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THE ROLE OF INTERNATIONAL FACULTY
IN COMPREHENSIVE CAMPUS INTERNATIONALIZATION

by

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A DISSERTATION

Submitted to the graduate faculty of the University of Alabama at Birmingham,
in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy

BIRMINGHAM, ALABAMA

2022

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THE ROLE OF INTERNATIONAL FACULTY IN COMPREHENSIVE CAMPUS INTERNATIONALIZATION

MELISSA WILLIAMSON HAWKINS

EDUCATIONAL STUDIES OF DIVERSE POPULATIONS

ABSTRACT

Faculty engagement is an acknowledged imperative for accomplishing the goals of comprehensive campus internationalization. In addition, transformational international and intercultural experiences are known to motivate faculty involvement in internationalization (Childress, 2018). This study proposes that the large numbers of international faculty working in permanent positions on university campuses, who have already had these transformational experiences by having adapted to a new country and culture, are an underutilized resource towards internationalization goals. In a mixed methods study conducted at a large, research university in the southeastern United States, the perspectives of international faculty on their current and potential role in internationalization were investigated. Focusing on at home internationalization initiatives, especially the promotion of intercultural learning, the study also considered whether an integrated sense of cultural identity, characteristics of adaptation histories, or demographic characteristics might support or hinder involvement in internationalization. A combination of snowball and chain referral sampling was used to garner participation in a mixed methods survey, and focus groups were convened to discuss the research questions more in depth. Quantitative data were studied for statistically significant associations, qualitative data were categorized in thematic analysis, and integrated data were probed for meta-inferences. Findings included that majority of the participants were individuals with intercultural identities (Kim, 2001), who demonstrated a finesse in

discussing the cross-cultural experience. Most of the participants were also already involved in campus internationalization at various levels and expressed multiple ideas regarding how their increased involvement could be encouraged. Findings also suggested that the understanding of their potential roles could be expanded. The study provided key recommendations for action for universities hoping to increase the engagement of their international faculty in initiatives related to comprehensive campus internationalization.

Key words: Comprehensive internationalization, at home internationalization, international faculty, cultural identity, cultural adaptation, mixed methods

DEDICATION

To the Triune God,

whom I follow:

I know that all of this was Your idea.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Statement of the Problem

Comprehensive campus internationalization is the term used to represent all of the initiatives and activities at an institution of higher education with the purpose of incorporating international awareness and the development of intercultural competence throughout all aspects of a university's teaching, research, and service missions (Hudzik, 2011; Knight, 2004, 2008). Universities have long been in the business of providing students with international experiences through study abroad programs, bringing international scholars to campus for research and teaching, and inviting international students to join in campus life, among other activities. Comprehensive internationalization, however, goes beyond student and faculty mobility goals, which often only provide international and intercultural experiences to comparatively few individuals; instead, comprehensive internationalization involves change to the university's orientation at a deep level, seeking to make institution-wide impact (Rumbley, 2015, 2019; Rumbley et al., 2012). In fact, a commitment to building transformative learning experiences towards international understanding and the growth of intercultural competence among all students is often a stated goal of comprehensive internationalization. Although the particulars of comprehensive internationalization vary from campus to campus, the effort necessitates broad involvement from individuals

throughout the university enterprise for success (Deardorff & Charles, 2018; Hudzik, 2011; Killick, 2018; Kirk et al., 2018; Rumbley, 2019).

A common element in comprehensive university internationalization plans is the intentional recruitment and hiring of faculty from other countries. Participating in this global exchange of intellect is an active part of academic enterprise and campus internationalization efforts throughout the world (Yudkevich et al., 2017). International faculty in the United States are no exception, as they provide a prolific research presence on university campuses (Corley & Sabharwal, 2007; Kim et al., 2011; Mamiseishvili & Rosser, 2010; Webber & Yang, 2014). Research on various aspects of international faculty involvement on university campuses has been conducted. For example, researchers have investigated international faculty job satisfaction (Lin et al., 2009; Liu, 2001; Mamiseishvili & Lee, 2018; Reeder, 2016; Wells et al., 2007); self-perception of campus integration (Akulli, 2015; Munene, 2014; Skachkova, 2007); retention (Lawrence et al., 2014); perceived effectiveness from an institutional perspective (Marvasti, 2005); acculturation experiences (Howe, 2011; Thomas & Johnson, 2004); and mobility trends (Kim et al., 2012; Mihut et al., 2017).

Although research has examined points related to international faculty and their experiences, very little research has been done on how international faculty have and potentially can contribute to university internationalization efforts. It is acknowledged that international faculty are often recruited to universities for their potential contributions to comprehensive internationalization (Altbach & Yudkevich, 2017a, 2017b) and that the role they could play in establishing an interculturally sensitive campus environment is significant (Wei & Zhou, 2020). However, international faculty

contributions to comprehensive campus internationalization are not well investigated (Altbach & Yudkevich, 2017a, 2017b; Neill, 2019; Rumbley & de Wit, 2017b). Altbach and Yudkevich (2017a) reported that international faculty are often perceived as the catalyst of internationalization on campus, but that “international faculty are often not effectively integrated into the internationalization programs of many universities,” adding that these faculty members often “teach in their subject areas but are asked to do little else for the university” (p. 3). Similarly, Rumbley and de Wit (2017b) forwarded that “the manner and extent to which the presence of foreign faculty exerts an impact on their host institutions seems rarely explored, documented, or leveraged systematically” (p. 35). With the exception of studies quantifying the research output of international faculty (Corley & Sabharwal, 2007; Kim et al., 2011; Mamiseishvili & Rosser, 2010; Webber & Yang, 2014), empirical investigations on current and potential contributions of international faculty to comprehensive internationalization efforts are missing in the literature. Specifically, the possibilities of international faculty serving as intercultural liaisons (Wei & Zhou, 2020) and models of intercultural practice (Killick, 2018) on campus are unexamined.

Research demonstrates that the catalyst for involvement by faculty in campus internationalization is having had personal, transformative, intercultural and international experiences (Childress, 2018). In fact, international faculty who have embraced the tension of living in multiple cultural realities through adaptation to life in a different culture can be characterized as third-culture individuals, having developed an intercultural identity (Kim, 2001) with the intercultural skills and attitudes that often accompany such life experience. They have already had those critical, transformative,

identity-altering experiences that drive an interest in internationalization. In addition, because helping others grow in the area of intercultural competence is ideally a primary goal of comprehensive campus internationalization (Deardorff & Jones, 2012; Killick, 2018), the presence of individuals among the faculty with relevant experience and wisdom should not be overlooked. Consequently, international faculty are believed to be a resource for internationalization on university campuses that is not yet fully explored. As it is known that faculty, as an overall group, are the driving force of university internationalization (Cao et al., 2014; Childress, 2018; Godwin, 2019; Reisberg, 2019; Stohl, 2007), an intentional emphasis on the involvement of international faculty, especially of those who have embraced an intercultural identity, for achieving internationalization deserved further investigation.

Purpose of the Study

This mixed methods study sought to investigate the perspectives of international faculty on their own current and potential roles in achieving comprehensive internationalization of a university campus. My personal experience working in a faculty development unit on a university campus was that many international faculty had an intrinsic interest in issues regarding campus internationalization and intercultural competence; this research was a formal investigation of those informal observations. In the study, I wanted to see if there were common characteristics in international faculty members involved in internationalization, so I examined ideas about cultural identity and characteristics of the process of adaptation, and I gathered demographic information for the purpose as well, including home regions of the world to consider any possible impact

of cross-cultural values differences. I probed and categorized the types of internationalization activities they currently had and felt they could potentially do, especially activities oriented towards the classroom and campus community, to see how they already engage and to consider what might be missing. I also investigated international faculty perspectives on what actions would encourage their further involvement in comprehensive internationalization efforts because I wanted to know if the study could provide recommendations along these lines. Finally, through the study, I also considered connections between a personal sense of intercultural identity and involvement in campus internationalization activities. I hoped to understand if having an intercultural identity had influence on levels of involvement in comprehensive campus internationalization activities, and if not, what might encourage involvement instead.

Through reporting on these issues, the study provides information for higher education administrators, especially those charged with internationalization objectives, to understand how international faculty perceive their role, or potential role, as a resource for comprehensive internationalization of the campus. Because international faculty are already recruited in large numbers to U.S. campuses, recommendations for specific actions to further their engagement with initiatives in comprehensive campus internationalization are offered.

Significance of the Study

International faculty are an under-researched population (Rumbley & de Wit, 2017b; Thomas & Johnson, 2004), and their role in campus internationalization is scarcely researched at all (Altbach & Yudkevich, 2017a; Rumbley & de Wit, 2017b).

Consequently, this study will provide new insights into possible roles that international faculty may lend to internationalization initiatives on a university campus. As noted before, research has established the value that international faculty already offer to research agendas on university campuses. This study highlights additional value that international faculty bring to internationalization agendas by virtue of their experiences of adaptation and cultural adjustment. Senior international officers, upper-level university administration, school deans, departmental chairs, and faculty development units may find the information enlightening, as it informs internationalization strategic planning, resource allocation, and targeted outreach to potential faculty champions.

Terminology

Following are definitions for terms commonly used in this research study.

Culture. *Culture*, simply defined, means assumptions and values operating at a normative level among any group of people, which are then expressed through behaviors that are observable. This study, because it addressed the experiences of international faculty, used definitions of the term that relate to differences in these assumptions and values between world regions or countries. Pioneer cross-cultural researcher Hofstede famously referred to culture as the “software of the mind” (Hofstede, 1991; Hofstede et al., 2005). Another definition developed by a group of 54 researchers from 38 countries working together on the GLOBE cross-cultural values project is as follows: “shared motives, values, beliefs, identities, and interpretations or meanings of significant events that result from common experiences of members of collectives and are transmitted across age generations” (House & Javidan, 2004, p. 15). A more recent definition that I

often use is from Peterson's cross-cultural guide *Cultural Intelligence* (2011): culture is "the relatively stable set of inner values and beliefs generally held by groups of people in countries or regions and the noticeable impact those values and beliefs have on the peoples' outward behaviors and environment" (p. 17).

Acculturation. The term most generally refers to the transition that an individual or a group of people experience as they adjust to living in a culture significantly different from their own. Ozer (2017) explained that acculturation psychology (and related research) discuss *acculturation* primarily in terms of the individual rather than the group. Acculturation in this study referred to the process that individuals experience regarding changes in behavior and attitudes towards living in a new culture, with the inherent acknowledgement that not all individuals "participate to the same extent and adapt in the same manner" as other individuals might (Ozer, 2017, p. 1724). Berry's (1997) fourfold framework of acculturation and adaptation strategies was used as a reference point for discussing acculturation in this study.

