have a wide variety of academic exchange options for students. Today, the university is assigning permanent resources to develop different home internationalization initiatives as the organization of international fairs, a visiting faculty program, and Collaborative Online Programs (COIL) with international institutions, among others" (UDEM).

"IPADE promotes international dialogue, and accordingly it has established agreements with recognized homologous academic institutions and companies in other countries" (IPADE).

Other internationalization motives according to Knight (2004), may be accreditations and rankings. These quality indicators, have usually acted as accelerating factors, affecting a school's reputation, image, and thus, indirectly attracting more students. All five schools recognized that international accreditations have helped them to maintain and improve academic quality

programs, and to make collaborative agreements with international well-known institutions. On the other hand, international rankings are important for attracting international students and getting international recognition, even though ESADE and IPADE mentioned that their daily activities are not guided by their appearance on international rankings.

"International accreditations certificates that our school follows the most rigorous standards required by the most important European and American educational organizations. Rankings on the other hand are one of the first references a prospective student uses when considering a school, by being in the top of the list, the candidate gets to know us and learn more about what we have to offer. Rankings help any school be recognized at a global level, and for it to be compared to its competitors. All in all, the University doesn't invest as much in marketing and publicity but depends on word of mouth and rankings." (IESE).

"Accreditations are very important to the institution since they have allowed them to work with some of the best schools worldwide. To EGADE they act like a recommendation letter that stands by the quality that they aim to offer. Not only do international accreditations help EGADE work with top schools from neighboring countries, but also from distant continents such as Europe and Asia. Rankings have also demonstrated to be very important because students who wish to have an outstanding academic experience in Latin America are more likely to look at EGADE as an option due to the fact that the school is considered one of the best in this region (EGADE)."

"International accreditations are ESADE´s commitment to academic excellence, continuous improvement and innovation. International rakings make us compete in the market and compare with other institutions even though our activities are not guided by our appearance in international rankings" (ESADE).

"Both international accreditations and rankings have had a big impact in IPADE's internationalization. Even though rankings have made the school more appealing on an international level as well as for Mexicans, they have not been IPADE's main objective. The school's goal is to provide Mexican entrepreneurs and executive businessmen and women the tools and opportunities in order to be successful (IPADE)".

"Institutional interest on accreditations started on 2001 with the Southern Association of Colleges and Schools (SACS) a US accreditation. Accreditations does not constitute an international element per se, but indirectly, helped on further academic relations. In our case having SACS´s accreditations allow us to make more academic exchange agreements with US universities. Rankings came later, and they were helpful for contacting other institutions for double-degree programs and also as a recommendation letter for international students, especially from Latin America" (UDEM).

Our results confirmed past studies, which recognize that international rankings have a positive impact on students, especially at the international level (Larsen & Vincent-Lancrin, 2002) and on the international institutional reputation (Bianchi, 2011); additionally, accreditations are an important measure of the internationalization and quality of business schools (Dahlin-Brown, 2005; Mazza et al., 2005). Moreover, Czinkota et al. (2009) found that business schools rankings influence the choice of foreign market entry decisions, proposing future studies to consider this topic.

Regarding economic incentives, ESADE and IPADE articulated defensive motives, following their national clients. ESADE, offers executive courses for Spanish companies located in Latin America; and IPADE offers courses to a Mexican multinational located in the United States.

"We arrived at a situation where executives needed international experience, so we offered them options" "...we had to take the decision if we wanted to be local or global players" (ESADE).

"Initially the school was created to train Mexican executives, even though we took a further step offering training courses to a multinational Mexican company in the United States"(IPADE).

All five schools expressed offensive motives by offering courses or programs through technological platforms, international offices, or foreign branch campuses to promising/growing foreign markets. ESADE established various international offices or extensions, in order to fill

the gap in executive education on the Latin American continent. IESE offered courses through foreign extensions and campuses in and outside Europe. EGADE established a large array of online course offerings and two international campuses in Latin American cities with high commercial activity. IPADE recently offered an academic program in Costa Rica due to local demand of Costa Rican and Mexican companies. UDEM has attracted Latin American students into the MDO online program.

"ESADE`s international reaching strategy has been to establish international offices in several key developing countries in Central and South America as Brazil, Mexico, Colombia, Peru, Argentina, Chile and El Salvador. We were very receptive to the management training and development needs of companies located in those countries and we take advantage of our experience that most of the time local institutions did not have" (ESADE).

"We needed to be present in the most cosmopolitan business cities in the world that is why we decided to rent a building in New York and start offering our programs to wide range of companies. Additionally, in order to cover local demand, in 2004, we opened an office in Munich, Germany that later on, in 2015, turned out on a foreign branch campus. Moreover the school opened international offices in China, Spain, Poland, Brazil and Chile establishing international offices" (IESE).

"In order to cover a global demand for management education, EGADE started offering online courses since 2000, today online courses are integrated to some our blended programs (face-to-face and online). In 2012, the school opened two foreign campuses (Peru and Panama) in order to offer a variety of academic programs to local executives located in highly commercial cities as Lima and Panama"(EGADE).

"In 2011 IPADE reached Costa Rica, offering the AD-2 Top Management program, answering a call from local executives, alumni and Mexican companies located in Costa Rica" (IPADE).

"UDEM started offering the MDO online program thinking on the big opportunity of the Latin American market. Today the school and the whole university strategy is also to attract Latin

American students interested in completing their whole undergraduate or graduate studies at UDEM" (UDEM).

In summary, defensive motives implied less resource commitment (occasional courses) than offensive motives (foreign offices and/or foreign campuses) with the exception of online courses/programs. These results rather contradict most business, service-oriented studies, which claim that defensive motives usually imply high resource commitment through entry modes, such as foreign subsidiaries (Coviello & Martin, 1999; Erramilli and & Rao, 1990).

4.2. Internationalization patterns: foreign entry modes and country selection

The path to internationalization seems to have been gradual, thus matching the pattern with the Uppsala-model, in all these business schools, though the speed of development varies over time from one to another. As the following informants mentioned:

"Our internationalization process has been dominantly gradual; it started with informal relations among professors and ended with a formal collaboration. Additionally, the school first expanded nationally offering executive courses in several Mexican cities and later on we helped on the foundation of business schools located in Colombia, Peru, Chile and Argentina, which gave us experience to further offer an academic program in Costa Rica" (IPADE).

"EGADE's international operations started since the business school was part of the Tecnológico de Monterrey and we first look at those institutions that we have developed an agreement in the past in order to build a higher agreement with them as a joint-degree program or a double-degree program. The school began offering summer classes and short seminars for foreign exchange students, which led to exchange programs and other collaborative programs for home students. Afterwards the schools opened several international offices and foreign campuses" (EGADE).

"At the beginning we wanted to offer international academic options for our students, later on we wanted to have international students and faculty with us, this drive us to develop international

relations with schools as Harvard. Later on, we participated on the foundation and development of sixteen associated schools located in Central and South America, Asia and Africa, giving us the opportunity to offer joint-degrees and double-degree programs with well-known schools in different parts of the world. Afterwards the school established several foreign extensions and branch campuses abroad. In addition, is important to mention that many of our actual academic collaborative agreements began with informal faculty networks, this is especially true for the cases of Asia and Africa" (IESE).

"We began our internationalization process by student exchange agreements with American and European universities, then we concentrate on attracting and developing international faculty, to move to further curriculum development by offering joint-degree programs and double-degree programs. Afterwards, the school opened a wide number of international extensions, must of the in South and Central America" (ESADE).

"Our internalization efforts began with having international visiting professors that usually teach part of a course. Later on, the university opted for sending home faculty to study doctorate programs in the USA. In the meanwhile the university start offering international exchange options mainly for students that later some of them turned into double-degree programs for undergraduate and graduate programs. The latest strategy is to continue having visiting faculty but also to hire faculty with an international profile; and to develop more masters´ double-degree programs" (UDEM).

The investigated business schools usually started the internationalization process by generally employing low resource commitment entry modes. With the passage of time and the acquisition of experience, they have selected higher commitment entry modes. Thus, these five business schools start from a point of no or very low international activity, but already with a strong domestic base. First relations among academics are relevant in further collaborations. Similar arguments are expressed by Czinkota et al (2009), who states that universities often enter into international markets through "agitations" of students or the personal contact of a faculty member. Moreover, this initial step is gradually followed by student and faculty exchanges and collaborative agreements, which then progress to joint-degree programs, double-degree

programs, online courses, eventually culminating in the establishment of foreign offices and foreign extensions (IESE, ESADE, EGADE, IPADE) or a branch campus abroad (IESE, EGADE).

Regarding the sequence of internationalization activities, there exists some differences between Spanish and Mexican schools. Spanish (ESADE and IESE) schools started internationalization through student exchange agreements and faculty internationalization (through developing or hiring) in order to strengthen research and curriculum. In the case of IESE, however, before establishing its first programs and choosing representatives outside of Spain, they spent several years "importing" talent from abroad, mainly from the US, either by investing in the doctoral education of their faculty in prestigious US schools, or by inviting highly recognized visiting lecturers from those universities. This early investment in social capital and in international experience of its faculty can be seen as the first real step of its internationalization process.

Based on literature, Catalan business schools were among the first in Europe to internationalize their activity. The drive for international projection has been present in the vision and strategy of the most important schools for over four decades (Mendoza, 2008; Mendoza & Vives, 2007). Moreover, Collet and Vives (2013) found in their analysis of the Financial Times Global MBA Rankings, that there have been significant shifts at the international level: U.S. schools have declined to the advantage of European and Asian schools.

Spanish researchers (Mendoza, 2008; Mendoza & Vives, 2007) found three big stages in the internationalization process of Catalan business schools (EADA, ESADE, IESE). In each stage, schools have used different levers to drive their international development according to their target. In a first stage, the goal of internationalization focused on strengthening the competitive position in the local environment by differentiating the educational offer through cooperation and student exchange agreements with reputed schools from abroad. This lever came with a second one, namely recruitment of young teachers who were given support by the schools to do postgraduate and PhD studies in Europe and the United States, given the lack of PhD management programs in Spain in those times.

The second stage in the internationalization process was internationalizing post-graduate programs beyond Spanish-speaking countries and offering the possibility of taking the MBA in English. The third stage of internationalization was strengthening their international position and competing with the best schools in the world. The main Catalan schools have therefore been using five additional levers: 1) internationalization of its professorate, competing internationally to attract academic talent and recruiting professors educated at the best universities and schools of the world, 2) ongoing innovation in their offer, launching new programs and introducing innovations into the curriculum and teaching and learning methodologies, 3) strengthening their research activity to place it at an internationally competitive level, 4) development and strengthening of alumni networks at international level, and 5) taking part in international rankings by reputed media in order to create an internationally acknowledged brand image.

The three Mexican-based business schools in our study adopted a very different strategy. EGADE first attracted foreign students through collaboration agreements and after years progressed to hiring faculty members from abroad. Then this school established joint-degree and double-degree programs in order to offer students the possibility to study in another country. IPADE was initially less interested in attracting foreign students and faculty, since their most important market consists of Mexican executives, so the school concentrated on offering exchange programs for students and eventually receiving visiting faculty from abroad. UDEM first started attracting visiting professors but just for the MDO program and offered scholarships for developing home faculty, but this strategy was unsuccessful, since most of the faculty did not finish their studies, and the ones who finished did not have the time and resources to research. At that time there was also great interest in offering international exchange options for local students, and less interest in having international students.

Berry and Taylor (2014) analyzed the thoughts and perceptions of staff involved in the internationalization process within universities in Mexico and Colombia by means of a series of interviews with individuals working within international relations offices. All the staff questioned confirmed that their universities were actively involved in internationalization, and most were engaged in a number of diverse activities. Some activities were considered to be more important

than others, with all reporting that student mobility was a particular priority for their institutions. Collaborative partnerships for research and teaching were also very important, with four of the six offering one or more double degree programs and the remaining two institutions working to develop similar agreements.

The establishment of a foreign campus (non-equity joint venture) is not a common entry mode for the schools in this study, with the exception of the IESE and EGADE. Institutions instead opt for setting up an international representative office or an international extension (equity-join venture) in a foreign country with staff and faculty (permanent or temporary), which allows them to deliver their highly standardized programs internationally. Most of IESE's, ESADE´s and IPADE´s foreign extensions work this way. Moreover, the school employs the same faculty to teach in both home and offshore locations.

"We want to have international campuses (Barcelona and Madrid) for students that desire to come to Spain, but we are also committed to offer high quality programs to students located in potential markets as Germany, China, Poland, Chile, and Brazil" (IESE).

"Our interest is to have international campuses in Spain (Barcelona, Sant Cugat and Madrid), and foreign extensions in potential markets, especially in Latin America" (ESADE).

"Right now we are not interested in establishing a foreign campus. The experience we have in another country is when we offered courses for Mexican executives in the United States and lately when we start offering an academic program in Costa Rica" "…our faculty members used to travel around the country to teach their courses" (IPADE).

"UDEM´s strategy is to have one campus that works towards the internationalization of students, faculty, and curriculum" (UDEM).

Following GATS foreign entry modes, we can state that BSs follow a similar internationalization pattern, beginning by consumption abroad mode (student mobility) through exchange programs, followed by cross border supply (program mobility) developing joint and

double degree programs, to further employ the presence of natural persons mode (academic mobility), where professors travel to teach master degrees or executive programs to other locations (universities or companies) and sometimes involve program mobility, and finally establish a commercial presence (institution mobility), through an international foreign extension or branch campus. See table 7 for a description of the GATS mode of service supply that each institution has considered during their internationalization process.

Table 7 Description of the business schools´ GATS mode of service supply.

GATS mode of service supply	IESE	ESADE	EGADE	IPADE	UDEM
Cross-border supply Program mobility (mode 1)	Joint degree programs Double degree programs	Joint degree programs Double degree programs	Online courses Joint degree programs Double degree programs	None	Online program and courses Joint degree programs Double degree programs
Consumption abroad Student mobility (mode 2)	Students´ exchange programs	Students´ exchange programs	Students´ exchange programs	Students´ exchange programs	Students´ exchange programs
Commercial presence Institution mobility (mode 3)	Equity and non-equity joint venture	Equity joint venture	Non-equity joint ventures	Equity joint venture	None
Presence of natural persons Academic mobility (mode 4)	Traveling to the foreign locations to teach academic programs and company courses	Traveling to the foreign locations to teach academic programs and company courses	Traveling to the foreign locations to teach academic programs and company courses	Traveling to the foreign locations to teach academic programs and company courses	Traveling to the foreign locations to teach company courses

Source: Self-devised.

Thus, our results confirm those earlier presented by Howe and Martin (1998), who stated that business school strategy does not put much of a premium on foreign direct investment but on striking up strategic alliances and joint ventures to maximize longer-term organizational learning on behalf of all collaborators.

When going abroad, the selected business schools usually target similar countries, in terms of language and/or geographical location (e.g. Latin American and European countries) in

the beginning, but they also consider other countries where "role model" schools are established, as is the case of the USA, in order to establish collaborative agreements for student internships, and joint degree programs. In the same line, Berry and Taylor (2014) found that collaborative partnerships for research and teaching among Mexican and Colombian insitutions were most often with partners in Europe and the USA.

"When internationalizing, we first considered the Latin American market, because of the language in that countries and because most of our faculty were also mainly Spanish speakers […]. Then, after having experience in some counties in America and Western Europe, we decided to go outside of the United States in: Brazil, China, Germany, Poland, and India. Later, we went to Chile and Africa. We chose Germany, Poland, and India because there was not a renowned business school with high prestige in those countries" (IESE).

"…we decided to establish foreign extensions in countries where we had previous experience in conducting executive courses, with the same language, together with the existence of local demand, and in some cases in countries with an important presence of Spanish multinationals" (ESADE).

"The business school has offered executive courses for companies located in Venezuela, were UDEM`s faculty had to travel. Moreover, the university just started a formal student attraction campaign in Latin America and The Caribbean (Ecuador, Peru, Colombia, Venezuela, Panama and Puerto Rico), because of a common language and taking advantage of the recognition that UDEM has in that region" (UDEM).

According to the relevant literature, entry mode decisions in educational institutions are often based on customer/market potential, country attractiveness, and risk factors (Vandermerwe & Chadwick, 1989). Our schools also select their markets according to foreign opportunities and potential clients' location, as is the case of ESADE, IESE and EGADE which have expanded their international operations to Asia and other developing markets. Actually, as the IESE case clearly illustrates, foreign market selection may also be explained by other studies that have found that international consortia of higher education institutions take place in countries with

powerful regional economic and political blocs, most notably the EU, NAFTA, APEC, and ASEAN (Bennell & Pearce, 2003).

Our case study results show, however, that cultural and socio-historical characteristics largely influence first-stage collaborative agreements among Spanish and Latin American business schools, since many Latin American countries were former Spanish colonies. As mentioned above, ESADE took advantage of cultural similarities and established several foreign extensions. IESE also considers countries such as Chile and Brazil to offer their programs, and EGADE and IPADE also found attractive opportunities in Latin American countries. Similar results were identified in a study by Howe and Martin (1998). In that study, cultural-historical relations between school country and market country influence the market selection. Additionally, the establishment of foreign campuses and extensions could be related to the "firm migration" concept, which assumes that a firm might change from one location to another in order to obtain a higher profitability (van Dijk & Pellenbarg, 2000). Relationships with U.S. schools are motivated by the fact that American schools were the first to introduce MBAs. Foreign institutions seek to establish collaborative agreements in order to learn from their U.S. counterparts and to offer a better program domestically, joint-degree programs, or internships for students.

Actually, Bell (1995) argues that what at first appeared to be markets chosen on the basis of psychic distance, later turned out to be determined by client following, sector targeting and industry trends. This last argument can be seemingly well related to IESE's decision to establish extensions in non-culturally close countries, which occurred because of increased demand in USA, Poland, and Germany, and due to market growth, in China.

Many business studies state that firms first choose culturally familiar markets. However, as firms grow in size and experience, they switch their investment to more unfamiliar markets (Weinstein, 1977). Once they have acquired more expertise, the selection is based upon market economic opportunities (Davidson, 1980). Additionally, Dow (2000) finds that the impact of psychological distance on market selection appears to decrease substantially after the first market entry decision but remains a significant predictor.

In summary, in line with Forsgren (1989), we found that the firm-oriented Uppsala-Model taken as a pattern-matching in this research, generally improves our understanding of these five business schools' internationalization processes at least in their earliest phases. Further stages in the internationalization process can be analyzed employing other theories, such as Transaction Cost Economy (Coase, R.H, 1937; Williamson, 1981) and Eclectic Paradigm (Dunning, 1988), since later stages are, as also found, more heavily influenced by market conditions.

4.3. The impact of an English program and networks

Interestingly, our results also indicate that these investigated business schools experienced substantial growth in the number of foreign students and faculty, as well as in additional collaborative agreements, when they introduced a full English program, most usually an MBA degree. We observed that when a school starts offering a 100% English program, such as a full-time MBA, the number of foreign students and faculty rises. This, in turn, facilitates the creation of future joint-degree programs with other institutions and the eventual inclusion of the school in international rankings. The development of an English program has accelerated the internationalization process in three out of the five cases (ESADE, IESE, IPADE), and we believe this progression would be uniform for other business schools located in non-English speaking countries. According Berry and Taylor (2014), private universities in Colombia were developing more classes in English and in other foreign languages as part of their internationalization efforts.

"When we started offering an English MBA program we achieved spectacular growth in our international operations" (ESADE).

"…after the introduction of the MBA in English, a big explosion of our internationalization occurred. This action was followed by the introduction of other programs" "...yesterday we offered courses for Spanish executives, today we offer programs for people around the world" (IESE).

"I would say that our real internationalization process started in the 90's, when we introduced courses in English in our programs" (IPADE).

In addition, organizational networks, either with institutions or businesses, have been regarded as a very relevant factor in the internationalization process of these schools. Examples are ESADE's International Advisory Board formed by executives from large multinational corporations, and the importance that EGADE also concedes to networking.

"We have very close relation with firms and the international strategy they have followed" "The school has partnership agreements with universities and business schools on all five continents and is currently the European business school with the most extensive student exchange network in Latin America. It is also a founding member of the CEMS, a prestigious global network in the field of university-level education" (ESADE).

"Every business school has international activities, but the difference is which institutions are part of your network" "Being a member of the GNAM has really make a difference on the international options we can offer to our students, faculty and deans" (EGADE).

In line with this network approach (Johanson & Vahlne, 2009), and considering that four out of our five cases were private institutions founded by a Catholic religious group which often forms part of a larger international network, it would be interesting to find out in further studies whether, cultural issues, such as religion could have an effect on the internationalization of business schools.

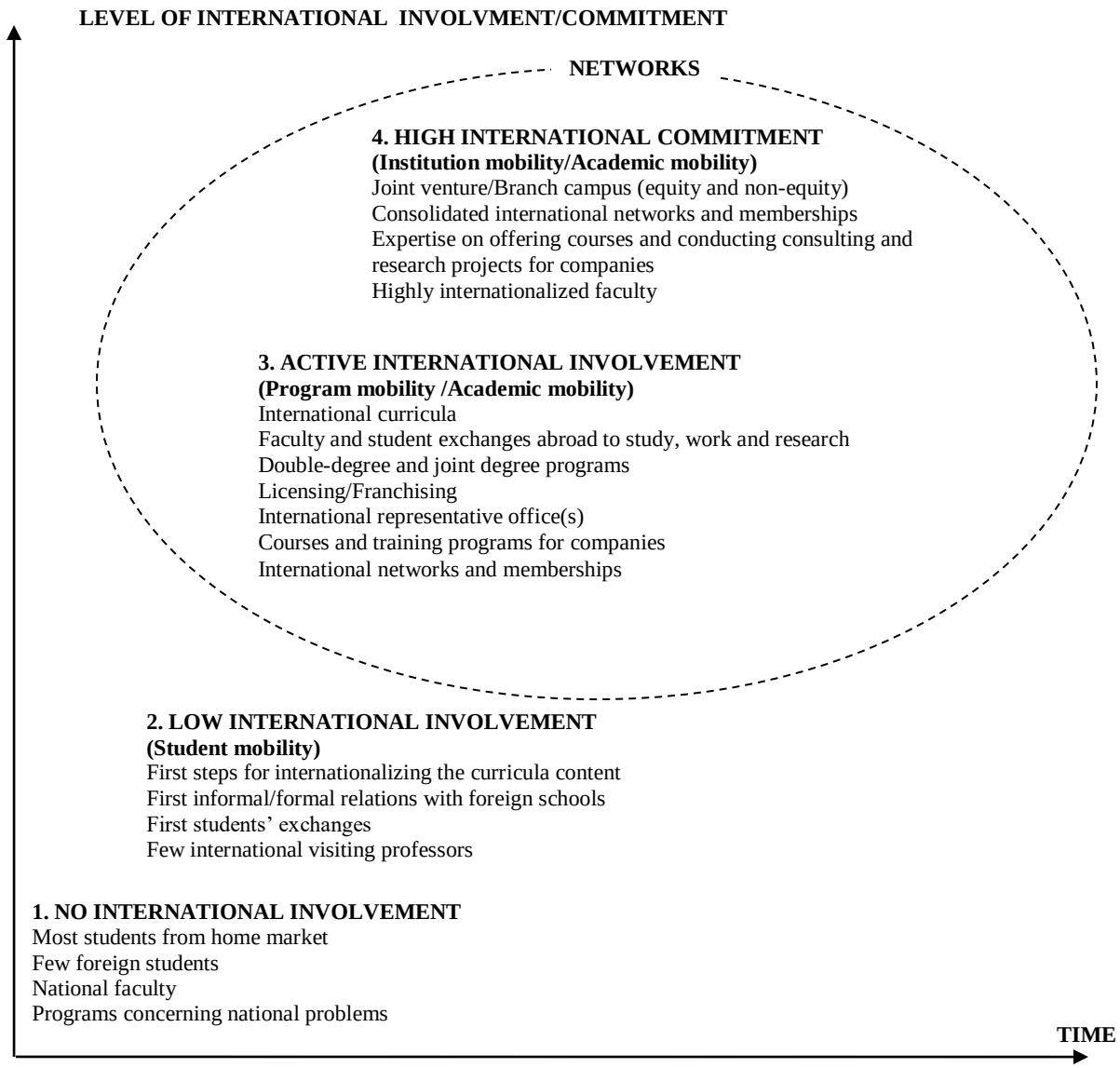
This confirms the claims made by some IB researchers that firms' relationships enable them to enter new markets (Johanson & Vahlne, 2003). Additionally, higher education studies have shown that a substantial number of business schools (39%) belong to one or more academic and industry consortia (Kwok & Arpan, 1994), and that industry collaboration within private education institutions affects not only research and governance, but the curriculum as well (Stromquist, 2007). Howe and Martin (1998) mentioned that business school's strategy lies not

so much in foreign direct investment but in striking up alliances and joint ventures to maximize longer-term organizational learning on behalf of all collaborators.

4.4. In the search for a business school internationalization model in an non Iberoamerican context

Based on a gradual internationalization process as proposed in the Uppsala Model and the broader internationalization literature combined with our case studies' results, we outline a first conceptual model aimed at explaining private business schools' internationalization patterns in a non-Anglo-Saxon context. The model is shown in figure 2 and consists of four internationalization stages, each with clearly outlined component parts.

Figure 2 Business schools internationalization model in an Iberoamerican context.



Source: Self-devised.

At Stage 1, business schools, faculty, and programs are predominantly national, and each subject is taught and practiced domestically, focusing on topics and problems at the local level. This phase is closely related to the first Uppsala model stage, where the firm does not experiment with regular export activities. Students are drawn from the domestic population, in addition to foreigners who specifically wish to learn the local management methods. Schools experience no international involvement, are focused on home market needs and compete in a regional/local arena. All five schools were initially at this stage, even though some of them abandoned this stage much earlier than others.

During stage 2, the school begins to transform its offerings. Foreign case material and teaching material are added to existing programs. Relations are established with foreign schools and good will visits are exchanged, starting most of the time as informal relations between faculty members. There are some student exchanges (student mobility) and the schools are interested on inviting international visiting professors. These international first steps are characterized by a low risk approach. They target psychically close markets and "role model" markets (US), and have similarities with the second Uppsala stage, concerning export via independent representatives. This stage is defined by an experiential-experimental involvement, since the first internationalization steps have been taken; however schools are at a low international involvement stage. In our sample, IESE began this stage earlier than other schools because of its long-standing collaboration with Harvard Business School.

At stage 3, program content is changed to make it more multinational and cross-cultural, and it is based in one country but includes a study-abroad period. At the content level, the program includes management approaches of other countries. Entire English master programs are introduced or specific classes are taught in English in certain master programs. Online courses are developed in some cases (program mobility). Faculty is exchanged (academic mobility), beginning with foreign teachers acting as guest lecturers, who end up as full-time professors. Eventually, this leads to joint teaching and degree programs (program and academic mobility). Courses and training programs for companies in other countries also are incorporated (program mobility). The school gradually extends its foreign activities to markets with greater psychic distance and employs entry modes of greater resource commitment, such as joint-degree programs (program and academic mobility), franchising, and international representative offices. These entry modes may be compared to the establishment of a sales subsidiary, according to the Uppsala model. In addition, due to international activity growth, some schools decide to establish an International Relations Department, and an International Advisory Board. It is also at this stage that, the institutions start appearing in international rankings and obtaining international accreditations. The schools look for their inclusion on academic networks having professional memberships for the institution and for their faculty. At this stage, the school demonstrates active

international involvement. According to their international operations, IPADE and UDEM are currently at this stage.

In stage 4 students, are taught in two or more countries. The school has a foreign branch campus or a foreign extension (institution mobility) in one, or more than one, country. This can be related to the last step of the Uppsala model, when a firm decides to establish manufacturing production in a foreign market. The school network becomes very consolidated and international. Faculty is chosen for its foreign experience and it is recruited regardless of nationality or location. Teaching material is all globally-sourced. The school has developed an expertise in multinational management, which it can transfer to companies via more courses, research, and consulting. At this stage, schools are totally committed internationally. ESADE, IESE and EGADE can be positioned in this category mainly due to their widely established position in foreign markets, although they have reached it by different means: ESADE and EGADE have been very aggressive at building a network with other leading universities, while IESE has chosen to drive the process with subordinated partners (IESE called subordinated partners those business schools they helped to constitute, especially in Latin America).

The dotted circle surrounding stages 3 and 4 shows the area where the more intensive internationalization process takes place. There is a strong correlation between the international activities performed at these stages, creating a relational network (Johanson & Vahlne, 2009). The idea of the network can be better understood if we consider that when a school decides to offer an international program, it becomes necessary to hire international faculty, which in turn attracts foreign students. Eventually, the school establishes collaborative agreements with other institutions or companies, in order to offer students the possibility of taking courses abroad, or working in companies located in foreign markets. These programs are more likely to obtain international accreditation and to be considered in major international rankings. These rankings in turn stimulate changes of existing programs and the implementation of new ones. Improvements attract more and better international students and faculty, and the upward sequence is repeated. Interestingly, according to Van der Wende (2001), Anglo-Saxon countries choose an explicit competitive approach to the internationalization of higher education. Most continental European

countries use a more cooperative approach, which seems to apply also to the IESE and ESADE internationalization.

We determined that the business school's internationalization process seem to be more gradual at the beginning (stages 1 and 2), but less gradual in the more advanced stages (stages 3 and 4). So the internationalization process of business schools might not fit the gradual U-Model perfectly. When a school has developed a wide variety of international activities, networks appear to become more relevant than having a foreign campus or joint venture. Therefore, the last stage of the Uppsala model, referring to the establishment of foreign production, is the most divergent from the international strategy found among the examined Iberoamerican business schools in this study.

5. Conclusions, limitations and future research directions

In this study, we analyzed the internationalization process of five relevant Iberoamerican business schools; the usefulness of the Uppsala model for explaining private business school's internationalization; and the similarities and differences between Spanish and Mexican business schools.

This study describes the internationalization process of these business schools on the basis of their selection of activities, patterns, foreign entry modes, and international market selection. A model is proposed to analyze the internationalization of business schools, using attributes derived from the Uppsala internationalization theory, services and higher education internationalization literature, and case study results from five business schools -ESADE and IESE in Spain and EGADE, IPADE and UDEM in Mexico.

The model consists of four internationalization stages, each with a list of activities typically carried out by business schools. At the initial Stage 1, the school is focused on the local market, and most of its students and faculty are recruited domestically. During the second stage, the school establishes relations with foreign institutions and has its first student exchanges, usually initiated by informal relations among faculty members. Stage 3 is reached when the

school starts offering an international curriculum and dual degree programs, as well as faculty and students exchanges. The final stage 4 occurs, when the institution has a foreign campus or extension and a widely developed international network. Stages 3 and 4 are highly co-related, as some of the international operations that they encompass are codependent and can occur simultaneously. Additionally, during the last two stages, the importance of networks between business schools and other institutions and firms increases considerably.

We found that a constant key element in each of internationalization stages is the faculty, together with the administrative staff of the International Relations Department and the academic program directors. Their knowledge, skills and abilities (KSA) are valuable elements in the internationalization process. In the case of faculty, their KSA for conducting teaching, research and consulting activities are vital to this process, and it is also the reason that the GATS modes of service supply classification have a single entry mode just for academic mobility. On the other hand, the KSA of administrative staff is highly relevant for academic exchanges, joint degrees, double degrees, and joint venture agreements.

Moreover, Bartlett and Ghoshal (1989) argue that a company's administrative heritage can be a major asset and the underlying source of its key competencies. It is defined as its existing organizational attributes and manner of doing business. It is shaped by the company's founder or key executive, the norms, values, and behaviors of managers. In our case, faculty and administrative personnel related to internationalization are considered as key employees of the business school and their KSA, key competencies for the internationalization process.

Our case study results reveal that the analyzed business schools followed, initially, a sequential internationalization pattern, though at different speeds, and by employing low resource commitment entry modes at the beginning of the process. Only in the case of EGADE, an early and more rapid involvement with other international academic institutions can be detected almost from inception, though this is mostly due to its close relationship with Tecnológico de Monterrey, which already had developed a large international network. However, it would be interesting to analyze if acceleration of internationalization, as has been recently identified in the business sector with the phenomenon of born-global firms (Knight & Cavusgil, 2004), could be also

detected in higher education institutions, as in the case of business schools that could have gone to foreign markets through joint ventures (stage 3) before any exposure to stage 2.

Uppsala's psychic distance concept appeared to be more influential in our studied business schools at the first stages of foreign market selection, and less important in further internationalization stages, where client/market potential gains bore relevance. Given that business schools' home and foreign campuses are located in industrialized cities further research could focus on the relevance of industrial clusters in the decision to establish a business school extension.

In the case of business schools, competition is very intense. MBAs are very popular in the business world and program content does not vary too much between schools. Moreover, it seems that offering an English language MBA is an important factor for accelerating business school internationalization even in a non-Anglo Saxon context. Due to international competition within the business training sector, indicators of quality and internationalization such as international accreditations and rankings are becoming important accelerating factors as well.

Furthermore, given that networks between business schools and institutions and firms are very relevant in the internationalization process, opportunities for future empirical research include the study of higher education internationalization through a more holistic approach such as Networks or Social Capital Theory. In fact, Li and Roberts (2012) focusing on the expansion of UK universities into the Chinese market, their findings from 10 case studies reveal that universities do not follow a uniform market entry pattern. Moreover, evidence suggests that access to high-level personal networks in China determines the development of high commitment entry modes. Additionally, it could also be useful to study the internationalization pattern of a larger number of business schools with the purpose of identifying strategic clusters of schools.

Limitations of the study arise from the fact that we measured internationalization processes that started several decades ago by using very recent information sources. There may well have been imperfect recollections by our interviewed subjects. Additionally, only one person was interviewed at each business school, consistent with the "key informant" approach. However,

due to the multiple elements involving internationalization, more detailed data about research collaborative agreements, course contents, and alliances may be useful. We also did not consider public institutions in our conceptual sample, which may have enriched the results; since, according to literature, internationalization process, may differ among private and public institution due their degree of autonomy to take decisions, the government support and the funding and endowment they received (Antunes & Thomas, 2007; Bennett & Kottasz, 2011; Berry & Taylor, 2014). Finally, due to the qualitative nature of this research, results can be generalized only theoretically, but not statistically, to other empirically similar contexts.

Our results are relevant for academics and international relations practitioners. For academics, this case-based study is relevant because it employs the Uppsala internationalization model as starting point, in order to provide a new approach to analyzing the internationalization of education service institutions, a research topic previously largely neglected. For international relations practitioners, this study is useful in analyzing their role in internationalization patterns and activities. Furthermore, the study shows practitioners, mostly business school managers, the growing importance of the internationalization process, and its close relationship with other business sectors. In fact, the relevance of networks is an important message for managers in charge of these higher education institutions once the internationalization process has started: relational capital could play a very important role for success in the internationalization process of business schools. Finally, this study provides the opportunity for the managers of other business schools in similar contexts that are initiating the international adventure to learn from successful internationalization experiences developed earlier by other business schools in a non-Anglo-Saxon context.

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CHAPTER 2: Faculty International Human Capital as a Resource of Competitive Advantage in Business Schools. The Case of a Mexican Private School

1. Introduction

In the era of global economy, knowledge-based services, such as universities are becoming important sectors of the service industry, since they play a key role in creating and disseminating knowledge through teaching, research, and related services that cross domestic borders providing a myriad of opportunities for theoretical and empirical research (Javalgi & Grossman, 2014).

The provision of excellent service by frontline employees is an important means whereby many firms develop sustained competitive advantage (Schneider & White, 2004). Human capital, defined as a unit's composition of employees' knowledge, skills, and abilities (KSAs), can be a particularly critical determinant of a unit's service provision. According to the resource-based view (Barney, 1991; Wernerfelt, 1984), resources that are rare and valuable create competitive advantage, but resources that are also inimitable and non-substitutable create sustained competitive advantage (Barney, 1991).

In fact, Styles, Patterson and La (2005) found that professional reputation, high levels of technical skills among staff, and international experience are important international performance drivers for service firms.

Moreover, the presence of professional staff and personnel responsible for specific aspects of internationalization is seen as highly important in achieving internationalization. In many countries, internationalization activities are now recognized as highly specialized activities that require professional staff with proper academic training and years of international education experience (Paige, 2005).

In an industry as labor-intensive as higher education, the effective use of human resources is critical (Smith & Ferris, 1990). Unfortunately, most of the research on higher education

internationalization has focused on the organization per se, and not on their faculty. Additionally, most of the instruments developed to measure internationalization are for the whole institution and their faculty section considers only certain aspects as research, or they are highly customized for a specific institution. In as much as no instruments were found to measure faculty internationalization for a business school in a Latin-American context, there exists the need to design one that helps to determine faculty´s human capital resource (international knowledge, skills, and abilities) as a source of competitive advantage for institution´s internationalization process.