Cross-cultural. This term relates to activities or analyses that look at differences confronted when disparate cultures engage. *Cross-cultural* is often used in terms of communication. Thus, renowned communications researcher Gudykunst (2003) explained cross-cultural as "comparisons of communication across cultures" (p. 1). However, a simple dictionary definition is "dealing with or offering comparison between two or more different cultures or cultural areas" (Merriam-Webster, 2020a) Thus, we have *cross-cultural research on cross-cultural values* demonstrating *cross-cultural differences*, all of which were used in this research.

Intercultural. It is helpful to understand *intercultural* in contrast with cross-cultural, above. Intercultural pertains to multiple cultural influences at once or specifically relating to something taking place among two or more cultures at once. The same dictionary referenced above defines intercultural as “occurring between or involving two or more cultures” (Merriam-Webster, 2020b). Whereas cross-cultural usually denotes an emphasis on differences, intercultural refers to being related to two or more cultures at the same time.

Cultural identity. *Cultural identity* refers to a person’s identification with a particular culture or cultures. Chen (2017) explained that individuals in a cultural group exhibit “a collective consciousness, which is formed by a web of shared meanings embedded in a systematic usage of mutually accepted symbols,” but that “the very existence of a cultural group is defined by the salience and strength of members’ sense of belonging to the group” (p. 839). For this study, cultural identity referred to the sense of identity and belonging that international faculty have with their home culture and/or the United States, or the sense of cultural identity that formed as they acculturated to the United States. For simplicity and clarity in the study, cultural identity was defined in the research documents as “the ideas that adults who have moved to another country have about their sense of self as they live in that new culture over time.”

Intercultural identity. This term refers to a sense of self that is made up of a complex fusion of characteristics from more than one culture. Kim (2017), intercultural communication and identity scholar, used the term *intercultural identity* as distinctive from *cultural identity* and different from *bicultural*, which would relate to being made up of distinct aspects of two cultures, code-switching between the two as necessary.

Intercultural identity emphasizes “the boundary crossing nature of such identity development,” because it is “shaped by a psychological orientation and personhood that situates oneself neither totally a part of, nor totally part from, any given culture” (Kim, 2017, p. 857). A very similar term in this study used in tandem to intercultural identity is *third-culture identity* (see below). Intercultural identity is an identity that has developed out of two (or more) cultural identities but is a unique thing of its own, not either/or but always both/and.

Third culture. The term *third culture* is frequently seen as a two-word adjective, meaning a blend of two or more cultures, usually related to a sense of identity, most frequently utilized in discussions of expatriates, and especially applied to children who have been socialized in more than one culture during their formative years. Third culture and its derivative, *third-culture kids*, were coined by sociologists Useem and Useem (1963); an influential and popular book by Pollock and Van Reken (2009) further propelled the term’s usage. The use of third culture has also been applied to *third-culture individuals* (Barker, 2017), which in meaning is very similar to individuals with an intercultural identity. Individuals with a fully developed intercultural identity often share characteristics associated with third-culture kids, so that the term third-culture individual can be useful to show a comparison between the two. Indeed, an intercultural individual is one who has developed a third-culture identity (Kim, 2001).

In a related use of the word *third*, the concept of *third space* has been employed within the last several decades to avoid essentialist conversations regarding culture. For example, it was used by Kramsch and Uryu (2012) to discuss the hybrid nature of intergroup communication, in that the actual meaning negotiated in an intercultural

communications exchange is found in a theoretical third space between the interlocutors. Thus, the use of third in academic discourse implies something new, comprised of two things but neither fully one nor the other.

Intercultural competence. *Intercultural competence* is an ability to negotiate cross-cultural differences using specific attitudes, skills, and knowledge in order to achieve a goal. Spitzberg and Changnon (2009) in *The SAGE Handbook of Intercultural Competence* defined intercultural competence 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” (p. 7). Deardorff (2006), in her model, critically forwarded that intercultural competence is a lifelong learning process, not an achievable and certifiable outcome. Kim (2009) importantly noted that intercultural competence is a culture-general, rather than a culture-specific, concept. Thus, the concept of intercultural competence is applicable to individuals endeavoring to communicate across cultures, regardless of the specific dimensions or characteristics of those specific cultures.

International faculty. The term *international faculty* refers to teachers or researchers in higher education who were born and spent most of their childhoods and adolescent years in a country (or countries) different where they now live and have permanent work appointments as faculty members. A very similar term is used in the volume *International Faculty in Higher Education: Comparative Perspectives on Recruitment, Integration, and Impact*, edited by three active researchers on the topic of international faculty Yudkevich, Altbach, and Rumbley (2017). The term international faculty is sometimes used to refer only to non-citizens of the host country; in some

contexts, it is also used to refer to short-term or part-time international faculty, scholars, or graduate students who teach or do research. Following the lead of Yudkevich et al. (2017), all of those individuals, while certainly valuable for the purposes of comprehensive campus internationalization in their own right, were not considered international faculty for the purposes of this study. Additionally, in this study, international faculty may have completed their graduate studies in the United States or abroad.

Comprehensive (campus/university) internationalization: All of the international and intercultural activities a university undertakes that serve to infuse a university's teaching, research, and service activities with international and intercultural perspectives are together referred to as efforts towards *comprehensive internationalization* (Knight, 1994). The altruistic intention of these activities for many campuses is to impact the community of learners and educators at the institution with a more global perspective for the benefit of the greater good in society (de Wit et al., 2015; Hudzik, 2011; Knight, 2008).

Theoretical Framework

Research and theory from multiple fields, including cross-cultural psychology, intercultural communication, intercultural competence, and international education influenced the discussion and interpretation of data in this study; these will be presented in the literature review. However, because of their special role in influencing the study design and research questions, two specific theoretical constructs underpin the study and are discussed below.

Berry's Fourfold Acculturation Strategies Theory

To have a theoretical lens through which to discuss cultural identity, specifically in any quantitative measure seeking to define an individual sense of adapted cultural identity, Berry's (1992, 1997) widely recognized fourfold acculturation strategies framework was used. Berry, hailing from the field of cross-cultural psychology, did not name this a theory in his original papers discussing acculturation psychology, but in the recent *International Encyclopedia of Intercultural Communication*, fellow intercultural scholar Ozer (2017) referred to it as such after years of research employing and validating this framework in multiple studies.

The theory employs dichotomous positioning on the part of the individual's attitude and behaviors towards the home culture and the host culture, characterized by various degrees of *culture learning* and *culture shedding* (Berry, 1992, 1997). First, if an individual absorbs the host culture's ways but largely disengages with the identification of home culture, the individual has used the acculturation strategy of *assimilation*. However, if the individual clings to the home culture, fully maintaining a home culture identity, without taking on any cultural aspects of the host culture, the acculturation strategy is *separation*. Thirdly, *marginalization* is the term for an individual who is so psychologically affected by the strain of the transition to a new culture that they neither learn the new culture nor retain aspects of the old, either via exclusion by the host culture or withdrawal from the host culture—a rare but still ascertainable reaction (Berry et al., 2006). Finally, if the individual adapts to some aspects of the host culture while retaining characteristics of the home culture (learning a new culture but not fully shedding the old), the acculturation strategy used is *integration*.

In addition, four corresponding reactions in a host culture to newcomers and acculturation have been identified (Berry, 2005). Related to assimilation is the *melting pot*, in which a newcomer, over time, loses most cultural identification with the home culture, instead coming to identify with the home culture quite fully. A host culture can strongly push assimilation through policy decisions that affect newcomers.

Corresponding to separation is *segregation*, in which a host culture forces newcomers to the peripheries of society. *Exclusion* is the term for a host culture position that both pushes home culture loss and acts in discriminatory ways to newcomers within the host culture. Finally, integration is achievable when a host society is “open and inclusive in its orientation towards cultural diversity” (Berry, 2005, p. 706), a position known as *multiculturalism*.

It should be noted that in Berry’s writings (as well as in this dissertation), the term *adaptation* does not have a positive or negative connotation; it simply refers to “the relatively stable changes that take place in an individual or group in response to environmental demands” (Berry, 1997, p. 20). Additionally, Berry consistently distinguished between group acculturation and individual acculturation (which he entitled acculturation and psychological acculturation in many of his papers, respectively), because individuals can choose to employ different acculturation strategies than those of their cultural group (Berry, 1992, 1997). This research study focused primarily on individual reactions to acculturation opportunities. Also, Berry (2005) identified three necessary components for the potentiality of integrating into a host culture. First is the freedom to choose how one addresses acculturation opportunities; next is the ability to

maintain one's home culture. Contact with and participation in the host culture is another requirement (Berry, 2005).

Individuals respond to the experiences of negotiating life between two cultures in various ways, depending on the situation (Berry, 1997). When acculturation opportunities present no problems to the individual, *behavioral shifts* occur as the newcomer adjusts to the new environment. Greater levels of conflict lead to *acculturation stress*, a term which Berry strongly preferred to the more commonly used idea of *culture shock* (Oberg, 1954), as “shock” connotes something negative, but the stresses of acculturative adaptation can be positive or negative. Finally, when acculturative stress cannot be resolved in a positive way and the individual is overcome with the difficulty, Berry labeled this as an example of *psychopathy* (Berry, 1997).

Although this summary is not meant to be a comprehensive review of Berry's work on acculturation, it is worth noting that this framework has been heavily applied in research. According to a literature analysis by Ward (2008), over 800 citations in psychological research alone linked Berry and acculturation research. Ward (2008) also noted that considerable studies have confirmed that the two dimensions of Berry's model (maintaining home culture versus engaging with host culture) are indeed sound and independent, and that integration is the strategy most preferred by adapting individuals. In one example, the theorist and others (Berry et al., 2006) conducted a large-scale research study of over 5,000 immigrant youth in 13 different host countries. The study demonstrated, in addition to the fact that all four acculturation strategies were chosen by individuals, that integration was the most frequently used strategy of the four alternatives. Multiple research studies also indicated that integration is the strategy most associated

with positive adjustment and so is the strongest of the alternatives (Ozer, 2017; Ward, 2008).

Kim's Intercultural Identity and Intercultural Personhood

This research study purposed to discover, in part, whether or not a stronger sense of intercultural identity has any effect on involvement in comprehensive campus internationalization activities, and if not, what might play a role instead. Although Berry's (1992, 1997) *integrated* strategy of acculturation indeed might be associated with the potential development of an intercultural identity, Berry's acculturation framework does not seek to define the components of an integrated individual's cultural identity. Thus, a theoretical perspective on intercultural identity must be identified to provide further information for the study.