Human resources can be viewed as potentially valuable, rare, and non-substitutable resources because they are scarce, specialized, and hold tacit knowledge (Coff, 1997). Thus, study human capital accumulations is challenging because it is difficult to identify the precise aspect of the advantage and to replicate how it was assembled (Shaw, Park & Kim, 2013).

The objective of the study is to determine/identify the faculty`s human capital resources (knowledge, experience and skills) that represent a sustained competitive advantage for business school's internationalization according the Resource-Based View theory (RBV) and Strategic Human Resource Management (SHRM) literature. Additionally, we identify and describe faculty groups according their international profile, since we wanted to offer different recommendations according group characteristics. In order to do so, we analyzed knowledge service studies together with higher education literature with the purpose of creating a questionnaire regarding several aspects of faculty internationalization such as: 1) organization and participation of student´s abroad academic trips and courses; 2) English skills; 3) professional experience outside Higher Education Institutions (HEI); 4) employment of technological tools (chats, forums, and videoconferences) for internationalized courses; 5) participation on research activities (publication, conferences, memberships, research projects, etc.); 6) visiting professor activities; 7) academic degrees and training abroad; and 8) participation on home internationalization activities.

The unit of analysis consists of the professors from the University of Monterrey Business School. We had 83 participants from a total of 111 academics. We selected principal components

analysis (PCA) and multiple correspondence analysis (MCA) in order to reduce the number of variables and grouped them in factors. Afterwards, we choose the two-step cluster analysis technique in order to group faculty according to international factors obtained from the PCA and MCA together with other demographic faculty variables such as type of contract, and academic department.

We want to answer the question: What are the faculty's international human capital resources (knowledge, skills, and experience) that represent a resource of sustained competitive advantage for University of Monterrey's (UDEM) Business School internationalization process?

The study contributes to the employment of the RBV theory and SHRM literature with the aim of analyzing faculty internationalization KSAs as a mean of sustained competitive advantage for business school's internationalization process. Moreover, it contributes to the very inexistence and almost theoretical contributions regarding faculty internationalization in higher education research. In addition, the study contributes to human capital research regarding the debate about the firm-specific skills vs. firm-general skills as a sustained competitive advantage (Campbell, Coff, & Kryscynski, 2012).

The value of this paper for directors in private higher education institutions located in a similar context (e.g. Latin America) is that they can employ the proposed instrument in order to determine which faculty´s knowledge, skills and experience represent a source of sustained competitive advantage for the business schools internationalization process, allowing schools to align internationalization initiatives and strategies. Additionally, HR executives may detect which professors play an important role in the success in the internationalization process, analyze their group belonging characteristics and offer them development options and opportunities in order to make them stay in the business school. Additionally, for Human Resource managers in higher institutions, this study could complement faculty´s profile and CV information for institutional career developing plans. They might also consider the internationalization involvement as an element for job promotion. For faculty, this research contributes to create better awareness among academics concerning their actual status regarding internationalization, as well as career planning and aspirations.

The study is organized as follows: first, we provide the theoretical conceptual framework; second, we describe the study methodology; third, we describe the obtained results; fourth, we present a discussion section regarding the general vs. firm specific human capital resources; fifth, our conclusions, limitations and future research lines are presented.

2. Conceptual framework

2.1. Human capital as a resource for sustained competitive advantage

The notion that sustained competitive advantage of organizations can be driven by the accumulation of high quality human resources is prevalent in the literature (e.g., Coff, 1997, 2002; Coff & Kryscynski, 2011; Ployhart, Weekley, & Baughman, 2006; Prahalad, 1983). The focus on human capital as a source of competitive advantage has intensified the need for organizations not only to understand and win the talent war (Gardner, 2005), but to an understanding of tighter integration in the fields of strategic management and strategic human resource management (SHRM) often through the lens of the resource-based view (RBV).

The RBV states that a firm develops competitive advantage by not only by acquiring but also developing, combining, and effectively deploying its physical, human and organizational resources in ways that add unique value and are difficult for competitors to imitate (Barney, 1991). The RBV serves the SHRM field in two ways: 1) it emphasize the role of human resources in questions of strategy, raising the importance of research and practice in SHRM, and 2) it encourages a more relevant focus for HRM, away from the HR practices themselves and toward their effect on firm resources (Wright, Dunford, & Snell, 2001).

Barney (1991) in his seminal paper regarding the RBV theory, establishes that firms possess three different types of resources: 1) physical capital resources, 2) human capital resources, and 3) organizational capital resources. Since our unit of analysis is faculty, we will focus on human capital resources, which according to the author consist of training, experience,

judgment, intelligence and relationships of individual managers. These resources can be a source of competitive advantage when they implement a value creating strategy not simultaneously implemented by any current or potential competitor. Moreover, they represent a sustained competitive advantage when current and potential competitors are unable to duplicate that strategy.

In fact, Barney (1991) argued that sustained competitive advantage derives from the resources and capabilities a firm controls that are valuable, rare, imperfectly imitable, and not substitutable. Valuable resources exploit opportunities and/or neutralizes threats in a firm´s environment. Rare, denotes the rare resources in firm´s current and potential competition. Imperfectly imitable resources are due to: 1) unique historical circumstances of a firm´s founding (e.g. firm facilities, organizational culture, a group of scientists); 2) casual ambiguity, happening when all competing firms and the firm itself has an imperfect understanding of the link between the resources controlled by a firm and a firm´s competitive advantages; and 3) social complexity, occurs when only a few competing firms have a special characteristic as reputation and quality recognition. Finally, substitutability, means that a firm's resources require a source of sustained competitive advantage in that there must be no strategically equivalent valuable resources that are themselves either not rare or imitable.

Strategic HRM researchers suggest that investments in HRM practices enhance the key elements of sustained advantage found in the RBV. Organizations can use training, sophisticated selection, financial incentives, and other practices to increase the value, rareness, non-substitutability, and inimitability of the human capital pool. In high investment organizations, HRM practices are used as tools for building a workforce that creates competitive advantage (Delery & Shaw, 2001). In contrast, in low investment organizations, HRM practices do little to develop long-term human capital; the organization treats the workforce as a commodity and gives individuals little opportunity or ability to create sustained competitive advantage. Instead, such organizations pursue advantage by other means such as superior technology, finances, or physical resources (Delery & Shaw, 2001). In our case, business schools can be viewed as a high investment people organization since it is an educational service, where faculty and administrative employees play an important role in the service production and delivery.

In fact, service employees are considered core employees because their performance adds value to their firms and they represent the largest group of non-managerial employees (Batt, 2002; Delery & Shaw, 2001; Osterman, 1994). Service employees fill roles spanning the boundary between a firm and its customers. The provision of service is fairly unique in that it involves direct interaction with customers and co-production. A customer's service experience is "consumed" in conjunction with its manifestation by employees, which makes service behavior intangible. Customer service employees thus have a strong influence on customer satisfaction, loyalty, and purchase behavior (Liao & Chuang, 2004; Lovelock & Wirtz, 2004; Schneider, White, & Paul, 1998).

The provision of excellent service by frontline employees is an important means whereby many firms develop sustained competitive advantage (Schneider & White, 2004). Human capital, defined as a unit's composition of employees' knowledge, skills, and abilities (KSA), can be a particularly critical determinant of a unit's service provision (Ployhart, Van Iddekinge & Mackenzie, 2011).

Professionals gain knowledge through formal education (articulable) and through learning on the job (tacit). Articulable knowledge can be codified and thus can be written and easily transferred (Liebeskind, 1996). Tacit knowledge is not articulable and therefore cannot be easily transferred. Tacit knowledge is integral to professional skills (Teece, Pisano & Shuen, 1997). As a result, tacit knowledge is often unique, difficult to imitate and uncertain. Professionals who provide services are often required to have extensive education and training prior to entering their fields. This education and training usually provide a high level of articulable knowledge in the field of specialty together with the tacit learning on the job activities (Hitt, Bierman, Shimizu, & Kochhar, 2011).

Human capital resources are represented by training, experience, skills, relationships, and insight of individual managers and employees in a firm. Similarly, human capital is defined as the know-how, information, and general capabilities that employees bring to bear on behalf of the firm through their employment relations (Galunic & Anderson, 2000). Capabilities and/or

professional knowledge and skills are specific stemming from past experience/practice that allow organizations to perform certain tasks (Hitt, Bierman, Uhlenbruck & Shimizu, 2006). In addition, employee´s skills and international experiences are important as firms enter new markets, expand the scale and scope of existing markets/regions, and increase revenue (Javalgi & Grossman, 2014).

Brooking (1996) considered human capital the most dynamic employee-related capital within organizations, which comprises six categories: 1) educational levels, 2) job-related licenses/qualifications, 3) job-related knowledge, 4) job potential, 5) personality traits, and 6) job-related abilities. More recently, Yen (2013) measured the human capital of top members' management teams in banks based on: imitation ability, open-mindedness/vision, experiences, professional knowledge, professional skills, execution, and functional diversity. Yen´s (2013) results revealed that at the individual level, knowledge, education, skills, and abilities are the most important elements in human capital.

Human capital researchers (Becker, 1964; Becker, 1993; Flamholtz & Lacey, 1981) argue that human capital is composed of generic and specific human capital, since employees can develop either general skills that are easily transferable to other firms or firm-specific skills that are valuable within the focal firm but harder to apply elsewhere. Generic human capital is defined as human capital resources that are valuable and transferable across a variety of firms. The most common examples of general human capital are the skills gained through education and general business experience. For example, all firms have the potential to accrue equal value from acquiring employees with knowledge of general management, the ability to apply financial rations, or general cognitive ability. Specific human capital is defined as human capital resources that are tied to a particular industry or context or to a particular firm and has little relevance to other industries/contexts or firms. It refers to worker-level knowledge, skills and abilities that have limited applicability outside the focal firm. For example, the knowledge of how to use a particular technology used only by one firm or knowledge of a firm´s policies and procedures provide value to that firm but usually would not be valuable to other firms.

Human capital theory specifies three principles (Becker, 1964; Tsang, Rumberger & Levine, 1991): a) investment in employee development in terms of skills and knowledge is justified only when future productivity exceeds the cost; b) firms should invest in employee firm specific skills and knowledge, whereas general skills should be developed by the employee; c) organizations need to protect their human capital from being transferred to other firms.

General skills are important because, they are necessary for maintaining competitive parity and gives employees employability in the market. Furthermore, a firm can gain competitive advantage through obtaining the highest level of general skills (e.g. having a great visionary leader in the company).

Even though, Barney and Wright (1998) argue that greater potential for sustainable competitive advantage stems from investments in firm-specific skills. These skills cannot be easily duplicated by competitors, they provide value to the firm, but they are not easily marketable by the employees who possess them. Firms can accomplish this through investing in constant training and development of employees to perform work processes and procedures that are specific to the firm. So, the firm gathers the advantages from these firm-specific skills while providing employees with the opportunity for growth and development.

Specific human capital has also been divided into industry/context specific and in firm specific context. Industry/context human capital is specific for certain context or industry (e.g., industry experience, functional experience, general management experience) (Kotter, 1982) and utilized across similar contexts (Amit & Schoemaker, 1993). Yet firm specific human capital is specific for certain companies or institutions (e.g., context specific experience, firm specific procedures, routines, and practices) and are not usually appreciated by other companies or institutions (Hatch & Dyer, 2004; Le, Kroll, & Walters, 2013). Firm specific human capital is that which can be applied to a particular firm. This, firm specificity is one potential isolating mechanism since firm-specific resources cannot be redeployed in other organizations. Hence, firm-specifics have been closely tied to the theory of competitive advantage as a driver of distinctive capabilities (Amit & Schoemaker, 1993).

Thus, human capital ranges from highly generalized knowledge and skills to context specific knowledge and skills to sets of knowledge and skills that are applicable only in a single firm creating "isolating mechanisms" (Dyer & Singh, 1998, p. 671) and resulting in resource heterogeneity and resource immobility (Barney, 1991) that lie at the core of a firm's competitive advantage (Rumelt, 1984). This is the reason not all forms of human capital resources are considered equally important. In fact, Barney and Wright (1998), mentioned that generic human capital is expected to be valuable and potentially rare, but unit-specific human capital is expected also to be inimitable and nonsubstitutable. Thus, several authors argue that only unit-specific human capital is considered to be capable of creating sustained competitive advantage (e.g., Hatch & Dyer, 2004). However, general human assets can be the source of advantage if they are rare, have no strategic substitutes, and retainable over time (Coff, 1997).

Finally, many scholars have been critical of resource-based scholarship for being ambiguous about temporal dynamics and using cross-sectional models (e.g., Armstrong & Shimizu, 2007; Priem & Butler, 2001). These criticisms are particularly relevant to the service industry, where human capital resources tend to be highly dynamic.

2.2. The importance of faculty internationalization in the service and higher education literature

Given the reliance on knowledge intensity embodied in a professional workforce, the service literature emphasizes the importance of internal knowledge embodied in human capital. Malhotra (2003) argues that it is the combination of the individual (personal contacts, relationships and host-country knowledge of individual employees), team, and organizational knowledge within the firm that constitutes a source of advantage when internationalizing.

Previous business studies have conceptualized human capital as intangible capabilities or resource endowment that significantly influences the firm´s international performance (Cavusgil & Naor, 1987; Javalgi & Todd, 2011). Other empirical studies have shown that individual/decision maker characteristics such as employees´ international experiences and foreign market knowledge influence international performance of firms (Cavusgil & Naor, 1987; Ruzzier, Antoncic, Hisrich & Konecnick, 2007). Recently, Javalgi and Grossman (2014) found

that among the most important variables for an MBA program, internationalization was human capital (measured by faculty experienced in teaching internationally), together with program reputation, attitude of management toward internationalization, and host market attractiveness.

According to higher education literature, global impact has challenged faculty members to think about internationalization in the context of their respective disciplines and has influenced how they engage in the process of internationalization and, specifically, how they internationalize their curriculum (Agnew, 2013). Still, the student body has become more international in composition and orientation, demanding a more international experienced faculty (Elliott & Robinson, 2012). Furthermore, faculty members are also assuming new roles for research-intensive universities as part of team-oriented, cross-disciplinary, and international partnerships.

Egron-Polak and Hudson (2014) reported in The International Association Universities Global Survey that faculty members are ranked in third place as the most important international driver of internationalization just after the head of the institution and the international office. Actually, faculty is considered as the key asset of any educational institution and clearly of market oriented business schools since it is the faculty who translate the well-designed mission and curriculum into the global competency of students (Ma & Trigo, 2011).

Definitely, having an international professoriate is important in global business schools (Lorange, 2003). Faculty who participate in short-term overseas teaching assignments contribute to their own institutions´ internationalization process in teaching, research, and service opportunities (Bao & Ferrara, 2009).

Other benefits for home institutions having faculty teach in another country are: 1) faculty development and enhanced learning for students, greater cultural awareness, 2) gaining intercultural experience, becoming more tolerant to different views, bringing new ideas, inspirations, benchmarks, creating contacts for research activities, and 3) professors return re-motivated for changes and with fresh ideas (Clinebell & Kvedaravičienė, 2013)

Specifically, personal benefits for faculty when teaching internationally are: 1) career advancement, 2) new contacts, 3) new experience, 4) extra money, 5) good practices to be implemented in the home institution, 6) benefits to CV from a number of entries, 7) many friends and experiences, 8) more contacts for research purposes, and 9) experiencing different learning environments/standards (Clinebell & Kvedaravičienė, 2013).

Unfortunately, most of the research on the topic of higher education internationalization has been directed at organizational internationalization (Sanderson, 2008). This has left a significant gap in the literature with respect to how internationalization is understood or engaged in at the level of the individual faculty member.

Moreover, historically, the term "internationalization" has most often referred to the physical mobility of faculty (and students) across national borders. This is the reason that most previous literature on faculty internationalization is mostly descriptive. On the other hand, the majority of the investigations consider as a unit of analysis faculty working on American, British or Canadian educational institutions.

Academic publications have studied faculty internationalization from different perspectives. Richardson and McKenna (2003) explore the decision of 30 British academics in four different countries to take an overseas appointment and how they evaluate that appointment in retrospect in terms of upward career mobility. Agnew (2013) examines how faculty members think about internationalization in the context of their respective disciplines, arguing that the ways in which faculty members think about internationalization may influence how faculty members engage in the process of internationalization and how to internationalize their curricular content. Finkelstein, Walker, and Chen (2013) developed and tested a theoretical framework for explaining faculty decisions to add an international dimension to their academic activity. Friesen (2013) explore the understanding and motivations of five Canadian faculty members toward their involvement in institutional internationalization strategies. Jiang and Carpenter (2013) investigate the difference in the process of higher education internationalization across faculties in a UK university and identify faculty-specific factors through evaluating the four faculties. Finally, Salt and Wood (2014) examine the staffing issues likely to be faced by UK universities as their

international campus presence grows on the basis of the experience of establishment multinational enterprises (MNEs).

2.3. Tools and elements for assessing faculty internationalization

In most countries worldwide, interest in evaluation of the performance and quality of higher education has exploded during the past 20 years. Internationalization has become an increasingly important aspect of higher education and continues to move from the margins to the center of the academic enterprise.

In fact, directors of higher education institutions are increasingly striving to internationalize their institutions for economic, political, academic, and sociocultural rationales (Hudzik, 2011), and thus, need to assess and monitor their efforts. At the same time, both public and private educational institutions are being held increasingly accountable by stakeholders such as parents, community, and the society itself, giving rise to the importance of conducting performance assessments (including internationalization assessment) in higher education institutions (Brennan & Shah, 2000). In particular, the assessment of internationalization is important in several contexts: as a component of overall institutional performance; to judge the effectiveness of an institution's internationalization strategy; to benchmark with other institutions and with past and future performance; and to improve internationalization programs and practices (Green, 2012).

Beerkens et al. (2010) pose three important interrelated developments as causes of the increased demand for better data on internationalization: 1) internationalization has become a more complicated and more comprehensive process, 2) the emergence of an accountability culture in higher education based on evaluations, and 3) as indicators to profile institutions as a result of increased global competition including rankings and league tables in higher education.

In the past years, we have witnessed a strong growth in the number of tools and studies that aim to identify the ultimate manner to assess internationalization (de Wit, 2010). This fact is particularly valid for instruments developed by national higher education associations in order to

provide a comprehensive instrument for home institutions with a section for faculty. Additionally, there are faculty internationalization instruments/approaches developed by universities and academic researchers. Unfortunately, tools for measuring/describing specifically faculty´s internationalization are scare, and sometimes vague and incomplete. For these reasons, we searched for literature (international studies/reports, academic investigations and institutional documents) focused on measuring/describing faculty internationalization variables that help us to identify faculty´s KSAs involved in internationalization.

Instruments developed by national higher education institutions regarding internationalization can be found in Brazil, United States, Canada, Europe, Oceania, and Asia. The University of Sao Paulo in Brazil published a study regarding the Brazilian Academic Profession (Balbachevsky et al., 2009). Developments in the US involve the work of Altbach (1996) for the Carnegie Foundation studying the American Academic Profession, Green and Olson (2003) research for the American Council on Education (ACE), the most recent American Council on Education study (ACE, 2012), and the International Business Education Index (IBEX) questionnaire developed by Hult and Motz (2012). In Canada the Association of Universities of Canada (AUCC) (2014) has recently published a report regarding universities' internationalization processes. In Europe, important contributions can be found in Germany (Brandenburg & Federkeil, 2007), Norway (Vabø, 2010), Netherlands (Netherlands Flemish Accrediting Association NVAO, 2011; Netherlands Organisation for International Cooperation Nuffic, 2012), Belgium (Netherlands Flemish Accrediting Association NVAO, 2011), and United Kingdom (Locke & Bennion, 2010). There is also an increasing interest in Australia (Coates et al., 2009) and New Zealand (McInnis, Peacock, Catherwook & Brown, 2006). In addition, higher education institutions from Asia are also very interested in measuring the internationalization efforts of their intuition, an example is Japan (Research Institute for Higher Education RIHE, 2008). Other international efforts conducted by international organizations that have considered several countries in their studies are Kogan and Teichler (2007) for UNESCO, Green (2012) for the International Association of Educators (NAFSA) and Egron-Polak and Hudson (2014) for the International Association of Universities (IAU).

There are also some academic papers where authors describe the internationalization process of institutions and faculty located in Taiwan (Chin & Ching, 2009), Japan (Arimoto, 2010; Huang, 2009; Paige, 2005), China (Ma & Trigo, 2011), United States (Cort, Das, & Synn, 2005; Dewey & Duff, 2009; Javalgi & Grossman, 2014), and Canada (Knight, 2004). Moreover there are doctoral theses in the USA studying faculty internationalization perceptions (e.g. Clark, 2013; Criswell, 2014), and academic studies considering institutions from various countries (Kwok & Arpan, 2002). Finally, institutional efforts, mainly from US universities have also been studied (Agudelo et al., 2014; California State University, 2008; Central Connecticut State University, 2009; Pynes, Pubantz, Schmitz & Campo, 2011; University of Minessota Duluth, 2013).

In order to analyze all faculty internationalization variables found in literature, we developed a table with the study´s variables, the number employed, and the author´s name and publication year (table 8). Faculty international measures were grouped according to the following areas: 1) foreign languages, 2) research activities, 3) teaching activities, 4) support on students' study abroad programs, 5) participation in internationalization home activities, 6) professional experience outside HEI, 7) education and training, and 8) awards and honors.

Table 8 Faculty internationalization measures.

Element	Variables	Scale	Author(s) (year)
Foreign languages	**Foreign language master/proficiency** 1) Have you give classes in a foreign language in the past three years? 2) Do you speak a language other than English?, 3) In what non-English language(s) do you have competency and how would you describe your level of foreign language ability? 4) Describe your foreign language skills, 5) Number and proportion of faculty who are multi-lingual, 6) Out of all staff members in the unit, what is the proportion with a command of at least one foreign language at level C1 or C2 of the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages? Out of all positions in the unit, what proportion has foreign language skills as a requirement?; In a given year, what proportion of the unit's academic staff members follows a foreign	1) Yes/No 2) Yes/No) 3) The foreign language and the level (from basic to fluent) 4) Description of foreign language skills 5) Number and proportion 6) Proportion 7) Likert scale (unsatisfactory, satisfactory, good or excellent) 8) Likert scale (basic, intermediate,	1) Balbachevsky, Schwartzman, Novaes, Felgueiras & Birkholz (2009) 2) California State University (2008) 3) Central Connecticut State University (2009) 4) Dewey & Duff (2009) 5) Green (2012) 6) IMPI (2012) 7) NVAO (2011) 8) University of Minessota Duluth (2013)

Element	Variables	Scale	Author(s) (year)
	language course in a language other than English? 7) How would you evaluate staff members´ international experience, intercultural competences and language skills, 8) What is your level of proficiency in a language other than English?	fluent).	
Research activities	**International publishing** 1) Have you researched outside of the US?, 2) How many scholarly contributions have you completed in the past 3 years?, 3) Proportion of your work is published abroad, 4) Number of international publications per researcher, 5) Have you conducted research abroad?, 6) Have conducted international research abroad?, 7) How many international publications do you have? , 8) Percentage of international research collaboration, 9) Do you are highly involved on research? , 10) Number of articles or books published abroad, 11) Have you published articles? , 12) How many publications do you have outside your country? , 13) Do you published internationally?, 14) List all the scholarly contributions that you have completed in the past three years?, 15) Have your participated in a semester- or year-long study abroad programs, including internships, research projects, and coursework, 16) Have you participated in collaborative international research?, 17) Have you conducted research or engaged in other professional activity in your discipline outside the United State?, 18) What percentage of all scientific articles published by Norwegian researchers were co-authored by international colleagues?	1) Yes/No 2) Number 3) Proportion 4) Number 5) Yes/No 6) Yes/No 7) Number 8) Percentage 9) Yes/No 10) Number 11) Yes/No 12) Number 13) Yes/No 14) Number 15) Yes/No 16) Yes/No 17) Percentage	1) Agudelo, et al., (2014) 2) Arimoto (2010) 3) Balbachevsky et al. (2009) 4) Brandenburg & Federkeil (2007) 5) California State University (2008) 6) Cort, Das & Synn, (2005) 7) Dewey & Duff (2009) 8) Egron-Polak & Hudson (2014) 9) Finkelstein et al. (2013) 10) Huang (2009) 11) Hult & Motz (2012) 12) Locke & Bennion (2010) 13) Nuffic (2012) 14) RIHE (2008) 15) Pynes, et al. (2011) 16) University of Minessota Duluth (2013) 17) Vabø (2010)
Research activities	**International research projects** 1) Have you done international research collaboration in the last 3 years?, 2) Do you have done research collaboratively with international colleagues, 3) Number of international research projects with international cooperation partners, 4) Do you have high involvement in research?, 5) Have you conduct joint research initiatives , 6) Out of all the researchers in the unit in a given year, what proportion has spent at least one semester conducting research abroad at any point in time during their period of employment at the unit?, 7) Does your	1) Yes/No 2) Yes/ No 3) Number 4) Yes/No 5) Yes/No 6) Proportion 7) Yes/No 8) Yes/No	1) Balbachevsky et al. (2009) 2) Bennion & Locke (2010) 3) Brandenburg & Federkeil (2007) 4) Finkelstein & Chen (2013) 5) Knight (2004) 6) IMPI (2012) 7) Locke & Bennion (2010) 8) Vabø (2010)

Element	Variables	Scale	Author(s) (year)
	primary research has an international scope or orientation?, 8) Do you do co-authorship research?		
Research activities	**International conferences** 1) Percentage of faculty who travel to meetings or conferences abroad, 2) Have you attended to academic international conferences abroad? , 3) Number of international conference contributions per professor/researcher, 4) Have you given a paper at an international conference? , 5) Have you attended a conference outside of the US?, 6) How frequent do faculty members attend international conferences and seminars? , 7) How many faculty participated in conferences?, 8) Have you attended to an internationally oriented meeting or conference?, 9) In a given year, out of all of the unit's academic staff members, what is the proportion that attends at least one international conference or seminar?, 10) How many international conferences and seminars have you attended?, 11) Have you attended to conferences? , 12) What percentage of faculty have participated in international conferences or other meetings? 13) How many conferences have you attended in the last ten years?	1) Percentage 2) Yes/No 3) Number 4) Yes/No 5) Yes/No 6) Likert scale (never to very frequent) 7) Number 8) Yes/No 9) Proportion 10) Number. 11) Yes/No 12) Percentage 13) Number	1) ACE (2012) 2) Agudelo, et al., (2014) 3) Brandenburg & Federkeil (2007) 4) California State University (2008) 5) Cort et al. (2005) 6) Criswell (2014) 7) Dewey & Duff (2009) 8) Hult & Motz (2012) 9) IMPI (2012) 10) Knight (2004) 11) Pynes, et al., (2011) 12) University of Minessota Duluth (2013) 13) Vabø (2010)
Research activities	**Serving on an international academic board or committee, reviewer or editor** 1) In a given year, out of all of the unit's academic staff members, which proportion of the academic staff members are a committee or board member of an international academic or professional association? 2) Have you served as a peer reviewer, member of national/international scientific/boards/bodies, or as an editor of journal/books series? 3) Have you served as a member of national/international scientific committees/boards/bodies?	1) Proportion 2) Yes/No 3) Yes/No	1) IMPI (2012) 2) Locke & Bennion (2010) 3) RIHE (2008)
Research activities	**Membership of international academic or professional association** 1) Are you member of an international benchmarking initiative/club?, 2) Do you belong to an international business association?, 3) In a given year, out of all of the unit's academic staff members, which proportion of the academic staff members are members of at least one international academic or professional association?, 4) Have you served as a member of	1) Yes/No 2) Yes/No 3) Proportion 4) Yes/No	1) Brandenburg & Federkeil (2007) 2) Cort et al. (2005) 3) IMPI (2012) 4) Locke & Bennion (2010)

Element	Variables	Scale	Author(s) (year)
	national/international scientific/boards/bodies?		
Research activities	**International funding to conduct research** 1)Have you received international funding to conduct research or present a paper abroad?	1) Yes/No	1) California State University (2008)
Teaching activities	**Taught abroad as visiting professor** 1) Percentage of faculty teaching at institutions abroad, 2) Have you taught outside of the US?, 3) Have you taught abroad?, 4) Have you participated in international teaching?, 5) Have you have short term or long term appointments as visiting instructor?, 6) Have you taught for a short-term term (least 3 months) period abroad in the previous year? 7) How would you evaluate teaching of courses abroad?, 8) In a given year, what proportion of researchers in the unit goes abroad as visiting researchers for some period of time?, 9) Percentage of business school faculty experienced in teaching internationally in the MBA program, 10) What percentage of faculty have teaching experience outside the U. S.?	1) Percentage 2) Yes/No 3) Yes/No 4) Yes/No 5) Yes/No 6) Yes/No 7) Likert scale(1 not important, 5 very important) 8) Proportion 9) Percentage 10) Percentage	1) ACE (2012) 2) Agudelo, et al., (2014) 3) Cort et al. (2005) 4) Criswell (2014) 5) Dewey and Duff (2009) 6) Egron-Polak & Hudson (2014) 7) Kwok & Arpan (2002) 8) IMPI (2012) 9) Javalgi & Grossman (2014) 10) University of Minessota Duluth (2013)
Teaching activities	**Technology employed for courses** 1) Have your institution offered workshops on using technology to enhance international dimensions on teaching, 2) Do you employ technology for internationalizing your courses?	1) Yes/No 2) Yes/No	1) AUCC (2014) 2) Pynes, et al., (2011)
Teaching activities	**Hosting visiting international faculty** 1) What percentage of faculty hosted visiting international faculty? 2) Have you lived with or hosted an international guest?	1) Percentage 2) Yes/No	1) ACE (2012) 2) Pynes, et al., (2011)
Teaching activities	**International students in class** 1) When I have international students in my classes, I encourage them to share their experiences?, 2) Do you have international students in the class(es) you teach?, 3) Have you worked with international students?	1) Yes/No 2) Yes/No 3) Yes/No	1) California State University (2008) 2) Clark (2013) 3) Pynes, et al., (2011)
Teaching activities	**Incorporated international/global topics in courses** 1) Do you incorporate international/global topics in to one or more of your courses?, 2) Do you teach international related coursework?	1) Yes/No 2) Yes/No	1) California State University (2008) 2) Pynes, et al., (2011)
Support on students´ abroad programs	**Traveling with students for an academic purpose (course, visit)** 1) Percentage of faculty leading students on study abroad programs, 2) I have taken students abroad on a faculty-led	1) Percentage 2) Yes/No 3) Yes/No 4) Yes/No 5) Yes/No	1) ACE (2012) 2) California State University (2008) 3) Cort et al. (2005) 4) Hult & Motz (2012)

Element	Variables	Scale	Author(s) (year)
	study abroad class 3) I have led a student study abroad program. 4) I have led undergraduate students on study abroad, 5) Have you led students abroad?		5) Pynes, et al., (2011)
Participation on internationaliza-tion home activities	**Organize events with international scholars, performers** 1) I have organized events with international scholars, performers, 2) In a given year, what proportion of international conferences are organized by the unit's staff members?, 3) Do you organize international conferences?	1) Yes /No 2) Proportion 3) Yes/Partly/No	1) California State University (2008) 2) IMPI (2012) 3) Nuffic (2012)
Professional experience outside HEI	**International professional experience outside HEI (company, consulting, social service agencies, politics)** 1) Have you participated in service activities outside of the US?, 2) Number of professors with international professional experience outside the HEI; Proportion of professors with international professional experience outside the HEI relative to the total number of professors, 3) Where you in peace corps?, 4) Percentage of faculty members with at least one year experience working abroad, 5) Have you worked in an international position (e.g., overseas assignment, internationally oriented position for a firm in the U.S., etc.)?, 6) Out of all the researchers in the unit in a given year, what proportion engages in at least three months of professional experience abroad?, 7) Importance of faculty´s international activities in consulting, 8) Have you participated in service activities abroad?	1) Yes/No 2) Number/Proportion 3) Yes/No 4) Percentage 5) Yes/No 6) Proportion 7) Likert scale (1 not important,/ 5 very important) 8) Yes/Partly/No	1) Agudelo, et al., (2014) 2) Brandenburg & Federkeil (2007) 3) California State University (2008) 4) Egron-Polak & Hudson (2014) 5) Hult & Motz (2012 6) IMPI (2012) 7) Locke & Bennion (2010) 8) University of Minessota Duluth (2013).
Education and training	**International degrees earned** 1) Have you earned at least one degree outside United States?, 2) Number of professors who gained their doctoral degree abroad?, 3) Did you study abroad as a student?,4) Did you participated in a study abroad program as student? Have you attended international business educational workshops/seminars?, 5) Do you have pre-professional international studies?, 6) Number and proportion of faculty and staff educated outside the United States , 7) Proportion of Japanese faculty members that had earn their doctoral degrees in other countries, 8) What proportion of staff members in the unit obtains a full degree abroad?, 9) Percentage of British professors who	1) Yes/No 2) Yes/No 3) Yes/No 4) Yes/No 5) Yes/No 6) Number and proportion 7) Proportion 8) Proportion 9) Percentage 10) Yes/Partly/No 11) Yes/No 12) Yes/No	1) Agudelo, et al., (2014) 2) Brandenburg & Federkeil (2007) 3) California State University (2008) 4) Cort et al. (2005) 5) Dewey & Duff (2009) 6) Green (2012) 7) Huang (2009) 8) IMPI (2012) 9) Locke & Bennion (2010) 10) Nuffic (2012) 11) Pynes, et al., (2011) 12) University of

Element	Variables	Scale	Author(s) (year)
	studied for their doctorate abroad, 10) Does your institution employs researchers with a foreign higher education degree?, 11) Have you studied abroad?, 12) Do you studied abroad?		Minessota Duluth (2013)
Awards/Honors	**International awards or honors** 1) Does your institution offer recognition awards specifically for international activity? 2) Have you received international awards /honors?, 3) Does your institution offers specific awards for international activities or partnerships?, 4) Have you received a Fulbright or other international exchange award?, 5) Do you think that faculty members who engage in internationalization should receive granted awards, honors and other professional recognitions?, 6) Does your institution offer a recognition award(s) specifically for international activity?	1) Yes/No 2) Yes/No 3) Yes/No 4) Yes/No 5) Likert scale (strongly disagree to strongly agree) 6) Yes/No	1) ACE (2012) 2) Agudelo, et al., (2014) 3) AUCC (2014) 4) California State University (2008) 5) Criswell (2014) 6) Hult & Motz (2012)

Source: Self-devised.

Most of the revised instruments and literature measure internationalization at an institutional level, and their faculty section consider only one topic (e.g. research), or were highly customized for a certain institution, and none of them were developed for a Latin American context. Since no instruments were found to measure faculty internationalization for a business school in a Latin-American context, there was a need to design one.

This instrument will be helpful in our research to identify faculty`s human resources (general and specific) to further analyze their possible consideration as a source of competitive advantage or sustained competitive advantage for the business school.

In the next section we will explain the methodology and the selection of faculty´s internationalization variables that help us to describe faculty´s human resources (general and specific) to further analyze their possible consideration as a source of sustained competitive advantage for the business school.

3. Methodology

The unit of analysis is UDEM´s Business School faculty. The University of Monterrey (UDEM) is a Mexican private university, recognized worldwide for its internationalization initiatives[7], especially at a student level[8], and for its national (FIMPES, ANUIES)[9] and international accreditations obtained (SACS)[10] and in process of obtaining (AACSB)[11]. Furthermore, institutional strategic internationalization plan, establishes faculty mobility and resource development as one of its five general elements.

The present investigation employs Churchill´s (1979) approach in order to develop a faculty questionnaire that exhibited content validity (Haynes, Richard & Kubany, 1995). We began our research with a review of RBV, human capital, services and faculty internationalization literature (books, articles, studies, reports, doctoral thesis), together with internationalization instruments, and UDEM`s business school secondary data (e.g. annual reports, strategic internationalization plans). According to Worthington and Whitaker (2006) survey questions and constructs should be developed based on an examination of the literature in order to enhance content validity of a survey.