Intercultural scholar Y. Y. Kim's research (2001) has examined the processes of adaptation to a new culture and the components of an intercultural identity. An intercultural identity, according to Kim, is developed over time by an individual and represents a "continuum of adaptive changes from a monocultural to an increasingly complex and inclusive character" (2009, p. 56). The concept of intercultural identity stems from the premise that intercultural identity orientations will predict successful intercultural exchanges among culturally different individuals (Kim, 2009). Kim has identified several aspects of this specific and special type of cultural identification.

An intercultural identity is one that is, first of all, inclusive (Kim, 2001, 2009). This inclusivity is characterized by *individuation*, in which individuals are recognized as individuals regardless of their cultural trappings, which allows a person to escape binding

in-group/out-group sensibilities. In addition, the inclusivism of an intercultural identity is characterized by *universalization*, in which an individual simultaneously grasps the “relative nature of values and the universal aspect of human nature” (Kim, 2009, p. 56). Finally, an intercultural identity is strongly underpinned by a solid sense of identity security, with which personal characteristics such as resiliency, hardiness, and self-confidence may be related.

An individual with this intercultural identity, then, may be described as having an “intercultural personhood” (Kim, 2015). This term does not refer the same notion as bicultural, a term which suggests two separate cultural identities co-existing in an individual. Instead, an intercultural personhood emphasizes a third, personalized culture that develops in individuals who have diminished certain elements of their old culture, adopted certain aspects of their new culture, and are now a fused, different person made up of neither culture fully but a unique amalgamation of both.

Therefore, it was the intent of this study to explore perspectives on identity held by international faculty to see if having an integrated sense of intercultural identity might influence significant involvement in comprehensive campus internationalization efforts. Developing an intercultural personhood is a transformative process. I wondered if having experienced this transformation could empower international faculty to serve in specialized roles within their faculty appointments for the purposes of internationalization, and whether they see their potential roles in this way. In addition, I wanted to investigate what would have to happen for international faculty to be more meaningfully involved in internationalization initiatives overall.

Research Questions

The following questions determined the study design. They also guided the creation of a mixed methods survey for wide distribution and an interview protocol for use with focus groups, and they led the process of data analysis and interpretation.

Research Question 1. How do international faculty describe their current sense of cultural identity and its development?

Research Question 2. Regarding campus internationalization efforts, how are international faculty currently involved? What ideas do they have for further involvement?

Research Question 3. What actions might be undertaken to encourage international faculty to be more involved in campus internationalization efforts?

Research Question 4. To what extent can any observations be made regarding an international faculty member's level of cultural identity and current involvement in campus internationalization efforts?

Research Question 5. What is the profile of international faculty involved in campus internationalization efforts?

Research Question 6. What themes and meta-inferences emerge from the data concerning international faculty and their involvement in campus internationalization efforts?

Study Design

This research study investigated perspectives of international faculty on their role in campus internationalization. It also considered any influences that their sense of

cultural identity, experience of adaptation, or demographic characteristics have on participation in campus internationalization, including the potential of helping others on campus develop intercultural competence. Philosophically, the study was grounded in the pragmatic worldview, and the principles associated with critical realism supported the study ontologically and epistemologically.

The study employed a convergent mixed methods study design. The participants included international faculty representatives from across disciplines at a large research university in the southeastern United States. Criterion, snowball, and chain referral sampling was used in crafting a stratified purposive sample (Teddlie & Yu, 2007), with an end result of a nested sample appropriate for this mixed methods design (Onwuegbuzie & Johnson, 2006). Specifically, an electronic survey was administered widely throughout the campus to gather both quantitative and qualitative data from as many eligible participants as possible. Focus groups were also convened to explore the same research questions qualitatively. All qualitative data were analyzed with a constant comparison technique, and the quantitative data were analyzed through descriptive and associative statistics as appropriate to the final sample size. The parallel databases enabled a direct comparison and contrast of participants' perspectives on their cultural identities and their involvement in internationalization initiatives. The integrated databases also enabled the development of meta-inferences that emerged from reviewing qualitative analyses along with statistical data, allowing for a more complete understanding of faculty perspectives on their role in comprehensive campus internationalization.

Organization of the Dissertation

The dissertation continues with Chapter 2, in which I review relevant literature from the fields of cross-cultural psychology, intercultural communications, intercultural competence, and international education, providing additional theoretical foundations for the research. Next, the methodology for the study is presented in Chapter 3. I will provide a discussion of philosophical assumptions underpinning the study and the use of mixed methods, the mixed methods study design, the study site, and sampling methods. Chapter 3 also reviews data collection, including protocol design and procedures, followed by a description of the process of data analysis and validity. Chapter 4 provides the findings of the research, including the quantitative statistical data analysis, the qualitative data analyses, and the integrated mixed methods data analysis. Finally, Chapter 5 presents a discussion of the meta-inferences gained from the research, as well as key recommendations for action, unexpected observations from the study, limitations of the study, and recommendations for further research.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

According to Teddlie and Tashakkori (2009), mixed methods research can emanate from theories, observations, or facts. They explained, “In practice, instead of starting from a theory, many researchers build a *conceptual framework* on the basis of current research literature, minitheories, and intuition,” concluding the process can be rather inductive (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009, p. 89). This study had such a conceptual framework. Certainly, Berry’s (1997) fourfold framework of acculturation and adaptation, as well as Kim’s theories of intercultural identity and intercultural personhood (Kim, 2009, 2015), underpinned this study, as has already been discussed. However, this research was also informed by a review of related scholarship. First, a short review of the concept of third culture from cross-cultural psychology as it relates to the concept of intercultural individuals is presented. Then, a significant intercultural communications theory that provides insight regarding the process of adaptation to a new culture is discussed. Next is a short overview of selected research on the topic of intercultural competence, followed by a more extensive review of both comprehensive university internationalization and international faculty. Chapter 2 concludes with a review of the specific literature that provides the basis of a call for research on this topic.

Third Culture

Pollock and Van Reken penned *Third Culture Kids: Growing Up Among Worlds* (1999), based on the pioneering work by sociologists Useem and Useem (1963) that investigated the commonalities of children who lived abroad, in a different country than their national home, during some portion of their childhood or adolescence. To those individuals with this experience (including this researcher), Pollock's and Van Reken's assertions, including the observation that third-culture kids usually have more in common with one another than they do with anyone else, put words to previously unexpressed impressions and became widely discussed. Pollock and Van Reken delineated the challenges of a third-culture kid experience for their readers, which included articulating a sense of personal and cultural identity, and dealing with unresolved, and frequently unrecognized, grief of multiple losses. Third-culture kids also have some distinct characteristics that are highly advantageous, especially in today's globalized world. Pollock and Van Reken (2009) discussed shared characteristics such as an expanded worldview, an ability to see issues through multiple perspectives, adaptability, and an adeptness with cross-cultural skills, social skills, and linguistic skills. Barker (2017) used common monikers for third-culture kids in her explanation of third-culture individuals (a newer term which acknowledges that all children grow up) for the *International Encyclopedia of International Communication*, including terms such as *hidden immigrants*, *global nomads*, *cultural chameleons*, and *cultural composites*.

Adults who live in another country for a significant portion of their life for work or school (known as "expatriates" or "expats" while abroad) have specific experiences that have been explored in research (Adams & Van de Vijver, 2015; Kraimer et al., 2001;

Sanchez et al., 2000; Shaffer et al., 1999; Van Vianen et al., 2004). These adults are found in abundance in today's mobile world: diplomats, military personnel, missionaries, and business representatives are joined by multitudes of international students, employees of companies with vast global reach, and—the subject of this dissertation—international faculty. While some expats live abroad in a cultural bubble, rather unaffected by their time in another environment, those who interact with their host culture over time find themselves transformed when they return home, having experienced a measure of adjustment and adaptation to their new environment (Berry, 1997, 2005; Kim, 2001). Culturally transformed expats can be called third-culture individuals, considering that they experience identity transitions similar, although at different degrees of intensity, to those of third-culture kids.

It is worthwhile to note that the expats described here are generally abroad by choice or for work and have a certain amount of socioeconomic stability and a supportive infrastructure to their international experience. This should be contrasted with migrants and refugees who are not necessarily of the same economic stability or beneficiaries of the same sort of stabilizing infrastructure. The acculturation experiences can be vastly different accordingly (Ozer, 2017). Having said this, Berry (1997) reported that the four strategies for acculturation remain the same despite the motivation for the cross-cultural transition.

Consistent terminology to describe this category of people continues to evade the literature. Adjectives such as cross-cultural, bicultural, multicultural, and transcultural are used, often interchangeably, with the term intercultural, even though differences can be parsed in their meanings. In this study, following Kim's ideas of intercultural personhood

(2015) and intercultural identity (2001) which underpin this study theoretically, the adjective intercultural is most often used. As the term intercultural emphasizes the ideas of between and among rather than emphasizing differences, intercultural personhood refers to a person who has taken characteristics from more than one culture into their personal sense of cultural identity. Kim (2015) explained what transpires in this transition: “intercultural transformation is a juxtaposition of deculturation and acculturation—fading of some of the old cultural habits and gaining of some of the new cultural habits. In doing so, a person becomes something else” (p. 7), a something else that is a unique blend of cultural influences.

The intercultural identity is one that is characterized by an intercultural personhood that is both inclusive and secure (Kim, 2015, 2017). The inclusive aspect of an intercultural identity is both individuated and universalized. Individuated refers to a person coming to see themselves, and others, as individuals, not necessarily defined (or stereotyped) by cultural characteristics, but independent of their surroundings and home cultures. Universalized refers to a similar, and yet opposite, idea that recognizes the humanity of all people—that sees what we have in common more than how we are different. Additionally, individuals with an intercultural identity have identity security. They are not threatened by differences; they respond to difference with curiosity, not alarm, when learning that someone does, or thinks, differently than they do.

Intercultural individuals are, therefore, those adults who function as third-culture people because their reality is one which fluctuates between different life experiences, some of which may be polarizing in nature. The intercultural reality is one that exists in a third, individualized space. The intercultural individual lives in the tension between

multiple cultural life experiences, ideally harmonizing those differences into one, very individual, sense of self.

Intercultural Communication and Adaptation

To answer how individuals become integrated with their new cultures, or why they may do so at different rates, this study will refer to Kim's (2001) Integrative Theory of Communication and Cross-Cultural Adaptation, which provides a model that seeks to understand the reasons for and means of acculturation. As explicated in the *International Encyclopedia of Intercultural Communication* (Kim & McKay-Semmler, 2018) and *The SAGE Handbook of Intercultural Competence* (Deardorff, 2009), Kim's (2001) theory posits that acculturation is a process influenced by a myriad of factors. The basic process is one of *stress-adaptation-growth*, which is an iterative dynamic that recurs as an individual adjusts to life in a new culture. In different areas of adjustment, individuals may be at different points in the cycle; new stressors can affect adaptation and growth in previous areas of stress, compounding the time needed for adjustment.