Thereafter, we decided to include two methods of indicator validation: a selection of academic deans and a panel of experts, in order to select indicators based on the practice and theory. We conducted qualitative interviews with UDEM´s business school Dean, Academic Department Deans (Accounting and Finance, Administration and Economics), Internationalization Department Dean, and Internationalization Department Coordinator, in order to seek information about various aspects of the internationalization of faculty (e.g. elements, measurements). Additionally, we sent the instrument to an international group of higher education experts. The expert group was formed by nine academics and practitioners in the field

[7] 2009 Heiskell Award for Innovation in International Education for its Strategic Plan for the Internationalization of UDEM.
[8] Intercultural competence coursework program where bachelor students take three cocurricular courses before, during, and after the study abroad experience
[9] FIMPES = Federation of Private Mexican Institutions of Higher Education, ANUIES= Mexican Association of Universities and Institutions of Higher Education.
[10] SACS= Southern Association of Colleges and Schools.
[11] AACSB= Association to Advance Collegiate School of Business.

as showed in table 9. They were asked to review the questionnaire´s content and to rank, in a scale from "not relevant" to "highly relevant", each segment of the questionnaire. Their recommendations were highly appreciated and allowed us to have a more accurate and valid instrument. We employed an expert sampling, because we wanted to have a sample of persons with known or demonstrable experience and expertise in higher education internationalization (Beerkens et al., 2010). Moreover, expert review can provide feedback that will further enhance the content validity of the survey items (Worthington & Whitaker, 2006).

Table 9 List of experts on higher education.

Name	Institution	Main responsabilities regarding internationalization
Jocelyne Gacel-Avila	University of Guadalajara (Mexico)	She has a Ph.D. in Higher Education specialized in Internationalization of Higher Education and is currently a professor and researcher at the University of Guadalajara. She's author and coordinator of more than 14 books and 70 scientific publications. She is considered a world expert on internationalization of higher education. Coordinator and author of the World Bank publication: "Higher Education in Latin America: The International Dimension." She has collaborated or been a part of the following institutions: IMHE, OCDE, CONAHEC, AMPEI, UNESCO, NAFSA, World Bank, ACA, among others.
John K Hudzik	Michigan State University (USA)	He is a NAFSA Senior Scholar for Internationalization. A former Vice President in Global Engagement. And Dean of International studies and Programs.
Nico Jooste	Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University (South Africa)	He is the Senior Director of the Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University International Education Office. He was selected by AIEA as an International Education Provocateur, placing him on the list of recognized world leaders in the field of Higher Education and Internationalization.

Name	Institution	Main responsabilities regarding internationalization
Hans de Wit	Universita Cattolica Sacro Cuore in Milan, (Italy) School of Economics and Management of the Amsterdam University (Netherlands)	He is the director of the Center of Higher Education Internationalization at the Universita Cattolica Sacro Cuore in Milan, Italy and a professor of Internationalization of Higher Education at the School of Economics and Management of the Amsterdam University of Applied Sciences. He's also a private consultant of the De Wit International Higher Education Consultancy.
Francisco Marmolejo	The World Bank	Dr. Marmolejo is the World Bank's Lead Tertiary Education Specialist and Coordinator of its Network of Higher Education Specialists. He serves as the World Bank's focal point on the topic of higher education, and provides advice and support to country-level related projects. He has conducted doctoral work at the National Autonomous University of Mexico (UNAM).
Betty Leask	La Trobe University (Melbourne, Australia)	She is currently a Pro Vice-Chancellor teaching and Learning. She has a Doctorate in Education, is member of the following associations: Australian National Teaching Fellow, Editor-in-chief of Journal of Studies in International Education, Honorary Visiting Fellow at the Centre of Higher Education Internationalization, Visiting Professor at Leeds University, and Chair of IEAA Research Committee.
Darla K. Deardorff	Duke University (Durham, North Carolina, USA)	She is currently an executive director of the Association of International Education Administrators (a national professional organization based at Duke University), where she is a Research Scholar in the Program in Education. Her doctorate degree is on international education. She has published five books including as editor of The Sage handbook of Intercultural Competence.
Jos Beelen	Hogeschool van Amsterdam, School of Economics and	He is currently a full time professor at the Amsterdam University of Applied Sciences, some of his publications are about mobility, and internationalization of curriculum. He also wrote a book in 2007 for the European Association for

Name	Institution	Main responsabilities regarding internationalization
	Management, Centre for Applied Research on Economics & Management (CAREM) (Amsterdam, Netherlands)	International Education (EAIE) called Implementing Internationalisation at Home.
Elspeth Jones	Leeds Beckett University (United Kingdom)	She is currently: Emerita Professor of the Internationalization of Higher Education and International Education Consultant. Honorary Visiting Fellow and member of the Scientific Committee at the Center for Higher Education Internationalization at the Università del Sacro Coure, Milan, Italy. Chair, Board of Directors NCUK. Visiting Professor, University of Zagrab. Visiting Professor, Edge Hill University. Editorial board member, Journal of Studies in International Education.

Source: Self-devised.

In the next stage of the research design, results of the qualitative research and expert opinions were combined with the extant literature. An initial draft of the questionnaire was tested through interviews with three professors, one from each academic department (Accounting and Finance, Administration, and Economics). Selection of participants was based on their internationalization activities. Particular emphasis was given to clarity, validity, and relevance issues. Based on Worthington and Whitaker (2006), pilot studies provide feedback that will further enhance the content validity of the survey items.

3.1. Sample

The sample for this study includes faculty members across UDEM´s Business School who taught undergraduate and postgraduate students during spring 2014 semester. Participants include full-time and part-time professors, as well as, faculty having an administrative position.

Data was collected using an email structured self-administered questionnaire (appendix IV). Researchers argue that the merits of this technique are that the respondents are free to respond to the items in the questionnaire in terms of time constraint and content; and the

respondents are not under the control of the researcher as compared to face-to-face interviews (Arokiasamy, Ismail, Ahmad & Othman, 2011). The questionnaire was sent on March 2014 to all 111 faculty members across the Business School. The purpose of data collection was explained on the cover of the questionnaire together with instructions and assurance of the confidentiality of the data collected (appendix II). The language used in the instrument was Spanish.

Participants were contacted via telephone and electronic mail communications. Several reminding emails with the instructions and the instrument, were sent to faculty. Email senders included the researcher in charge of the investigation and the business school`s director. Additionally, a printed letter asking for faculty full-time participation was placed in full-time faculty offices. Finally, reminding telephone calls were sent to those who had not completed the instrument for any reasons. The study received eighty three responses (answered questionnaires), from a total of one hundred and eleven professors, producing a response rate of 74.77 per cent.

3.2. Operational measures

The questionnaire considers faculty human capital resources (general and specific) involved in internationalization activities, and faculty general characteristics. Questions, type of human capital resource, and scales, showed in table 10 and 11, are based on literature review (table 8). Scales employed consisted of a yes/no answer, a frequency answer from 1= Never to 4=5 or more times (according to the frequency of international activities carried out by UDEM´s professors), and other quantitative variables expressed by a number (e.g. number of intentional publications).

Table 10 Faculty internationalization human resource variables.

Topic	**Variables**	**Type of human capital resource General vs. specific (industry vs. firm)**	**Scale**
Support in students abroad programs	Organization of courses abroad for students	Firm-specific	1= Never, 2= 1-2 times, 3= 3-4 times, 4= 5 or more times
	Organization of academic trips abroad for students	Firm-specific	
	Participation on academic trips	Firm-specific	

	abroad for students		
English skills	English level	General	1= I don´t know it, 2= Basic level, 3= Intermediate level, 4= Advanced level
	Taught courses in English	General/Industry-specific	1= Yes, 2= No
Professional experience outside HEI	International experience outside HEI (companies, consulting projects, social service, politics, etc.)	General	1= Yes, 2=No
Employment of technological tools	International chats as a tool for internationalizing your course	Specific (firm and industry)	1= Yes, 2=No
	International forums as a tool for internationalizing your course	Specific (firm and industry)	
	International videoconferences for academic purposes	Specific (firm and industry) and General	
Participation in research activities	Number of international academic papers published	Industry-specific	Number
	Number of international books/chapters published	Industry-specific	Number
	Number of international conferences attended as speaker	Industry-specific	Number
	Served at an international professional committee as a reviewer of editor	Industry-specific	1= Yes, 2=No
	Member of an international professional or academic organization	Industry-specific	
	Participation with students on international projects	Specific (firm and industry)	
	Participation with colleagues on international research project	Industry-specific	
Visiting professor	Visiting professor	Firm-specific	1= Yes, 2=No
	Visiting professor hosting	Firm-specific	
Degrees and training abroad	Post-doctorate Doctorate Master Seminars, Courses, Certifications Language courses	Industry-specific Industry-specific General General General	1= Yes, 2=No
Home internationalization initiatives	Organization of international conferences	Firm-specific	1= Yes, 2=No
	Participation on COIL programs	Firm-specific	

Source: Self-devised.

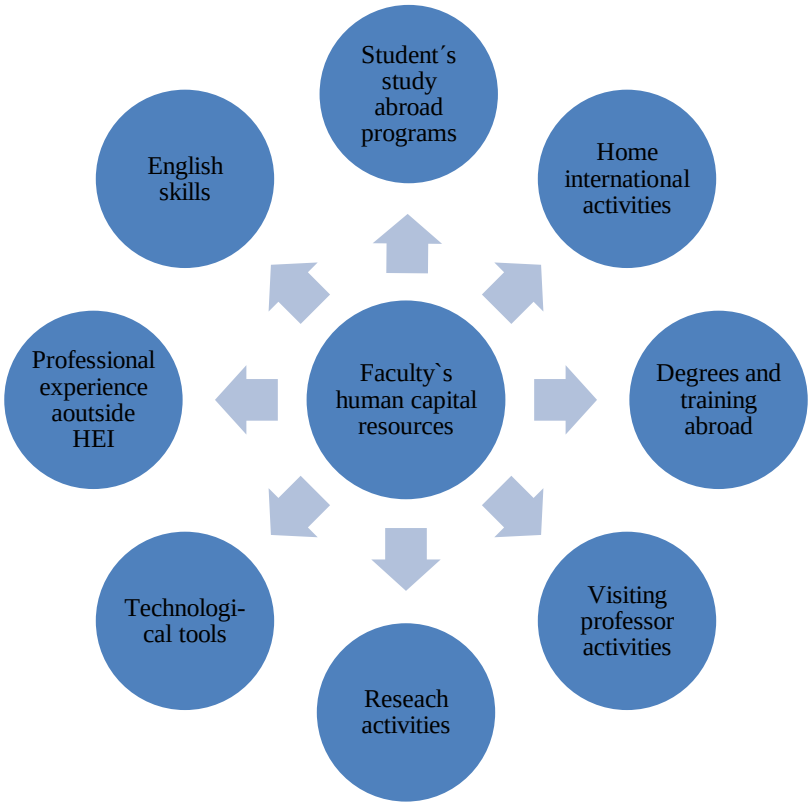
Table 11 Faculty general characteristics variables.

Variable	Scale
Nationality	1= Mexican 2= Foreigner
Number of class(es) taught in the semester Spring 2014	Number
Academic Department	1= Accounting/Finance 2= Administration 3= Economics
Type of contract	1= Full-time 2= Part-time
Gender	1=Female 2= Male
Age	1= 20-29 years old 2=30-39 years old 3=40-49 years old 4=50-59 years old 5= 60-69 years old 6= 70 or older
Last earned academic degree	1= Doctorate degree 2= Master degree
Working places	1= Educational institutions 2= Private enterprise 3= Government 4= Non-profit organization 5= Own business 6= Freelancer
Number of years working at UDEM´s business school	1= Less than 1 year 2= From 1 to 5 years 3= From 6 to 10 years 4= From 11 to 15 years 5= From 16 to 20 years 6= More than 20 years
Number of years as a teacher	1= Less than 1 year 2 = From 1 to 5 years 3= From 6 to 10 years 4= From 11 to 15 years 5= From 16 to 20 years 6= More than 20 years

Source: Self-devised.

Next, based on literature review and information obtained from UDEM`s Business School, we present a selection of variables extracted from table 8 that are related to faculty knowledge, skills and abilities for conducting international activities. They are show in figure 3.

Figure 3 Faculty human capital resources involved in the internationalization process of UDEM´s Business School.



Source: Self-devised.

Participation in students study abroad programs

Higher education studies and academic literature usually consider faculty participation on student´s study abroad programs, as part of the internationalization activities carried out by universities (ACE, 2012; California State University, 2008; Cort et al., 2005; Hult & Motz, 2012; Pynes, et al., 2011). In our study, we also consider the organization of the study abroad program, since there are faculty´s skills and abilities involved in this process also. We employed three variables: 1) the academic trips abroad that faculty organize but do not go, 2) the academic trips and courses were professors travel with a group of students, and 3) the courses abroad that faculty organize but do not go (usually during summer for undergraduate and graduate students and other intensive courses for graduate students only).

In the case of UDEM Business School, the organization of academic trips is usually the responsibility of the business school`s International Department and the faculty, but it is the

professor who usually establishes the relation (via telephone and emails) with the company, the institute or the place that students will visit, as part of a course or as part of an academic trip.

Faculty participation on academic trips is related to a visit to a certain place that a group of students have a special interest in. Professors´ participation on foreign courses resides on accompanying a group of students for a summer course abroad. We consider both faculty type of participations (trips and courses) due to fact that there are few faculty that participates on these activities and must of the time are the same professors.

The organization of courses taught abroad is usually the responsibility of administrative staff (academic program directors) that are also faculty that teach in the business schools. We wanted to separate the organization of academic trips that are usually short term voyages (one week) to the organization of a course abroad, since we consider the activities and abilities involved in each activities varies.

We selected the aforementioned variables in order to illustrate faculty´s human resources involved in the organization and participation of students´ academic trips and courses. In this case we can detect relational skills, together with a process knowledge that involves firm internal procedures and routines. These human resources have been categorized as firm-specific human resources since they are carried out internally by a group of people and using certain resources that make these activities very specific for a certain institution.

English skills

According to studies, proficiency of a foreign language together with the experience of teaching in a foreign language are used indicators of faculty´s foreign language skills (Balbachevsky, et al., 2009; California State University, 2008; Central Connecticut State University, 2009; Dewey & Duff , 2009; Green, 2012; IMPI, 2012; NVAO, 2011; University of Minessota Duluth, 2013).

For our research, the mastery of English as a foreign language was chosen among several options. We also asked for the mastery of other foreign languages (French, Italian, Portuguese, and German), but very few professors were proficient in other foreign languages and none of them have employed foreign languages other than English for academic or professional purposes. For this reason, we just considered the English. Additionally, English is the most common language in Business for teaching and researching, and is usually the first second language of Mexican faculty due to geographical proximity. Moreover, teaching a course in English at the institution or elsewhere was also taken into consideration, since it is highly related to the academic profession and to the English proficiency.

Both variables are related to the knowledge that faculty have regarding English as a foreign language. Additionally, teaching in English is also related to faculty skills and abilities to conduct such activity.

According to human capital literature, English is considered a general human capital element since it is utilized in other institutions and firms, even though in the case of higher education faculty, the majority of the time English is highly specialized and technical according the discipline and this sometimes will set English as an industry human capital element, together with the ability to teach in a foreign language.

Professional experience outside HEI

Besides teaching abroad or conducting research abroad, there are some faculty that have professional experience outside higher education institutions that ask for certain skills and knowledge but also have given them general business knowledge, skills and abilities that can be highly appreciated by business school students. This is the reason several studies have asked their faculty about their participation abroad in a wide range of activities as: international company projects, consulting projects, service agency missions, among others (Agudelo, et al., 2014; Brandenburg & Federkeil, 2007; California State University, 2008; Egron-Polak & Hudson, 2014; Hult & Motz, 2012; IMPI, 2012; Locke & Bennion, 2010; University of Minessota Duluth, 2013).

In our study, we first asked faculty separately to indicate if they have experience abroad with company projects, consulting projects and social services activities. But some of the answers, especially regarding social service participation, were not representative. For this reason, we grouped them into one question which was asking if faculty had professional experience outside higher education institutions. We consider the international experience outside of HEI important because it gives faculty the knowledge, skills and abilities to give better classes at the university based on contemporary business practices and examples. This human capital resource is categorized as general, since it is transferable across other firms and business schools.

Employment of technological tools

The employment of technological tools in academic activities is sometimes very helpful for internationalizing a course (Pynes, et al., 2011). There are several other tools such as international forums, chats, videoconferences, and wikis. Faculty needs to obtain certain knowledge and skills in order to employ them in their courses.

With the aim of measuring the employment of technological tools as a means of internationalizing a course, we asked faculty about their employment of forums, chats and videoconferences (the selection of this tools is used because they are the most employed technological tools among professors at UDEM´s Business School).

The fact that faculty employ a technological tool for internationalizing a course, demonstrate their knowledge and technical skills regarding the technology employed internally in the business school as technological platforms, together with the ability to manage the different tools that these technologies possessed. The human capital resources involved here are firm-specific and in some cases industry-specific if there are a group of educational institutions employing the same technological tools or platforms.

Participation in research activities

Faculty research activities are the most common variables considered in literature. Authors have studied the number of publications, conferences, research projects, service to international academic boards or committees, and the membership of international academic or professional association (e.g. Agudelo, et al., 2014; Arimoto, 2010; Balbachevsky et al., 2009; Brandenburg & Federkeil, 2007; California State University, 2008; Cort et al., 2005; Dewey & Duff, 2009; Egron-Polak & Hudson, 2014; Finkelstein et al., 2013; Huang, 2009; Hult & Motz, 2012; Locke & Bennion, 2010; Nuffic, 2012; RIHE, 2008; Pynes, et al., 2011; University of Minessota Duluth, 2013; Vabø, 2010).

Our research activities were divided into two groups according to variable type (quantitative and qualitative). The quantitative research activities (ratio variables) are related to the number of academic articles and books published, together with the number of international conferences attended. The qualitative research activities (dichotomous variables) consist of faculty participation in international professional committees such as a reviewer or editor, the membership of international organizations, and the involvement on international research projects with other academic partners and students.

The aforementioned variables expressed the knowledge, skills and abilities that professors need in order to conduct those research activities. These variables are considered as industry-specific human capital resources due to the fact that they are highly valuable in the market of higher education, but not in other firms or industries in the market. The collaboration on research projects with students sometimes can be considered as firm-specific human capital resource since it is an internal activity with internal processes and resources that can be very unique.

Visiting professor

In higher education institutions, faculty may teach abroad as a visiting professor (ACE, 2012; Agudelo, et al., 2014; Cort et al., 2005; Criswell , 2014; Dewey & Duff, 2009; Egron-Polak & Hudson, 2014; Kwok & Arpan, 2002; IMPI, 2012; Javalgi & Grossman, 2014;

University of Minessota Duluth, 2013) or receive a visiting professor from abroad to teach part or an entire course, or conduct research that works very close to the home faculty (ACE, 2012; Pynes, et al., 2011).

We considered both activities, the fact that a professor spends time as a visiting professor at an institution abroad, and also hosting a professor from abroad at UDEM, since both are carried out by UDEM´s faculty and are internationalization activities that require particular KSAs embedded in faculty human capital.

Faculty who practice these activities have to coordinate their activities (teaching/research activities) with the hosting institution, so they are considered as firm-specific human resource skills.

Degrees and training abroad

The academic degrees and training abroad give faculty the tools to conduct a wide range of activities at the university and in their professional life in general. This is the reason that researchers have studied them in terms of their impact in an institution's internationalization (Agudelo, et al., 2014; Brandenburg & Federkeil, 2007; California State University, 2008; Cort et al., 2005; Dewey & Duff, 2009; Green, 2012; Huang, 2009; IMPI, 2012; Locke & Bennion, 2010; Nuffic, 2012; Pynes, et al., 2011; University of Minessota Duluth, 2013).

According to Ion (2014), factors associated with successful careers for women researchers are: training for research, interest and motivation, the choices that they have made throughout their careers, the different stages in their academic careers, the time spent abroad, and the role of 'mentors' in assisting the development of their academic profile.

In our questionnaire, we asked faculty to indicate whether they had studied their master or doctorate degree abroad, of if they did post-doc studies abroad; we also included all professional courses, seminar and certifications abroad, together with language courses abroad. The education abroad variables exemplify the knowledge, skills and experience that faculty acquire through

these studies. Except for the PhD and post-doc studies, the rest are general human capital resources, deployable across diverse types of firms and institutions. PhD and post-doc studies are industry-specific human capital resources, since they are highly valuable and transferrable at other educational institutions or organizations.

Home internationalization activities

There are several international activities in which faculty participate at home institutions (California State University, 2008; IMPI, 2012; Nuffic, 2012). In the case of UDEM, professors participate in the organization of international events as congresses and workshops. Additionally, some of them participate on Collaborative Online Programs (COIL), which consists of teaching a course at a home institution in collaboration with a professor of a foreign institution, sharing program content and having online sessions through the course. These variables describe the knowledge, skills and experience to conduct international activities at home.

These activities involve the coordination of internal administrative and academic departments, together with intuition's procedures and practices, making them a firm-specific human capital resource.

We decided not to include in the study several international variables shown in table 8. Some of these variables are the international research awards, since only one professor had obtained such recognition and because they are the result of a certain international activity (international research) and not the activity per se; we did not consider international research funds since none of the professors had obtained international funds from an international organization; additionally, having international students in class or including international topics in courses were not considered since they did not help to discriminate among faculty, since the majority of respondents indicated that they had international students in their classes and included international topics in their courses. These are more international variables related to curriculum internationalization than faculty internationalization.

In addition to the aforementioned variables, we asked faculty other general questions related to nationality, number of classes taught, type of contract, gender, age, last earned academic degree, work experience, number of years at UDEM´s business school and number of years as a professor. Table 11 shows these variables.

3.3. Statistical techniques

Regarding statistical techniques, the first stage of the study uses two Factor Analysis techniques: Principal Components Analysis (PCA) and Multiple Correspondence Analysis (MCA) in order to examine the interrelationships between the aforementioned variables and then to explain them in terms of their common underlying dimensions (factors). PCA was employed to summarize the information contained in the full set of research quantitative (ratio) variables into a small number of subsets of factors. MCA was used to group the remaining qualitative (dichotomous and ordinal) variables. The second stage uses the factor scores as continuous variables and faculty characteristics (department and contact) as categorical variables to conduct a Two-Step Cluster Analysis and contingency analysis in order to describe the characteristics of each faculty group.

4. Results

The purpose of the study is to identify faculty human capital resources involved in internationalization process of UDEM business school and to determine if they may represent a sustained competitive advantage for the school. Additionally, we wanted to describe the faculty groups according to their common international human capital resources. Principal component analysis, multiple correspondence analysis and cluster analysis have been applied to faculty human capital resources collected through a questionnaire.

In terms of respondents´ profiles: 47 % were males and 53% females, 69 % were part-time professors and 31% were full-time academics, 28% were professors from the Accounting/Finance Department, 59% from Administration and 13% from Economics. Only 6% of the professors were foreigners. Additional information reveals that 57% of the faculty is less

than 50 years old; 76% have a master degree and 24% have a PhD; 83% mentioned they have international experience in companies and 45% indicated they have their own business. Up to 47% of the participants are relatively new in the business schools since they have not been teaching more than 5 years in the institution. Finally, academics teach approximately two courses per semester.

In the following, we will describe the steps used when applying statistical techniques. First, we wanted to have a valid instrument that measures what it is intended to measure. In order to accomplish instrument validity, the scale employed in this study was based on the extant literature, on experts' opinions and a pre-test of the instrument. Construct validity was determined by examining the correlations among variables making up the construct and convergent validity was examined through factor analysis and simple correlations.

Factorial Principal Component Analysis was first conducted with varimax rotation to determine how the research numeric variables (number of published papers, number of published books o chapters, and number of conferences attended) loaded on the research construct. One factor regarding research activities (tables 2.5-2.9) was extracted from the analysis. The Eigen value of the factor was greater than one. The total cumulative variation explained by the three variables was 66 percent. KMO Bartlett´s measure was .663 and literature indicates that a value greater than 0.5 is acceptable (Kaiser, 1974). Bartlett´s test is highly significant ($p< 0.001$), and therefore, factor analysis is appropriate (table 12).

Table 12 Principal component analysis. KMO and Bartlett´s test.

KMO and Bartlett´s Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy		.663
Bartlett´s Test of Sphericity	Aprox. Chi-square	54.788
	gl	3
	Sig.	.000

The reliability score is a measure of the internal consistency of the items making up the construct. It was assessed by coefficient alpha, which according to table 13 was .657, very close to .70 recommended by Nunnally (1978). Even though smaller values than .70 in coefficient alpha are accepted in exploratory research where a small alpha score can be due to a reduced number of questions (Johnson & Wichern, 2007).

Table 13 Internal consistency analysis.

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach´s Alpha	N of Items
.653	3

The communalities, represent the proportion of each variable's variance that can be explained by the factors. According to communalities (table 14) before and after extraction, we can say that 60.5% of the variance associated with the number of publications in journals variable is common, or shared, variance. Another way to look at these communalities is in terms of the proportion of variance explained by the underlying factors. Variables with high extraction values, as num_conferences (.735) are well represented in the common factor space, while variables with low values are not well represented. In this example, we don't have any particularly low values.

Table 14 Principal component analysis. Communalities.

Communalities

	Initial	Extraction
Num_int_pub_journals	1.000	.605
Num_book_or_chapters	1.000	.631
Num_conferences	1.000	.735

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.

The total variance explained in table 15 shows the Eigen values associated with each factor; it also presents the variance explained by that particular linear component and also the Eigen value in terms of the percentage of variance explained; so, factor 1 explains 65.698% of the total variance.

Table 15 Principal component analysis. Total variance explained.

Total Variance Explained

Factor	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	1.971	65.698	65.698	1.971	65.698	65.698
2	.607	20.237	85.935			
3	.422	14.065	100.000			

Extraction Method. Principal Component Analysis.

The component matrix presented (table 16) contains the loadings of each variable onto each factor. The SPSS has extracted one component with three components: 1) num_conferences (.857), 2) num_book_or_chapters (.794), and num_int_pub_journals (.778). In fact, results were similar to Vabø, (2010) who report that from 1991 to 2000 there has been a substantial increase in all types of professional journeys (conferences, guest lectures, study and research visits, peer reviews, research co-operation), although they are mostly related to conferences and research collaboration.

Table 16 Principal component analysis. Component matrix.

Component Matrix[a]

	Component
	1
Num_conferences	.857
Num_book_or_chapters	.794
Num_int_pub_journals	.778

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.

a. 1 factor extracted.

Based on the PCA regarding the quantitative research variables, we can state that the skills and abilities involved in the presentation of a study in an international conference, the international academic publications on journals and the books or book chapters published by faculty, are highly valued in the higher education market, and for this reason they are industry-related human resource competitive advantage elements for UDEM Business School.

Afterwards, we conducted a Multiple Correspondence Analysis (MCA) for the rest of the categorical variables related to the KSAs: the participation and organization of students abroad programs, English proficiency, the experience of teaching in English, professional experience outside HEI, employment of technological tools (chats, forums and videoconferences), participation on the rest of research activities, participation as a visiting professor, hosting a visiting professor, academic degrees and training abroad, and participation on home internationalization activities.

Multiple Correspondence Analysis (Jobson, 1992; Lebart, Morineau, & Wardwick, 1984; Tenenhaus & Young, 1984) is a factor analysis method, which summarizes a set of categorical variables into a small number of orthogonal variables. Graphical displays are used to summarize the proximities between the subjects and to show the associations between the categorical variables. The subjects are represented in two-dimensional graphic displays (axes). Additionally,

it is particularly relevant in studies where qualitative data is collected, and often paired with quantitative data (Aktürk, Gün, & Kumuk, 2007).

According to MCA results (table 17), the total cumulative variation explained by the two dimensions was 38.15 percent 24.78 the first dimension and 13.36 the second one. The reliability was assessed by coefficient alpha, which was .855 for the first dimension and .691 for the second dimension.

Table 17 Multiple correspondence analysis. Model summary.

Model summary

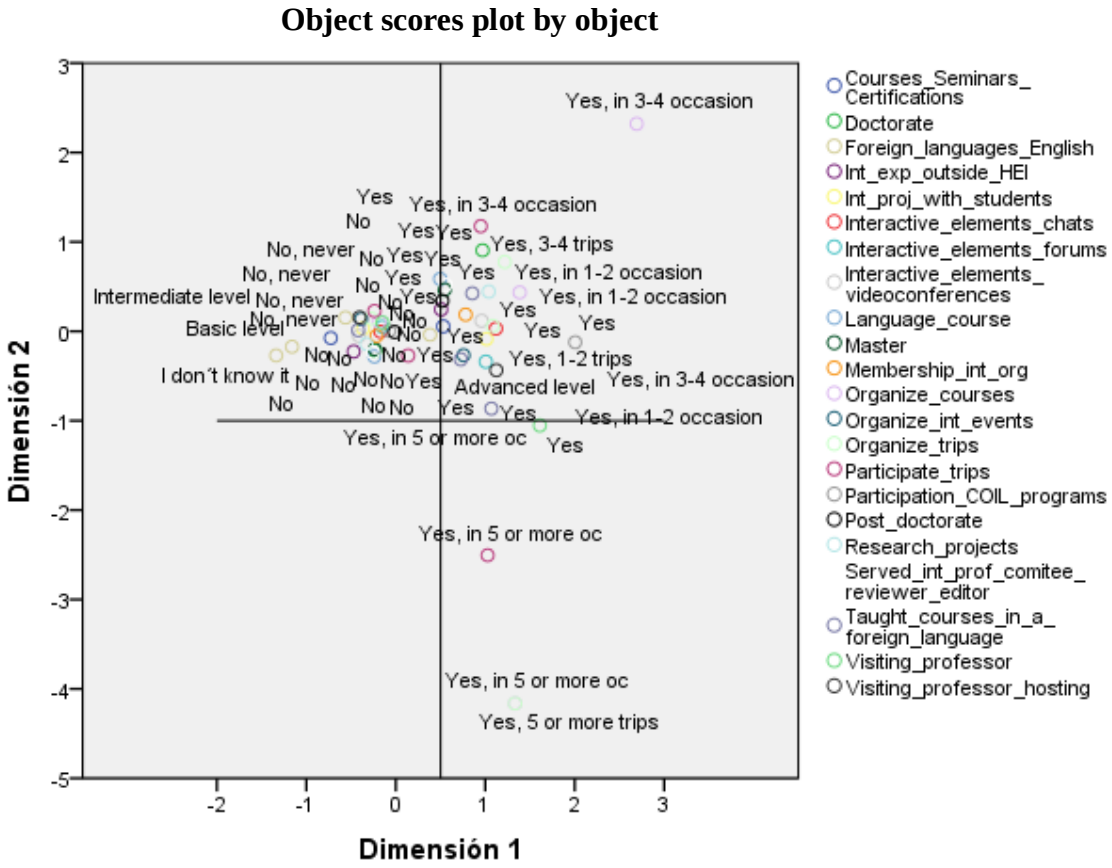
Dimension	Cronbach´s Alpha	Variance Accounted For		
		Total (Eigenvalue)	Inertia	% of Variance
1	.855	5.452	.248	24.781
2	.691	2.941	.134	13.368
Total		8.393	.381	
Mean	.798[a]	4.196	.191	19.075

a. Mean Cronbach´s Alpha is based on the mean Eigenvalue.

In the Object scores plot by object figure (figure 4), the first dimension (the horizontal axis) discriminates the "yes" from the "no" answers. This can be observed in the plot since "yes" answers are on one end of the horizontal axis and the "no" answers are on the other. It reflects the international activities that faculty carry out or not, that reflect the human capital resources needed to achieve those activities. The second dimension (the vertical axis) first separates the variables related to firm-specific human capital resources as the organization and participation of courses and trips abroad from the rest of the objects; and second, if we look at the variables with values below zero, these include student-faculty interaction variables all specific human capital resources such as: visiting professor, international projects with students, the use of forums in classes, the organization of international events, the participation on COIL programs, teaching on

English, and faculty organization and participation in students` abroad trips. The other consideration, regarding more student-related activities may be a distinctive feature of the university, since it is a private, medium size university that fosters a close relation between students and professors.

Figure 4 Multiple correspondence analysis. Object scores plot by object.



The discrimination measures (table 18) show the variance of the quantified variable in that dimension. It has a maximum value of 1, which is achieved because the object scores fall into mutually exclusive groups and all object scores within a category are identical. In our case all discrimination measures are lower than 1. The first dimension has the largest average discrimination, and in our case, as it was already mentioned, is the one that separates the “yes” answers from the “no” answers; the second dimension has the second largest average

discrimination and in our study is the separation of the student-faculty interaction variables from the rest.

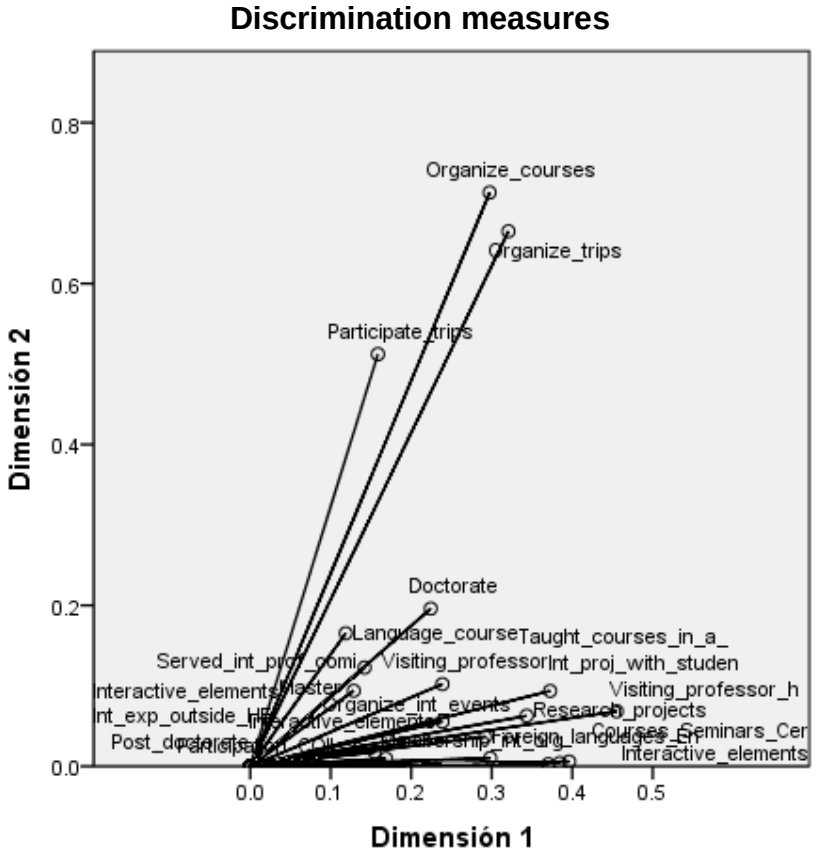
The discrimination measures plot (figure 5) shows that the first dimension is related to the interactive elements videoconferences, visiting professor hosting and courses seminars certifications variables. These variables have large discrimination measures on the first dimension and small discrimination measures on the second dimension. Thus, for these variables, the categories are spread far apart along the first dimension only, showing a relation with teaching activities in the case of the employment of videoconferences and hosting a visiting professor for teaching a course or part of it, and training based on the courses, seminars and certifications that faculty completed abroad. Additionally, the skills beyond these activities are related to relational skills, and communication skills for the case of videoconferences and professor visiting hosting and training and education, showing somewhat of a group of general skills beyond these activities, even though they are industry and specific human capital resources.

Moreover, this first dimension is also related to other, teaching, research and education variables that had a lower value. The first group of variables is teaching courses in English (.373), international projects with students (.370), and research projects (.343). The second group will be composed of: foreign language English (.298), organization of international events (.292), and international experience outside HEI (.239). The third group is: employment of chats (.192), membership of international organizations (.168), employments of forums (.155), participation on COIL programs (.151), and master degree (.129) (table 18).

Participating in trips, organizing courses, and organizing trips have a large value on the second dimension but a small value on the first dimension. As a result, participating in trips is the closest to the second dimension, agreeing with the observation from the object scores plot that the second dimension seems to separate the faculty that participate on the trips and courses abroad from the rest. These variables are firm-specific human resources and carried out by a certain group of faculty.

Visiting professor, doctorate, and language courses have relatively similar values on both dimensions, indicating discrimination in both the first and second dimension. The variables served in international professional committee as reviewer or editor and post-doctorate, located very close to the origin, does not discriminate at all in the first two dimensions.

Figure 5 Multiple Correspondence Analysis. Discrimination measures plot.

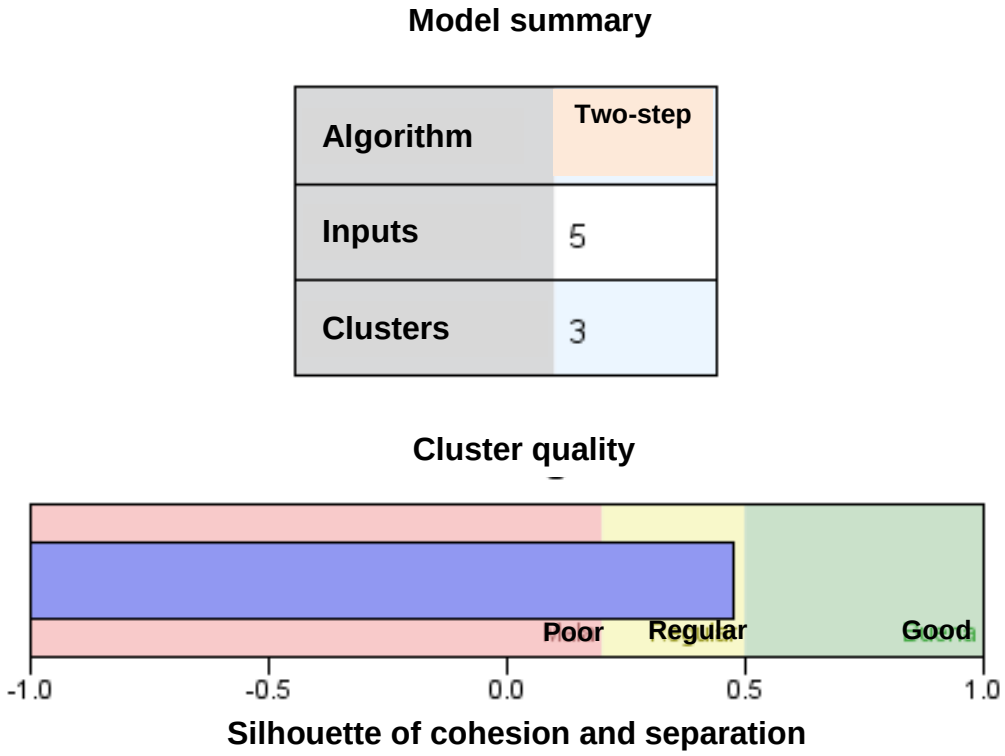


Afterwards, we did a two-step cluster analysis in order to reveal natural groupings (or clusters) from the data set, and due to the fact that this technique allowed us to create clusters based on both categorical and continuous variables, and the selection of the number of clusters is automatic. We employed the three factors extracted from the PCA and MCA. We add two demographic variables (contract and department), in order to better explain clusters groups. Other demographic variables: nationality, gender, age, level of education, number of years working at

UDEM and number of year as a teacher were not considered since they affect negatively the in overall cluster model quality.

The model summary figure (figure 6) indicates that three clusters were found based on the five input features that we selected. The silhouette measure of cohesion and separation is a measure of the clustering solution´s overall goodness-of-fit. In our case, the cluster quality chart indicates that the overall model quality is 0.5, which is a fair, almost good solution. Results (table 18) show that the largest cluster has 37.3% of the clustered cases, and the smallest 30.1%. The number of cases in each cluster is very similar: 27 in the first, 25 in the second, and 31 in the third, which is good.

Figure 6 Two-step cluster analysis. Model summary.

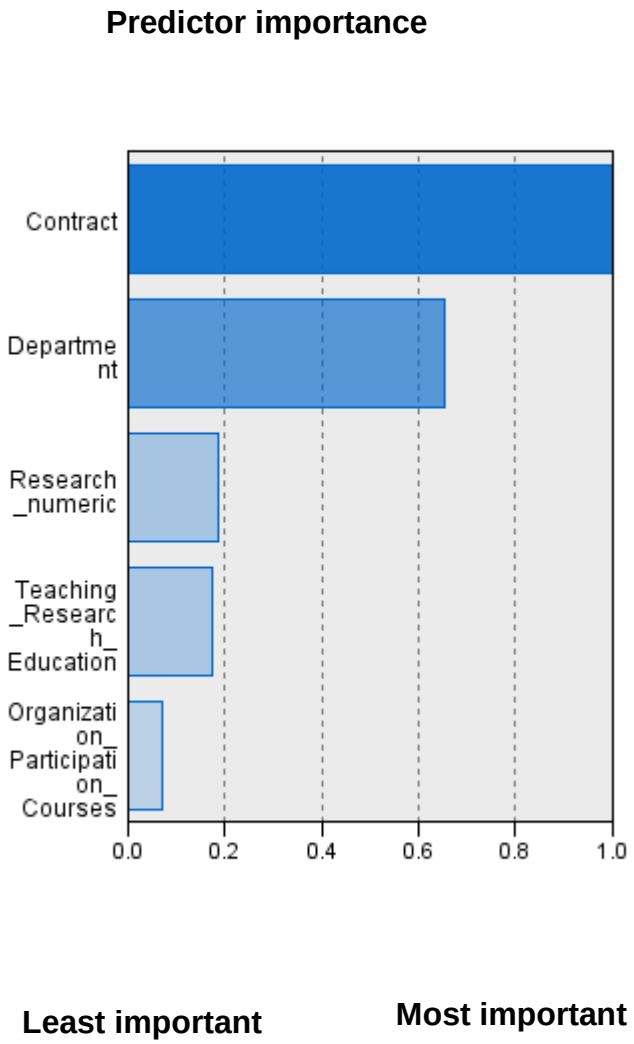


Discrimination measures	Dimension		Mean
	1	2	
Taught_courses_in_English	.373	.094	.23
Foreign_languages_English	.298	.010	.154
Served_int_prof_comitee_reviewer_editor	.142	.123	.132
Research_projects	.343	.063	.203
Membership_int_org	.168	.010	.089
Visiting_professor	.239	.102	.170
Int_exp_outside_HEI	.239	.055	.147
Post_doctorate	.007	.003	.005
Doctorate	.224	.196	.210
Master	.129	.094	.111
Courses_Seminars_Certifications	.385	.004	.194
Language_course	.119	.165	.142
Int_proj_with_students	.370	.003	.186
Visiting_professor_hosting	.455	.068	.262
Participation_COIL_programs	.151	.001	.076
Interactive_elements_forums	.155	.018	.086
Interactive_elements_chats	.192	.000	.096
Interactive_elements_videoconferences	.396	.006	.201
Organize_int_events	.292	.037	.164
Organize_courses	.297	.713	.505
Organize_trips	.321	.665	.493
Participate_trips	.159	.512	.335

Total	5.452	2.941	4.196
% of Variance	24.781	13.368	19.075

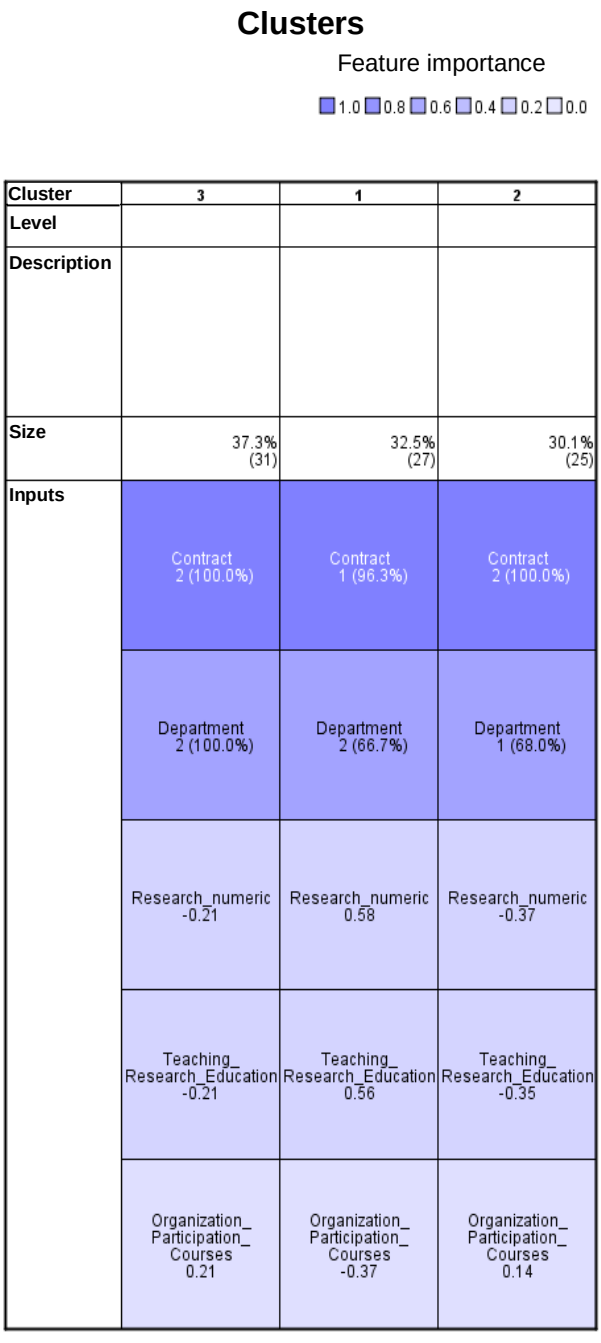
The predictor importance figure (figure 7) shows an overview of the variable's overall importance for the clustering solution. For our study, this is the order of predictor importance: 1) contract, 2) department, 3) research_numeric, 4) teaching_research_education, and 5) organization_participation_courses. This means that faculty international activities may vary according their type of contract (full-time vs. part-time) and academic disciplines (academic department). This may be the reason that the majority of the faculty of cluster 1 are full-time professors sharing a high research activity, compared to cluster 2 and 3 where part-time professors opt for other types of activities.

Figure 7 Two-step cluster analysis. Predictor importance.



The cluster figure (figure 8) presents the structure of the revealed clusters sorted from left to right by cluster size, so they are currently ordered 3, 1, and 2. We can see a description of the three clusters, including their relative sizes. Furthermore, the output shows each clustering variable´s mean values across the three clusters as well as their relative importance. Darker shades denote the variable´s greater importance for the clustering solution. Comparing the results, we can see that the most important variable for each of the clusters is contract, followed by department, research numeric, teaching research education, and organization participation courses trips.

Figure 8 Two-step cluster analysis. Clusters.



According to cluster figure (figure 8) and tables 19, 20, and 21: faculty in cluster 1 (column 2) are full-time professors; the majority from the Administration Department (66.7%), are researchers that used to publish and present their work in international forums, and who are highly involved in other research and teaching activities; they also have degrees from abroad, but they do not participate in courses and trips abroad with students. They possessed industry-specific human resources together with other firm-related human resources (e.g. international projects with students, organization of international events). Faculty in cluster 2 (column 3) are part-time professors, mostly from the Accounting/Finance Department (68%), who used to participate in trips and courses abroad with students and do not volunteer for research activities or other teaching or training activities. They are faculty with a low firm-specific human capital resources. Faculty in cluster 3 (column 1) are also part-time professors, all from the Administration Department (100%) they participate actively on the trips and courses abroad with students. They are considered as possessing a higher level of firm-specific human capital resources.

Table 19 Two-step cluster analysis. Distribution of cases.

Distribution of cases in clusters

		N	% of Combined	% of Total
Cluster	1	27	32.5%	32.5%
	2	25	30.1%	30.1%
	3	31	37.3%	37.3%
	Combined	83	100.0%	100.0%
Total		83		100.0%

Table 20 Two-step cluster analysis. Cluster count according academic department.

Department

		Accounting/Finance		Administration		Economics	
		Count	Percentage	Count	Percentage	Count	Percentage
Cluster	1	6	26.1%	18	36.7%	3	27.3%
	2	17	73.9%	0	0.0%	8	72.7%
	3	0	0.0%	31	63.3%	0	0.0%
	Combined	23	100.0%	49	100.0%	11	100.0%

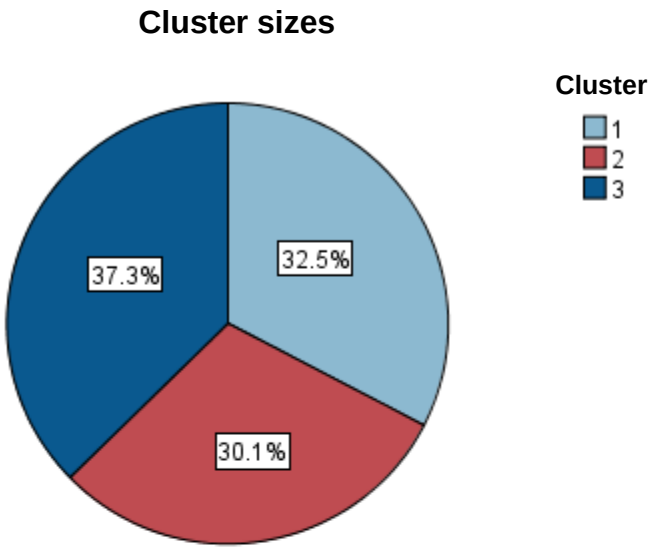
Table 21 Two-step cluster analysis. Cluster count according type of contract.

Contract

		Full-time		Part-time	
		Count	Percentage	Count	Percentage
Cluster	1	26	100.0%	1	1.8%
	2	0	0.0%	25	43.9%
	3	0	0.0%	31	54.4%
	Combined	26	100.0%	57	100.0%

The cluster size (figure 8) shows the frequency of each cluster. Each slice in the pie reveals the number of records assigned to the cluster. In our case, 32.5% (27) of the records were assigned to the first cluster, 30.1% (25) to the second, and 37.3% (31) to the third. Information regarding the size of conglomerates of the two-step cluster analysis is also showed on figure 9.

Figure 9 Two-step cluster. Size of conglomerates.



Size of Smallest Cluster	25 (30.1%)
Size of Largest Cluster	31 (37.3%)
Ratio of Sizes: Largest Cluster to Smallest Cluster	1.24

In order to offer a better description of each cluster we compared the belonging cluster group data of faculty with the rest of the nominal variables not included in the cluster such as nationality, gender, age, degree, years working at UDEM´s Business School, and years working as a teacher employing contingency tables, together with chi-square or Fisher test.

Result should be interpreted based on Fisher´s exact test p values and not Chi square analysis, when more 20% of the expected counts cells are less than 5 and all individual expected counts are 1 or greater" (Yates, Moore & McCabe, 1999, p. 734).

According to results we cannot interpret and use the cells in the contingency tables of the rest of the nominal variables -mentioned above -, to describe cluster groups, since their chi-square p value or Fisher p value were higher than .05. P value results are the following: nationality (Fisher p= .177), gender (chi-square p= .451), age (Fisher p= .176), degree (chi-square p= .153), number of years working at UDEM (Fisher p= .227), and number of years as teacher (Fisher p= .435).

5. Discussion: Faculty general human capital resources vs. specific human capital resources and their consideration as a sustained competitive advantage

Many strategy scholars have suggested that resources and capabilities may take the form of knowledge and skills that are embedded in people (e.g. Coff, 1997; Hatch & Dyer, 2004). According to Lepak and Snell (1999) employees own their own human capital; firms seek to protect themselves from the transfer of their human capital investments to other firms; this is the reason why human resource researchers argue that investments in the development of generic skills are incurred by workers, whereas investments in firm-specific training are incurred by the firm (Becker, 1964; Flamholtz & Lacey, 1981; Schultz, 1961). On the other hand, the resource-based view of the firm emphasizes the strategic relevance of knowledge based competencies (human capital) in terms of their direct link to achieving and sustaining a competitive advantage; core competencies should be developed internally while other may be outsourced; core competencies are those that are valuable, rare, inimitable and nontransferable (Barney, 1991; Prahalad & Hamel, 1990; Wernerfelt, 1984).

However, human capital is not owned, or even fully controlled by the firm. Employees are free to quit and take their human capital to alternative employers. As a consequence, human capital can be isolated only to the extent that employees have little ability or willingness to leave the firm (Campbell et al., 2012). In fact, firms may lose their most critical assets if employees

become dissatisfied, underpaid, or unmotivated (Coff, 1997). The threat of turnover is even more serious for general human assets. In human capital theory it is assumed that general skills are traded in competitive labor markets (Becker, 1993). Thus firms should bid up wages so that the profits flow to workers rather than stockholders. However, if firms are able to control turnover, they may still be able to achieve an advantage. This threat of turnover is so serious that some believe that general skills cannot be a source of advantage, suggesting that specificity is a requirement for strategic assets (Amit & Schoemaker, 1993). However, general human assets can be the source of advantage if they are rare, have no strategic substitutes, and the firm can retain them over time (Coff, 1997).

The importance of limiting employee mobility in supporting competitive advantage has led strategy scholars to emphasize firm-specific human capital. The logic underlying this assumption is that firm specific-skills have limited applicability to other firms, resulting in a large difference between the use value of workers´ firm-specific skills in the focal firm and the use value of these same skills in alternative firms. The low use value affects the wages that alternative firms are willing to pay for these skills in the labor market; thus, these skills have low exchange value. Similarly, because general human capital is broadly applicable, it has high exchange value. The assumed low exchange value of firm-specific human capital in the labor market creates a dilemma for workers.

According to Becker´s (1964) investment framework, workers can choose to invest in either firm-specific or general skills. Thus firm-specific skills represent foregone investment in general skills. By investing in firm specific skills, workers increase their value to their employers, without accompanying increases in their exchange value in the labor market. If the focal firm pays workers a portion of their increased use value from firm-specific human capital (Becker, 1964), then workers face a dilemma when considering a move. External employers can offer compensation that reflects the exchange value of workers´ human capital, but the focal firm can offer compensation up to the use value of their human capital (both firm specific and general). If general human capital has a constant value across firms but firm-specific human capital has a higher value at the current employer, a moves requires sacrificing both the compensation for firm-specific skills and the opportunity costs. The logical conclusion is that firms can retain

workers with firm-specific human capital for less than the full use value. However, such skills do not necessarily prevent mobility. It is assumed that workers may move if they are willing to accept reduced wages (Campbell et al., 2012).

Campbell et al (2012) mention that from a strategic perspective, firm-specific human capital potentially functions as an isolating mechanism in two ways. First, workers with firm-specific human capital are less likely to leave voluntarily, and, therefore, they are less likely to take valuable general knowledge and capabilities to rival firms. Second, even when these workers do leave voluntarily, the firm-specific human capital they take with them cannot be perfectly deployed and utilized in rival firms. In other words, relying on firm-specific human capital enhances a firm´s ability to sustain advantage both because workers are less likely to leave and because, even if they do leave, they cannot easily apply their firm-specific knowledge elsewhere.

Interestingly, while strategy scholars typically assume that general human capital cannot be a source of competitive advantage, strategic human resource management scholars have acknowledged that general and industry-specific skills may lead to firm performance (Somaya, Williamson, & Lorinkova, 2008; Zenger, 1992). Such human capital can be valuable and rare and, thus, is important in its own right, but this literature does not theoretically link general human capital to sustained competitive advantage. Some argue that firms´ ability to attract and retain such workers represents their human resource practices and systems that may hold workers in place regardless of specificity (e.g. Lepak & Snell, 1999). In fact Lazear (2009) claims that general human capital creates more value than firm-specific human capital, when the incremental wage attributable to firm-specific skills is quite small, and, consequently, the productivity difference required for rivals to poach employees with firm-specific skills is also small. In this context the firm-specific human capital may not limit employee mobility.

According to the RBV sustained competitive advantage conditions that a resource must be valuable, rare, imperfectly imitable and not substitutable, together with human capital literature regarding the type of human capital resources (general vs. specific), and the Campbell et al. (2012, p.385) model entitled “Human Capital-Based Competitive Advantage Framework”. We have analyzed the three faculty clusters and determine if they represent a competitive parity

resource, a competitive advantage resource or a sustained competitive advantage resource (Barney and Wright, 1998) for UDEM Business School internationalization process.

Faculty in cluster 1 are valuable for the institution since they provide it with international recognition in rankings and accreditations, together with academic respect when faculty presents their work on international forums or publish their research in well-recognized publications. Additionally, they carried out other teaching activities that are firm-specific as the participation on international projects with students and the organization of international events. It may not be a rare resource since other business schools have faculty involved in research, but may be other institutions do not have faculty with a research background which is also involved in other firm-specific activities and possess international experience outside HEI. It is somehow imitable, even though the academic production of each business schools differs according to department objectives, research centers, among others; and the organization culture and history plays an important role here, since UDEM lately has focused its efforts on home internationalization activities as COIL programs, making this a differentiating element with other intuitions. Finally, in a certain way, UDEM´s faculty may be substitutable by other professors that have a research profile, but they cannot be totally substitutable due to the other firm-specific tasks that this group of faculty possesses.

This group of professors possesses general and specific (industry and firm) human capital resources. Their general human capital resources that make them valuable in the market are their English level, their professional experience outside HEI, and their academic degrees (MBAs and other business masters), and their foreign courses and certifications. Their industry specific human capital resources that make them valuable in the higher education market are their capacity to teach courses in English, their research activity (publications, conferences) and their academic degrees (PhD and post-doctorate). Finally, they possess firm-specific human capital resources as the employment of technological tools in their courses, their participation on students´ research projects, their visiting professor activities and their collaboration on home internationalization initiatives as the organization of international events and COIL programs. We think that this faculty cluster can offer competitive parity and competitive advantage for UDEM. Moreover, when certain firm facilities, organization culture or faculty reputation are involved in

certain activities, they it can be imperfectly imitable, and a highly recognized faculty may not be substitutable, ending with a sustained competitive advantage resource for the institution.

Professors in cluster 2 can be considered valuable for the institution's internationalization process, since they exploit the opportunities outside by finding and organizing student foreign courses and trips. They are not rare since they are professors working for local/international companies in the city of Monterrey, even though they can be rare in the sense that not all professors want and have the knowledge and skills to travel with students. They can be imitable and substitutable for other professors with higher education experience, although there are firm specific skills and firm knowledge processes and facilities that can be difficult to obtain from new professors. Additionally, it is difficult to find professors working for an important company or owning a business (part-time faculty), with pedagogical skills for teaching higher education courses. Here is where internal training took relevance. This cluster of professors possessed certain human capital skills that offer competitive parity for UDEM Business School internationalization process, since other competitors offer foreign courses and trips for their students; and in certain occasions they may be a source of competitive advantage when they are valuable and rare at the same time.

Faculty in cluster 3 possessed valuable firm-specific human resources since they participate more actively than professors in cluster 2 in the organization and participation on students´ foreign courses and trips, making this a differentiating element for UDEM business school internationalization. These professors are not rare, but may be difficult to imitate and substitute since they possess certain skills to conduct such activities, and because professors in cluster 1 are not interested in participating in these type of activities. Like cluster 2, faculty in cluster 3 participate on the students´ foreign courses and trips and give the business school competitive parity and in some cases competitive advantage.

According to Campbell et al. (2012), business school faculty members at a top university who invest heavily in case writing expertise resemble the traditional firm-specific and general capital logics, where workers have portfolios of highly firm-specific skills that are not transferable, the market correctly evaluates the external value of those skills, and there is a high

level of supply-side factors that make the firm desirable to workers. Here the complementary assets of the business school allow the school to create more value from the faculty member´s case writing skills than other institutions. If the faculty member´s investment in case writing corresponds to a smaller investment in research, the external demand for his skills may decrease. However, if the professor enjoys case writing and the status attached to the university, he may prefer to stay, regardless of external demand for his human capital. In this case supply and demand are aligned. This is a strong case of sustained competitive advantage. This example is helpful to study our faculty´s firm-specific human capital resources related to internationalization (e.g. employment of technological tools, participation on students´ research projects, visiting professor activities and collaboration on home internationalization initiatives), since they can be a source of sustained competitive advantage, based on the consideration that workers with firm-specific knowledge are less likely to leave voluntarily and their firm-specific human capital is not easily apply in other institutions (Campbell et al., 2012).

In contrast, well known researchers tend to have highly transferable skills that are easily observable (number of published papers); therefore their value in alternative organizations is relatively predictable. Here the human capital would not be isolated. Again, the supply and demand factors are aligned but this time they both promote the mobility of human capital. In this scenario, according to Campbell et al. (2012), workers have portfolios of highly transferrable skills. The market correctly values these skills, and there are no supply side factors causing the workers to want to stay in their current firms. In the case of UDEM business school, faculty that are involved in research activities also participated in other firm-specific internationalization activities. This fact makes them think twice before considering to move to another institution. Even though there is always the risk that this type of faculty are highly "attractive" for other higher education institutions. As a result the faculty member leaves the current position for a better opportunity in a top-ranked business school.

On the other hand, general human capital as a source of sustained advantage can be possible when workers with general human capital can be effectively isolated when the market incorrectly values that human capital and when supply-side factors cause workers to want to stay in their current firms (Campbell et al., 2012). When general human capital is undervalued in the

labor market and when workers prefer to stay at their focal firm, the focal firm is well positioned to realize advantages from that human capital. In our study, this may be the case of faculty with industry experience, but other business schools did not recognized the potential of these professors and the institution´s conditions and opportunities make him/her want to stay.

We can conclude that faculty specific-human capital resources in the case of UDEM Business School may represent a competitive advantage, and in certain cases a sustained competitive advantage. The present study also recognizes that higher education market value more the general and industry human resources than firm-specific resources. So we think that UDEM business school should focus on developing more firm-specific skills on faculty of cluster 1, so they can think twice before leaving the institution and the school should attract and retained part-time professors with a business profile who are willing to collaborate on firm-specific skills, that bring a sustained competitive advantage for the business school internationalization process.

6. Conclusions, limitations and future research lines

In keeping with Resource Based View (RBV) and human capital literature, there are some contributions that have indicated that human capital may represent a sustained competitive advantage for a firm or institution. The higher education literature on this issue has ignored faculty human capital resource as a source of competitive advantage and as an important element on the institutional internationalization process. This paper originates from the need to have an instrument to identify the internationalization activities that express faculty human capital resources and describe them in terms of faculty clusters.

We conducted our research in the University of Monterrey (UDEM) located in Monterrey, N.L., Mexico, and the research is based on a survey of a sample of 83 faculty members. Moreover, principal component analysis (PCA) was used to obtain main research dimensions (academic articles publishing, books and book chapters publishing, and conferences attended), and multiple correspondence analysis (MCA) used to detect and explore relationships between teaching, research and student study abroad programs participation and organization variables. One PCA dimension was identified (research numeric), and two MCA dimensions were retained

(teaching research education, and organization participation courses trips. The clustering analysis with object scores method was used to identify groups sharing similar characteristics, together with two demographic variables (department and contract).

Our results led to the definition and identification of three faculty groups in UDEM according their human capital resources related to internationalization. The first cluster is formed with full-time professors, most of them women, from the Administration department; they have a research profile since they used to publish and attend international academic forums. In addition, they also are involved in international research projects and used to participate in international teaching activities. An important characteristic is that most of them possess an academic degree or course certificate from abroad. Definitely, they are not interested in participating in student academic courses and trips, even though they possess general and specific (firm and industry) human capital resources that may represent a sustained competitive advantage for the business school internationalization process.

In the second cluster, all faculty members are part-time professors from the Accounting/Finance and Economics departments. They used to participate in the trips and courses abroad with students and do not wish to volunteer for research activities or other teaching or training abroad activities. This cluster has firm-specific human capital resources that may offer a competitive parity or a competitive advantage for the institution.

The third cluster is formed by part-time Administration department professors. This group, similar to cluster two, participates actively in the trips and courses abroad with students and for this reason they can also provide a competitive parity or a competitive advantage for the business school.

In this respect the main conclusions emerging from this chapter are concerned with the understanding of the importance of the human capital resources beyond each internationalization activity carried out by faculty. It is further concluded that UDEM´s business school needs to recognize that the human capital resources (general and specific) that may represent a competitive advantage are different for each faculty cluster and all of them have a reason to be

there. In fact, Lepak and Snell (1999) mention that it is important to note that not all employees possess skills that are equally unique and/or valuable to a particular firm (Stewart, 1997). Although it may be the case that some firms manage all employees the same way, regardless of their value and uniqueness, and others make significant distinctions in the methods they use for different skill sets. So, just as there may be no universally best set of HR practices for every firm, we proposed some recommendations for business schools´ faculty.

For example, faculty human capital resources in cluster one, where faculty is highly involved in research activities, are quite different from the human capital resources of clusters two and three, where professors had prior participation in student study abroad programs. Both human capital resources beyond those activities are relevant for the institution, since it is interested in producing research outputs, but also to impact student internationalization. Faculty is the perfect element to conduct these kinds of tasks. Even though we point out that human capital resources beyond cluster 1 are diverse, since they possess general and specific human capital resources that may constitute a sustained competitive advantage for the business school, but always with the risk of faculty moving from one institution to another carrying with them most of their human capital (research knowledge, experience, personal contacts).

From this observation, we establish that UDEM faculty possess more general and industry/context human capital elements than business school specific ones. We draw this conclusion because the higher education market has very narrowed and specific internationalization activities which differ from other institutions (companies, government, etc.). These facts make for very unique human capital resources that will vary according to an institution's mission and strategic plans.

Limitations in this study are associated with the sampling, the generalization of the study, which is limited to a given private business school in Mexico, and it may not represent the total population. In addition, scales of variables differ and are not similar in each group of internationalization activities (research, teaching, and training). Finally, the author is a faculty member of the business school. As a result there is the possibility of researcher bias. To mitigate

potential bias, the researcher has made attempts to base the selection of the factors of interest on the review of literature and practitioners

Future investigations may evaluate the presented variables to determine if they are also relevant for other contexts, especially for Latin America private business schools. Additionally, qualitative interviews may provide a discovery-oriented environment to better understand the human capital resources involved in the internationalization activities context together with a psychological test. Researchers need also to study conditions under which general human capital may be a sustained competitive advantage for a business school. Moreover, research is needed to study other faculty human capital resources that impact other areas apart from the internationalization and provide the greatest potential to differentiate an institution from its competitors.

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CHAPTER 3: Faculty Intercultural Sensitivity Competence and its Relation to Faculty Demographic, School Experience and Intercultural Experience Factors: The Case of a Mexican Private Business School

1. Introduction

Literature acknowledge differences within service industries, offering several categorizations of international services (Clark & Rajaratnam, 1999; Erramilli, 1990; Patterson & Cicic, 1995). These studies predominately classify international services based on the degree of intangibility of the service provided and the levels of personal contact required between customers and service providers, and suggest specific drivers of international performance. Furthermore, the cultural sensitivity of the service personnel, country of origin image, and tangible cues have a positive impact on international performance for highly intangible services (La, Patterson & Styles, 2005).

Higher education institutions, as intangible services, are focusing efforts on internationalizing the curriculum on and off campus with the goal of increasing student intercultural competence, a process that calls for inter-culturally competent faculty and staff in order to carry out these initiatives (O´Donovan & Mikelonis, 2005).

Additionally, increasing demand for higher education from students in growing market economies (Naidoo, 2006) coupled with a surge in student mobility (van der Wende, 2003) is changing the classroom dynamics in many universities (Morey, 2000). As a result, faculty members tasked with educating in the middle of this diversity are challenged to relate to students with increasing levels of intercultural sensitivity (Morey, 2000).

Studies discovered a limited amount of research that investigated the role that intercultural competence does or should play in the work of international educators. The absence of such research suggests the need for researchers to study the link between the international dimension of education and intercultural competence (Paige & Goode, 2008).

The aim of this study is to assess the level of intercultural sensitivity as well faculty demographic, school experience and intercultural experience variables related to that contribute to the intercultural sensitivity of members of a faculty in a Mexican business school. Crosstabs, multiple correspondence analysis and binary logistic regression were the statistical techniques for this study. In the binary logistic regression analysis we considered as dependent variable de DO grouped score and as independent variables: visiting professor hosting, type of contract, time living overseas, region living before 18, and foreign languages.

Intercultural sensitivity is "the construction of reality as increasingly capable of accommodating cultural difference that constitute development" (Bennet, 1993, p.24). In order to determine the intercultural sensitivity, we selected the Intercultural Development Inventory (IDI). The IDI provides information about people orientation toward cultural difference and commonality. This instrument offers individual and organizational results and scores, together with recommendations. The score situates faculty (individually and as group) in one of these stages: Denial, Polarization (Defense and Reversal), Minimization, Acceptance, and Adaptation.

Various studies have used the IDI to measure the baseline of education populations, yet several gaps exist, and this study aims to address those gaps. Few studies have used methods that predict or explain a path to intercultural sensitivity. For business schools deans this study gives them information to be aware of what educators may be capable of delivering based on their own worldview orientations. Also it is useful for identify the most qualified candidates and for future training purposes. Moreover, understanding the strongest predictors and path to develop intercultural sensitivity contributes to the field of international education. In addition, several faculty international variables identified through the review of literature are explored in the context of intercultural sensitivity. Furthermore, no studies explicitly measure the effects any demographic, school and intercultural experience factors related to intercultural sensitivity using the IDI v3 on faculty in a Latin American context. Finally, few studies of faculty in private business schools exist. In summary, this study provides an updated look at this population, their intercultural sensitivity, and identifies the predictors and path of this imperative construct.

The research questions of the study are:

1) What is the level of intercultural sensitivity of faculty in the University of Monterrey (UDEM) Business School?

2) What variables (demographic, school experience, and intercultural experience) influence the intercultural sensitivity of business school faculty at UDEM?

This study is important, as it produces constructive baseline data for intercultural sensitivity development plans in similar business school. This study also provides comparisons to other educational professionals such as teacher or administrators. In addition, this study gathers information that may be useful for hiring practices and education policy. The results is helpful to education managers, since with this information they may decide which professors should taught to international students, collaborate on home internationalization projects, etc. and detect which faculty need training and help for developing their intercultural sensitivity. To faculty, this research contributes to create better awareness among academics about their actual status regarding intercultural sensitivity. Finally, the study also constitute one of the first efforts at UDEM to determine their faculty intercultural sensitivity so mentioned and important in business school mission, and curricula.

The study is organized as follows: first, we provide the theoretical framework; second, we describe the study methodology; third, we describe the obtained results; fourth, present our conclusions, limitations and future research lines.

2. Conceptual framework

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2.1. *Competencies in the HRM literature*

The term competencies which is used to identify high-performing employees, has gradually become widespread in the HRM literature (Ulrich, 1997). According to Lawler (1994) replacement of the job-based focus in the traditional organization structure by the widespread use of competencies in the modern global organization is fundamental. Global competition leading to a less predictable environment, job instability and flatter organizations diminished the significance of the job in the organization. Job-based systems were no longer able to facilitate a process of continuous learning, development and progress (Lawler, 1994). Organization systems in which individual capabilities are the primary serve as an alternative to the job-based systems and "facilitates organizations developing organizational capabilities that provide competitive advantage" (Lawler, 1994 p.6).

Guion (1991) defines competencies as "underlying characteristics of people that indicate ways of behaving or thinking, generalizing across situations, and enduring for a reasonably long period of time". This definition strongly resembles "personality". Spencer and Spencer (1993) add to this definition by indicating that competencies always include intent; a characteristic is not a competency unless it predicts something meaningful in the real world. This definition comes close to the behavioral repertoires and the metacognition or mindfulness building block. Competencies provide the basis for effective recruitment, selection, and development of high-performing managers and employees. The attention has moved from hiring employees who could perform a certain task, often related to technical knowledge, to hiring employees for their potential, their ability to perform a set of tasks in the near future (Rodriguez, Patel, Bright, Gregory & Growing., 2002). This potential refers to the knowledge and skills acquired by the

individual. “In rapidly changing business environments, organizations are recognizing the value of a workforce that is not only highly skilled and technically adept, but more importantly, a workforce that can learn quickly, adapt to change, communicate effectively, and foster interpersonal relationships (Rodriguez et al., 2002). In their study Bücker and Poutsma (2010) considers competencies as capabilities to perform effectively (in a cross-cultural situation) which consists of knowledge, skills, abilities, personality, and behavioral repertoires.

2.2. *Intercultural competence and models*

Intercultural competence is defined as a “person’s ability to interact effectively and appropriately in cross-cultural situations based on his or her intercultural attitudes, knowledge and comprehension, and skills” (Deardoff, 2008, p.374). It is also defined as the appropriate and effective management of interaction between people who, to some degree or another, represent different or divergent affective, cognitive and behavioral orientations to the world (Spitzberg & Changnon, 2009).

According to van de Vijver and Leung (2008) the elements of intercultural competence can be reduced to four types. The first could be labeled attitudes or orientations, such as attitudes toward other cultures and diversity in an organization or country. The second type involves personality traits such as cultural empathy and emotional intelligence. The third type is more cognitive and refers to skills presumably relevant in cross-cultural encounters such as negotiation skills and mastery of relevant languages. The fourth type refers to actual behavior in intercultural encounters.

Based on the review of intercultural competence theories and models done by Spitzberg and Changnon (2009), the intercultural models have some or all of the following components: motivation (affection, emotion), knowledge (cognitive), skills (behavioral, action), context (situation, environment, culture, relationship, function) and outcomes (e.g. perceived appropriateness, perceived effectiveness, satisfaction, understanding, attraction, intimacy, assimilation, task achievement).