Kim's (2001) theory indicates that communication is the root of all adaptation because we communicate both with individuals and our environments, and it is the intra-personal communication regarding all input that influences our acculturation. This intra-personal communication is a starting point for the theory. It is characterized by a person's cognitive, affective, and operational characteristics. The cognitive characteristics include how the person thinks about their own culture and the new culture, the level of complexity they bring to these thoughts, and whether they are fundamentally judgmental or descriptive in their approach. The affective characteristics include all the ways that a

person communicates within themselves about the changes and differences they are experiencing on an emotional level, including what emotions occur, and whether they are curious and respectful or dismayed and frustrated at differences encountered. The third set of characteristics is operational or behavioral, such as how the person decides to act in situations of acculturative stress.

Then, these three layers of intra-personal communication interact, and are influenced by, two types of communication with the host culture (Kim, 2001). The first is interpersonal communication with individuals from the host culture, which includes face-to-face contact or personal contact transpiring through media. The second layer is mass communication with the host culture. This includes all contact with the larger society through media, including television, movies, the Internet, billboards, entertainment venues, general communications from the workplace or school, and general information, media, or experiences occurring in society at large. To this intra-personal communication regarding interpersonal and mass communication experiences, there are at least three other mitigating factors on a person's acculturation. These factors are personal characteristics, host culture characteristics, and communication with the home culture.

Personal characteristics that an individual brings to the cross-cultural experience heavily influence adaptation outcomes. Kim (2001) identified three such characteristics. The first personal characteristic is what Kim referred to as the strength of an individual's personality. She indicated that strength includes personal characteristics such as resilience, persistence, risk-taking, plasticity, openness, hardiness, positivity, flexibility, and resourcefulness. The strength of each of these characteristics supports the adjustment curve. The second personal characteristic is how prepared the person is for the move.

This includes issues such as how much the person knows about their own culture and the host culture, and whether they can communicate in the language upon arrival, and at what level. The third personal characteristic is the relative distance between the person's home culture and the host culture. Distance usually makes adaptation more difficult, while similarity makes it easier (also Berry, 1992, 1997).

In addition, three host culture characteristics influence acculturation (Kim, 2001). The first includes the host culture's receptivity to strangers, in general, and whether they are welcoming to newcomers. The second is the host culture's attitude towards the individual's home culture specifically. A culture could be welcoming to newcomers in general but hostile towards a particular national or ethnic background. Finally, whether the host culture puts pressure on the newcomer to assimilate, or whether the culture is tolerant of differences, is important. If much pressure is exerted to conform to host culture norms, this will influence how an individual acculturates. In addition, it is worth noting that pressure could influence the person towards separation or assimilation, depending on the individual.

Finally, communication, both interpersonal and mass communication, from an individual's home culture will influence acculturation (Kim, 2001). Following arrival in a new culture, home culture communication can provide help with cognitively understanding differences, comfort for affective distress, or advice for behavior. However, over time, this home culture communication can prevent active engagement with the host culture or can delay or hinder developing a positive attitude about the host culture, influencing acculturation strategies.

Kim's (2001) model has three assumptions about the individual that are essential for the model to apply. The first is that the individual received primary socialization in one culture before moving abroad. Thus, the model does not seek to explain the third-culture kid phenomenon, as individuals who have lived internationally in childhood and adolescence are socialized interculturally from early in life. This model is applicable, however, to the third-culture or intercultural adult. Next, the individual must be dependent at some level on the host culture for meeting their physical needs. Finally, the individual must be actively engaged in communication (interpersonal and mass) with the host culture. In other words, this model would not apply to an individual who is somehow self-sufficient and either separated or segregated from the host culture (Berry, 1997).

The final element of this model is the description of outcomes from the stress-adaptation-growth dynamic (Kim, 2001). The first is that of *functional fitness*. The individual finds that, over time, they can operate more efficiently within the norms of the culture. This includes success on a behavioral level as well as on a practical level. The second outcome is *psychological health*. The times of crisis, which we associate with culture shock (Neuliep, 2017; Oberg, 1954) or acculturation stress (Berry, 1997), minimize as the person adjusts to living in the new environment. Positive emotional states are more common. The final outcome is the development, over time, of an intercultural identity (Kim, 2001), or as described in other research, an intercultural personhood (Kim, 2015).

Kim's (2001) Integrated Theory of Communication and Cross-cultural Adaptation is a robust and complex theory of how and why cross-cultural adaptation may happen and an intercultural identity may form. My perspective is that being involved in campus

internationalization as an international faculty member, especially regarding issues of intercultural competence, would likely involve an element of being a cultural broker for others. Therefore, one needs to be comfortable with both a home culture and a host culture to engage in that level of conversation and facilitation, and Kim's model helps explain how this might occur. In addition, the model's acknowledgement that host culture characteristics can be an encouragement or impediment to acculturation is useful in explaining how some faculty feel about involvement on campus.

Intercultural Competence

A number of researchers have sought to establish definitions and theoretical constructs for intercultural competence over the last several decades. Spitzberg and Changnon (2009) offered the following useful definition: "intercultural competence is 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" (p. 7). They further explained that these orientations are generally categorized in such normative groupings as race, ethnicity, nationality, region, language, or religion. Fantini (2009) defined intercultural competence as "complex abilities that are required to perform *effectively* and *appropriately* when interacting with others who are linguistically and culturally different from oneself" (p. 458). Effectively relates to how a person values their own performance in the encounter; appropriately reflects how one's communicative partner views the success of the exchange or situation (Fantini, 2009). Therefore, how individuals from different groups interact, and to what

degree they successfully communicate, is the question of theorizing intercultural competence.

Selected, highly influential models theorizing aspects of intercultural competence will be described below. Theories of intercultural competence are important to this research study because they are useful in describing the characteristics of individuals who interact effectively (or do not interact well) with culturally diverse others. My conjecture is that international faculty who have developed an intercultural identity may be in a stronger position to serve as facilitators in helping others develop the skills of intercultural competence that they themselves have already developed. Having models of those skills is useful for future potential training opportunities.

Deardorff's Process Model of Intercultural Competence

Deardorff (2006) was one of the first to engage in an empirical effort to identify a model for intercultural competence, employing the Delphi method to glean widespread perspectives from multiple intercultural scholars worldwide. The results of her dissertation research (Deardorff, 2004) and a corresponding article (2006) are compositionally modeled as a pyramid composed of distinct elements, as well as a process model, demonstrating how the elements are related. At the base of the pyramid, and at the entrance to the process, are attitudes that affect intercultural encounters. These include affective characteristics such as respect, openness, and cultural empathy. They are key—absolutely essential—to successful intercultural interactions. The second area on the model has a dual focus on knowledge and skills. Knowledge includes information about one's own cultural background as well as information about other cultures (either

cultural-specific or culture-general). Skills include (but are not limited to) the ability to listen, build relationships, and exhibit flexibility and adaptability. The third area on the model is desired internal outcomes. The personal hope, in intercultural exchanges, is to be effective in whatever goal one has. The final level is the desired external outcome, which is to be appropriate within the intercultural encounter, particularly from the perspective of one's partner in the communicative exchange.

In the process model, one can achieve desired external outcomes without knowledge or skills, and without experiencing the internal outcomes, but the attitudes are an essential starting point. In addition, Deardorff (2006) found that having an ability to see the world from others' perspectives was the most common of all of the elements of intercultural competence identified (p. 249). Even though Deardorff's model (2004, 2006) is only one of many put forward in the literature, it is highly regarded as being comprehensive and researched-based, and thus, it is imminently useful in discussing conceptualizations of intercultural competence.

Describing the elements of intercultural competence is helpful; however, models such as Deardorff's do not express the different levels of competence that emerge as individuals repeatedly engage with this process over time. Conditional relationships among the model's components are missing (Spitzberg & Changnon, 2009). Other models seek to make these connections.

Bennett's Developmental Model of Intercultural Competence

Developmental models of intercultural competence stress the nature of growth in intercultural development over time. Perhaps the most well-known and used of these

models is Bennett's Development Model of Intercultural Sensitivity (1986); it describes processes that individuals often experience when adjusting to a new culture. The model has six steps, divided into two stages. As individuals adjust, they move through the steps; however, adjustment and growth do not always occur. The first stage of the model has three steps that are considered "ethno-centric" (p. 182). They include *denial* (that difference exists), *defense* (thinking that the differences are dangerous, wrong, or otherwise unappealing), and *minimization* (expressing that the differences are there but do not matter). The second stage has three steps that are considered "ethno-relative" (p. 182). These include *acceptance* (that there are indeed differences between cultures), *adaptation* (to the differences), and finally *integration*, (differences become a part of the person's transformed identity). Bennett's model is widely used in measuring outcomes resulting from the development of intercultural competence; in fact, it is the basis of the Intercultural Development Inventory, a research-based assessment tool used widely in intercultural training (Hammer et al., 2003).

Current Issues in Intercultural Competence

In 2013, the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) published a document entitled *Intercultural Competencies: Conceptual and Operational Framework*, in which the authors acknowledged that establishing what constitutes intercultural competence within and for the international community is now complete. The current challenge is implementation of training on a wide scale. To that end, the authors called on leaders worldwide to engage in an active effort to guide others in the process of gaining intercultural competence. Their suggestions comprise multiple

arenas of influence, and a primary area is the academic environment. Indeed, a current emphasis in comprehensive campus internationalization, as we will see next, is the development of intercultural competence (Hudzik, 2011). Yet, as a whole, institutions of higher education are not achieving this goal (Lee et al., 2012).

Comprehensive Campus Internationalization

Historically, universities have been involved in the exchange of ideas, students, and scholars among regions of the world, pushing back even to the time of the Middle Ages (de Wit & Merckx, 2012). In the United States, interest in international education bloomed in the middle of the 20th century in reaction to national defense concerns, as institutions of higher education increasingly realized their significant role in diversifying learning to offer history, languages, and global perspectives from a myriad of fields beyond the traditional emphasis on the United States and Europe (Childress, 2018). By the 1980s, the term *internationalization* was actively employed at the institutional level to refer to the cross-border exchange of students, the promotion of international studies, and technical assistance from one university to another (Klasek, 1992; Knight, 2004, 2012). In today's higher education environment, internationalization agendas might still be forwarded at the institutional level, might be promoted at a national level, or both (Knight, 2004). In either case, by the early part of the last decade, internationalization can be described as having "come of age," now that it is "firmly embedded in institutional mission statements, policies, and strategies as well as national policy frameworks" (Knight, 2011, p. 14).