Contemporary intercultural models are divided by: composition, co-orientational, developmental, adaptational and causal process models. Compositional models refer to an analytic scheme or typology. These models identify the hypothesized components of competence without specifying the relations among those components. Co-orientational models are devoted to conceptualizing the interactional achievement of intercultural understanding or any of its variants. Developmental models retain a role for the time dimension of intercultural interaction specifying stages of progression or maturity though which competence is hypothesize to evolve. Adaptational models tend to have two distinctive characteristics: they consider multiple interactions in the process, and they emphasize interdependence of these multiple interactions by modeling the process of mutual adjustment. Finally, causal models reflect specified interrelationships among components. Since this study is focused on identifying the intercultural sensitivity, and offer the institution the possibility to develop this competence in the future, we will focus on developmental models (Spitzberg & Changnon, 2009)

Developmental models have in common a recognition that competence evolves over time, either individually or relationally, or both. Recognizing both rich traditions in developmental psychology and the more recent developments in understanding that personal relationships are capable of becoming more competent through ongoing interaction that produces greater co-orientation, learning, and incorporation of respective cultural perspectives (Spitzberg & Changnon, 2009).

The most well-known developmental models are the Intercultural Maturity Model by King and Magolda (2005), the Developmental Intercultural Competence Model by Bennett (1986, 1993), and the U-Curve Model of Intercultural Adjustment by Gullahorn and Gullahorn (1962). The Intercultural Maturity Model identifies initial, intermediate, and mature levels of intercultural development. This model attempts to identify the levels of awareness of, sensitivity to, and ability to adapt to distinctions across cultures. Bennett´s stage model of intercultural sensitivity assumes that as one´s experience of cultural difference becomes more complex and sophisticated, one´s potential competence in intercultural relations increases. Interactions progress from a monocultural worldview to more differentiated, complex, and sophisticated multicultural worldviews. This model has been highly influential in training and researching and

the authors proposed an instrument called Intercultural Development Inventory (IDI) in order to measures cultural sensitivity. The U-Curve Model proposes that there is a multistage wave response of adjustment and satisfaction in response to acculturation (Gullahorn & Gullahorn, 1962).

2.3. *Intercultural sensitivity*

Intercultural sensitivity has emerged as a widely used construct for describing the development of cognitive and attitudinal antecedents of appropriate and effective interaction with those differences (Bennett, 1993).

The most widely cited definitions of intercultural sensitivity form the seminal works of Bhawuk and Brislin (1992), Bennett (1986, 1993), and Hammer (1999). Bhawuk and Brislin (1992, p.416) define intercultural sensitivity as "sensitivity to the importance of cultural differences and to the points of view of people in other cultures". They describe intercultural sensitivity as a measureable construct and a continued, contemporary issue. However, their work defines and measures intercultural sensitivity using the cultural general concepts of individualism and collectivism, limiting the definition to just one culture-general comparison.

Bennett (1986, 1993) views intercultural sensitivity in relation to a developmental framework where individuals move from ethnocentric to ethno-relativism. He defines intercultural sensitivity as "the construction of reality as increasingly capable of accommodating cultural difference that constitutes development" (Bennett, 1993, p.24). Similarly, Hammer, Bennet & Wiseman, (2003, p. 422) state that intercultural sensitivity is, "the ability to discriminate and experience relevant cultural differences".

The DMIS moves beyond a definition, conceptualizing intercultural sensitivity as a developmental process that explains how people construe difference along six stages in the progression (Bennett, 1986, 2004). Bennett´s (1986) DMIS defines the three ethnocentric stages of denial, defense, and minimization, in which one´s own culture dominates his or her worldview. Additionally, three ethno-relative stages of acceptance, adaptation, and integration represent an

individual´s ability to realize that a culture and behaviors can only be understood within a cultural context (Bennet, 1993).ñ

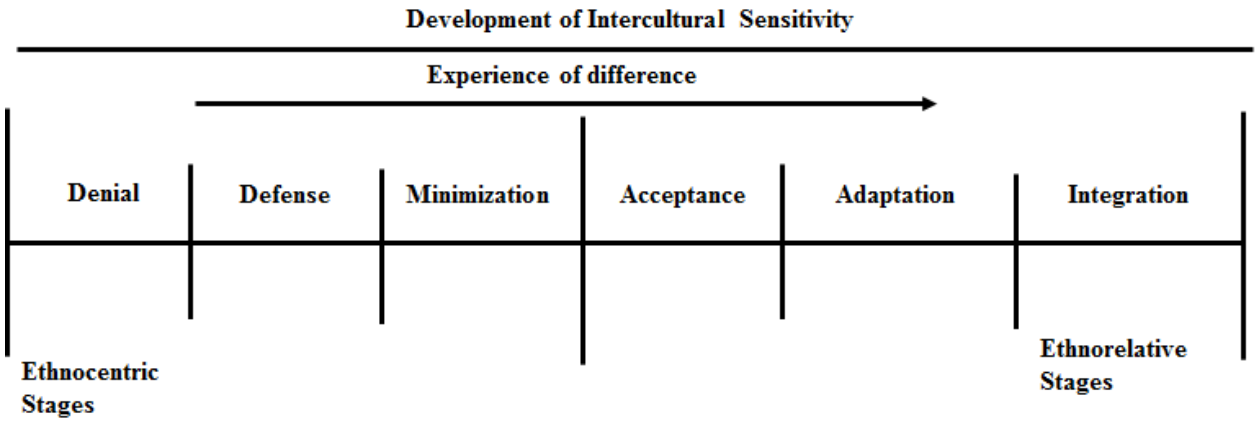
2.3.1. The Developmental Model of Intercultural Sensitivity (DMIS)

The DMIS describes people's reaction to cultural difference and explains how people experience and engage cultural difference. The DMIS is grounded upon theory; it is based on observations the author made in both academic and corporate settings about how people become more competent intercultural communicators. Using concepts from constructivist psychology and communication theory, he organized these observations into positions along a continuum of increasing sensitivity to cultural difference.

The underlying assumption of the model is that as one's perceptual organization of cultural difference becomes more complex, one's experience of culture becomes more sophisticated and the potential for exercising competence in intercultural relations increases. By recognizing how cultural difference is being experienced, predictions about the effectiveness of intercultural communication can be made and educational interventions can be tailored to facilitate development along the continuum.

The model consists of six stages or orientations with two levels. The first three stages are ethnocentric or mono-cultural and the last three stages are ethno-relatives or intercultural. Figure 10 shows the DMIS model and table 22 presents the DMIS stages description.

Figure 10 The Developmental Model of Intercultural Sensitivity.



Source: Bennett (1993, 2004).

Table 22 DMIS stages description.

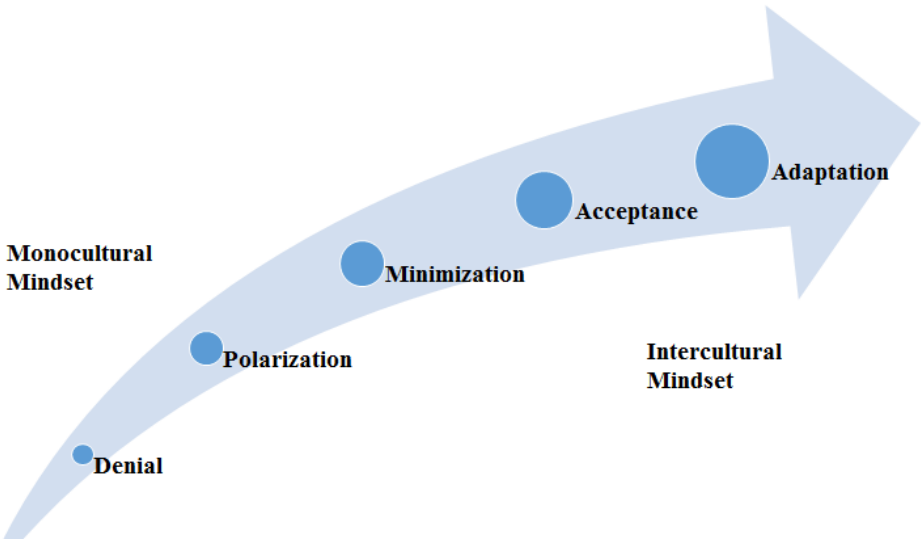
Stage	Description
Denial	Indicates an experience in which cultural difference is not perceived at all, or it is perceived only in very broad categories such as "foreigner" or "minority." The constructs available for perceiving one's own culture are far more complex than those available for other cultures. Individuals experience psychological and/or physical isolation from cultural difference. People are disinterested or perhaps even hostilely dismissive of intercultural communication.
Polarization	Indicates an experience in which cultural difference is perceived in stereotyped and polarized ways. Cultures are organized into "us and them," where typically the "us" is superior and the "them" is inferior. People at Defense are threatened by cultural difference, so they tend to be highly critical of other cultures and apt to blame cultural difference for general ills of society. In Reversal, one's own culture is heavily criticized, while other cultures are perceived in relatively non-critical, romanticized ways. The intercultural worldview is still polarized, but the poles are reversed.
Minimization	Indicates an experience in which elements of one's own cultural worldview are perceived as universal. People assume that their own physical or psychological experiences are shared by people in all cultures, and/or that certain basic values and beliefs transcend cultural boundaries. The stressing of cross-cultural similarity reduces Defense, so people here are much more tolerant of superficial cultural diversity. However, Minimization obscures deep cultural differences, including the masking of dominant culture privilege by a false assumption of equal opportunity.
Acceptance	Indicates an experience in which one's own culture is experienced as just one of a number of equally complex worldviews. Acceptance does not mean agreement - cultural difference may be judged negatively - but the judgment is not ethnocentric. People at Acceptance are curious about and respectful toward cultural difference, but their knowledge of other cultures does not yet allow them to easily adapt their behavior to different cultural contexts.
Adaptation	Indicates the experience of generating appropriate alternative behavior in a different cultural context. Adaptation involves intercultural empathy, or experiencing the world to some extent "as if" one were participating in the different culture. This imaginative participation generates "feelings of appropriateness" that guide the generation of authentic behavior in the alternative culture. People at adaptation can enact their intercultural sensitivity as intercultural communication competence.
Integration	Indicates an experience of self that is expanded to include the movement in and out of different cultural worldviews. People with a predominant Integration position often are dealing with issues related to their own "cultural liminality," or in-betweeness. This liminality can be used to construct cultural bridges and to conduct sophisticated cross-cultural mediation.

Source: Bennett (1993).

The ethnocentric stages or orientations are denial, polarization (defense/reversal), and minimization. Denial is an orientation in which the individual experiences his/her own culture as the only real one and demonstrates little or no interest in experiencing cultural difference. Polarization, is an orientation in which people experience cultural difference in a polarized form. In a defense stage, cultural difference is seen as an "us" and "them" experience in which people from superior cultures might be seen as a threat. There is a variation in this ethnocentric orientation, reversal, in which the new culture being adopted is experienced as superior. Minimization is a stage where cultural difference is experienced by focusing on the similarities and subsuming the differences into familiar categories. These categories might also fit into other concepts such as religious or philosophical (transcendent universalism). These generalized concepts often cover deep cultural differences; therefore cultural difference is still experienced from an ethnocentric perspective.

In the second level of the DMIS there are three ethno-relative stages or orientations: acceptance, adaptation and integration. Acceptance is the stage in which cultural difference is experienced by recognizing differences among other cultures. At the acceptance stage, the individual recognizes differences and reflects on how these differences have meaning for the other culture. However, at this stage the individual does not know how to appropriately adapt to these differences. Adaptation is the second stage of the ethno-relative orientation and at this stage, the individual is capable of changing behavior and shifting from one cultural perspective to another. The individual is able to adapt to cultural scenarios different from their own. Integration is the last stage of the ethno-relative orientation in the DMIS, however it is not conceptually located in the Intercultural Development Continuum (figure 11) and it is not measured by the IDI because it is not concerned with the development of intercultural competence, but rather it is focused on the construction of a cultural identity (Hammer, 2012).

Figure 11 The Intercultural Development Continuum.



Source: Hammer (2011).

According to Hernandez and Kose (2011), the DMIS offers a powerful theory of understanding regarding how principals in educational institutions may experience and interpret issue of difference and diversity in schools. Additionally they mention that the DMIS implies that intercultural sensitivity would work similarly within principals and teachers.

Moreover, Paige and Goode (2008) mentioned that the DMIS is an especially important cultural mentoring tool for international educational professionals. Additionally, the advantage of using the IDI is that the effectiveness of a program or of a particular element of a program can be assessed using a pre-/post-control research design (Bennett, 2009).

2.4. *Intercultural sensitivity instruments*

Assessment is crucial to the success of educational process of intercultural development (Fantini, 2009). In order to train faculty within business schools for effective and appropriate intercultural interaction, and a baseline measure is needed to understand the population developmental needs (Paige, 2004).

A great number of instruments has been created to measure intercultural competence. Two studies have reviewed a substantial number of instruments to assess components of intercultural competence in intercultural training (Fantini, 2009; Paige, 2004). Based on those, three instruments that propose to measure intercultural sensitivity are reviewed: the Intercultural Sensitivity Inventory (ICSI) (Bhawuk & Brislin, 1992), the Intercultural Sensitivity Scale (ISS) (Chen & Starosta, 2000), and the Intercultural Development Inventory (IDI) (Hammer, 2011). This section is included to see which are strongest in terms of validity and reliability, but also to identify which tool is most appropriately aligned to measure intercultural sensitivity as characterized by the DMIS.

2.4.1. The Intercultural Sensitivity Inventory (ICSI)

Bhawuk and Brislin (1992) designed the ICSI to measure intercultural sensitivity, however, Paige (2004) characterized it as a measure of cultural values and values orientation. Bhawuk and Brislin (1992) state that the ICSI measures an individual´s ability to adjust her or his behavior according to value orientation along an individualistic-collectivistic continuum. The ICSI measures collectivism, individualism, and a combination of flexibility and open-mindedness.

ICSI respondents answer 46 self-report items. Sixteen are answered twice, once from an individualistic perspective, where respondents imagine they are in the USA, and another from a collectivistic perspective, where respondents imagine they are working in Japan. The additional 32 statements measure flexibility and open-mindedness. Bhawuk and Brislin (1992, p. 100) used the inventory with a diverse population. Paige (2004) reported, "the ICSI shows strong internal consistency reliability… a satisfactory factor structure, evidence of external validity, and low correlations with the social desirability items" (i.e., individuals cannot "figure out" how to answer in order to gain a higher score) (Hammer, 2011).

Bayles (2009) noted a criticism that the ICSI uses two specific cultures, and that the researchers assume that respondents are familiar with a secondary culture that has a different orientation than their own.

2.4.2. The Intercultural Sensitivity Scale (ISS)

Chen and Strarosta (2000) conceptualized intercultural sensitivity as a purely affective component of intercultural competence. A literature review identified 44 initial items. A factor analysis of the 44 items with a sample of 414 college students generated five factors and a 24-item scale. The five factors identified are: interaction engagement, respect for cultural differences, interaction confidence, interaction enjoyment, and interaction attentiveness. The ISS was also tested for concurrent validity. One hundred and sixty-two students were given related assessments.

Several limitations of this assessment were identified (Chen & Starosta, 2000). The ISS was developed with a largely white university student population and, therefore, needs to be tested with additional diverse samples to determine its usefulness and cross-cultural validity. Chen and Starosta (2000) also noted that the factor structure only accounted for 40% of the variance, meaning that other factors contribute to the variance as well. Therefore, the predictive validity of the instrument is moderate at best. Westrick (2002) stresses, the IDI instrument alone does not elicit all possible life factors that could potentially link with participants' development of intercultural sensitivity. The researchers also called for additional construct validity.

2.4.3. The Intercultural Development Inventory (IDI)

The Intercultural Development Inventory (IDI) is an instrument that measures intercultural sensitivity and it was developed by Mitch Hammer and Milton Bennett in 1998. The IDI is based in Bennett's (1986, 1993, 2004) Developmental Model of Intercultural Sensitivity (DMIS). This theory is one of the few theories that combines intercultural communication and human development areas.

The orientations of the DMIS are identified by the IDI assessment tool that could be completed online or by paper and pencil. The IDI is a fifty item questionnaire that also includes

some demographic questions and four open ended questions to inquire further about the individual experience with cultural differences (Hammer, 1999).

Participants answer the inventory by comparing their own culture and a generalized, nonspecific culture. Participants receive two scores: an overall developmental score and an overall score of perceived intercultural sensitivity. The instrument is available in more than 12 languages. The IDI was translated from the English-language version through a rigorous back translation method to assure both linguistic and conceptual equivalency (Hammer, 2011).

Once the IDI is answered, the results are illustrated in a continuum based on the stages described in the DMIS (table 23). This continuum identifies the individual's orientation toward cultural differences ranging from a mono-cultural mindset or ethnocentric worldview to an intercultural mindset or ethno-relative worldview (table 23). The IDI also shows several individual scores apart from the Developmental Orientation (DO) (this considered as the IDI score), these other indicators are: the Perceived Orientation (PO), the Orientation Gap (OG), the Trailing Orientations (TO), the Leading Orientations (LO), and the Cultural Disengagement (CD), all described in table 24.

Table 23 IDI Developmental Continuum Orientations.

Orientation	Description
Denial	An orientation that likely recognizes more observable cultural differences (e.g. food) but, may not notice deeper cultural differences (e.g. conflict resolution styles), and may avoid or withdraw from cultural differences.
Polarization	A judgmental orientation that views cultural differences in terms of "us" and "them". This can take the form of:
Defense	A uncritical view toward one`s own cultural values and practices and an overly critical view toward other cultural values and practices.
Reversal	An overly critical orientation toward one´s own cultural values and practices and an uncritical view toward other cultural values and practices.
Minimization	An orientation that highlights cultural commonality and universal values and principles that may also mask deeper recognition and appreciation of cultural differences.
Acceptance	An orientation that recognizes and appreciates patterns of cultural difference and commonality in one´s own and other cultures.
Adaptation	An orientation that is capable of shifting cultural perspective and changing behavior in culturally appropriate and authentic ways.
Cultural Disengagement	A sense of disconnection or detachment from a primary cultural group.

Source: Hammer (2011, p. 475).

Table 24 Individual IDI profile information.

Variable	Description
Perceived Orientation (PO)	It reflects where people place themselves along the intercultural development continuum. It can be denial, polarization (defense/reversal), minimization, acceptance or adaptation.
Developmental Orientation (DO)	It indicates people primary orientation toward cultural differences and commonalities along the continuum as assessed by the IDI. The DO is the perspective that people most likely use in those situations where cultural differences and commonalities need to be bridged. It can be denial, polarization (defense/reversal), minimization, acceptance or adaptation.
Orientation Gap (OG)	It is the difference along the continuum between people Perceived Orientation and Developmental Orientation. A gap score of seven points or higher indicates a meaningful difference.
Trailing Orientations (TO)	Are those orientations that are "in back of" people Developmental Orientation (DO) on the intercultural continuum that are not "resolved" When an earlier orientation is not resolved, this "trailing" perspective may be used to make sense of cultural differences at particular times, around certain topics, or in specific situations.
Leading Orientations (LO)	Are those orientations that are immediately "in front" of people Developmental Orientation (DO). A Leading Orientation is the next step to take in further development of intercultural competence. For example if people Development Orientation is Minimization, then their Leading Orientations (LO) would be Acceptance and Adaptation.
Cultural Disengagement (CD)	It indicates how connected or disconnected people feel toward their own cultural community. Cultural Disengagement is not a dimension of intercultural competence along the developmental continuum. Rather, it is a separate dimension of how disconnected or detached people feel toward their own cultural group.

Source: Bennett (1993).

IDI results suggests that "individuals who have a more detailed set of frameworks for perceiving and understanding patterns of cultural differences between themselves and others have the capability of then experiencing observed cultural differences in ways that approximate how a person from that other culture might experience the world" (Bennett, 2004).

This instrument has been evolving in three versions and "the psychometric testing of the IDI indicates that the IDI is a cross-culturally general, valid and reliable assessment of an individual's and group's core orientations toward cultural differences" (Hammer, 1999; Hammer, et al., 2003).

The IDI v1 items were taken from interviews with 40 diverse people. The origin of the questions used in the inventory is a unique strength of the IDI, as researchers often write the questions themselves or adopt them from existing instruments (Hammer, 2011). A culturally pilot

group reviewed the items, and a panel of seven expert interculturalists reviewed them. The prototype IDI was administrated to 226 subjects; 70% form the USA and 30% from 28 different countries (Hammer, 2011). Factor analysis produced factors that correspond closely to the DMIS: denial, defense, minimization, acceptance, cognitive adaptation, and behavior adaptation. Paige, Jacobs-Cassuto, Yershova, and DeJaeghere (2003) conducted a further factor analysis. Their results combined the denial/defense stages and also found separate minimization themes including physical universalism and transcendent universalism (Paige, et al., 2003).

The second phase of testing included additional examination, resulting in IDI v2 (Hammer, 2011). Hammer completed an IDI v2 post-analysis to study the total IDI score developed by Paige et al. (2003). This phase of testing found that the developmental and perceived scores had good reliability (Hammer, 2011). The third phase of testing included a rigorous cross-cultural validity study that included 11 groups of participants from distinct groups representing over 4,700 cross-cultural participants. The sample included business managers form global NGOs, church members in the USA, a large number of U.S. university students, and high school students from Austria, Brazil, Costa Rica, Ecuador, Germany, Hong Kong, Italy, Japan, and the USA. This diverse group was much larger than the samples in the first two testing phases and included participants who took the test in their native language, when available.

A confirmatory factor analysis was completed for the IDI v3 across all groups, supporting the stage placements of perceived difference as theorized in the DMIS. Hammer´s (2011) analysis also found that interscale correlations support the theoretical model of the DMIS. In addition, there was strong support for the measure of an overall Developmental Orientation scale and Perceived Orientation scale. Hammer (2011) also identified minimization as a transitional stage for moving from ethnocentrism to ethnorelativism for the third version of the IDI.

The IDI v3 is a rigorously researched tool for measuring intercultural sensitivity as theorized by the DMIS. The IDI allows researchers to measure the variables that impact intercultural sensitivity and to assess the effectiveness of intercultural interventions with pre- and post-test measurements (Bayles, 2009; Straffon, 2001; Yuen & Grossman, 2009). To date, researchers have conducted studies in the areas of teacher training and study abroad with attempts

to better understand intercultural sensitivity in relation to these contexts (DeJaeghere & Cao, 2009; Pedersen, 2010; Vande Berg, Connor-Linton, & Paige, 2009; Yuen, 2010).

The review of the literature related may indicate that researchers choose the IDI for the following reasons: a) it meets standard scientific criteria for a valid psychometric instrument, b) it has robust validity and reliability, c) it is based on cognitive measures rather than attitudes, so it is less influenced by situational factors, d) it was designed specifically to assess and profile the worldview orientations of respondents toward cultural difference, e) it is appropriate for studies in an educational context, as it reflects a developmental model geared for teaching, and f) it gives cross-cultural validity and further credibility to the IDIv3 as an instrument to measure the concept of intercultural sensitivity (Bayles, 2009; DeJaeghere & Cao, 2009; Hammer, 2011; Pedersen, 2010; Yuen, 2010; Yuen & Grossman, 2009).

Several authors express concern with various components of the IDI. Yuen (2010) state it is unknown whether the five-factor structure is supported by data form using the instrument with Chinese samples. Greenholtzs (2005) had similar questions for the Japanese context. Hammer (2011) tested and found support for the five factors with Hong Kong subjects, and mentioned that future culture specific samples will be taken into account in further studies.

There are other considerations when using the IDI. The first is that the IDI does not utilize a tripartite framework (knowledge, awareness, and skills). This makes it difficult for researchers in the field to identify what the IDI is measuring. A second consideration when using the IDI is the confusion surrounding the measurement of behavior. Hammer (2011) does state that the IDI measures the cognitive ability to understand and bridge cultural differences, indicating it measures potential behavior. While the IDI includes behavioral items in the inventory, it does not include an explicit observation component. A third consideration when using the IDI is a somewhat unclear stance toward intercultural sensitivity versus intercultural competence terminology. In versions one and two of the IDI the terminology intercultural sensitivity was used exclusively. However in the IDI v3, Hammer (2011) shifted to “intercultural competence”. A fourth consideration of using the IDI is that some researchers feel that the IDI and DMIS are linear stage models. Rather, it is best to characterize them as progression models, which is more

in line with theorizing and testing development. The DMIS model may not explicitly depict any room for "zigzagging", yet Hammer (2011) do state a possibility that an individual may have a partially unresolved orientation toward cultural difference that may cause fluctuation between places in the continuum at one time, around a certain topic, or depending on the cultural context. Hammer (2011) calls this a "trailing orientation" and accounts for it in the calculation of the individual developmental profile results in the IDI v3.

After this literature review, the IDI emerges as a theoretically and empirically strong instrument for assessing the intercultural sensitivity of faculty in business schools.

2.5. *Studies of intercultural sensitivity in educational contexts*

This section addresses important and recent studies that utilized the IDI to examine intercultural sensitivity in educational contexts. The studies represent four populations in which intercultural sensitivity has been examined: students, teachers, school counselors, and school administrators. The works also include efforts to correlate various demographic, professional and intercultural variables to intercultural sensitivity. Several attempts have been made to identify factors that contribute to intercultural sensitivity using multivariable regression analysis. The purpose or this section is to describe factors that emerge from the literature as the greatest demographic, schools experience and intercultural experience predictors of intercultural sensitivity based literature. Furthermore, we also consider other faculty intercultural experience variables found in national/international reports and instruments, together with academic papers that measure/study faculty internationalization.

2.5.1. Demographic variables

Age. Several studies support the assumption that, as one ages, intercultural sensitivity increases (El Ganzoury, 2012; Mahon, 2006). El Ganzoury (2012) found that educational leaders (n=86) in Northern Minnesota aged 40 or younger scored significantly higher on the minimization subscale than the group aged 41 or older. This suggests that older teachers were less likely to be in the ethnocentric stages of the DMIS. Mahon (2006) also found that age was

significant. Lai (2006) results show that relation of age and intercultural sensitivity score was significant in the case of 35 international instructors of English in Taiwan´s colleges and universities. Helmer (2007) found that the group of people under 50 years had IDI scores associated with a higher level of intercultural sensitivity than those over 50 years of age, but Helmer examined only two groups, under 50 and over 50, each of which covers a large number of years. Westrick and Yuen (2007), identified that over 50% of the faculty in the school whose teacher scores highest to the overall were between the ages of 40 and 60. Steuernagel (2014) study revealed that school counselors aged 41-50 years had significantly higher mean IDI developmental orientation scores than those aged 22-30 years, but age did not reveal significant predictive power towards the development of intercultural sensitivity.

On the other hand, other studies have reported no statistical significant relation between age and intercultural sensitivity (Ayas, 2006; Bayles, 2009; Fretheim, 2007; Yuen, 2010). Ayas (2006) study regarding students showed no correlation between age and level of intercultural sensitivity. Bayles (2009) also found no significant correlation to intercultural sensitivity and age in the study of 233 elementary school teachers in a Texas school district. Fretheim (2007) found no correlation to age in teachers at an international school in South Africa. Yuen (2010) found no statistical significance between age and 386 Hong Kong teachers´ mean developmental scores on the IDI.

Gender. Some studies show significant difference in intercultural sensitivity development between males and females (Ayas, 2006; DeJaeghere & Cao, 2009; Helmer, 2007; Lai, 2006; Nichols, 2011; Vande Berg et al., 2009; Westrick, 2002). Ayas (2006) found that there was statistical significance correlation between gender and IDI socre, where females scored higher on the developmental level than males. DeJaeghere and Cao (2009) completed a three year longitudinal pre and post study of the effects of teacher professional development intervention on intercultural sensitivity of elementary school teachers from five schools in a U.S. Midwestern, urban school district (n=86). They found that females´ score differentials were significantly higher than males, but they noted that the males sample was quite small (n=16). Helmer (2007) analyzed the relationship of IDI scores of 40 elementary faculty members of Cairo American College in Egypt and find that females were noted to have a slightly higher developmental scores.

Lai (2006) identified males to have lower scores in Adaptation than females, and concluded that males in the study were more ethnocentric than females. Nichols (2011) results show that being female remained the only significant positive predictor of intercultural competence development when all individual and study-abroad program characteristics were considered. Vande Berg et al. (2009) found that females made significant gains in intercultural sensitivity while abroad, but males did not. This is a pre and post study of the effects of study abroad of 1,290 students. Westrick (2002) studied the effects of four service-learning models on international school students´ intercultural sensitivity in Hong Kong (n=526), she found a significant correlation between being female and IDI development scores ($r=.19$, $p< .01$).

Other studies did not find gender to be a factor in intercultural sensitivity. Pedersen´s (2010) pre and post study of the effects on university students' intercultural sensitivity after an intercultural pedagogy intervention showed no statistically significant relationship between gender and IDI scores. Yuen (2010), Davis (2009), Bayles (2009), Fretheim (2007), and El Ganzoury (2012) also found no significant difference in teachers´ and leaders´ IDI developmental scores by gender, nor did Westrick and Yuen (2007) in their cross-sectional case study of intercultural sensitivity of Hong Kong teachers in four schools (n=160).

Nationality. Several studies found a significant relationship between the region that students or teachers were from to intercultural sensitivity (Straffon, 2001; Westrick, 2002; Yuen & Grossman, 2009). Straffon (2001) found a significant difference after grouping the international school students into three regions (Asia, America and Europe). Westrick (2002) also studied international school students and found that Japanese and Korean students had a negative correlation to developmental scores on the IDI. Yuen and Grossman (2009) completed a study comparing teachers from three cities in Asia: Hong Kong, Shanghai, and Singapore. They found that the only significant comparison between locations was that Shanghai teachers (n=118) had significantly higher developmental scores on the IDI than those from Singapore (n=96). It is important to note that teachers' nationality was not explicitly reflected in these variables, but rather the location of the school was reflected. Ayas (2006) found no statistical correlation between ethnicity/racial background and development or perceived level of intercultural sensitivity among students.

Educational level. Higher educational level have been statistically related with higher IDI scores must of the time in literature (Davis, 2009; Fretheim, 2007; Helmer, 2007; Westrick and Yuen, 2007; Yuen (2010). Davis (2009) empirically investigated the level of intercultural sensitivity for foreign student advisors and concluded that the level of education was associated with the intercultural sensitivity. Fretheim (2007) research, regarding 58 teachers and administrators working in an American international school in Southern Africa, suggests connections between higher levels of education and higher IDI developmental scores. Helmer (2007) examination of the variable level of education, found that those who had finished graduate degrees such as a master or doctorate degree (n=30) had a slightly greater mean developmental score (102.24) when compared to the college degree group (n=10) whose mean score was 98.23. Westrick and Yuen (2007) concluded that teachers at the school with the highest overall developmental score on the IDI have completed higher levels of education. Yuen (2010) found a significant variation between teacher educational level and the Developmental scores ($F=3.03$, $p<.05$) suggesting that the higher the teacher´s education, the higher were their Developmental score and their reversal scores. Contrary, others as Bayles (2009) found no significant relation between level of education and IDI scores. Steuernagel (2014) results revealed that counselors' years of formal education was not correlated to, nor significantly predictive of intercultural sensitivity.

Foreign language proficiency. Speaking more foreign languages and the master of a foreign language have been related with higher IDI scores (Fretheim, 2007; Strekalova, 2013). Fretheim (2007) research shows a relation between the number of languages spoken and higher IDI development scores. Strekalova (2013) found a significant positive relationship with intercultural sensitive with teachers´ proficiency level in foreign languages (fluency, speaking, reading, writing, and understanding). Even though, others have not found any relation of these two variables (Park, 2006; Pederson, 1998). Park (2006) used the IDI to measure intercultural sensitivity and the Michigan English Language Institute College English Test (MELICET) to measure linguistic competence in order to determine if a relationship exists between intercultural sensitivity and linguistic competence of English-as-a-Foreign-Language (EFL) of 104 teachers in Korea, but no statistical significance correlation between IDI scores and linguistic competence

existed. Pederson (1998) also concluded no statistically significant relationship between second language acquisition and intercultural sensitivity.

According other studies and international surveys, proficiency of a foreign language is an indicator of faculty´s foreign language skills. Studies and reports ask participants about their foreign language level (from basic to fluent), the description of the foreign language skills, and the proportion of staff members with an advanced foreign langue level (California State University, 2008; Central Connecticut State University, 2009; Dewey & Duff , 2009; Green, 2012; IMPI, 2012; NVAO, 2011; University of Minessota Duluth, 2013).

Hypothesis 1: Demographic variables explain faculty intercultural sensitivity.

2.5.2. School experience variables

Teaching experience. It should not be surprising to lean that intercultural sensitivity to the length of time that one has been working as a faculty, daily opportunities to interact with students from different cultures provides a rich set of experiences from which to develop increasingly sophisticated ways of thinking about other cultures and to interact with people from those cultures. Several studies investigated the relationship between intercultural sensitivity and educators´ years of teaching (Bayles, 2009; Davies, 2010; Yuen, 2010; Yuen & Grossman, 2009), or years in the district (DeJaeghere & Zhang, 2008). Several studies reported positive correlations between length of time teaching in schools and intercultural sensitivity. Bayles (2009) found the teachers with more than 10 years of experience had a higher mean developmental score than the group of teachers with fewer years of experience. Yuen and Grossman (2009) found that, among the teachers in three Asian cities, teaching two to five years was correlated with higher developmental scores, as compared to teaching less than two years or greater than five years. Despite the result that more years teaching does not reflect higher developmental scores, Yuen and Grossman (2009, p.358) asserted, “It appears that teaching experience can contribute to the development of intercultural sensitivity”.

Consistent with the other variables in the review, researchers did not find a significant relationship between years of teaching experience and intercultural sensitivity scores. Davies (2010) found no significant correlation with years teaching in an international school and intercultural sensitivity. DeJaeghere and Zhang (2008) found that neither the years of experience as a teacher nor the number of years of experience in the school district was found to have significant correlation with perceived intercultural competence. The researchers also identified that the fact that teachers´ years of experience was not measured as continuous variable as a limitation.

School job position. The position that faculty has at the school has been related with a higher or lower IDI score. Fretheim (2007) measured for position in school (e.g., administrator, elementary, middle, or high school teacher) and found no significant difference between the position and intercultural sensitivity. Even though, the author Fretheim (2007) found that the higher education administrator had a mean IDI score nearly 10 points higher than the teacher participant´s scores and no one with a score in Denial/Defense. For this study, we considered faculty which only teaches or performs academic activities and faculty that have an administrative position at the business schools (e.g. academic program directors, department directors and the business school dean).

Type of contract. The type of contract, level or duties for a faculty varies according each academic institution. In the case of UDEM, the business school has two types of faculty: the full-time faculty and the part-time faculty. The difference between them is that part-time faculty, only go to the school to teach and usually have a position in a company; full-time faculty have a wide range of academic activities inside the school, an office, and a schedule to keep. We introduce this variable in the analysis, since we think that full-time faculty, because their role and activities will have a higher level of intercultural sensitivity, and because this variable is highly related with the school job positon variable. This variable may change according institution´s Human Resources practices, but we think that faculty will share similar characteristics according to contract that will define their daily activities, which will impact latter their intercultural sensitivity.

Hypothesis 2: School experience variables explain faculty intercultural sensitivity.

2.5.3. Intercultural experience variables

Time living overseas. Researchers offer account for time in which individuals have spent outside of their home culture. This variable has been studied under many names. Different manifestations of this variable are identified in the literature reviewed: previous travel experience (Mahon, 2006; Pedersen, 2010), years of experience in another culture (Yuen & Grossman, 2009), years living in another culture (Davies, 2010; El Ganzoury, 2012; Westrick & Yuen, 2007; Yuen, 2010), years living abroad (Fretheim, 2007), years of intercultural experience (DeJaeghere & Cao, 2009), years living in a bicultural setting (Bayles, 2009), and years living outside one´s own culture (Straffon, 2001; Westrick, 2002).

In their pre and post study of teachers, DeJaeghere and Cao (2009) found a large effect size for years of intercultural experience. However, due to issues with the sample size, only the group with 1-2 years of experience showed significant results. El Garzoury (2012) found that educational leaders with experience in another country (which was "never lived" or "lived") had significantly higher scores. Lai (2006) found as significant correlation for the length of previous living experience overseas of international English instructors in Taiwan in the stage of Minimization. Mahon (2006) noted that teachers who travel appeared in more than one IDI subset as significantly more interculturally sensitive. Pedersen (2010) found that university students travel experience had a positive impact on intercultural sensitivity. Among students in international schools, Straffon (2001) found a significant positive correlation between time living in another culture and developmental scores, however Straffon noted a weak correlation, r=.14. Steuernagel (2014) found the length of time school counselors studied abroad and the total years spent outside of the school counselor's passport country were significantly correlated with intercultural sensitivity. Westrick and Yuen (2007) compare the IDI scores of 160 secondary school teachers in Hong Kong and found that the strongest correlation with overall developmental scores on the IDI was experience living in other cultures. Yuen (2010) found that, of the demographic variables in the study, living in another culture was most significantly

correlated with resolution of denial and defense, and was also significantly positively correlated with developmental scores on the IDI.

Other studies did not find a significant relationship between intercultural sojourn and intercultural sensitivity. Ayas (2006) results showed no significant differences in developmental and perceived levels of intercultural sensitivity among participants with previous experience living abroad. Bayles (2009) did not find a significant relationship of developmental scores and years living in a bicultural setting. Davies (2010) found that years living in another culture were positively correlated with development scores on the IDI, but were not significant. Fretheim (2007) did not find that years living abroad were significantly correlated with developmental scores on the IDI. Helmer (2007) found that educators who had lived overseas for more than 10 years had the lowest mean score on the IDI. Westrick (2002) found that the relationship between years living outside one´s culture and the developmental score was not significant among students in an international school in Hong Kong.

Time and places living abroad before 18 years old. Researchers have considered the influence of time and places lived before age 18 (e.g. Yuen, 2010), since authors have suggested, growing up outside one's own culture offers profound benefits to intercultural development (e.g. Straffon, 2003). Yuen (2010) offered mixed support to this assertion. Yuen found that student teachers that spent their formative years in non-local regions had significantly higher mean developmental scores (M = 88.6) than those with local upbringing (M =82.0). These results support the idea that individuals who experience intercultural living early in their life may have higher intercultural sensitivity, yet both groups of teachers are in the denial/defense stage of the DMIS. Straffon (2001) used the IDI to study the intercultural sensitivity of 336 high school students and found a positive correlation with the length of time that the student had lived outside their home country. Helmer (2007) found that the group of teachers from North America had a higher mean developmental score (102.28) compared to the "others" group with a mean score of 99.02, but the authors notes the small number of participants in the "others" group (n=7). Unfortunately, Yuen and Grossman (2009) did not report the findings of this variable, likely due to the small number of student teachers reporting non-local upbringing (n = 12).

Degrees and training abroad. Results revealed that counselors' length of study abroad, during the university years, was significantly correlated with intercultural sensitivity (r = .17). School counselors that studied abroad longer, for example earn an entire degree, displayed a positive relationship to higher levels of intercultural sensitivity (Steuernagel, 2014). Academic degrees and training abroad have been also considered in higher education internationalization reports, surveys and academic papers in the form of: number of faculty who have gained their doctoral degree abroad, faculty attendance to international workshops or seminars, and proportion of faculty members who obtained a full degree aboard (Agudelo, et al., 2014; Brandenburg & Federkeil, 2007; California State University, 2008; Cort, Das, & Synn, 2005; Dewey & Duff, 2009; Green, 2012; Huang, 2009; IMPI, 2012; Locke & Bennion, 2010; Nuffic, 2012; Pynes, Pubantz, Schmitz, & Campo, 2011; University of Minessota Duluth, 2013).

Other intercultural experience variables that have not been tested on academic studies until now are faculty: 1) participation and organization of students´ academic trips and courses abroad, 2) international experience outside Higher Education Institutions (HEI), 3) participation on international research activities - presenting at international conferences, and participation on international academic research-, 4) participation on visiting professor activities, 5) utilization of technological tools in class in order to contact foreign teachers and students, and 6) participating on home internationalization activities.

Participation in students' academic trips and courses abroad. Higher education studies and academic literature usually consider faculty participation on student´s study abroad programs, as part of the internationalization activities carried out by universities, giving teacher an intercultural encounter with people from other countries. Several studies and reports have considered data as: percentage of faculty leading students on study abroad programs (ACE, 2012), number to teachers that have taken students abroad on a faculty-led study abroad class (California State University, 2008), or have led students on study abroad (Cort, et al., 2005; Hult & Motz, 2012; Pynes, et al., 2011).

International research activities. Faculty research activities are the most common variables considered in the higher education internationalization literature. Authors have studied

the number of publications, the international conference attended, participation on research projects with international cooperation partners, serving on an international academic board or committee, and the membership of international academic or professional association (e.g. Agudelo, et al., 2014; Arimoto, 2010; Balbachevsky et al., 2009; Brandenburg & Federkeil, 2007; California State University, 2008; Cort, et al., 2005; Dewey & Duff, 2009; Egron-Polak & Hudson, 2014; Finkelstein & Chen, 2013; Huang, 2009; Hult & Motz, 2012; Locke & Bennion, 2010; Nuffic, 2012; RIHE, 2008; Pynes, et al., 2011; University of Minessota Duluth, 2013; Vabø, 2010). Until now, we do not know the existence of a study that relates international research activities with IDI scores, even though we think being in contact with researcher from other countries may affects individual´s IDI score. We selected those research activities, where some intercultural interaction exists.

Visiting professor activities. In higher education institutions faculty may teach abroad as a visiting professor (ACE, 2012; Agudelo, et al., 2014; Cort et al., 2005; Criswell , 2014; Dewey and Duff, 2009; Egron-Polak & Hudson, 2014; Kwok & Arpan, 2002; IMPI, 2012; Javalgi & Grossman, 2014; University of Minessota Duluth, 2013) or in some cases an institution and its faculty receives a visiting professor from abroad to teach part or an entire course, or to conduct research (ACE, 2012; Pynes, et al., 2011). Both activities allowed faculty to stay in contact with a foreign culture that may have an impact on his/her intercultural sensitivity.

International experience outside HEI. Besides teaching abroad or conducting research abroad, there are some faculty that have professional experience outside higher education institutions (HEI) that require certain skills and knowledge, but experience has also given them knowledge, skills nd abilities that can be highly appreciated by business schools students. This is the reason several studies consider faculty participation in a wide range of activities as: international company projects, international consulting projects, international service agencies missions, among others (Agudelo, et al., 2014; Brandenburg & Federkeil, 2007; California State University, 2008; Egron-Polak & Hudson, 2014; Hult & Motz, 2012; IMPI, 2012; Locke & Bennion, 2010; University of Minessota Duluth, 2013).

Technological tools utilization. The employment of technological tools in academic activities is sometimes very helpful for internationalizing a course (Pynes, et al., 2011). AUCC (2014) report asks faculty if their institution have offered them workshops on using technology to enhance international dimensions on teaching. The utilization of international forums, chats, and videoconferences make possible for faculty to have an intercultural encounter with a foreign culture, which in turn may affects his/her intercultural score.

Home internationalization activities. There are several international activities in which faculty participate in home institutions. Studies have asked faculty regarding their organization of events with international scholars or performances (California State University, 2008), the proportion of international conferences organized by the staff members (IMPI, 2012; Nuffic, 2012). In fact, Strekalova (2013) found a significant positive relationship with intercultural sensitive with teachers´ attendance and organization of cultural events. In the case of UDEM, professors used to volunteer with the organization of international events as congresses and workshops. Additionally, some of them participate on Collaborative Online Programs (COIL), which consists of teaching a course at the home institution in collaboration with a professor of a foreign institution, sharing program content and having online sessions through the course.

Hypothesis 3: Intercultural experience variables explain faculty intercultural sensitivity.

Finally, several studies investigated the effects of interventions on intercultural sensitivity development. These studies include interventions of various natures, including of study abroad (e.g. Pedersen, 2010); teacher professional development (e.g. Davies, 2010); and intercultural leadership training (El Ganzoury, 2012). While this research have not considered studying interventions that faculty have already taken part, and because there is any information regarding a previous faculty IDI score, we did not considered these variables for the present study.

Several key findings from the review of studies emerge. Minimization as general overall score of educator on the IDI. While simply finding the baseline of a group of students or teachers is important, several studies attempted to identify the factors that best contribute to the development of intercultural sensitivity through multivariable regression analysis (DeJaeghere &

Zhang, 2008; Westrick & Yuen, 2007). This method carries the measurement efforts to a level that identifies the specific factors that influence intercultural sensitivity. In turn, leaders may better focus on these items to further inform the developmental process. Finally, using a wider number of internationalization variables related to an intercultural encounter that may affects intercultural sensitivity is rather unexplored in the literature.

3. Methodological approach

The purpose of this study is to determine faculty´s intercultural sensitivy and to analyze the demographic, school experience and intercultural experience variables influencing the intercultural sensitivity of business school faculty. This section includes an explanation of methodology and methods, description of instruments, subjects and selection, data collection procedure, variables, and data analysis.

3.1. Methodology

An exploratory design was used to measure the predictors and to test several findings of related studies regarding intercultural sensitivity in an educational context. This was a quantitative study in a non-experimental design utilizing survey methods.

Survey research provides quantitative or numeric description of a population (Creswell, 2014). This study used a cross-sectional survey design as data was collected.

3.2. Methods

This study used a psychometrically validated instrument to quantitatively measure intercultural sensitivity. The Intercultural Development Inventory (IDI) v3 is a cross-culturally and statistically valid and reliable instrument used to measure worldview orientation along the intercultural developmental continuum (IDC), a modified version of the DMIS (Hammer, 2011; Hammer, Bennet, & Wiseman, 2003).

The IDI makes quantitative data and numeric descriptions convenient to collect, score, and analyze. Additionally the online version of the IDI v3 was used as not all business school faculties have an office at the school. There are several challenges to survey collection, including low response rates and social desirability (Patten, 2011). Overall, the IDI was selected for its careful and empirically supported construction as a statistically valid and reliable instrument for measuring intercultural sensitivity.

3.3. Description of instruments

Quantitative methods were employed to gather data using two instruments in this study. The first was a 39- item electronic demographic and professional survey, administered on Survey Monkey (appendices II and IV). The survey was sent to participants to identify the demographic and professional variables related to internationalization that helped also to collect the some of the predictor variables (demographic, school experience, and intercultural experience) for the present study. The second instrument utilized was the IDI v3 (appendix III).

The Intercultural Development Inventory v3 is a 50-item self-administered survey, available online and in a paper-and-pencil format that can be completed in 15–20 minutes. A wide range of organizations and educational institutions use the IDI.

The IDI includes up to six customized questions that can be added to the questionnaire. In addition, the IDI includes context questions that allow respondents to describe their intercultural experiences in terms of (a) their cross-cultural goals, (b) the challenges that they face navigating cultural differences, (c) critical (intercultural) incidents that they face when they encounter cultural differences, and (d) the ways they navigate those cultural differences. These questions allow individuals to reflect on how their IDI results relate to their cross-cultural goals and challenges, increasing cultural self-understanding and enabling improved accomplishment of key cross-cultural goals.

After individuals complete the IDI, each person's responses to the 50 items is analyzed and reports are prepared that include the person's written responses to the context questions.

Additionally, a customized Intercultural Development Plan (IDP) is also prepared for the person. This IDP provides a detailed blueprint for the individual to further develop his/her intercultural competence. Individual and group developmental and perceived orientation scores are in the range of 55-145 (table 25).

Table 25 IDI v3 scoring scale. Stage core ranges and orientation characterization.

Subscale	Denial	Polarization Defense/Denial	Minimization	Acceptance	Adaptation
Score Rage	55-69.99	70-84.99	85-114.99	115-129.99	130.145
Orientation	Ethnocentric		Transitional	Ethno-relative	

Source: Self-devised.

There are several notable differences between the DMIS and the Intercultural Development Continuum (IDC), which is used in the IDI v3. In the ethnocentric stages of the IDC, what the IDI shows as a defense is named polarization, with subscales of defense and reversal. Additionally, minimization is considered a transitional stage on the IDC, rather than ethnocentric, as posed originally in the DMIS. Finally, the last ethno-relative stage of the DMIS, integration, is not measured by the IDI as it represents an identity (Bennet, 2004).

The IDI is a "gestalt" measure of one´s orientation towards difference and commonalities, and, therefore, does not break down the concept of intercultural competence into knowledge, awareness, and skills as other competency measurement tools may (Paige, 2004). Additionally, the IDI is a culturally-general measurement tool.

The IDI is a proprietary instrument and was not altered for this study. The instrument requires a three –day training and certification process to utilize. The researcher asked UDEM´s international coordinator for applying and interpretation of results, since she is a certified administrator. As a proprietary instrument, copyright prohibits including the IDI in the appendices.

The IDI includes two parts. The first 50-items are 5 point response scale statements that measure orientation toward cultural difference and similarity. The standard demographic questions included: gender, age, years lived in another country, educational level, nationality/passport country, and primary world region in which the participant lived before age 18. The responses to these questions were used for descriptive purposes and in the analysis together with the other demographic and professional variables contained in the questionnaire.

3.4. Subjects and selection

The unit of analysis is UDEM´s Business School faculty. The University of Monterrey (UDEM) is a Mexican private university, recognized worldwide for its internationalization initiatives[12], especially at a student level[13], and for its national (FIMPES, ANUIES)[14] and international accreditations obtained (SACS)[15] and in process of obtaining (AACSB) [5]. Furthermore, the institutional strategic internationalization plan, establishes faculty mobility and resource development as one of its five general elements.

Participants for this study includes faculty members across UDEM´s Business School that taught undergraduate and postgraduate students during the spring 2014 semester. Participants include full-time and part-time professors, as well as, faculty having an administrative position. In fact, no sampling methods were used in this study since all participants available had contact details, and the population had an equal exchange of responding. A limitation of this methodology is that it relied on volunteer responses, which can pose significant challenges (Utts & Heckard, 2006).

12 2009 Heiskell Award for Innovation in International Education for its Strategic Plan for the Internationalization of UDEM.

[13] Intercultural competence coursework program where bachelor students take three cocurricular courses before, during, and after the study abroad experience

[14] FIMPES = Federation of Private Mexican Institutions of Higher Education, ANUIES= Mexican Association of Universities and Institutions of Higher Education.

[15] SACS= Southern Association of Colleges and Schools, AACSB= Association to Advance Collegiate School of Business.

3.5. Data collection procedures

The University of Monterrey approved the study on November, 2013. The data collection period occurred in March 2014. The initial demographic and internationalization survey was sent to the email address of the participants (N=111) with a link to Survey Monkey where the instrument was uploaded (appendices II and IV). Afterwards, the same day, using the email with a link, the IDI v3 was sent to each faculty (appendix III). Purpose of data collection was explained on the cover of the studies together with instructions and assurance of the confidentiality of the data collected. The language used in both instruments was Spanish, but for thesis presentation purposes all instruments have been translated into English.

Participants were contacted via telephone and electronic mail. Four reminding emails with the instructions and the instruments, were sent to faculty. Email senders included the researcher in charge of the investigation and the business school`s director. Additionally, a printed letter asking for faculty full-time participation was placed in full-time faculty offices. Finally, reminding telephone calls included those who have not completed the instrument for diverse reasons. There were 83 completed responses on the questionnaire, providing a 74.77% response rate. Additionally, 80 faculty completed the IDI, with a 72.07%. After merging the respondents of both instruments, we have 68 participants, representing a response rate of 61.26 %.

The IDI v3 online software results were exported to Excel and then to the Statistical Package for the Social Science (SPSS) version 21 for further quantitative analysis.

3.6. Variables

The study examined faculty demographic, school experience, and intercultural experience variables that may influence intercultural sensitivity. This sensitivity toward difference, as Bennett (1993) suggests, is the result of an individual's traits and experiences. Factors which impact one's orientation to difference may include gender, age, or education. Likewise, the kind of environment that an individual lives in, the kind of experiences an individual has, and the people that an individual interacts with may also impact one's worldview toward difference

(Bayles, 2009). This study investigated the factors of age, gender, nationality, educational level, foreign language proficiency, teaching experience, school job position, years living abroad, experience living abroad before 18 years old, and degrees and training abroad, which have been examined in previous studies (Ayas, 2006; Bayles, 2009; Davis, 2009; Elmer, 2007; El Garzoury, 2012; Fretheim, 2007; Helmer, 2007; Lai, 2006; Nichols, 2011; Steuernagel, 2014; Straffon, 2001; Westrick, 2002; Westrick & Yuen, 2007). Additionally, this study expanded the research by including several variables related to intercultural experience not examined in previous studies as: participation on students´ academic trips and courses abroad, international experience outside HEI, international research activities, visiting professor activities, technological tools utilization, and home internationalization activities. Table 26 show the variables employed in the study together with its measurement.

Table 26 Summary of variables and measurement.

	Variable	Measurement
Demographic variables	Age	1=20-29 years old , 2=30-39 years old, 3=40-49 years old, 4=50-59 years old, 5= 60-69 years old, 6=70 years old and over
	Gender	1=Female, 2=Male
	Nationality	1=Mexican, 2=Foreigner
	Educational level	1=Doctorate degree, 2=Master degree
	Foreign languages	1=0 foreign languages, 2=1 foreign language, 2 foreign languages or more
	English level proficiency	1= No knowledge, 2=Basic, 3=Intermediate, 4= Advanced
School experience	Type of contract	1=Full-time, 2=Part-time
	School job position	1=Faculty, 2=Faculty with an administrative position
	Teaching experience	1=Less than 1 year, 2=From 1 to 5 years, 3=From 6 to 10 years, 4= From 11 to 15 years, 5=From 16 to 20 years, 6= More than 20 years
Intercultural experience	Time living overseas	1=Never lived overseas, 2=Less than 3 months, 3=3-6 months, 4=7-11 months, 5=1-2 years, 6= 3-5 years, 7=6-10 years, 8=Over 10 years
	Region living abroad before age 18	1=North America, 2=South America, 3=Central America, 4=Eastern Europe, 5=Western Europe, 6= Africa, 7=Asia, 8=Oceania
	Ph.D. or master degree abroad	1=Yes, 2=No
	Courses, seminars, specializations, or certifications abroad	1=Yes, 2=No
	Language courses abroad	1=Yes, 2=No
	Time spent abroad for education	1= 0 months, 2= 1 to 20 months, 3) 21 months or more
	Number of studies abroad	1= 0 studies, 2= 1-2 studies, 3= 3 studies or more
	Participation on academic trips	1=Yes, 2=No

	Variable	Measurement
	and courses abroad for students	
	Participation on international conferences	1=Yes, 2=No
	Participation with colleagues on international research projects	1=Yes, 2=No
	Participation on international academic boards committees	1=Yes, 2=No
	Membership of international academic and professional associations	1=Yes, 2=No
	Visiting professor abroad	1=Yes, 2=No
	Hosting visiting professors from abroad	1=Yes, 2=No
	International experience outside HEI	1=Yes, 2=No
	Technological tools utilization (forums, chats, and videoconferences)	1=Yes, 2=No
	Organization of international events	1=Yes, 2=No
	Participation in COIL programs	1=Yes, 2=No
Intercultural sensitivity	IDI individual development orientation (DO) score	Score
	IDI individual perceived orientation (PO) score	Score
	IDI DO grouped score	1= 40.51- 87.81, 2= 87.97-123.73
	IDI PO grouped score	1= 103-118.35, 2= 118.46 – 135.3

Source: Self-devised.

3.7. Data analysis

Statistical analyses were performed using SPSS. Descriptive statistics were used to analyze the results of the survey item responses and the scores on the Intercultural Development Inventory.

In order to understand the relationships between the various factors hypothesized to be associated with intercultural sensitivity, several statistical methods were considered: crosstabulation (chi-squire and Fisher tests), multiple correspondence analysis (MCA) and binary logistic regression. For the purposes of this study, the researcher set the statistical significance level for the statistical analyses to be less than 0.10.

Crosstabs tables allowed us to evaluate if there is evidence of a significant relationship between the variables (nominal and ordinal) of the study with the DO grouped score variable.

The qualitative variables considered were: age, gender, nationality, educational level, foreign language proficiency, foreign languages, type of contract, school job position, teaching experience, region living abroad before age 18, Ph.D. or master degree abroad, courses, seminars, specializations or certifications abroad, language courses abroad, time spent abroad for education, number of studies abroad, participation on academic trips and courses abroad, participation on international research projects, participation on international academic boards committees, membership of international academic and professional associations, visiting professor, visiting professor hosting, international experience outside HEI, technological tools utilization, organization of international events, and participation on COIL programs.

Crosstabs produces contingency tables and chi-square/Fisher test may follow to test whether an association between the variables is statistically significant. In this case the null hypothesis states that there is not statistically significant association between each of the demographic, school experience and intercultural experience variables and the DO grouped score. The alternative hypothesis states there exists statistically significant association between each of the demographic, school experience and intercultural experience variables and the DO grouped score.

Multiple Correspondence Analysis (MCA) was considered in order to examine the interrelationships among the qualitative variables, and then to explain them in terms of their common underlying dimensions (factors).

Binary logistic regression was used to examine the relationships (if any) of the dependent variable (DO grouped score) to the independent variables generated by the responses on the survey and the IDI.

4. Results

The results of the study of the intercultural sensitivity of faculty in UDEM´s business school are presented below. They are a summary of the data collected for full-time and part-time

faculty (N=68) affiliated with the business school. Descriptive, then analytical statistics are presented in this section.

4.1. *Descriptive statistics*

The profile of UDEM`s Business School faculty according to demographic variables results indicate that 4.4% (n=3) have 18-29 years old, 23.5% (n=16) have 20-39 years old, 32.4% (n=22) have 40-49 years old, 27.9% (n=19) have 50-59 years old, 10.3% (n=7) have 60-69 years old, and only one professor is on the 70 years or older category. Regarding gender, 53% (n=36) of participants are female and 47% (n= 32) male, with 9% (n= 6) of faculty with a foreign nationality (Colombian, Peruvian, Greek and Dominican), and 66% (n=45) of them expressed they have an advanced level in English, and on average they master one foreign language. Furthermore, based on the school experience variables, 11.8% (n=8) reported to have a faculty and administrative positon at the same time in the business school. The number of part-time professors (n= 46) is double by the full-time faculty (n= 22). For this reason, it is common to find that 76.5% (n= 52) of the sample has a master degree compared to 23.5% (n= 16) who possess a PhD, since the majority of the part-time professors are also practitioners. Regarding their work experience as teachers 31% (n=28) have over 20 years of experience as teachers (tables 27-28).

Table 27 Frequency table. Demographic, school experience and intercultural experience variables.

Variable	Categories	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Age	18-29 years old	3	4.4	4.4
	20-39 years old	16	23.5	27.9
	40-49 years old	22	32.4	60.3
	50-59 years old	19	27.9	88.2
	60-69 years old	7	10.3	98.5
	70 years old or older	1	1.5	100.0
Gender	Female	36	52.9	52.9
	Male	32	47.1	100.0
Nationality	Mexican	62	91.2	91.2
	Other	6	8.8	100.0
Educational level	Doctorate	16	23.5	23.5
	Master	52	76.5	100.0
Foreign languages	0 foreign languages	6	8.8	8.8
	1 foreign language	51	75.0	83.8
	2 foreign languages or more	11	16.2	100.0
English level proficiency	I don´t know it	1	1.5	1.5

Variable	Categories	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
	Basic level	6	8.8	10.3
	Intermediate level	16	23.5	33.8
	Advanced level	45	66.2	100.0

Table 28 Frequency table. School experience variables.

Variable	Categories	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Type of contract	Full-time	22	32.4	32.4
	Part-time	46	67.6	100.0
School job position	Faculty	60	88.2	88.2
	Faculty with administrative position	8	11.8	100.0
Teaching experience	Less than 1 year	1	1.5	1.5
	From 1 to 5 years	13	19.1	20.6
	From 6 to 10 years	14	20.6	41.2
	From 11 to 15 years	13	19.1	60.3
	From 16 to 20 years	6	8.8	69.1
	More than 20 years	21	30.9	100.0

Regarding the intercultural experience variables, faculty were asked about their time living overseas; 19% (n=13) reported that they never lived overseas, 21% (n=14) lived less than 3 months, 10% (n= 7) lived between 3 and 6 months, 9% (n= 6) lived between 7 and 11 months, 18% (n= 12) lived 1 and 2 years, 15% (n= 10) lived between 3 and 5 years, 1.5% (n= 1) lived between 6 and 10 years, and 7% (n= 5) lived over 10 years. Another IDI question was about the world region where faculty has lived before the age of 18. Results show that the majority lived in North America (81%, n= 55), followed by Western Europe (7.4%, n= 5), South America (6%, n= 4), Central America (3%, n= 2), and Eastern Europe (3%, n= 2). As we can noticed 19% (n= 13) has lived in North America before 18 years old. Based on the information about degrees and training abroad (tables 3.21 to 3.23), 18% (n=12) of faculty have studied a doctorate in a foreign country and 32% (n=22) have a master's degree from an overseas institution; 51.5% (n=35) mentioned they completed a course, seminar or specialization at a foreign institution, and 25% (n=17) completed a language course abroad. The number of foreign languages with a proficiency level is concentrated more in the 1-2 studies abroad category (41.2%, n=28). A high percentage of the faculty expressed they have an intermediate or advanced level in a foreign language (75%, n=51). On average they have one or two studies abroad (academic and professional studies). The time spent abroad for education varies, 26% (n=18) spend 1 to 20 months and 29% (n=20) spends 21 months or more. Most of them choose countries such as United States, Canada, Spain, France,

Italy, Germany, Austria, and Netherlands and with a low proportion choose Asia (China, Korea, and Japan), Chile and Argentina (table 29).

Other intercultural experience variables considered in this study are the following. An activity that business school faculty used to carried out internationalization is the participation on students abroad academic trips and courses, 34% (n= 23) of the faculty is involved in this type of activity, but the majority of them have just participated in 1 or 2 occasions. In addition, a high percentage (47%, n=32) mentioned that they have international working experience outside higher education institutions, they stated that they have participated in international projects for companies or have collaborated with an international service organization (table 29).

Regarding international research activities, faculty participated in international conferences, being 18 the maximum number of international forums where faculty have presented their work, 23.5% (n=16) of faculty have participated in international research project with other colleagues, only 19% (n=13) of faculty are members of an academic or professional association, and 31% are members of international academic boards. According to other international academic duties, only 7.4% (n=5) of the faculty has been a visiting professor at an institution abroad, and 26.5% (n=18) have hosted a foreign professor at the business school (table 29).

In relation to the utilization of technological tools in order to internationalize a course and having an intercultural experience, 44% (n=30) of participants mentioned they have employed an international technological tool, versus a 56% (n=38) that mentioned they never used a technological tool in an international or intercultural setting. Regarding home international activities, 33.8% (n=23) have organized international event at UDEM, and only 2.9% (n=2) have participated on COIL programs (table 29).

Table 29 Frequency table. Intercultural experience variables.

Variable	Categories	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Time living overseas	Never lived overseas	13	19.1	19.1
	Less than 3 months	14	20.6	39.7
	3 to 6 months	7	10.3	50.0
	7 to 11 months	6	8.8	58.8
	1 to 2 years	12	17.6	76.5
	3 to 5 years	10	14.7	91.2
	6 to 10 years	1	1.5	92.6
	Over 10 years	5	7.4	100.0
Region living abroad before age 18	North America	55	80.9	80.9
	South America	4	5.9	86.8
	Central America	2	2.9	89.7
	Eastern Europe	2	2.9	92.6
	Western Europe	5	7.4	100.0
Ph.D. or master degree abroad	Yes	27	39.7	39.7
	No	41	60.3	100.0
Courses, seminars, specializations, or certifications abroad	Yes	35	51.5	51.5
	No	33	48.5	100.0
Language courses abroad	Yes	17	25.0	25.0
	No	51	75.0	100.0
Time spent abroad for education	0 months	30	44.1	44.1
	1 to 20 months	18	26.5	70.6
	21 months or more	20	29.4	100.0
Number of studies abroad	0 studies	23	33.8	33.8
	1-2 studies	28	41.2	75.0
	3 studies or more	17	25.0	100.0
Participation on academic trips and courses abroad for students	Yes	23	33.8	33.8
	No	45	66.2	100.0
Participation on international conferences	Yes	32	47.1	47.1
	No	36	52.9	100.0
Participation with colleagues on international research projects	Yes	16	23.5	23.5
	No	52	76.5	100.0
Participation on international academic boards committees	Yes	21	30.9	30.9
	No	47	69.1	100.0
Membership of international academic and professional associations	Yes	13	19.1	19.1
	No	55	80.9	100.0
Visiting professor abroad	Yes	5	7.4	7.4
	No	63	92.6	100.0
Hosting visiting professors from abroad	Yes	18	26.5	26.5
	No	50	73.5	100.0
International experience outside HEI	Yes	32	47.1	47.1
	No	36	52.9	100.0
Technological tools utilization (forums, chats, and videoconferences)	Yes	30	44.1	44.1
	No	38	55.9	100.0
Organization of international events	Yes	23	33.8	33.8
	No	45	66.2	100.0
Participation in COIL programs	Yes	2	2.9	2.9
	No	66	97.1	100.0

4.2. *Analytical statistics*

The first research question is: What is the level of intercultural sensitivity of UDEM´s business school faculty as measured by the Intercultural Development Inventory (IDI)? Developmental Orientation (DO) scores from the IDI v3 were used as it is considered the overall score on the IDI. The IDI uses the intercultural development continuum (IDC), which is based on the DMIS. Like the DMIS, it also depicts worldview orientations from ethnocentric to ethno-relative mindsets. The IDC is divided into five categories: Denial, polarization (defense/reversal), minimization, acceptance, and adaptation. The score range on the IDI is 55 - 145. A score of 100, represents the middle point categorized by placement in Minimization. A score of 55 - 69.99 indicates Denial; 70 - 84.99 Polarization; 85 - 114.99 Minimization, 115 - 129.99 Acceptance; and 130 - 145 Adaptation.

The IDI produces other scores to identify trailing issues. Trailing orientations are issues that face respondents and hold them back from moving forward along the developmental continuum. The IDI trailing subscales fall between 1.00 and 5.00 on each of the trailing subscale and ranges between “unresolved” (score between 1.00 and 3.99) to “resolved” (score between 4.00 and 5.00). Scores of less than 4.00 indicate a subscale issue that is not “resolved” (table 30).

Based on the IDI results. We can state that the majority of UDEM´s Business School faculty place themselves in the Acceptance stage (66%, n= 45) according the Perceived Orientation (PO) results and in average then have a PO mean value of 118.41, being 103.47 the minimum value and 135.30 the maximum. This means they seem themselves as curious and respectful toward cultural differences, but they did not adapt their behavior to different cultural contexts. On the other hand, their actual IDI score (Development Orientation score), shows a different scenario, with a DO mean value of 84.75, faculty are considered to be in the Polarization stage as a group. The lowest DO score was 40.51 and the highest 123.73. The percentages on average for Defense is 50.45%, and 49.55% for Denial, the difference is very low, but we can say that faculty are in the Polarization (defense) stage. The lowest DO score was 40.51 and the highest 123.73 (tables 30, 31, 32).

Table 30 Descriptive statistics. IDI scores.

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Perceived_Orientation_PO_score	68	103.47	135.30	118.4153	6.67720
Developmental_Orientation_DO_score	68	40.51	123.73	84.7547	17.43665
Orientation_Gap_OG	68	10.95	63.15	33.6606	11.23093
Cultural_Disengagement_CD	68	2.60	5.00	4.4412	.64327
Denial_Trailing_Orientation_DEN	68	2	5	4.08	.665
Desinterest_Trailing_Orientation_DIS	68	2.00	5.00	3.9154	.74515
Avoidance_Trailing_Orientation_AVO	68	1.33	5.00	4.2990	.80665
Defense_Trailing_Orientation_DEF	68	1.67	5.00	3.6272	.74439
Reversal_Trailing_Orientation_REV	68	1.89	5.00	3.6076	.77277
Minimization_Trailing_Orientation_MIN	68	1.11	3.89	2.1879	.70869
Similarity_Trailing_Orientation_SIM	68	1.00	4.20	2.2118	.85406
Universalism_Trailing_Orientation_UNI	68	1.00	3.75	2.1581	.79516
Acceptance_Trailing_Orientation_ACC	68	2.00	5.00	3.8529	.70191
Adaptation_Trailing_Orientation_ADAP	68	1.67	5.00	3.5071	.67655
Cognitive_Adaptation_Trailing_Orientation_COG	68	2.00	5.00	3.6176	.81322
Behavioral_Adaptation_Trailing_Orientation_BEH	68	1.00	5.00	3.4176	.78473
Valid N (listwise)	68				

We also find out that 4.4% (n= 3) of the faculty scored in the Acceptance stage, the majority were in the Minimization stage (48.5%, n= 33), where people assume that their experiences are shared by people in all cultures; following with people in the Polarization stage (30.9%, n= 21) where people either think that their culture is superior (Defense) or the other or new culture is superior (Reversal); finally, 16.2% (n=11) are in the Denial stage. This fact indicate that these faculty see their own culture as the only real one and demonstrate little or no interest in experiencing cultural difference (table 31).

Table 31 Frequency table. DO stages frequency.

DO_stages_frequency

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Denial	11	16.2	16.2	16.2
	Polarization	21	30.9	30.9	47.1
	Minimization	33	48.5	48.5	95.6
	Acceptance	3	4.4	4.4	100.0
	Total	68	100.0	100.0	

Table 32 Frequency table. PO stages frequency.

PO_stages_frequency

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Minimization	18	26.5	26.5	26.5
	Acceptance	45	66.2	66.2	92.6
	Adaptation	5	7.4	7.4	100.0
	Total	68	100.0	100.0	

The majority of academic higher education research employing the IDI to measure intercultural sensitivity, discovered that participants have a DO score that position them in the Minimization stage. Mahon (2003) reported for K-12 teachers a developmental mean sore of 96.6. Lai (2006) participants in Taiwanese universities were placed at the Minimization stage. Mahon´s (2006) study of 155 teachers from the American Midwest placed them beyond the last ethnocentric scale of Minimization. Helmer (2007) found that the educator´s overall IDI was at the Minimization stage as a group with a mean score of 101.71. DeJaeghere and Zhang (2008) also studied 284 teachers in a K-12 school district, again, the IDI group scores ranged from 96 to 110 (Minimization stage) in the nine schools. Davis (2009) U.S. foreign student advisors´ developmental mean score was 103.85. Yuen and Grossman (2009) results show that 317 teachers of Hong Kong, Shanghai and Singapore were at the Minimization stage (86.36). Westrick and Yuen studied the IDI score of 160 secondary teachers and placed them also in the Minimization stage (91.32). Bayles (2009) explored 86 elementary teachers working in five bilingual schools in an urban Texas school district and their mean developmental IDI score was

95.09 placing them in the Minimization stage. DeJaeghere and Cao (2009) found that the majority of 86 elementary teachers from seven elementary schools scored in the Minimization stage. Steuernagel (2014) results revealed that school counselors in international schools are working from the Minimization stage (N=334, M=99.5).

Just, Yuen (2010) reported that the majority of the teachers were operating in the beginning stage, denial/defense (82.83), on the DMIS, and on the Polarization stage according the IDI, where they say the world from an ethnocentric perspective and held a negative view on evaluating cultural differences.

The Orientational Gap (OG) between the PO and the DO scores, shows that all the faculty obtained a gap score higher than 7, which can be considered a meaningful difference between where people perceive "they are" on the developmental continuum and where the IDI places the people of intercultural competence. In our study, the lowest value was 11 and the highest 63, with a mean of 34 (table 30).

The substantial gap between participants' Developmental and Perceived orientation was surprisingly high, but also found in literature, for example El Ganzoury (2012), obtained an OG score of 24.63 in his study. This finding suggested that the participants have an unrealistic inflated perception of their intercultural performance as educators in highly diverse student populations. Accordingly, these educators are not aware that they are still cognitively and behaviorally operating from their own cultural beliefs and values. Bennett (2009) asserted that self-awareness is an integral precursor of intercultural learning. Moreover, without the "mental baseline" of recognizing one's own culture(s), it will be hard to recognize and manage cultural differences.

The Cultural Disengagement (CD) score shows how connected or disconnected people feel toward their own cultural community. In our study, 13% (n= 9) of faculty are not "resolved" indicating that the may be experiencing to some degree a lack of involvement in core aspects of being a member of a cultural community, and 88% (n= 59) are "resolved", showing that they are connected to their cultural community (table 30).

The Trailing Orientations, as we mentioned, are those orientations that are "in back of" the DO on the intercultural continuum that are not "resolved". When an earlier orientation is not resolved, this "trailing" perspective may be used to make sense of cultural differences at particular times around certain topics or in specific situations. Trailing Orientations represent alternative "currents" that flow through varied experiences with cultural differences and commonalities. Not everyone has trailing orientations. However, when individuals have Trailing Orientations, they may respond to a specific situation from the perspective of this "earlier" orientation rather than the DO or mindset that characterizes their predominant way of dealing with cultural difference challenges.

According to the results there are several trailing orientations that come before the DO when faculty remain unresolved. In the case of Denial Trailing Orientation (DNTO), 34% (n= 23) of faculty have not resolved this issue, 44% (n= 30) have not resolved the Disinterest in Culture Difference Trailing Orientation (DCDTO), only 25% (n= 17) have not resolved the Avoidance of Interaction with Cultural Difference Trailing Orientation (AICDTO), 65% (n=44) have not resolved the Defense Trailing Orientation (DFTO), 63% (n=43) have not resolved the Reversal Trailing Orientation (RTO), all faculty (100%, n= 68) have not resolved the Minimization Trailing Orientation (MTO), 94% (n= 64) have not resolved the Similarity Trailing Orientation (STO), and 100% (n= 68) of faculty have not resolved the Universalism Trailing Orientation (UTO) (table 33).