In the same time period, the international activities of universities have also been increasingly commodified in the world of higher education (de Wit, 2020; Reisberg, 2019). Indeed, this is visible in the following explanations for institutional interest in internationalization reported by Knight (2004). Along with developing students and staff and producing research, Knight (2004) also listed an increased institutional profile and ranking, income creation, and strategic international relationships as priorities. In fact, a general internationalization agenda has been forwarded in which “international education has become an industry, a source of revenue and a means for enhanced reputation,” as claimed by de Wit (2020, p. i). This industry is measured by an increasing stress on numbers of international students traveling to and from any given country, the quality of talent recruited, the number of research publications produced, the rankings of the universities involved, and the numbers of formal exchange agreements signed.

Regarding the balance between quantity and quality measures of internationalization, Ota (2018) astutely remarked the following: “Although policies of internationalization through quantitative expansion have been able to add a veneer of internationality . . . it cannot be said that internationalization initiatives are being used as a means for qualitative reform of the university as a whole” (Ota, 2018, p. 94). This comment specifically concerned a trend in internationalization observed in Japan; however, the overall imbalance on quantity rather than quality has been increasingly recognized widely throughout higher education. In one imbalance, the historical over-emphasis on demonstrating student mobility involvement (Knight, 2011) has led to an under-emphasis on the need for all students to develop international perspectives and a set of intercultural attitudes and skills. After all, a myopic focus on student mobility as

the primary way to create global citizens cannot provide comprehensive reach to an entire student population. Despite earnest and effective work by study abroad champions, sending the majority of an institution's students abroad remains a difficult and frequently unattainable goal. Other strategies need to be added because many, if not most, university graduates will need to have a deep understanding of issues of immigration and international business now commonplace in a globalized world (Deardorff, 2006; Lee et al., 2012).

The term *comprehensive* internationalization is now commonly used to refer to the entire range and scope of efforts towards internationalization on a university campus. In a review of current definitions of the term, the importance of the intangible, qualitative benefits of internationalization is increasingly noticeable. In 2011, NAFSA: Association for International Educators published a reference guide for the university community entitled *Comprehensive Internationalization: From Concept to Action*. In the guide, Hudzik (2011) defined comprehensive internationalization as “a commitment, confirmed through action, to infuse international and comparative perspectives throughout the teaching, research, and service missions of higher education” (p. 6). The emphasis is on the full range of impact of internationalization on all aspects of a university's activities. Another helpful example is an extension of a classic explanation of university internationalization. Knight (2004) provided a neutral definition of internationalization as follows: “the process of integrating an international, intercultural or global dimension into the purpose, functions and delivery of post-secondary education” (p. 11). At that time, Knight intentionally kept the definition broad in order to account for any and all

internationalization activities. However, in 2015, the European Parliament Committee on Culture and Education extended Knight's classic definition, as follows:

The intentional process of integrating an international, intercultural or global dimension into the purpose, functions and delivery of post-secondary education, in order to enhance the quality of education and research *for all students and staff* and to make a meaningful contribution to society. (de Wit et al., 2015, my emphasis)

Thus, as currently imagined, the aims of comprehensive internationalization seek to fundamentally alter an emphasis within higher education on goals that relate to international and intercultural issues, with the hope of preparing all students to be better prepared for life and work. This emphasis should be ascertainable throughout all aspects of an institutional mission and of disciplinary missions. Current scholars of the internationalization of higher education push for a more intentional approach to internationalization activities, characterized by a qualitative focus on “citizenship development, employability, and improvement of the quality of research, education, and service to society” (de Wit, 2020, p. iii).

Internationalization at Home

A dual approach has evolved to address comprehensive internationalization. The first approach is a focus on abroad or cross-border efforts, most of which have been the driver of international education historically and are still good, noble activities. The second approach is a newer, parallel emphasis on internationalization activities focused on the local, domestic campus, also called “internationalization at home” (Knight, 2012).

Internationalization at home was first developed as a concept in the early 2000s, with a focus on the development of “intercultural competency through internationalized curricula and opportunities for learning beyond the campus” (Brewer & Leask, 2012, p. 248). A current definition of internationalization at home that stresses intentionality and comprehensive campus reach is offered by Beelen and Jones (2015): “the purposeful integration of international and intercultural dimensions into the formal and informal curriculum for all students within domestic learning environments” (p. 69).

Internationalization at home includes actions such as research activity that includes internationally relevant themes, perspectives, and co-researchers, as well as co-curricular and extra-curricular activities that promote international understanding and intercultural interaction (Knight, 2012). Beelen and Jones (2015) include activities such as using comparative literature in courses; hosting guest lectures from abroad, local cultural groups, or local international businesses; assigning internationally oriented case studies; employing online global collaborative learning opportunities; or designing service learning that purposefully engages with local cultural groups. Internationalization at home purposefully promotes intentional interaction (Agnew & Kahn, 2014) between students who are different and unlikely to work together otherwise (Volet & Ang, 2012), and it promotes planning for the purposeful involvement of international scholars and students in international and intercultural learning initiatives (Knight, 2012). However, perhaps the key aspect of internationalization at home is an internationalized curriculum, including the internationalization of learning outcomes, pedagogy, and assessment measures (Beelen & Jones, 2015).

Deardorff and Charles (2018) explained that an internationalized curriculum “ensures that students can have multiple, substantive, and intentional encounters with global perspectives to equip them with the skills, knowledge, and dispositions required to succeed in the interconnected and interdependent world we now inhabit” (p. 66). An internationalized curriculum includes acknowledging courses that may already be available and part of an internationalized curriculum, such as world languages and literatures courses. It also involves reviewing and updating existing curricula within the disciplines to include appropriate international awareness and knowledge. Finally, it may also necessitate adding new courses as needed that focus on developing the specific knowledge, awareness, and skills needed for success in today’s global world (Brewer & Leask, 2012). Within the literature on internationalization at home, a growing emphasis on the importance of developing intercultural competency in students is prevalent. In fact, as Leask (2009) declared, the internationalization of the curriculum is the link between having a diverse student environment and ensuring intercultural competence development.

Growing Emphasis on Intercultural Competence

In a monograph prepared for the Association for the Study of Higher Education (ASHE), the authors (Lee et al., 2012) emphasized the pressing need for intercultural competence development, as well as for relevant faculty development in order to properly facilitate its teaching. These authors expressed that although university campuses are increasingly diverse environments, students do not usually come to campus with the knowledge, skills, and attitudes enabling them to interact effectively across cultural

differences. Based on evidence from employers and from research, the authors also made a case that students are not acquiring the intercultural competence needed by the time of graduation. Lee et al. (2012) reiterated research findings that simply putting diverse individuals together in the same room, even if you ask them to work together on a project, will not automatically develop the characteristics associated with intercultural competence. Instead, this sort of development takes work—that of “intentionally designed and actively facilitated intercultural interactions” (Lee et al., 2012, p. 5).

Killick (2018) stated that because today’s chief goal of education is to prepare students for an ever-more diverse world, the focus in the internationalization of teaching and learning must be primarily on intercultural learning, rather than learning only about international issues, peoples, or events. This is because all learners are in diverse environments at all times, whether they are among diverse others from their home country or diverse others from abroad (see also Leask, 2009). As Killick (2018) explained, the university should be about “enabling students to make their way among culturally diverse others, *wherever* they may be” (p. 14, author’s emphasis). In fact, Killick (2010), as cited in Deardorff and Jones (2012), forwarded that “universities need to be devoting energies to integrating the *home* student to the *university as an international/multicultural community*, rather than focusing so exclusively upon integrating the *international* student into an Anglo-centric community” (p. 256, author’s emphasis). Certainly, if institutions expend energy recruiting international students, scholars, and faculty to their campuses, those same institutions should take advantage of the radically multicultural environment to foster the development of intercultural competences among all students.

Literature on teaching intercultural competence is available, but it is also a current field. In an oft-cited article, Leask (2009) provided ideas from her home university in Australia through a multi-year effort made to incorporate intercultural teaching in both the formal curricula and the co-curricular and extra-curricular activities on the campus. Others have offered ideas employed effectively on individual campuses, including activities for co-curricular learning (Huang, 2017), student engagement with diverse others (Gill, 2016), establishing certification programs (Rodriguez, 2016), and mentoring programs (Prieto-Flores et al., 2016). Discussions on the teaching of individual elements of intercultural competence are also available. Two examples are a discussion of teaching empathy (Calloway-Thomas et al., 2017) and the importance of stressing cultural humility and the growth of intercultural competence as a process (Murray-Garcia & Tervalon, 2017). Berardo and Deardorff (2012) published a resource providing both well-established and new approaches to the explicit teaching of intercultural competencies. Others have offered systematic approaches for infusing overall university curricula and teaching practices with intercultural competence training (Dimitrov & Haque, 2016; Kahn & Agnew, 2017; Killick, 2018; Lee et al., 2012).

Aiding these efforts are rubrics from the Association of American Colleges and Universities addressing areas of focus for student outcomes in global learning (AAC&U, 2009a) and for intercultural knowledge and competency (AAC&U, 2009b). These rubrics can be used to inform an analysis of overall curriculum internationalization, as they are created for high-level evaluation of student learning throughout a course of study, not as grading rubrics for specific assignments.

Faculty as the Linchpin in Internationalization Efforts

The key to implementing most internationalization strategies is the faculty of any university (Agnew & Kahn, 2014; Beelen & Jones, 2015; Childress, 2018; Reisberg, 2019; Stohl, 2007). Strategically involving faculty is an imperative because faculty control academic content and processes, have contact with all students over the course of their studies, and are of primacy in university activities such as research, service, and in emerging leadership roles (Childress, 2018; Godwin, 2019). Consequently, researchers have investigated different aspects of university internationalization as related to faculty. Previous studies have specifically examined the role of faculty as related to effectively welcoming international students, focusing on the impact by faculty on international student adjustment (Cao et al., 2014) or on faculty views about international students in regards to internationalization (Moore, 2013). Others have considered the effectiveness of interventions to help faculty grow in their understanding of comprehensive internationalization (Kirk et al., 2018; Niehaus & Williams, 2016; Schuerholz-Lehr et al., 2007; Smith & Paracka, 2018; Spitzman & Waugh, 2018). Yet other resources provide case studies as to how faculty become engaged in internationalization on specific campuses (Childress, 2018; Leask, 2015).

Building buy-in to the importance of internationalization initiatives is crucial given how the faculty are the designers and implementers of the curriculum, the lead researchers, and the supporters of significant co-curricular campus activities (Deardorff & Charles, 2018). Childress (2018) developed her model of faculty engagement in internationalization based on two case study analyses of universities that have

successfully modeled this effort. The model features five components, each of which influences the other in a synergistic design. Details of this model are described here.

Childress's Model for Engaging Faculty in Internationalization

One element that Childress (2018) found in universities that successfully internationalize is *intentionality*. Her case study found that internationalization plans at multiple levels of a university, from unit-specific to institution-wide, “formalized internationalization as an institutional priority” and “provided focus, organization, and resources” which, in turn, encouraged faculty engagement in comprehensive internationalization efforts (Childress, 2018, p. 164). In one of the case studies in the research, the faculty’s role in the university’s internationalization process was described as “becoming stewards to solving world problems” (Childress, 2018, p. 181), which motivated the faculty to high levels of engagement with internationalization throughout the enterprise. This motivational and intentional inclusion of faculty in an internationalization plan is wise and effective. Of course, building a plan is not enough. A university must also engage faculty in the operationalization and implementation of a plan for their plan to be successful. Childress suggested that the goals of, resources for, and oversight of a university’s plan must be thought out. She specifically suggested that committees of faculty and senior administrators be established at a high level, ideally by a provost, for oversight and problem-solving in order to support faculty in their internationalization initiatives. In addition, Childress explained the imperative of articulation of internationalization priorities at the unit level, so that departments can

personalize how their unit can meet the plan's goals and solve problems relevant to their discipline as needed to move plans forward.

Another pillar of the Childress (2018) theory for engaging faculty in internationalization is *investment*. Childress found that differentiated investment to support international activities, both for at home internationalization efforts, as well as teaching, collaboration, and research abroad, were imperative. Her research revealed that how and where funds are distributed is more important than the amount of available funding. If funds are available and distributed throughout levels of the institution, from the highest offices of administration all the way through unit-specific initiatives, greater support for internationalization is reinforced among the faculty. Childress's research found that even relatively small amounts created noteworthy impact.

Infrastructure, a third element of Childress's model (2018), includes organized resources offered by the institution through which faculty can consider new international and intercultural content that may enable their teaching, research, and service activities to forward institutional goals of internationalization. Childress mentioned possibilities for academic activities such as faculty seminars, both at home and abroad, having a campus abroad, and having interdisciplinary international degree programs. Childress recommended asking questions about employing already-existing organizational platforms for forwarding internationalization on the campus. Three considerations that Childress forwarded are as follows: (a) how faculty can engage in what is already available to expand their involvement in teaching, research, and service activities that have an international or intercultural component; (b) what timing or location issues need to be addressed; and (c) whether deliverables can be added to increase transfer of

knowledge and experiences to the wider university community. Childress also mentioned that institutions must intentionally work to solve problems about participation at both the departmental and institutional levels that could prohibit involvement. In the case studies she conducted, the interdisciplinary linkages that occurred as a result of these academic endeavors also provided intellectual support and allowed for the creation of collaborative and interdisciplinary partnerships within units and across campus. Childress explained, “*Faculty engagement in internationalization comes from not only what faculty know in terms of the international dimensions of their disciplines, but who they know*” (2018, p. 216, author’s emphasis). Therefore, it is critical to support faculty development for internationalization by providing seminars and other formal mechanisms for learning, giving them opportunity to consider international issues, engage in discussions, and formulate new knowledge on issues.

The fourth pillar of Childress’s (2018) model of engaging faculty in internationalization is the creation and maintenance of robust and active *institutional networks*, which she also calls “communication channels” (p. 166). This can include campus-wide internationalization committees. However, Childress found that such committees do not have as much impact on communication as might be anticipated. Instead, one of the reviewed case studies used web portals with robust databases in which faculty members could report their areas of expertise and areas of interest for research or other collaboration. Another campus used an online survey to garner interest in involvement in internationalization. One of these campuses also sent out newsletters with information about returning scholars or faculty or students, numbers of international students on campus and students studying abroad in other countries, and information such

as available resources to support videoconferencing for virtual learning or other academic support. Childress reported that these channels provided ways for faculty to learn about opportunities and resources available, as well as making a clear way for them to network with colleagues having similar interests.

The fifth component of the Childress (2018) model of faculty engagement is *individual support*. A faculty engagement plan for internationalization must acknowledge and support the fact that faculty members' actions are motivated by their individual scholarship and teaching agendas. Recognizing international work in any definitions of scholarly activity will help with any concerns that faculty may have about the relevance of international or intercultural efforts for promotion and tenure. Childress also encouraged the importance of recognizing the possibility of multiple pathways for faculty involvement, which she describes as engaging in teaching, research, or service in multiple environments—on campus, off campus in the immediate region, and off campus abroad.

In addition to this, individual support is the part of the model that particularly addresses the importance of the localized, unit-specific internationalization plan. If individual units do not already have internationalization goals written into their disciplinary strategic plan, encouragement to do this from high-level administrative leadership is imperative. Internationalization initiatives must be woven into unit-specific goals in ways that are appropriate to various disciplines. Universities are prone to high-level decision-making that does not necessarily filter down to the unit level, where change is implemented in priorities established for the classroom, research lab, grant writing, and planning of service time. Therefore, in universities composed of linked but

autonomous units, the ownership of internationalization must occur at the program and departmental level. Simply put, “the more that institutional goals are aligned with disciplinary priorities, the more faculty will become invested in the institutional change agenda” (Childress, 2018, p. 213). Moreover, conversations within a university department, from chair to faculty or faculty to faculty, can potentially have a more significant impact on shaping efforts towards campus internationalization, especially internationalizing the curriculum as well as teaching and learning (Proctor, 2019).

Training for Leading in Internationalization

In a broadly administered survey (with responses from 1,336 institutions representing 131 countries), researchers found that two of the primary obstacles to internationalization were the limited involvement of the faculty in internationalization initiatives and a limited level of capability or experience in topics related to the implementation of internationalization initiatives (Egron-Polak & Hudson, 2014). Having a curriculum that is too rigorous or inflexible was the most identified problem in the United States, which can be related to not having the space or time to include internationalization into work priorities. Lee et al. (2012) reported that “research in higher education indicates that faculty report a willingness and openness to interculturalism and diversity in their courses, but also a struggle or lack of understanding regarding how to incorporate this into their teaching” (p. 9). It has also been demonstrated that training is needed for faculty to be able to consistently influence intercultural competence development through successful intercultural teaching practices (Leask, 2009).

Schuerholz-Lehr (2007) conducted a literature review to consider, in part, what life experiences might affect a faculty member's capacity to teach with an internationalized curriculum or in a manner that supports the growth of intercultural competence. The findings from this study suggested that intercultural knowledge and personal growth acquired through travel abroad or living in another country "rarely seem to translate automatically into more globally-inclusive teaching practices" (p. 199). However, Childress's (2018) study showed that faculty who were involved in substantive teaching, research, or service abroad were changed and were much more likely to engage in internationalization efforts. Interestingly, Childress (2018) discussed how faculty engagement with one another, across cultures and disciplines, did bring about the transformational impact towards internationalization initiatives needed for faculty who had not yet had the opportunity for international travel. Thus, faculty who engage in transformational experiences abroad (or through adaptation to the United States) need to be enabled to transfer their acquired learning in viewing themselves and their scholarship through a different cultural lens into their academic identities and activities. In addition, faculty who have not yet traveled need the opportunity for intercultural and international experiences provided as a part of their academic life on campus. Thus, a pressing and ubiquitous need exists for faculty development in areas related to international learning, curriculum internationalization, the internationalization of teaching and learning practices, and teaching intercultural competence.

Faculty development for teaching an internationalized curriculum involves several basic steps (Brewer & Leask, 2012). Faculty members must first learn about their own cultural identity and those of others, examine examples of an internationalized curriculum

from other institutions, and be encouraged to try out new ideas in their classrooms. In addition, professional development must target international knowledge and intercultural skills that faculty members may not have had a chance to develop, and it must help faculty understand how to translate the knowledge and skills gained into meaningful implementation within teaching (Childress, 2018). Deardorff and Jones (2012) explained that professional learning opportunities should include training to develop faculty members' intercultural competence, as well as explicit teaching about models of intercultural competence and how those models translate into learning outcomes and assessments.

Brewer and Leask (2012) indicated that the ultimate goal of training would be a thorough consideration of the scope of study offered within their discipline. Killick (2018) agreed, highlighting that preparing students in any discipline should involve preparing them to enter the workforce and wider world of “diverse lives and sometimes conflicting worldviews” in their disciplines (p. 18). Childress (2018) added that faculty involvement can be hindered by a lack of financial resources; disciplinary priorities for teaching, research, and service; and restrictive promotion and tenure policies. These must be addressed in order for curriculum internationalization to be a possibility.

Models for faculty professional development include the Intercultural Teaching Competence model by Dimitrov and Haque (2016), in which ideas for teaching 20 competencies are presented and further divided into foundational, facilitation, and curriculum development skills. Killick (2018) explored ways to spur on academic development for the teaching of intercultural practice through chapters on theoretical understanding, intercultural engagement, curriculum development, and personal

characteristics that enable faculty growth. Individual campus case studies on faculty professional development frequently include the use of faculty professional learning communities and support networks. These allow faculty to learn from one other and support each other in their efforts towards becoming more interculturally competent and in teaching intercultural competence (Childress, 2018; Jin & Cortazzi, 2017; Kirk et al., 2018; Niehaus & Williams, 2016; Smith & Paracka, 2018; Spitzman & Waugh, 2018). Finally, exemplary models honored in NAFSA's annual Senator Paul Simon Award for Campus Internationalization (NAFSA, 2021) provided best practices that are transferrable and implementable in individual contexts.

Therefore, in a summary of what has been presented so far, intercultural individuals possess the knowledge, skills, and abilities associated with intercultural competence, and with training, could lead others in growing intercultural skills. They have walked through multiple iterations of Kim's (2001) stress-adaptation-growth cycle during their adaptation to life in a new culture. In addition, the need for teaching and developing intercultural competence on university campuses is established as both a pressing need and important goal for comprehensive campus internationalization. The question now is whether intercultural individuals are already present on university campuses, having already undergone the transformative international and intercultural experiences required for leadership in internationalization initiatives, and whether they might be invited to participate in the task.

International Faculty

International faculty are an under-reported and under-researched population in the literature of international education (Altbach & Yudkevich, 2017a; Rumbley & de Wit, 2017b). This is, in part, because of vast differences in the definitions used for identifying international faculty around the world; their differing roles in their institutions, depending on their location; and the lack of a central database tracking international faculty mobility (Mihut et al., 2017). This part of the literature review will provide a broad view of the research on international faculty, focusing on the literature available in English and mostly on international faculty within the United States.