Table 33 Frequency table. Trailing orientation and cultural disengagement.

Variable	Categories	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
DEN_R_NR	No Resolved	23	33.8	33.8
	Resolved	45	66.2	100.0
DIS_R_NR	No Resolved	30	44.1	44.1
	Resolved	38	55.9	100.0
AVO_R_NR	No Resolved	17	25.0	25.0
	Resolved	51	75.0	100.0
DEF_R_NR	No Resolved	44	64.7	64.7
	Resolved	24	35.3	100.0
REV_R_NR	No Resolved	43	63.2	63.2
	Resolved	25	36.8	100.0
MIN_R_NR	No Resolved	68	100.0	100.00
SIM_R_NR	No Resolved	64	94.1	94.1
	Resolved	4	5.9	100.0

Variable	Categories	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
UNI_R_NR	No Resolved	68	100.0	100.0
ACC_R_NR	No Resolved	29	42.6	42.6
	Resolved	39	57.4	100.0
ADAP_R_NR	No Resolved	51	75.0	75.0
	Resolved	17	25.0	100.0
CD_Resolved_NotResolved	No Resolved	9	13.2	13.2
	Resolved	59	86.8	100.0

Since the majority of academic studies have considered DO scores, to study the relationship between intercultural sensitivity and predictors (demographic, school experience, and intercultural experience variables), the present investigation will concentrate on this scores.

Before any statistical procedure, we first ran a correlation analysis in order to corroborate any possible correlation between DO score and PO score, that helped us deciding if it was necessary to consider both or just one score. Results show that DO score and PO score are almost perfectly correlated .955, so we will based the following analysis on the DO score, since it represents people´s real intercultural sensitivity (table 34).

Table 34 Correlation analysis. DO score and PO score.

Correlations

		Perceived_Orientation_PO_score	Developmental_Orientation_DO_score
Perceived_Orientation_PO_score	Pearson Correlation	1	.955**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	68	68
Developmental_Orientation_DO_score	Pearson Correlation	.955**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	68	68

**. Correlation is significant at the 0,01 level (2-tailed).

Afterwards, we had to split the DO score at the median into two categories, because we have a small number of observations (n=68) and for the reason that we did not find an equivalent analysis that respects the continuous nature of the DO score variable (e.g., regression) and gave us significant results. Moreover, before taking such decision, we used two dichotomous pair of variables (ethnocentric vs. ethno-relative and mono-cultural vs. inter-cultural mindset) to slip DO

scores based on DMIS and IDI literature. Results of binary logistic regressions were also not significant because the distribution of the observations was unbalanced for the ethnocentric and ethno-relative variables. Furthermore, the MCA and binary logistic models were not statistically significant for the mindset variables. At the end, we opted for this practice, since we wanted to use the DO score as an independent variable in an inferential statistical procedure (binary logistic regression) and compare balanced groups of individuals with high and low values of measurement (DO score).

We are aware that we probably lose information by splitting the DO score at the median, and that the resulting model may not reflect the underlying nature of the variable. Even though, dichotomizing continuous variables is a practice in fields as Medicine (Turner, Dobson, & Pocock, 2010) and Business (Hanley, 2002).

The new DO dichotomized variable is showed in table 35. Group 1 reflects the low DO scores that range from 40.51 to 87.81, group 2 shows the high DO scores values that range from 87.97 to 123.73 (table 35). According to the IDI literature faculty on the first group are basically in the Denial (55-69.99) or Polarization (70-84.99) stage with a low percentage of them in the Minimization (85-114.99) stage. Professor of group 2 fall on the Minimization (85-114.99) and Acceptance (115-129.99) stages.

Table 35 Frequency table. DO grouped scores.

DO_grouped_score

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Group 1	34	50.0	50.0	50.0
	Group 2	34	50.0	50.0	100.0
	Total	68	100.0	100.0	

4.2.1. *Crosstabulation results*

In order to analyze our qualitative variables (ordinal and nominal), grouped in demographic, school experience and intercultural experience factors, and DO grouped score, we employed contingency tables (Crosstabs) and chi-square/Fisher test.

Result should be interpreted based on Fisher´s exact test p values and not Chi square analysis, when the sample is small and when more than 20% of cells have expected count values less than 5 (Yates, Moore & McCabe, 1999).

In order to determine if a statistical relation exists between the DO grouped scores and the qualitative variables, we first look at the chi-square test or the Fisher test p values > 0.10. Then, if there was statically evidence of a relationship, we described the percentages and frequencies found in the contingency table.

According to results (table 36), significant relation was found between DO grouped score and the variables: foreign languages (.064), type of contract (.038), time living overseas (.070), region living abroad before 18 (.101), and hosting visiting professors from abroad (.028). In this case we reject the null hypothesis that states that there is not statistically significant association between foreign languages, type of contract, time living overseas, region living abroad before 18, and hosting visiting professors from abroad and the DO grouped score. Therefore, we accept the alternative hypothesis that states there exists statistically significant association among the aforementioned variables and the DO grouped score.

Similar results were found in literature, but the only difference is that authors employed the DO score as a continuous variables in their studies. Academic studies found statistically relation between DO score and foreign language proficiency (Fretheim, 2007; Strekalova, 2013), contract (Fretheim, 2007), time living overseas (El Garzoury, 2012; Lai, 2006; Mahon, 2006; Pedersen, 2010; Straffon, 2001; Steuernagel, 2014; Westrick and Yuen, 2010; Yuen, 2010), and region living abroad before 18 (Helmer, 2007; Straffon, 2001). Visiting professor hosting variable has not been considered as a predictor variable in IDI studies, but we considered

important to include because national faculty reports (ACE, 2012) and institution´s internationalization reports (Pynes, et al., 2011) have argued about its importance over faculty internationalization. It also involves an intercultural encounter between home faculty and foreign faculty.

For the rest of the variables we cannot reject the null hypothesis, then we will state that there is not statistically significant association between: age (.252), gender (1.000), nationality (.197), educational level (.567), English level (1.000), school job position (.259), teaching experience (.783), Ph.D. or master degree abroad (.457), courses (.467), language courses (.401), time spent abroad for education (1.000), number of studies abroad (.950), participation on academic trips (.442), international conferences (.627), international projects (1.000), international academic boards (.431), international associations (.758), visiting professor (1.000), international experience outside HEI (.331), technological tools (.329), organization of international events (.442), and COIL programs (1.000) (table 36).

Some studies, as well, have not found a statically correlation between intercultural sensitivity and age (Ayas, 2006; Bayles, 2009; Fretheim, 2007; Yuen, 2010), gender (Bayles, 2009; Davis, 2009; Fretheim, 2007; El Ganzoury, 2012; Westrick & Yuen, 2007; Yuen, 2010), nationality (Ayas, 2006), educational level (Bayles, 2009; Steuernagel, 2014), and teaching experience (Davies, 2010; DeJaeghere and Zhang, 2008).

Table 36 Crosstabulation study variables. Chi-square test and Fisher test.

Variable type	Variable	Pearson Chi-square Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Fisher´s Exact Test Exact Sig. (2-sided)
Demographic	Age		.252
	Gender	1.000	
	Nationality		.197
	Educational level	.567	
	Foreign languages		**.064**
	English level proficiency		1.000
School experience	Type of contract	**.038**	
	School job position		.259

Variable type	Variable	Pearson Chi-square Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Fisher´s Exact Test Exact Sig. (2-sided)
	Teaching experience		.783
Intercultural experience	Time living overseas		**.070**
	Region living abroad before age 18		**.101**
	Ph.D. or master degree abroad	.457	
	Courses, seminars, specializations, or certifications abroad	.467	
	Language courses abroad	.401	
	Time spent abroad for education	1.000	
	Number of studies abroad	.950	
	Participation on academic trips and courses abroad for students	.442	
	Participation on international conferences	.627	
	Participation with colleagues on international research projects	1.000	
	Participation on international academic boards committees	.431	
	Membership of international academic and professional associations	.758	
	Visiting professor abroad	1.000	
	Hosting visiting professors from abroad	**.028**	
	International experience outside HEI	.331	
	Technological tools utilization (forums, chats, and videoconferences)	.329	
	Organization of international events	.442	
	Participation in COIL programs	1.000	

Table 37 shows the significant relation between visiting professor hosting activity and DO grouped score. We can notice that 14.70% (n=5) of faculty in group 1, has hosted a visiting professor from abroad and 85.29% (n=29) has not received any professor from abroad. On the other hand, 38.2% (n=13) of faculty in group 2 has hosted a visiting professor, and 61.8% (n=21) has not hosted a professor from abroad. Therefore, faculty in group 2, with high DO scores, used to host foreign faculty more than faculty in group 1.

Table 37 Table Crosstabulation. DO grouped score and visiting professor hosting.

Crosstabulation

			DO_grouped_score		Total
			Group 1	Group 2	
Visiting_professor_hosting	Yes	Count	5	13	18
		Expected count	9.0	9.0	18.0
		% within Visiting_professor_hosting	27.8%	72.2%	100.0%
		% within DO_grouped_score	14.7%	38.2%	26.5%
		% of Total	7.4%	19.1%	26.5%
	No	Count	29	21	50
		Expected count	25.0	25.0	50.0
		% within Visiting_professor_hosting	58.0%	42.0%	100.0%
		% within DO_grouped_score	85.3%	61.8%	73.5%
		% of Total	42.6%	30.9%	73.5%
Total		Count	34	34	68
		Expected count	34.0	34.0	68.0
		% within Visiting_professor_hosting	50.0%	50.0%	100.0%
		% within DO_grouped_score	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
		% of Total	50.0%	50.0%	100.0%

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Table 38 Chi-square test. DO grouped score and visiting professor.

Chi-square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)	Likelihood
Pearson Chi-Square	4.836[a]	1	.028	.053	.026	
Likelihood Ratio	3.702	1	.054			
Fisher´s Exact Test	4.968	1	.026	.053	.026	
Linear-by-Linear Association				.053	.026	
N of Valid Cases	4.764[c]	1	.029	.053	.026	.020
Pearson Chi-Square	68					

a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 9.00.

b. Compute only for a 2x2 table.

c. The categorized statistic is -2.183.

Based on the results showed in table 39, faculty in group 1 are mostly part-time faculty (n=27, 79.4%), compared to full-time faculty (n=7, 20.6%). Group 2 is formed by 15 full-time

faculty (44.1%) and 19 part-time faculty (55.9%). This means that group 1 is mostly formed by part-time faculty and that group 2 is more balanced with a very similar number of full-time and part-time faculty.

Table 39 Table Crosstabulation. DO grouped score and contract.

Crosstabulation

			DO_grouped_score		Total
			Group 1	Group 2	
Contract	Full-time	Count	7	15	22
		Expected count	11.0	11.0	22.0
		% within Contract	31.8%	68.2%	100.0%
		% within DO_grouped_score	20.6%	44.1%	32.4%
		% of Total	10.3%	22.1%	32.4%
	Part-time	Count	27	19	46
		Expected count	23.0	23.0	46.0
		% within Contract	58.7%	41.3%	100.0%
		% within DO_grouped_score	79.4%	55.9%	67.6%
		% of Total	39.7%	27.9%	67.6%
Total		Count	34	34	68
		Expected count	34.0	34.0	68.0
		% within Contract	50.0%	50.0%	100.0%
		% within DO_grouped_score	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
		% of Total	50.0%	50.0%	100.0%

Table 40 Chi-square test. DO grouped score and contract.

Chi-square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)	Likelihood
Pearson Chi-Square	4.300[a]	1	.038	.068	.034	
Likelihood Ratio	3.292	1	.070			
Fisher´s Exact Test	4.375	1	.036	.068	.034	
Linear-by-Linear Association				.068	.034	
N of Valid Cases	4.237[c]	1	.040	.068	.034	.025
Pearson Chi-Square	68					

a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 11.00. b. Compute only for a 2x2 table. c. The categorized statistic is -2.058.

Table 41 shows the relation between time living overseas and DO grouped score. Faculty groups presents similar percentages in the different categories of time living overseas. Notorious differences were between group 1 and group 2 in the categories: 6 to 10 years and over 10 years of living abroad, this is because faculty from group 2 has lived abroad more than 5 years and faculty from group 1 has never lived abroad for more than 5 years. This shows the relation of the years living overseas over intercultural sensitivity.

Table 41 Crosstabulation. DO grouped score and time living overseas.

Crosstabulation

			DO_grouped_score		Total
			Group 1	Group 2	
Time_living_overseas	Never lived overseas	Count	8	5	13
		Expected count	6.5	6.5	13.0
		% within Time_living_overseas	61.5%	38.5%	100.0%
		% within DO_grouped_score	23.5%	14.7%	19.1%
		% of Total	11.8%	7.4%	19.1%
	Less than 3 months	Count	6	8	14
		Expected count	7.0	7.0	14.0
		% within Time_living_overseas	42.9%	57.1%	100.0%
		% within DO_grouped_score	17.6%	23.5%	20.6%
		% of Total	8.8%	11.8%	20.6%
	3 to 6 months	Count	4	3	7
		Expected count	3.5	3.5	7.0
		% within Time_living_overseas	57.1%	42.9%	100.0%
		% within DO_grouped_score	11.8%	8.8%	10.3%
		% of Total	5.9%	4.4%	10.3%
	7 to 11 months	Count	5	1	6
		Expected count	3.0	3.0	6.0
		% within Time_living_overseas	83.3%	16.7%	100.0%
		% within DO_grouped_score	14.7%	2.9%	8.8%
		% of Total	7.4%	1.5%	8.8%
	1 to 2 years	Count	4	8	12
		Expected count	6.0	6.0	12.0

		% within Time_living_overseas	33.3%	66.7%	100.0%
		% within DO_grouped_score	11.8%	23.5%	17.6%
		% of Total	5.9%	11.8%	17.6%
		Count	7	3	10
		Expected count	5.0	5.0	10.0
	3 to 5 years	% within Time_living_overseas	70.0%	30.0%	100.0%
		% within DO_grouped_score	20.6%	8.8%	14.7%
		% of Total	10.3%	4.4%	14.7%
		Count	0	1	1
		Expected count	.5	.5	1.0
	6 to 10 years	% within Time_living_overseas	0.0%	100.0%	100.0%
		% within DO_grouped_score	0.0%	2.9%	1.5%
		% of Total	0.0%	1.5%	1.5%
		Count	0	5	5
		Expected count	2.5	2.5	5.0
	Over 10 years	% within Time_living_overseas	0.0%	100.0%	100.0%
		% within DO_grouped_score	0.0%	14.7%	7.4%
		% of Total	0.0%	7.4%	7.4%
		Count	34	34	68
		Expected count	34.0	34.0	68.0
Total		% within Time_living_overseas	50.0%	50.0%	100.0%
		% within DO_grouped_score	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
		% of Total	50.0%	50.0%	100.0%

Table 42 Fisher test. DO grouped score and time living overseas.

Chi-square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)	Likelihood
Pearson Chi-Square	12.721[a]	7	.079	.065		
Likelihood Ratio	15.362	7	.032	.051		
Fisher´s Exact Test	12.296			.070		
Linear-by-Linear Association	1.951[b]	1	.163	.181	.091	.017
N of Valid Cases	68					

a. 8 cells (50.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .50.

b. The categorized statistic is 1.397.

The region where faculty has lived before 18, is related to their intercultural sensitivity. Table 43 presents the characteristics of each faculty group. In group 1 the majority of faculty has lived in North America before 18 (n=31, 91.2%), subsequently Western Europe (n=2, 5.9%), and Easter Europe (n=1, 2.9%). In group 2 most of the faculty has also lived in North America before 18 (n= 24, 70.65%), followed by Western Europe (n=5, 7.4%), South America (n=4, 11.8%), Central America (n=2, 5.9%), and Eastern Europe (n=2, 2.9%). The main difference of group 1 and group 2 in this variable is that faculty from group 2 has lived in more world continents than faculty in group 2. This finding is related to intercultural sensitivity literature that posits that cultural contact may affects intercultural sensitivity.

Table 43 Crosstabulation. DO grouped score and region living before 18.

Crosstabulation

			DO_grouped_score		Total
			Group 1	Group 2	
Region_living_before_18	North America	Count	31	24	55
		Expected count	27.5	27.5	55.0
		% within Region_living_before_18	56.4%	43.6%	100.0%
		% within DO_grouped_score	91.2%	70.6%	80.9%
		% of Total	45.6%	35.3%	80.9%
	South America	Count	0	4	4
		Expected count	2.0	2.0	4.0
		% within Region_living_before_18	0.0%	100.0%	100.0%
		% within DO_grouped_score	0.0%	11.8%	5.9%
		% of Total	0.0%	5.9%	5.9%
	Central America	Count	0	2	2
		Expected count	1.0	1.0	2.0
		% within Region_living_before_18	0.0%	100.0%	100.0%
		% within DO_grouped_score	0.0%	5.9%	2.9%
		% of Total	0.0%	2.9%	2.9%
	Eastern Europe	Count	1	1	2
		Expected count	1.0	1.0	2.0
		% within Region_living_before_18	50.0%	50.0%	100.0%
		% within DO_grouped_score	2.9%	2.9%	2.9%

	Western Europe	% of Total	1.5%	1.5%	2.9%
		Count	2	3	5
		Expected count	2.5	2.5	5.0
		% within Region_living_before_18	40.0%	60.0%	100.0%
		% within DO_grouped_score	5.9%	8.8%	7.4%
		% of Total	2.9%	4.4%	7.4%
Total		Count	34	34	68
		Expected count	34.0	34.0	68.0
		% within Region_living_before_18	50.0%	50.0%	100.0%
		% within DO_grouped_score	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
		% of Total	50.0%	50.0%	100.0%

Table 44 Fisher test. DO grouped score and region living before 18.

Chi-square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)	Likelihood
Pearson Chi-Square	7.091[a]	4	.131	.108		
Likelihood Ratio	9.412	4	.052	.095		
Fisher´s Exact Test	6.721			.101		
Linear-by-Linear Association	1.526[b]	1	.217	.264	.132	.040
N of Valid Cases	68					

a. 8 cells (80.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 1.00.

b. The categorized statistic is 1.235.

Based on table 45 we can say that faculty in group 1 master more foreign languages than group 2, and the majority of faculty in both groups master one foreign language. Another observation, is that four faculties in group 2 does not master any foreign language compared to two faculties in group 1.

Table 45 Crosstabulation. DO grouped score and foreign languages.

Crosstabulation

			DO_grouped_score		Total
			Group 1	Group 2	
Foreign_languages	0 foreign languages	Count	2	4	6
		Expected count	3.0	3.0	6.0
		% within Foreign_languages	33.3%	66.7%	100.0%
		% within DO_grouped_score	5.9%	11.8%	8.8%
		% of Total	2.9%	5.9%	8.8%
	1 foreign language	Count	23	28	51
		Expected count	25.5	25.5	51.0
		% within Foreign_languages	45.1%	54.9%	100.0%
		% within DO_grouped_score	67.6%	82.4%	75.0%
		% of Total	33.8%	41.2%	75.0%
	2 foreign languages or more	Count	9	2	11
		Expected count	5.5	5.5	11.0
		% within Foreign_languages	81.8%	18.2%	100.0%
		% within DO_grouped_score	26.5%	5.9%	16.2%
		% of Total	13.2%	2.9%	16.2%
Total		Count	34	34	68
		Expected count	34.0	34.0	68.0
		% within Foreign_languages	50.0%	50.0%	100.0%
		% within DO_grouped_score	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
		% of Total	50.0%	50.0%	100.0%

Table 46 Fisher test. DO grouped score and foreign languages.

Chi-square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)	Likelihood
Pearson Chi-Square	5.611[a]	2	.060	.064		
Likelihood Ratio	5.989	2	.050	.064		
Fisher´s Exact Test	5.527			.064		
Linear-by-Linear Association	4.798[b]	1	.028	.048	.024	.018
N of Valid Cases	68					

a. 2 cells (33.3%) have expected count less than 5. The min. expected count is 3.00. b. The cat. statistic is -2.191

Moreover, results showed evidence of a statistical significant relation among the DO stages frequency and variables: contract (.058), time living overseas (.099), and visiting professor hosting (.006). The other qualitative variables did not show a statistical relation with DO stages frequency variable.

Based on crosstabs results (table 47), half of the full-time faculty is in the Minimization stage (54.5%), very similar to part-time faculty where 45% is in the same stage. Differences can be found in Acceptance stage, since 13.6% of full-time are in this stage and none of part-time faculty is in this stage. Additionally, 9.1% of full-faculty is in the Denial stage compared to 19.6% of part-time faculty.

Table 47 Crosstabulation. DO stages frequency and contract.

Crosstabulation

			DO_stages_frequency				Total
			Denial	Polarization	Minimization	Acceptance	
Contract	Full-time	Count	2	5	12	3	22
		Expected count	3.6	6.8	10.7	1.0	22.0
		% within Contract	9.1%	22.7%	54.5%	13.6%	100.0%
		% within DO_stages_frequency	18.2%	23.8%	36.4%	100.0%	32.4%
		% of Total	2.9%	7.4%	17.6%	4.4%	32.4%
	Part-time	Count	9	16	21	0	46
		Expected count	7.4	14.2	22.3	2.0	46.0
		% within Contract	19.6%	34.8%	45.7%	0.0%	100.0%
		% within DO_stages_frequency	81.8%	76.2%	63.6%	0.0%	67.6%
		% of Total	13.2%	23.5%	30.9%	0.0%	67.6%
Total		Count	11	21	33	3	68
		Expected count	11.0	21.0	33.0	3.0	68.0
		% within Contract	16.2%	30.9%	48.5%	4.4%	100.0%
		% within DO_stages_frequency	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
		% of Total	16.2%	30.9%	48.5%	4.4%	100.0%

Table 48 Fisher test. DO stages frequency and contract.

Chi-square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)	Likelihood
Pearson Chi-Square	8.225[a]	3	.042	.042		
Likelihood Ratio	8.867	3	.031	.043		
Fisher´s Exact Test	7.061			.058		
Linear-by-Linear Association	4.877[b]	1	.027	.037	.018	.011
N of Valid Cases	68					

a. 3 cells (37.5%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .97.

b. The categorized statistic es -2.209.

Based on table 49, 100% of the faculty who has lived abroad 6 years or more are in the Minimization stage, 60% of the faculty who has lived abroad 3-5 years are in the Polarization stage. The majority of people living 1-2 years abroad (28%), 3-6 months (43%), and less than 3 months (64%) are in the Minimization stage. Moreover, 50% of faculty who has lived 7-11 months abroad are in the Denial stage. Faculty that have never lived abroad had very similar percentages of Denial, Polarization and Minimization scores. Finally, faculty who obtained the higher scores (Acceptance) used to lived abroad 1-2 years and 3-5 years.

Table 49 Crosstabulation. DO stages frequency and time living overseas.

Crosstabulation

			DO_stages_frequency				Total
			Denial	Polarization	Minimization	Acceptance	
Time_living_overseas	Never lived overseas	Count	3	5	5	0	13
		Expected count	2.1	4.0	6.3	.6	13.0
		% within Time_living_overseas	23.1%	38.5%	38.5%	0.0%	100.0%
		% within DO_stages_frequency	27.3%	23.8%	15.2%	0.0%	19.1%
		% of Total	4.4%	7.4%	7.4%	0.0%	19.1%

		Count	1	4	9	0	14
		Expected count	2.3	4.3	6.8	.6	14.0
		% within Time_living_overseas	7.1%	28.6%	64.3%	0.0%	100.0%
	Less than 3 months	% within DO_stages_frequency	9.1%	19.0%	27.3%	0.0%	20.6%
		% of Total	1.5%	5.9%	13.2%	0.0%	20.6%
		Count	2	2	3	0	7
		Expected count	1.1	2.2	3.4	.3	7.0
		% within Time_living_overseas	28.6%	28.6%	42.9%	0.0%	100.0%
	3 to 6 months	% within DO_stages_frequency	18.2%	9.5%	9.1%	0.0%	10.3%
		% of Total	2.9%	2.9%	4.4%	0.0%	10.3%
		Count	3	1	2	0	6
		Expected count	1.0	1.9	2.9	.3	6.0
		% within Time_living_overseas	50.0%	16.7%	33.3%	0.0%	100.0%
	7 to 11 months	% within DO_stages_frequency	27.3%	4.8%	6.1%	0.0%	8.8%
		% of Total	4.4%	1.5%	2.9%	0.0%	8.8%
		Count	1	3	7	1	12
		Expected count	1.9	3.7	5.8	.5	12.0
		% within Time_living_overseas	8.3%	25.0%	58.3%	8.3%	100.0%
	1 to 2 years	% within DO_stages_frequency	9.1%	14.3%	21.2%	33.3%	17.6%
		% of Total	1.5%	4.4%	10.3%	1.5%	17.6%
		Count	1	6	1	2	10
		Expected count	1.6	3.1	4.9	.4	10.0
		% within Time_living_overseas	10.0%	60.0%	10.0%	20.0%	100.0%
	3 to 5 years	% within DO_stages_frequency	9.1%	28.6%	3.0%	66.7%	14.7%
		% of Total	1.5%	8.8%	1.5%	2.9%	14.7%
		Count	0	0	1	0	1
	6 to 10 years	Expected count	.2	.3	.5	.0	1.0

		% within Time_living_overseas	0.0%	0.0%	100.0%	0.0%	100.0%
		% within DO_stages_frequency	0.0%	0.0%	3.0%	0.0%	1.5%
		% of Total	0.0%	0.0%	1.5%	0.0%	1.5%
		Count	0	0	5	0	5
		Expected count	.8	1.5	2.4	.2	5.0
		% within Time_living_overseas	0.0%	0.0%	100.0%	0.0%	100.0%
	Over 10 years	% within DO_stages_frequency	0.0%	0.0%	15.2%	0.0%	7.4%
		% of Total	0.0%	0.0%	7.4%	0.0%	7.4%
		Count	11	21	33	3	68
		Expected count	11.0	21.0	33.0	3.0	68.0
		% within Time_living_overseas	16.2%	30.9%	48.5%	4.4%	100.0%
Total		% within DO_stages_frequency	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
		% of Total	16.2%	30.9%	48.5%	4.4%	100.0%

Table 50 Fisher test. DO stages frequency and time living overseas.

Chi-square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)	Likelihood
Pearson Chi-Square	28.911[a]	21	.116	.[b]		
Likelihood Ratio	29.883	21	.094	.106		
Fisher´s Exact Test	25.705			.099		
Linear-by-Linear Association	2.709[c]	1	.100	.105	.053	.007
N of Valid Cases	68					

a. 29 cells (90.6%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .04.

b. The categorized statistic is 1.646.

Visiting professor hosting crosstabs (table 51) show that 18 professors have hosted a faculty from abroad and 50 have not. From the total of faculty that have hosted a professor from

abroad, 28% (n=5) are in the Polarization stage, 55% (n=10) in the Minimization stage, and 17% (n= 3) in the Acceptance stage. On the other hand, from the total of the professors that have never hosted a visiting professor 22% (n= 11) were in the Denial stage, 32% (n= 16) in the Polarization stage, 46% (n=23) in the Minimization stage, and 2.2% (n=1) in the Acceptance stage. In summary, professors that have hosted a visiting professor did not have faculty in the Denial Scale and have a higher percentage of faculty in Acceptance stage.

Table 51Crosstabulation. DO stages frequency and visiting professor hosting.

Crosstabulation. Visiting_professor_hosting * DO_stages_frequency

			DO_stages_frequency				Total
			Denial	Polarization	Minimization	Acceptance	
Visiting_professor_hosting	Yes	Count	0	5	10	3	18
		Expected count	2.9	5.6	8.7	.8	18.0
		% within Visiting_professor_hosting	0.0%	27.8%	55.6%	16.7%	100.0%
		% within DO_stages_frequency	0.0%	23.8%	30.3%	100.0%	26.5%
		% of Total	0.0%	7.4%	14.7%	4.4%	26.5%
	No	Count	11	16	23	0	50
		Expected count	8.1	15.4	24.3	2.2	50.0
		% within Visiting_professor_hosting	22.0%	32.0%	46.0%	0.0%	100.0%
		% within DO_stages_frequency	100.0%	76.2%	69.7%	0.0%	73.5%
		% of Total	16.2%	23.5%	33.8%	0.0%	73.5%
Total		Count	11	21	33	3	68
		Expected count	11.0	21.0	33.0	3.0	68.0
		% within Visiting_professor_hosting	16.2%	30.9%	48.5%	4.4%	100.0%
		% within DO_stages_frequency	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
		% of Total	16.2%	30.9%	48.5%	4.4%	100.0%

Table 52 Fisher test. Visiting professor hosting and DO stages frequency.

Chi-square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)	Likelihood
Pearson Chi-Square	12.619[a]	3	.006	.005		
Likelihood Ratio	15.060	3	.002	.003		
Fisher´s Exact Test	11.216			.006		
Linear-by-Linear Association	8.396[b]	1	.004	.003	.002	.002
N of Valid Cases	68					

a. 3 cells (37.5%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .79.

b. The categorized statistic is -2.898.

4.2.2 Multiple correspondence analysis (MCA)

Multiple Correspondence Analysis (MCA) was considered for the qualitative variables that were statistically related to the DO grouped score based on the contingency table results. These variables are: visiting professor hosting, contract, time living overseas, region living overseas before 18, and foreign languages.

According to our MCA model (table 53), the total cumulative variation explained by the two dimensions is 82.034 %, 47.892% the first dimension and 34.142% the second one. The reliability was assessed by coefficient alpha, which was .728 for the first dimension and .518 for the second dimension.

Table 53 Multiple correspondence analysis. Model summary.

Model summary

Dimension	Cronbach´s Alpha	Variance Accounted For		
		Total (Eigenvalue)	Inertia	% of Variance
1	.728	2.395	.479	47.892
2	.518	1.707	.341	34.142
Total		4.102	.820	
Mean	.641[a]	2.051	.410	41.017

a. Mean Cronbach´s Alpha is based on the mean Eigenvalue

In the Object scores plot by object figure (figure 12), the first dimension (the horizontal axis) discriminates the "yes" from the "no" answers for the visiting professor and foreign languages variables; for the other variables as type of contract it separates the full-time and part-time professors, and for time living abroad separates the faculty who has lived abroad more time (over 10 years, 3-5 years, etc.) from the rest, and finally in the case of region living before 18, it slightly separates the faculty that have lived in North America from the professors that have lived in South America.

The second dimension (the vertical axis) first separates the full-time professors from the part-time professors. It also splits the faculty that master more than one foreign language from the rest, and separates the faculty that has lived abroad in Europe from the rest of professors.

Figure 12 Multiple correspondence analysis. Object scores plot by object.

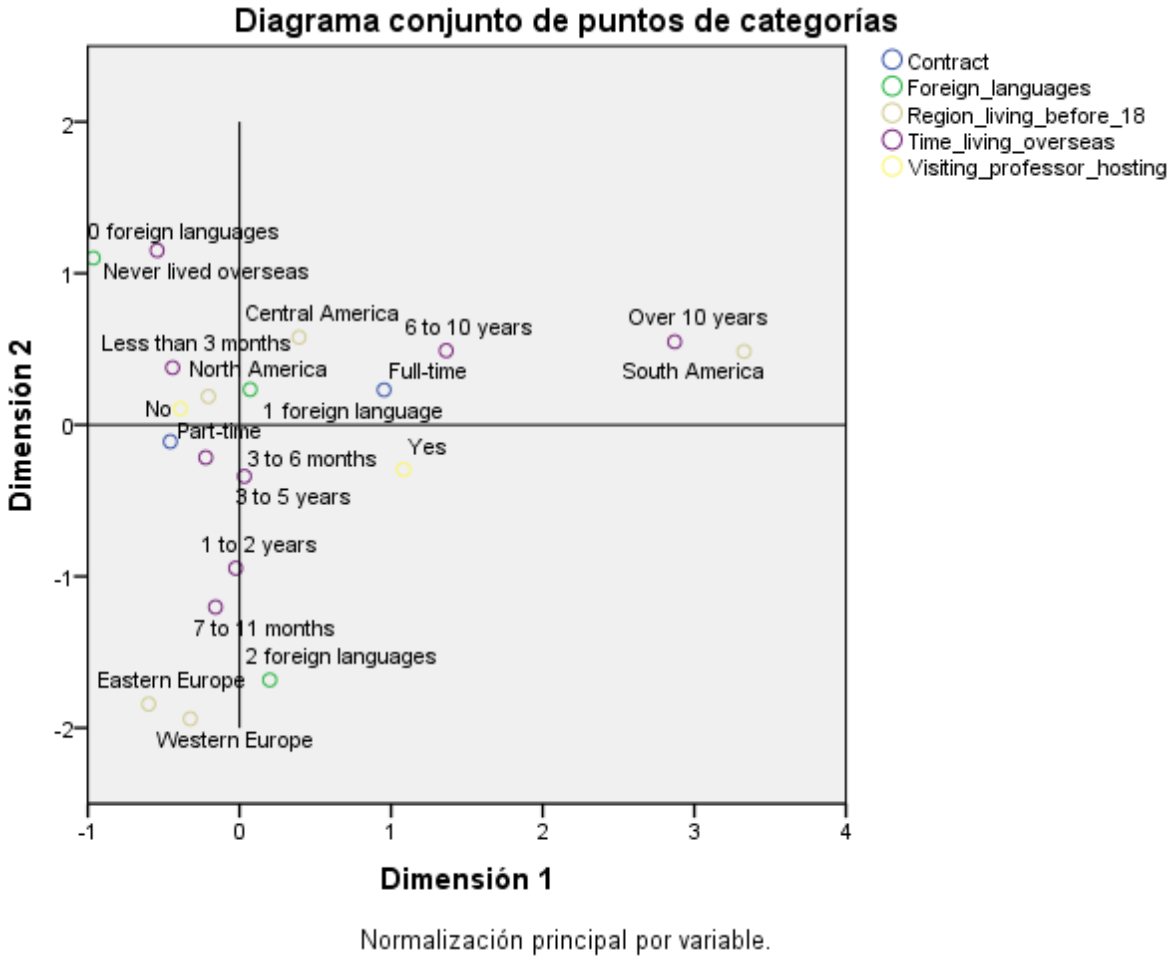


Table 54 show the dimension importance for each variable. Dimension 1 is formed by the variables: visiting professor hosting (.422), contract (.435), time living overseas (.737), and region living before 18 (.708). These variables are related to faculty school and intercultural experience. The second dimension is formed by the foreign language variable (.606), and it represents the demographic group of variables.

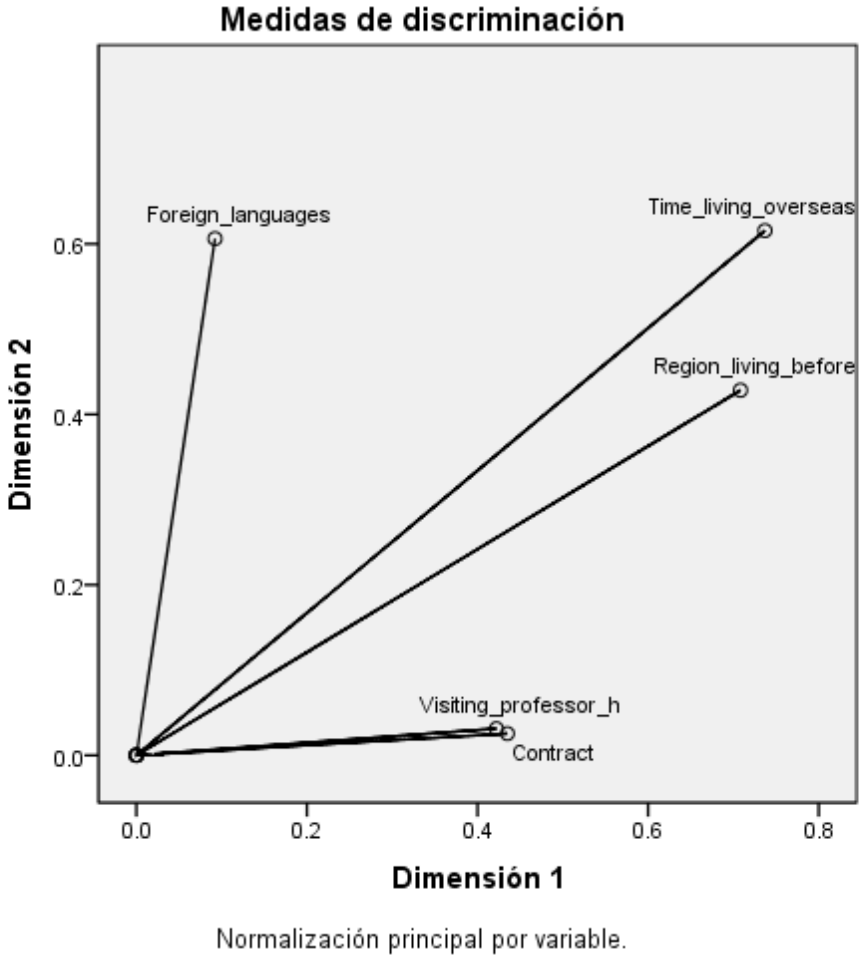
Table 54 Multiple correspondence analysis. Discrimination measures by dimension.