Definitions and Data

Gathering accurate statistics of the numbers of faculty involved in international academic mobility is difficult, partly because of different definitions used across the world (Altbach & Yudkevich, 2017a). After all, international faculty could be in a host country on a visiting-scholar visa, a work visa, or another formal non-citizen status such as long-term resident, or they could be naturalized citizens. They could be short-term employees in a visiting capacity or long-term, permanent faculty. Graduate students who teach are considered faculty members in some countries (Altbach & Yudkevich, 2017a). Additionally, in other countries, faculty who were born and raised in the country of their current employment but were educated abroad are considered international faculty (Rumbley & de Wit, 2017a).

In the United States, it is difficult to ascertain accurate numbers of faculty with international backgrounds living and working in permanent faculty appointments. The

National Center for Educational Statistics (NCES) keeps records of “non-resident aliens”—individuals working legally in the United States on visitor visas. However, potentially significant numbers of international faculty members disappear in the accounting after they are naturalized as U.S. citizens, because they are no longer considered “non-resident aliens” in NCES data (and are thus not marked as international in any other reported category). In addition, the non-resident alien category does not include permanent residents of the United States. However, reviewing trends in the numbers of non-resident aliens actually reported in the data who are working in full-time faculty appointments is still illustrative. According to an NCES 2014 report, a total of 31,197 non-resident aliens worked in full-time faculty appointments in the United States in the calendar year 2009 (National Center for Education Statistics, 2014). However, in calendar year 2020 (the most recent data available), a total of 50,019 non-resident aliens worked as full-time faculty at U.S. colleges and universities (National Center for Education Statistics, 2021). These numbers indicate that, in just over one decade, the number of international faculty in full-time appointments in the United States, even considering only the non-resident alien category, has risen by at least 18,800 individuals, a 60% increase.

This study uses the same broad definition for international faculty as does the recent book edited by Yudkevich, Altbach, and Rumbley (2017), *International Faculty in Higher Education: Comparative Perspectives on Recruitment, Integration, and Impact*, with one exception. Altbach and Yudkevich (2017a) explained that international faculty are “individuals who were not born in and/or do not have their first degree from a postsecondary institution in the country where they have their primary academic

appointment—and the appointment must be regular, full-time status” (p. 2). In comparison, the definition used in my study is “a teacher in higher education who was born and spent most of his/her childhood and adolescence in a country (or countries) different where he/she now lives and has a permanent work appointment as a faculty member.” The difference between these definitions is because the current study does not recognize an individual who was born in the United States but received their first (or any subsequent) degrees abroad, as international faculty. The Yudkevich et al. (2017) definition would do so because a few countries label individuals who have studied abroad, but are in fact local nationals, as international faculty (Altbach & Yudkevich, 2017a). In the United States, simply stated, we do not think of such individuals as international faculty members.

Thus, in this research study, individuals born in the United States but with a first postsecondary degree from another country might be categorized as U.S.-based third-culture kids or perhaps third-culture individuals, depending on how much of their childhood and adolescence they spent abroad. Regardless, they are a separate population of individuals because they have American cultural roots. Their impact on internationalization might also be significant, but it is outside of the scope of this study. Importantly, however, this study’s definition does not exclude third-culture kids from other countries who are now working in the United States. Some of this university’s international faculty are likely born in one country and educated in another country (or countries) before coming to live and work in the United States. While those individuals are also third-culture kids, they do not have U.S. heritage as a part of their upbringing, which is an important part of this study’s aspect regarding cultural identity.

Research on Long-term Faculty Mobility

Mihut et al. (2017) discussed that the scant literature available globally on international faculty is primarily from two perspectives: it is located either in a systems-level perspective that considers reasons for faculty mobility, or it is presented from a perspective that is individual, narrative, and experiential. The authors stated that these dual emphases have neglected the role of universities as “key actors” in the mobility of international faculty (p. 15). In addition, from an international perspective, the literature overall has prioritized the short-term faculty mobility phenomenon over the long-term faculty experience. It has also emphasized the movement of academics into high-ranking institutions rather than the experience of the majority of the world’s international faculty population, who move abroad not for the prestige of a famous institution but because the work is available and needed (Mihut et al., 2017).

Yudkevich et al. (2017) sought to address this gap in the literature through a presentation and analysis of 11 case studies in countries around the world. These studies examine the phenomenon of international faculty mobility, focusing on the institutional perspective of recruiting and supporting international academics within local contexts. One primary theme emerging from an analysis of these case studies is that the experience of international faculty is extremely specific to the local context, affected by institutional and national policies as well as personal, academic, and political realities (Rumbley & de Wit, 2017a). Another theme is that institutions do not actually measure whether the “aspirations institutions have for improved quality, innovation, or competitiveness are realized in some fashion by virtue of the presence of the international faculty” (Rumbley & de Wit, 2017a, p. 282). The study also found that the desire to fit in and make a

difference in their institution was a common theme among the faculty represented in these case studies.

Because local context is key in understanding the international faculty phenomenon, following is a brief review of research about international faculty in the United States. Recent studies have also primarily considered issues related to quantitative factors and a system-level view. Previous quantitative research considered the research output of international faculty (Corley & Sabharwal, 2007; Kim et al., 2011; Mamiseishvili & Rosser, 2010; Webber & Yang, 2014), as well as their job satisfaction (Lin et al., 2009; Liu, 2001; Mamiseishvili & Lee, 2018; Reeder, 2016; Wells et al., 2007). Also investigated are international faculty members' retention (Lawrence et al., 2014) and mobility trends (Kim et al., 2012; Mihut et al., 2017). An exception to the systems-level focus is a quantitative study on perceived effectiveness of international faculty from an institutional perspective (Marvasti, 2005). Qualitative studies of international faculty in the United States have included in-depth investigations of self-perception of campus integration (Akulli, 2015; Jepsen et al., 2014; Munene, 2014; Skachkova, 2007).

Research on Acculturation, Intercultural Competence, or Internationalization

Only a few studies in the recent literature consider the personal acculturation experiences of international faculty. Thomas and Johnson (2004) interviewed 14 faculty members and grouped their experiences into several themes. Faculty had to adjust to different student behavior expectations upon arrival in the United States, and several perceived a lack of collegiality among their American colleagues. Others discussed

feeling at the periphery of departmental activity. Some described changes in self-perception because of differences in racial stereotypes or racial categories in the United States. One discussed how his identity was now neither fully his original home culture nor his new home culture, but somewhere in between. The authors recommended an orientation program to help mitigate the challenges of adjustment to living and teaching in the new environment.

Howe (2011) conducted a narrative study of 11 international faculty for his dissertation using Berry's (1997) fourfold framework of acculturation strategies as a theoretical perspective. Howe (2011) found that international faculty in this study who were "receiving institutional support from administrators and peers were more likely to employ strategies of integration" (p. 162), but that physical and cultural barriers impeded collegiality. American classroom norms and student behaviors were challenges to these participants, even though many of them had completed graduate degrees in the United States. Howe also determined that those faculty members who had assistance integrating into the university, through initial and ongoing orientation programs, as well as assistance integrating into the community at large, were more likely to use an integrative acculturation strategy. Finally, Howe claimed that his participants were "underutilized global institutional resources" (p. 164). Interestingly, Howe focused his comments on the unrealized possibility of international partnerships with institutions abroad, rather than on the internationalization of the curriculum or of teaching and learning.

Liu (2001) conducted a mixed methods study in which 26 international faculty were interviewed on a range of issues, including job satisfaction and adaptation. Berry's (1997) acculturation and adaptation framework was again used as a lens through which to

interpret faculty experiences. Among her interviewees, Liu (2001) found that their primary acculturation strategy for adaptation in social life situations was integration, while their acculturation strategy for workplace adjustment was assimilation, particularly in elements of university work such as teaching styles and research productivity. Liu discussed identity transformations expressed by interviewees as they came to see themselves as (what this current study refers to as) intercultural individuals. They explained that “their bi-cultural experiences have . . . enhanced them as human beings” and brought about “changes in their worldviews” (p. 236).

In the only study that linked international faculty with intercultural competence, Wasilik (2011) investigated the relationship between self-reported intercultural competence and the teaching styles used by international faculty in the U.S. classroom, as well as relative job satisfaction. This study was a mixed methods design using a survey completed by 43 faculty members, as well as in-depth interviews with five individuals purposively sampled from the larger group. Wasilik found that intercultural competence was related to higher level of job satisfaction, and that faculty members tended to use the teaching styles that they had experienced in their own primary or secondary education in the U.S. classroom, regardless of self-reported levels of intercultural competence.

Aligning with Rumbley and de Wit (2017b) and Altbach and Yudkevich (2017a), the current literature review found that the role of international faculty in campus internationalization is not well represented in the research literature, neither in the United States nor abroad, at least for those studies published in English. A notable exception is the Japanese context, where several studies on internationalization in Japanese institutions of higher education have emerged (Brotherhood et al., 2019; Huang, 2018;

Ota, 2018; Rivers, 2010; Suh, 2005). The Brotherhood et al. (2019) study, which was conducted among 23 junior faculty members from multiple disciplines and institutions across Japan, is described here for its focus on considering international faculty as agents in comprehensive internationalization.

Brotherhood et al. (2019) aligned the adaptation strategies of integration, assimilation, and marginalization to experiences of junior international faculty in Japan when being incorporated into their university's internationalization strategies. Integration in their model represented an internationalization ideal of both local and international faculty working together to potentially transform the academic environment. This study showed little to no evidence that heightened cooperation is happening in Japan, even though international faculty are, ostensibly, hired for the hope of forwarding campus internationalization. In this model, assimilation represented international faculty changing to fit the local norms, which was supported by research as a common occurrence, especially with faculty members of East Asian backgrounds. Finally, marginalization in their model represented faculty members who were "liable to lack power and/or visibility" (Brotherhood et al., 2019, p. 6) and were "restricted to peripheral roles and excluded from full participation in the local academic mainstream" (p. 7). This was also found to be common in Japan among junior faculty, although most often as an experience among non-East Asian individuals. Among findings, junior international faculty in Japan "suggested that the reformative potential of international faculty in Japan was not recognized by those with the power to enable and institutionalize such reforms" (Brotherhood et al., 2019, pp. 8-9). In other words, hiring international faculty was solely a "symbolic gesture" (p. 10). Even though this study is specific to the Japanese context,

these faculty indicated that their international experiences and expertise were not being applied for the purpose they were hired—a theme that emerges throughout the literature in discussions about international faculty.

Need for Research Study

In 1992, an edited collection on strategies for the internationalization of university campuses contained a chapter on the role of faculty in campus internationalization. Here, Carter (1992) posited that “international students and scholars represent an underutilized resource on [sic] most academic departments” (p. 46). Three decades later, papers and reports continue to convey the same observation. Other than teaching their respective courses, international faculty “are not effectively integrated into the internationalization programs of many universities,” even though international faculty are seen not only as a key indicator of internationalization but also “the ‘spearhead’ of internationalization” for the campus (Altbach & Yudkevich, 2017a, p. 9). These researchers reported that international faculty teach but are asked to do little else, noting that unfamiliarity with academic governance systems may also significantly reduce participation in faculty institutional roles.