Discrimination measures

	Dimension		Mean
	1	2	
Visiting_professor_hosting	.422	.031	.227
Contract	.435	.026	.230
Time_living_overseas	.737	.616	.676
Region_living_before_18	.708	.428	.568
Foreign_languages	.092	.606	.349
Total activo	2.395	1.707	2.051
% of the variance	47.892	34.142	41.017

The discrimination measures plot (figure 13) shows that the first dimension is related to contract, visiting professor, region living overseas before 18, and time living overseas. This first dimension in related to the school and intercultural experience. The second dimension is only related to the demographic variable foreign languages.

Figure 13 Multiple correspondence analysis. Discrimination measures plot.



4.2.3 Binary logistic regression

Binary logistic regression results show various important output tables. The case processing summary table 55 tells us that we have 68 cases in our analysis with no missing data. The dependent variable encoding (table 56) reminds us how our outcome variable is encoded "0" for Group 1, and "1" for Group 2. Group 1 represents the low DO score group (40.51-87.81), and Group 2 represents the high DO score group (87.97-123.73).

Table 55 Binary logistic regression. Case processing summary.

Case Processing Summary

Unweighted Cases[a]		N	Percent
Selected Cases	Included in Analysis	68	100.0
	Missing Cases	0	.0
	Total	68	100.0
Unselected Cases		0	.0
Total		68	100.0

a. If weight is in effect, see classification table for the total number of cases.

Table 56 Binary logistic regression. Dependent variable encoding.

Dependent Variable Encoding

Original Value	Internal Value
Group 1	0
Group 2	1

Tables 57 and 58 show the model in step 0 and are used later in the analysis to compare this results with the ones obtained in the model in step 1. Classification table tell us that 100% of the cases are correctly predicted by the model for group 2, but none of the cases in group 1.

Table 57 Binary logistic regression. Step 0. Classification table.

Classification Table[a,b]

	Observed		Predicted		
			DO_grouped_score		Percentage Correct
			Group 1	Group 2	
Step 0	DO_grouped_score	Group 1	0	34	.0
		Group 2	0	34	100.0
	Overall Percentage				50.0

a. Constant is included in the model.

b. The cut value is .500

Table 58 Binary logistic regression. Step 0. Variables in the equation.

Variables in the Equation

		B	S.E.	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B)
Step 0	Constant	.000	.243	.000	1	1.000	1.000

The omnibus tests of model coefficients (table 59) is used to check that the model is an improvement over the baseline model. It uses chi-square tests to see if there is a significant difference between the Log-likelihoods (specifically the -2LLs) of the baseline model and the new model. If the new model has a significantly reduced -2LL compared to the baseline then it suggests that the new model is explaining more of the variance in the outcome and is an improvement. Here the chi-square is highly significant (chi-square=10.454, df=2, p=.005) so our new model is significantly better than the original (table 58).

Table 59 Binary logistic regression. Omnibus tests of model coefficients.

Omnibus Tests of Model Coefficients

		Chi-square	df	Sig.
Step 1	Step	10.454	2	.005
	Block	10.454	2	.005
	Model	10.454	2	.005

The model summary (table 60), shows the R Square values, which tell us approximately how much variation in the outcome is explained by the model. Cox and Snell R Square suggests that the model explains 14.3% of the variation in the outcome, and Nagelkerke's R Square tells that the model explains 19% of the variation in the outcome. Nevertheless, these indicators are not so useful because the binary dependent variable can take only two values ("1" or "0").

Table 60 Binary regression analysis. Model summary. R Square.

Model Summary

Step	-2 Log likelihood	Cox & Snell R Square	Nagelkerke R Square
1	83.814[a]	.143	.190

a. Estimation terminated at iteraction number 5 because parameter estimates changed by less than de .001.

The classification table (table 61) shows how the model is now correctly classifying the outcome of 64.7% of the cases compared to 50% in the null model (table 57).

Table 61 Binary logistic regression. Classification table.

Classification Table[a]

	Observed		Predicted		
			DO_grouped_score		Percent Correct
			Group 1	Group 2	
Step 1	DO_grouped_score	Group 1	27	7	79.4
		Group 2	17	17	50.0
	Overall Percentage				64.7

a. The cut value is .500

The variables in the equation table (table 62) shows the joint association of the demographic, school and intercultural experience factors with the DO grouped score variable. This table provides the regression coefficient (B), the Wald statistic (to test the statistical significance) and all important Odds Ratio (Exp (B)) for each variable category.

Results for school and intercultural experience factor is significant and positive. The Exp(B) column tells us that when faculty increases in one their school and intercultural experience variables, they have 2.755 times more probability to be classified in group 2 than in group 1. Then, at a 95% level of confidence, Wald test value (5.394) indicates that the independent factor (school and intercultural experience) predicts the DO grouped scores, but results cannot be generalized to the population (sig. 711) (table 62).

Table 62 Binary logistic regression. Variables in the equation.

Variables in the Equation

		B	S.E.	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B)
Step 1[a]	School_and_intercultural_experience	1.013	.436	5.394	1	.020	2.755
	Demographic_foreign_languages	.389	.275	1.993	1	.158	1.475
	Constant	.102	.276	.138	1	.711	1.108

a. Variable(s) entered on step 1: School_and_intercultural_experience, Demographic_foreign_languages.

Finally, regarding to the intercultural sensitivity predictors, we can conclude that hypothesis 2 and 3 were confirmed and hypothesis 1 was not confirmed.

Hypothesis 1 was not confirmed since our variable foreign languages representing the demographic variable group was not a statistically significant predictor of intercultural sensitivity measured by the DO grouped score variable. In relation to our results, Park (2006) found that no relationship exists between intercultural sensitivity and linguistic competence. Pederson (1998) also concluded no statistically significant relationship between second language acquisition and intercultural sensitivity.

Hypothesis 2 was confirmed, type of contract, as a school experience variable, was a statistically significant predictor of intercultural sensitivity measured by the DO grouped score variable. In the same line, Fretheim (2007) found that the higher education administrator had a mean IDI score nearly 10 points higher than the teacher participant´s scores.

Hypothesis 3, was confirmed, intercultural experience variables (time living overseas, the region living before 18, and visiting professor hosting activities) were statistically significant predictors of intercultural sensitivity measured by the DO grouped score variable.

Several authors have found that significant positive correlation between time living in another cultural and developmental scores (El Garzoury, 2012; Lai, 2006; Mahon, 2006; Pedersen, 2010; Straffon, 2001; Steuernagel, 2014; Westrick and Yuen, 2007; and Yuen, 2010). The length of time that a person has lived outside his/her home country before 18 has been

significally correlated with intercultural sensitivity studies (Helmer, 2007; Straffon, 2001). Visiting professor hosting variable has been considered at important national faculty studies reports (ACE, 2012) and at institutional internationalization reports (Pynes, et al., 2011), but has never been used as an explanatory variable in intercultural sensitivity studies before.

5. Conclusions, limitations and future research lines

The purpose of this study was to describe and assess the intercultural competence of faculty in a private Mexican business school. Additionally, we wanted to explore the association of intercultural sensitivity with demographical, school experience and intercultural experience variables. This study is grounded in the assumption that faculty with intercultural sensitivity in schools can better deliver culturally inclusive developmental guidance programs, and more fully support the needs of culturally different students, families and the community (Bennett & Bennett, 2004). Well-developed intercultural knowledge, awareness, skills and a committed practice to intercultural development sets the stage for further contributions to the movement of culturally inclusive developmental guidance programs. This study provides the next steps to support the intercultural development of business school's faculty by measuring the baseline level of and contributing factors to intercultural sensitivity.

The DMIS served as the theoretical framework for the study and the IDI v3 was used to quantify and measure intercultural sensitivity as expressed by the IDC. Multiple correspondence analysis and binary logistic regression were used to determine the demographic, school experience and intercultural factors that most influenced school faculty intercultural sensitivity.

Faculty of UDEM´s business school are in the IDI Polarization (defense) stage as a group, their DO score is 84.75, even though the majority of them (48.5%) are in the Minimization stage, followed by Polarization (30.9%). This study found that just 4.4% of faculty are in the ethno-relative stage of acceptance and 0% in the Adaptation stage. The results showed a lower baseline score than the U.S. educational leaders in El Garzoury (2012), M=96.9, and bilingual school teachers in Bayles (2009), M=98.6, and DeJaeghere and Cao (2009) urban teachers in the US, M=103.9. The overall developmental scores found in this study indicate that UDEM´s business

faculty has lower intercultural sensitivity to other educators in the USA. This finding is important, since the essential responsibility of faculty is to work across cultural differences and assumed competence of their intercultural relations.

Ethnocentrism in the form of prejudice and cultural bias prevents faculty from working effectively across cultures. For example, well-intentioned faculty may unconsciously work solely form their own cultural assumptions, neglecting to consider worldview of their diverse students. As a result, these faculty may fail to uphold the promise of "first", do no harm. Ineffective, and possibility harmful, teaching practices may lead to a schools community that undervalues the business school faculty and its role. Ethnocentric faculty may also lack the capability to fully support the needs of culturally different students. Ultimately, not developing intercultural competence is a failure to adhere to ethical standards of the profession (APA, 2003).

In relation to the variables related to intercultural sensitivity, we found that: type of contract, visiting professor hosting, time living abroad, and living region before 18 were statistically related to DO grouped score. Results help characterizing faculty into two groups. Group 1, with a lower DO score, is formed by part-time professors, who in majority master one or two foreign languages, and have lived overseas in North America before 18. Faculty in group 2, are full-time and part-time professors, the majority have hosted a visiting faculty from abroad, they have lived in different world regions before 18, and they have lived abroad for more than 6 years.

Results regarding the relation of DO frequency stage variable with the study variables, we found that three variables were statically correlated with DO frequency stage variable: contract, time living abroad, and visiting professor faculty. According to this results, we noticed that the majority of full-time and part-time faculty are in the Minimization stage, that all the faculty in the Acceptance stage are full-time faculty, and that there are more part-time faculties in the Denial stage compared to full-time faculties. Moreover, faculty who has lived abroad 6 years or more are in the Minimization stage, and faculty who obtained higher DO scores used to live abroad 1-2 years or 3-5 years. Lastly, faculty who have hosted a visiting professor from abroad have a higher DO score, than faculty that have not hosted a faculty from abroad.

Three factors were obtained from the multiple correspondence analysis: school and intercultural experience and demographic factor. Binary logistic regression showed that the factor school experience and intercultural experience containing the variables: contract, visiting professor hosting, time living abroad, and region living before 18, was the most significant predictor of intercultural sensitivity. The demographic factor (foreign languages) did not show a significant correlation to intercultural sensitivity. We argue that because many of the variables are assessed at a micro level and intercultural competence is reflective of a higher-level construct, one variable should not have great, direct impact on intercultural sensitivity.

The findings indicate that systematic efforts are needed to provide effective intercultural education to teachers. To shift faculty as a group from the Polarization stage towards Minimization stage of cultural differences and an integrated worldview orientation, intercultural teacher education programs are needed in order to introduce a more sophisticated cognitive framework that will help future teachers examine their own culture and explain it to others. In particular, attention should be given to preparing faculty for understanding cultural differences, ensuring access to appropriate information and creating the necessary space for reflection on the styles of upbringing, lifestyles, norms and values of different ethnic groups. More cultural immersion programs or simulations could be made available for the teachers, with an emphasis on learning with persons from other cultures in activities such as multicultural team projects and cultural mapping exercises.

Moreover, Gairín (2011) states that Competency-Based Training of teachers is one the problems of new curriculum models development are facing. The author also recommends that a suitable teacher training demands teachers acting in a competent way and with the same model they want to teach, combining conceptual learning with professional practice, using strategies and procedures of knowledge society, stimulating collective and individual reflective practice and encouraging lifelong learning which relates professionals at different times of their working life. To achieve this purpose, it must be a shared task from a combination of actions: from the education system, educational centers, social agents and teachers themselves.

Limitations to the study regarding the method is the fact that some scholars recommend assessing intercultural competence over time with multiple reference points (Deardorff & Hunter, 2006; Fantini, 2009). Others utilize a qualitative measure such as an inventory, or a combination of qualitative and quantitative methods (Hammer, 2011). Due to financial and time constraints, this study primarily uses a psychometric inventory as the measure of intercultural sensitivity. In relation to sampling, the generalizability of the study is limited to private business schools in Latin-American context, and it may not represent the total population. Furthermore, the small sample size in this study and the may be considered as a limitation. According to statistical techniques, dichotomization of the DO score, is a limitation, since some authors have mentioned that information is lost, so the statistical power to detect a relation between the variables is reduced (MacCallum, Zhang, Preacher, Rucker, 2002). Likewise, inappropriate dichotomizing of continuous data can at times create spurious significant results if the independent variables are correlated (Maxwell and Delaney 1993), but in our case we used multiple correspondence analysis to eliminate correlation among qualitative variables. Finally, the author is a faculty member of the business school. As a result there is the possibility of researcher bias. To mitigate potential bias, the researcher has made attempts to base the selection of the factors of interest on the review of literature and practitioners.

Future studies may consider other variables related to personality as character strengths or skills (e.g. flexibility, open-mindedness, language ability) may better predict intercultural sensitivity. Additionally, since, faculty require intercultural sensitivity to best performs their duties and influence the school culture of their diverse environments, a pre-post IDI study of several multicultural courses may provide additional and more direct evidence of its influence on intercultural sensitivity (Constaintine, Ladany, Inman & Ponterotto, 2006). Finally, further research of the faculty that scored the farthest along the DMIS/IDC (acceptance and adaptation stages) may provide further understanding of the faculty practices of this cohort. Methods such as qualitative interviews may provide a discovery-oriented environment to better understand the context of advanced intercultural development and how it practically benefits teaching practice.

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GENERAL CONCLUSIONS, IMPLICATIONS, LIMITATIONS, AND FUTURE RESEARCH LINES

Business schools were chosen as the subject of the investigation because the business and management area: 1) has been heavily affected by globalization, 2) attracts many foreign students, and 3) is typically vocational in character so that the international employability of graduates is a matter of great concern to institutions. Also, it is known that the main concentration of the supply of cross-border higher education occurs in the area of business studies (van der Wende, 2003). Often, moreover, the success of a business school is critically important for the financial wellbeing of an entire university.

Furthermore, the knowledge provided by business schools shapes the structure of management development activities and academic programs which, typically, include degrees at the undergraduate, masters, and doctoral levels, as well as post-experience education through non-degree programs such as company-sponsored executive courses (Antunes & Thomas, 2007).

Three topics represent the core chapters of this thesis: 1) business schools internationalization (activities, patterns, entry modes and foreign market selection), 2) faculty internationalization: faculty international human capital resources that represent a competitive advantage for the business school internationalization process, and 3) faculty intercultural sensitivity: demographic, school experience, and intercultural experience variables related to the IDI score. Next paragraphs show a description of the main objectives of each research, the results and conclusions obtained, the implications for researchers and practitioners, and the limitations and future research lines.

In the first study, we analyzed the internationalization process of five relevant Iberoamerican business schools; the usefulness of the Uppsala model for explaining private business schools' internationalization; and the similarities and differences between Spanish and Mexican business schools. This study describes the internationalization process of these business schools on the basis of their selection of activities, patterns, foreign entry modes, and international market selection. A model is proposed to analyze the internationalization of

business schools, using attributes derived from the Uppsala internationalization theory, services and higher education internationalization literature, and case study results from five business schools -ESADE and IESE in Spain and EGADE, IPADE and UDEM in Mexico.

Our case study results reveal that the analyzed business schools followed, initially, a sequential internationalization pattern, though at different speeds, and by employing low resource commitment entry modes at the beginning of the process. In fact, Uppsala's psychic distance concept appeared to be more influential in our studied business schools at the first stages of foreign market selection, and less important in further internationalization stages, where client/market potential gains bore relevance.

Our results are relevant for academics and international relations practitioners. For academics, this case-based study is relevant because it employs the Uppsala internationalization model as starting point, in order to provide a new approach to analyzing the internationalization of education service institutions, a research topic previously largely neglected. For international relations practitioners, this study is useful in analyzing their role in internationalization patterns and activities. Furthermore, the study shows practitioners, mostly business school managers, the growing importance of the internationalization process, and its close relationship with other business sectors. In fact, the relevance of networks is an important message for managers in charge of these higher education institutions once the internationalization process has started: relational capital could play a very important role for success in the internationalization process of business schools. Finally, this study provides the opportunity for the managers of other business schools in similar contexts that are initiating the international adventure to learn from successful internationalization experiences developed earlier by other business schools in a non-Anglo-Saxon context.

Furthermore, given that networks between business schools and institutions and firms are very relevant in the internationalization process, opportunities for future empirical research include the study of higher education internationalization through a more holistic approach such as Networks or Social Capital Theory. Additionally, it could also be useful to study the

internationalization pattern of a larger number of business schools with the purpose of identifying strategic clusters of schools.

Limitations of the study arise from the fact that we measured internationalization processes that started several decades ago by using very recent information sources. There may well have been imperfect recollections by our interviewed subjects. Additionally, only one person was interviewed at each business school, consistent with the "key informant" approach. However, due to the multiple elements involving internationalization, more detailed data about research collaborative agreements, course contents, and alliances may be useful. We also did not consider public institutions in our conceptual sample, which may have enriched the results. Even though, despite the type of higher education institution, private or public, organizations are employing internationalization as a tool for competiveness in the global market (Bennett & Kottasz, 2011; Greblikaitė, Barynienė, & Paužaitė, 2015). Recent research considering Latin American counties has showed that private universities have the freedom to decide internationalization strategies together with commercial objectives, whereas, public universities most of the time have to deal with government funds and bureaucracy that make the decision process to be slow and funding dependent (Berry & Taylor, 2014). Bennet and Kottasz (2011) also found a relation between degrees of autonomy to take decisions and internationalization initiatives in a university. Moreover, other elements for conducting internationalization actions, as fundraising and endowment, have really good results in institutions located in the United States, where fundraising campaigns are common obtaining financial resources from corporations and alumni (Antunes & Thomas, 2007). On the other hand, Javalgi and Grossman (2014) did not find any difference in the degree of internationalization of private and public US MBA programs. Finally, due to the qualitative nature of this research, results can be generalized only theoretically, but not statistically, to other empirically similar contexts.

The second paper originates from the need to have an instrument to identify the internationalization activities that express faculty knowledge, skills and abilities and describe them in terms of faculty clusters in the University of Monterrey (UDEM) Business School. Principal component analysis (PCA) was used to obtain main research dimensions (academic articles publishing, books and book chapters publishing, and conferences attended), and multiple

correspondence analysis (MCA) used to detect and explore relationships between teaching, research and student study abroad programs participation and organization variables. One PCA dimension was identified (research numeric), and two MCA dimensions were retained (teaching research education, and organization participation courses trips. The clustering analysis with object scores method was used to identify groups sharing similar characteristics. Our results led to the definition and identification of three faculty groups according to their KSA related to internationalization.

The first cluster is formed with full-time professors, most of them women, from the Administration department; they have a research profile since they used to publish and attend international academic forums. In addition, they also are involved in international research projects and used to participate in international teaching activities. They are not interested in participating in student academic courses and trips. They possess general and specific (firm and industry) human capital resources that may represent a sustained competitive advantage for the business school internationalization process. In the second cluster, all faculty members are part-time professors from the Accounting/Finance and Economics departments. They used to participate in the trips and courses abroad with students and do not wish to volunteer for research activities or other teaching or training abroad activities. This cluster has firm-specific human capital resources that may offer a competitive parity or a competitive advantage for the institution. The third cluster is formed by part-time Administration department professors. This group, similar to cluster two, participates actively in the trips and courses abroad with students and for this reason they can also provide a competitive parity or a competitive advantage for the business school.

It is further concluded that UDEM´s business school needs to recognize that the human capital resources (general and specific) that may represent a competitive advantage are different for each faculty cluster and all of them have a reason to be there. For example, faculty human capital resources in cluster one, where faculty is highly involved in research activities, are quite different from the human capital resources of clusters two and three, where professors had prior participation in student study abroad programs.

The study contributes to the employment of the RBV theory and SHRM literature with the aim of analyzing faculty internationalization KSAs as a mean of sustained competitive advantage for business school's internationalization process. Moreover, it contributes to the very inexistence and almost theoretical contributions regarding faculty internationalization in higher education research. In addition, the study contributes to human capital research regarding the debate about the firm-specific skills vs. firm-general skills as a sustained competitive advantage (Campbell, Coff, & Kryscynski, 2012).

The value of this second paper for directors in private higher education institutions located in a similar context (e.g. Latin America) is that they can employ the proposed instrument in order to determine which faculty´s knowledge, skills and experience represent a source of sustained competitive advantage for the business schools internationalization process, allowing schools to align internationalization initiatives and strategies. Additionally, HR executives may detect which professors play an important role in the success in the internationalization process, analyze their group belonging characteristics and offer them development options and opportunities in order to make them stay in the business school. Additionally, for Human Resource managers in higher institutions, this study could complement faculty´s profile and CV information for institutional career developing plans. They might also consider the internationalization involvement as an element for job promotion. For faculty, this research contributes to create better awareness among academics concerning their actual status regarding internationalization, as well as career planning and aspirations.

Limitations in this study are associated with the sampling, the generalization of the study, which is limited to a given private business school in Mexico, and it may not represent the total population. In addition, scales of variables differ and are not similar in each group of internationalization activities (research, teaching, and training). Finally, the author is a faculty member of the business school. As a result there is the possibility of researcher bias. To mitigate potential bias, the researcher has made attempts to base the selection of the factors of interest on the review of literature and practitioners.

Future investigations may evaluate the presented variables to determine if they are also relevant for other contexts, especially for Latin America private business schools. Additionally, qualitative interviews may provide a discovery-oriented environment to better understand the human capital resources involved in the internationalization activities context together with a psychological test. Researchers need also to study conditions under which general human capital may be a sustained competitive advantage for a business school. Moreover, research is needed to study other faculty human capital resources that impact other areas apart from the internationalization and provide the greatest potential to differentiate an institution from its competitors.

The aim of the third study was to assess the level of intercultural sensitivity as well faculty demographic, school experience and intercultural experience variables related to that contribute to the intercultural sensitivity of members of a faculty in Universidad de Monterrey Business School, a Mexican business school. The Developmental Model Intercultural Sensitivity (DMIS) served as the theoretical framework for the study and the Intercultural Development Inventory (IDI) v3 was used to quantify and measure intercultural sensitivity. Crosstabs, multiple correspondence analysis and binary logistic regression were the statistical techniques for this study. In the binary logistic regression analysis we considered as dependent variable the Developmental Orientation (DO) grouped score and as independent variables: visiting professor hosting, type of contract, time living overseas, region living before 18, and foreign languages.

Results of the third paper showed that faculty of UDEM´s business school are in the IDI Polarization (defense) stage as a group, their DO score is 84.75, even though the majority of them (48.5%) are in the Minimization stage. In relation to the variables related to intercultural sensitivity, we found that: type of contract, visiting professor hosting, time living abroad, and living region before 18 were statistically related to DO grouped score. Results help characterizing faculty into two groups. Group 1, with a lower DO score, is formed by part-time professors, master one or two foreign languages, and have lived overseas in North America before 18. Faculty in group 2, are full-time and part-time professors, the majority have hosted a visiting faculty from abroad, they have lived in different world regions before 18, and they have lived abroad for more than 6 years.

Moreover, the factor school experience and intercultural experience containing the variables: contract, visiting professor hosting, time living abroad, and region living before 18, was the most significant predictor of intercultural sensitivity. The demographic factor (foreign languages) did not show a significant correlation to intercultural sensitivity.

This third study is important, as it produces constructive baseline data for intercultural sensitivity development plans in similar business school. This study also provides comparisons to other educational professionals such as teacher or administrators. In addition, this study gathers information that may be useful for hiring practices and education policy. The results is helpful to education managers, since with this information they may decide which professors should taught to international students, collaborate on home internationalization projects, etc. and detect which faculty need training and help for developing their intercultural sensitivity. To faculty, this research contributes to create better awareness among academics about their actual status regarding intercultural sensitivity. Finally, the study also constitute one of the first efforts at UDEM to determine their faculty intercultural sensitivity so mentioned and important in business school mission, and curricula.

A critical reflection from the third study is that, inevitably, cultural diversity will manifest within the global marketplace, making intercultural competence an extremely important skill. The ability to manage the interconnectedness of the diversity that is created is a major skill employers seek (Deardoff & Hunter, 2006). The ability to relate to and with people from vastly different cultural and ethnic backgrounds is an increasingly important competency both domestically and abroad. Then, attention should be given to preparing faculty for understanding cultural differences, ensuring access to appropriate information and creating the necessary space for reflection on the styles of upbringing, lifestyles, norms and values of different ethnic groups.

Limitations to the study regarding the method is the fact that some scholars recommend assessing intercultural competence over time with multiple reference points (Deardorff & Hunter, 2006; Fantini, 2009). Others utilize a qualitative measure such as an inventory, or a combination of qualitative and quantitative methods (Hammer, 2011). Due to financial and time constraints,

this study primarily uses a psychometric inventory as the measure of intercultural sensitivity. In relation to sampling, the generalizability of the study is limited to private business schools in Latin-American context, and it may not represent the total population. Furthermore, the small sample size in this study and the may be considered as a limitation. According to statistical techniques, dichotomization of the DO score, is a limitation, since some authors have mentioned that information is lost, so the statistical power to detect a relation between the variables is reduced (MacCallum, Zhang, Preacher, & Rucker, 2002). Likewise, inappropriate dichotomizing of continuous data can at times create spurious significant results if the independent variables are correlated (Maxwell & Delaney 1993), but in our case we used multiple correspondence analysis to eliminate correlation among qualitative variables. Finally, we will mention the author is a faculty member of the business school.

Future studies may consider other variables related to personality as character strengths or skills (e.g. flexibility, open-mindedness, language ability) may better predict intercultural sensitivity. Additionally, since, faculty require intercultural sensitivity to best performs their duties and influence the school culture of their diverse environments, a pre-post IDI study of several multicultural courses may provide additional and more direct evidence of its influence on intercultural sensitivity (Constantine, Ladany, Inman & Ponterotto, 2006). Finally, further research of the faculty that scored the farthest along the DMIS/IDC (acceptance and adaptation stages) may provide further understanding of the faculty practices of this cohort. Methods such as qualitative interviews may provide a discovery-oriented environment to better understand the context of advanced intercultural development and how it practically benefits teaching practice.

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Appendices

Appendix I. Business schools internationalization interview protocol.

Objective: Study business schools internationalization pattern and activities.

A. MISSION

1. How related is business school mission statement to internationalization?

2. What place does internationalization have in school's business strategic plan?

B. ACTIVITIES TOWARDS INTERNATIONALIZATION

1. What are the main business school activities toward internationalization (e.g. collaborating programs, double-degree programs, alliances) and when do they appear?

2. Which department carries out the business school international activities? Does the business school have an International Relations Department?

3. Does the business school receive advice from the business sector regarding internationalization?

4. Is there any special activity which has accelerated the internationalization process?

5. What role do international accreditations and international ranking play in business school internationalization?

C. INTERNATIONALIZATION PATTERN

1. Do you think that business school internationalization has followed a sequential pattern?

D. ENTRY MODES

1. Which are the entry modes selected by business schools when accessing foreign markets?

2. Do these entry modes change with time or not? Do further entry modes require greater resource commitment than previous?

E. FOREIGN MARKET SELECTION

1. Which markets does the business school select when first going abroad?

2. Why does the business school choose these markets?

3. Do market cultural characteristics and/or geographic location play a role on market selection?

4. Do market selection motives change over time?

Appendix II. Participant Request Letter.

Title: Faculty internationalization and intercultural sensitivity study

My name is Angeles Morales and I am currently a part-time professor at the University of Monterrey Business School. You are invited to participate in an important study of faculty internationalization and intercultural sensitivity. The results will have important training and professional development implications for faculty in business schools.

You can participate by completing two brief surveys. The first survey, linked below, is a demographic survey with some questions related to your participation on international activities also that will take 15 minutes. You will then receive a second inventory of intercultural sensitivity taking 15-20 minutes from the Intercultural Development Inventory. All responses are confidential.

The research covers the importance of the knowledge, skills, and abilities involved in the development of a group of internationalization activities. Furthermore, the investigation also want to determine the factors that contribute to the development of intercultural sensitivity of faculty in business schools, and the relationships between levels of intercultural sensitivity and various individual and professional variables.

Follow this link to the survey (survey link)

Thank you for your willingness to participate in this research! You will receive an executive summary of the findings when the study is completed. If you have any questions, please do not hesitate to contact me.

Sincerely,

Angeles Morales
Administration Department
Business School
University of Monterrey

Appendix III. Participant letter IDI.

Dear (First and Last Name)

I sincerely appreciate your continued participation in this study of faculty intercultural development. Your contributions will lead to a deeper understanding of the training and professional development needs of faculty in business schools.

To complete your participation in this research, please complete the Intercultural Development Inventory (IDI) online survey by following these steps:

1. Go to https://v3.idiassessment.com
2. Enter Username: (Username)
   Password: (Password)
3. After reading the directions carefully, complete the survey.
4. Be sure to click SUBMIT at the end of the survey!

Note: The IDI is a 50-item survey and takes 15-20 minutes to complete.

If you have any questions, please contact me. Thank you for your time and support of this research!

Sincerely,

Angeles Morales
Administration Department
Business School
University of Monterrey

Appendix IV. Faculty internationalization questionnaire.

Dear Professor,

You are invited to participate in a research study exploring the internationalization and intercultural sensitivity of business school´s faculty. You were selected as a possible participant because you are part of UDEM´s Business School.

This study is conducted by Maria de los Angeles Morales Saiz, PhD candidate at the University Autonomous of Barcelona (UAB) under the direction of the Dr. Alex Rialp Criado and Dr. Diego Prior Jimenez in the Department of Business.

The purpose of this study is twofold, fist is to determine the knowledge, skills and abilities (KSAs) related to internationalization that may represent a competitive advantage for the school and to describe the different groups of faculty according these KSAs. Second, is to assess the factors that contribute to the development of intercultural sensitivity of business school faculty, and explore the relationships between levels of intercultural sensitivity and various individual and professional variables related to internationalization.

This study includes two surveys. The first is this 15 min online demographic survey. The second one, also online survey, is the Intercultural Development Inventory (IDI), which will be sent to you by email. Taking the IDI will take approximately 15-20 minutes.

There are no known risks to participating in this study. The primary benefit to participating in this study is that the business school will discover useful information about internationalization and intercultural development that will enhance the faculty profession in business schools.

The data from the demographic survey and individuals' IDI will remain confidential. The researcher will not include any information that will make it possible to identify a subject in any published reports.

Participation in this study is voluntary. Your decision whether or not to participate will not affect your current or future relations with the University of Monterrey, the Business School, nor the researcher.

If you have questions regarding this study contact Angeles Morales at mmorales6@udem.net or at the mobile number 811 080 14 81.

Both surveys will be available from March 5th to March 27th of 2015.

Thank you for your collaboration in this project.

Sincerely,

Angeles Morales

Faculty internationalization survey.

Please respond to the following opened and closed questions by writing down or marking your answer.

Demographic information

1. Please indicate the country where you born

2. What classes did you teach in the 2014 spring semester

3. Academic Department where you belong
   - ☐ Administration
   - ☐ Accounting/Finance
   - ☐ Economics

4. Type of contract
   - ☐ Full-time
   - ☐ Part-time

5. Gender
   - ☐ Male
   - ☐ Female

6. Age
   - ☐ 20 to 29 years old
   - ☐ 30 to 39 years old
   - ☐ 40 to 49 years old
   - ☐ 50 to 59 years old
   - ☐ 60 to 69 years old
   - ☐ 70 years old or more

7. Last academic degree earned
   - ☐ Master
   - ☐ Doctorate

8. Mark all the places or activities where you have professional experience

- ❑ Educational institutions
- ❑ Private enterprise
- ❑ Government
- ❑ Non-profit organization
- ❑ Own business
- ❑ Freelancer

9. Number of years you have been working at UDEM`s Business School

- ❑ Less than 1 year
- ❑ 1 to 5 years
- ❑ 6 to 10 years
- ❑ 11 to 15 years
- ❑ 16 to 20 years
- ❑ More than 20 years

10. Number of years you have worked as a professor

- ❑ Less than 1 year
- ❑ 1 to 5 years
- ❑ 6 to 10 years
- ❑ 11 to 15 years
- ❑ 16 to 20 years
- ❑ More than 20 years

Foreign languages

11. Indicate the level of proficiency or master that you have in the following foreing languages

English:

- ❑ I don´t master it
- ❑ Basic level
- ❑ Intermediate level
- ❑ Advanced level

French:

- ❑ I don´t master it
- ❑ Basic level
- ❑ Intermediate level
- ❑ Advanced level

Italian:

- ❑ I don´t master it
- ❑ Basic level
- ❑ Intermediate level
- ❑ Advanced level

Portuguese:

- ❑ I don´t master it
- ❑ Basic level
- ❑ Intermediate level
- ❑ Advanced level

Other:

12. Have you ever though a course in English or in another foreign language

- ❑ Yes
- ❑ No

Research

13. How many academic publications (e.g. articles) in international sources do have you have

14. How many books and chapter books have you publish in an international source

15. Have you participate as speaker in international academic forums as conferences

- ❑ Yes
- ❑ No

16. Have you been a reviewer or editor for an international publication

- ❑ Yes
- ❑ No

17. Have you participated on international research projects with other researchers

- ❑ Yes
- ❑ No

18. Have you participated on international research projects with students

- ❑ Yes
- ❑ No

19. Have ever won an international research award

- ❑ Yes
- ❑ No

20. Have you received research funds from an international institution

- ❑ Yes
- ❑ No

Teaching

21. Have you been a visiting professor in a foreign institution

- ❑ Yes
- ❑ No

22. Have you teach a non-academic professional class or course in an institution abroad

- ❑ Yes
- ❑ No

23. Have you ever hosted a visiting professor from an institution abroad

- ❑ Yes
- ❑ No

Professional experience

24. Do you have international professional experience outside higher education institutions (e.g. company projects, consultancy projects)

- ❑ Yes
- ❑ No

Studies abroad

25. Do you have a post-doctorate from an institution abroad

- ❑ Yes
- ❑ No

If so, please indicate the time (months) you spend studying abroad together with the university.

Months:
University/Institution:

26. Do you have a doctorate from an institution abroad

- ❑ Yes
- ❑ No

If so, please indicate the time (months) you spend studying abroad together with the university.

Months:
University/Institution:

27. Do you have a master degree from an institution abroad

- ❑ Yes
- ❑ No

If so, please indicate the time (months) you spend studying abroad together with the university.

Months:
University/Institution:

28. Do you have a professional specialization from an institution abroad

- ❑ Yes
- ❑ No

If so, please indicate the time (months) you spend studying abroad together with the university.

Months:
University/Institution:

29. Do you have a professional course or short study from an institution abroad

- ❑ Yes
- ❑ No

If so, please indicate the time (months) you spend studying abroad together with the university.

Months:
University/Institution:

30. Do you have a professional certification from an institution abroad

- ❑ Yes
- ❑ No

If so, please indicate the time (months) you spend studying abroad together with the university.

Months:

Universitv/Institution:

31. Have you studied language courses in an institution abroad

- ❑ Yes
- ❑ No

If so, please indicate the time (months) you spend studying abroad together with the university.

Students´ abroad programs organization and participation

32. How many times have you organized overseas courses for students

- ❑ Never
- ❑ 1-2 times
- ❑ 3-4 times
- ❑ 5 times or more

33. How many times have you organized academic trips abroad for students

- ❑ Never
- ❑ 1-2 times
- ❑ 3-4 times
- ❑ 5 times or more

34. How many times have you participate on students´ academic programs abroad

- ❑ Never
- ❑ 1-2 times
- ❑ 3-4 times
- ❑ 5 times or more

Home internationalization initiatives

35. Have you organized international events at UDEM (e.g. conferences, forums)

- ❑ Yes
- ❑ No

36. Have you participate in Collaborative Online International Learning (COIL) programs

- ❑ Yes
- ❑ No

37. Have you ever did international videoconferences

- ❑ Yes
- ❑ No

38. Have you ever employed international forums

- ❑ Yes
- ❑ No

39. Have you ever employed international chats

- ❑ Yes
- ❑ No