Regarding the internationalization of curriculum, Brewer and Leask (2012) discussed the potential, yet largely untapped, role of international faculty on university campuses. They concluded that “importing faculty will help internationalize the curriculum only if expectations for the faculty are clear, they are integrated into the work of the larger institution, and they have professional development opportunities,” adding that the effort must be overseen to ensure success (p. 250). Munene (2014) investigated

the lived experience of international faculty at one particular university, reporting that the participants in her study, among other findings, emphasized “the need for a robust programme of sensitising faculty and students to the benefits of the global agenda and the unique role played by the international faculty in its achievement” (p. 465). Thus, this potential role of international faculty is acknowledged; however, the work to effectively integrate international faculty into internationalization plans is not widely manifested.

Thus, international faculty are brought to university campuses ostensibly to enhance efforts towards internationalization; however, they are not consistently utilized towards those goals (Altbach & Yudkevich, 2017a; Brotherhood et al., 2019). Faculty members themselves are widely regarded as the key for implementing comprehensive internationalization, especially for the dimensions of curriculum internationalization and the internationalization of teaching and learning, key elements for at home internationalization efforts (Childress, 2018; Reisberg, 2019). However, except for research impact, the potential influence of international faculty on their disciplinary and university peers, or on their departments and schools, is absent from the discussions of comprehensive internationalization efforts. In fact, Rumbley and de Wit (2017b) declared that “the manner and extent to which the presence of foreign faculty exerts an impact on their host institutions seems rarely explored, documented, or leveraged systematically” (p. 35), thereby highlighting the need for systematic exploration of international faculty input to internationalization. Also, although international faculty experiences with acculturation have been explored, international faculty perspectives on their own perceived roles in university internationalization efforts are not yet fully considered. Specifically unexplored is whether international faculty, with the aid of their rich, multi-

dimensional cultural identities and lived intercultural experience, can support a university's internationalization goals by helping forward intercultural learning across campus.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

Through a mixed methods study conducted among international faculty across disciplines at a large research university in the southeastern United States, this study investigated perspectives of international faculty on their role in comprehensive campus internationalization, as well as any influence that their sense of cultural identity might have on participation in internationalization activities. A convergent mixed methods design was used, anchored in critical realism, which is philosophically tethered to the pragmatic worldview. A survey was administered widely throughout the campus to gather both quantitative and qualitative data from as many eligible participants as possible, and focus groups were convened to explore the same research questions in an in-depth, qualitative format. All qualitative data were analyzed with a constant comparison technique, and the quantitative data were analyzed through tests of association. Parallel databases have enabled a direct comparison and contrast of participants' words, as well as themes that emerged from reviewing qualitative analysis along with statistical data, thus allowing for a more complete understanding of faculty perspectives on their role in comprehensive campus internationalization.

Philosophical Assumptions

As with all research, mixed methods research emerges from a particular set of philosophical assumptions, also referred to as worldviews or paradigms. An important

feature of mixed methods research is its historical alignment with a pragmatist worldview. Mixed methods is a strong fit for me as a researcher because my interpretive positionality is almost always as a pragmatist.

Pragmatism is concerned with the finding of truth. Dewey (1929), one of the philosophical fathers of pragmatism, explained truth-finding as follows: “A disciplined mind takes delight in the problematic, and it cherishes it until a way out is found that approves itself upon examination” (p. 228). According to Dewey, this “intellectual curiosity” is what propels a truth-seeker to “undertake active search for new facts and ideas” (p. 228). The unknown, the uncertain, and the unexplained compels a questioner to investigate, and the “reality of the uncertain” is the fuel in the process to discover truth (p. 244). As a research paradigm, pragmatism forwards the research question as a representation of the unknown, uncertain, and unexplained. It is tantamount as a guiding principle, more important than a method, a preferred means of data collection, or, in fact, the worldview itself. In my research, questions are most often outcome-driven, seeking to find information needed to find a solution to an issue.

Thus, pragmatism is an interpretative framework oriented towards the practical, problem-solving implications of research and allows freedom on the part of the researcher to choose what will work best for each research purpose (Creswell, 2013). The primary purpose of the current study was to provide perspective on a specific population regarding a narrow, minimally researched topic. No quantitative measure to probe these research questions is available; no qualitative investigation has been conducted on this specific topic with this specific population. Pragmatism forwards that I take a research

method that allows me to study the phenomenon under consideration in a way that will best answer the questions.

Furthermore, within the paradigm of pragmatism, this study anchors itself in the principles of *critical realism* (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018; Maxwell, 2012; Maxwell & Mittapalli, 2010). Critical realism is a strong philosophical perspective for grounding mixed methods research. Pragmatism supports using methods as needed to answer a research question, even if they have disparate claims in ontology, epistemology, and axiology. Critical realism helps clarify a positionality towards the nature of reality (ontology) and ways of having knowledge (epistemology) for this study that, rather than simply allowing differences in worldview to co-exist, pulls on disparate worldviews to create one strong paradigm anchoring the investigation.

In summary, critical realism agrees with a post-positivist ontology that there is a real world outside of our perspectives and experiences. However, it also actively acknowledges a constructivist epistemology in that we each understand this real world through the lens of our own perspectives and experiences. Mixed methods research is frequently employed by pragmatic researchers so that the combination of qualitative and quantitative approaches, and thus constructivist and post-positivist approaches, can offset the weaknesses of each with the strengths of the other. Critical realism goes a step further, seeking to show how a combined worldview actually minimizes the weaknesses in the other two extremes when conducting mixed methods research. To me, critical realism seems to reconcile the dichotomous extremes in a way that favors the qualitative end of the continuum, which fits this study. Two particular contributions of a critical

realist paradigm to mixed methods research are explained by Maxwell and Mittapalli (2010) and explicated below as related to this study.

First, critical realism promotes the importance of context for understanding a phenomenon studied. Rather than completely neglecting issues of causation because they are fluid and radically multidimensional (constructivism) or emphasizing the identification of set causes and effects (post-positivism), critical realism emphasizes context and process analysis in any consideration of causation. Straightforward pragmatism might declare that causal relationships are extremely transitory and thus hard to identify (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009); however, critical realism acknowledges that they are difficult to identify but still seeks understanding through carefully considering context and process, two elements which post-positivists often ignore (Maxwell & Mittapalli, 2010). In this study, the discussion section posits potential influencers of international faculty involvement in campus internationalization. However, explanations suggested in the discussion are grounded through a consideration of context and the processes by which situations occur.

In addition, critical realism treats the individual perspectives of participants as actual elements of the real world, ontologically. Thus, according to Maxwell and Mittapalli (2010), “a realist perspective can provide a framework for better understanding the relationship between individuals’ perspectives and their actual situations” (p. 157). In this research study, I acknowledge that participants’ perspectives on their experiences are real phenomena, and that they do interact with their individual situations in real ways. I hoped to see if patterns in the data could be identified; however, any attempt at identifying associations in the data or possible influencing factors also emphasizes the

variation inherent within individuals. Even though prediction cannot be guaranteed when examining sociocultural situations, positing possible processes of causation can still be enlightening. Thus, an important aspect of this position is to consider the participants' points of view as "real," in that they have impact in their world in very real ways.

Having discussed ontology and epistemology for this study, which is grounded in the pragmatic perspective of critical realism, I now address axiology, or values systems. A pragmatist worldview allows for a researcher's values, experiences, and perspectives to drive the study. While an intrinsic interest in a topic drives most research conducted, no matter the paradigm, pragmatism acknowledges a researcher's values and interests as providing the motivating catalyst. Through my role in my university's center for faculty professional development, I observed the interest of international faculty in my workshops on cross-cultural values and ideas for supporting multilingual students in the classroom. These observations spurred my initial considerations of the research questions. In fact, my stance in this research is perhaps quite informative as it conveys a sincere interest in the topic, empathy for the participants, and my professional commitments to the process of comprehensive internationalization. My positionality as the researcher is discussed later in the chapter, in the section on validity.

Reasons for Using Mixed Methods Research

A mixed methods approach aligns with a pragmatist research paradigm. However, I also selected mixed methods for this research study because using more than one data source would generate a more complete answer to the research questions. Two design-supported reasons for using mixed methods (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018) align with

my purposes and support my decision. First, I aimed for “complete and corroborated results” (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018, p. 8) to be in a position to make declarations based on my findings. If I only conducted focus group interviews or individual interviews with faculty, as in a purely qualitative study, my information could have been heavily skewed because of their personal experiences or their specific assignments on campus. It is helpful to consider the results in a more generalizable manner. Thus, my survey/questionnaire allowed for wider participation in data collection. Next, I wanted to answer questions about the characteristics of faculty engaged in internationalization, necessitating demographic quantitative questioning. I also wanted a larger amount of standardized information about cultural identity and involvement in campus internationalization, information that qualitative questioning could not necessarily provide in enough quantity. Finally, statistical testing provided an interesting lens through which to view the qualitative findings. Hence, a mixed methods approach was needed to garner full results. As Teddlie and Tashakkori (2009) explained, with mixed methods it is possible to both explore and confirm in the same study (p. 33), which I hoped to accomplish.

In addition, I had a strong commitment to involving participants in the research (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018). For the current study, this included inviting as many faculty members as possible to share their individual experiences on campus. By using mixed methods, I was able to explore the research questions in depth with a few participants, as well as gain broad insight from larger numbers of participants through a survey exploring the same research questions. Teddlie and Tashakkori (2009) described this as welcoming “diversity of opinion” into the study (p. 36).

In summary, as Creswell and Plano Clark (2018) explained, using mixed methods allowed me to “harness strengths that offset the weaknesses of both quantitative and qualitative” research (p. 12). Without the use of mixed methods, this study would not be strong enough to make worthwhile conclusions.

Convergent Mixed Methods Design

Convergent mixed methods design (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018) has also been called parallel mixed design (Teddle & Tashakkori, 2009), concurrent triangulation (Creswell et al., 2003), or simultaneous triangulation (Morse, 1991), among other variations. Taken together, these names illustrate the characteristics of such mixed methods study. Data are collected simultaneously in two parallel databases (one qualitative and the other quantitative), providing greater triangulation of data than would otherwise be possible. At the end of the study, the findings from the individual database analyses are then converged for a larger, meta-analysis.

This mixed methods study combined two convergent design possibilities discussed in Creswell and Plano Clark (2018). This approach offsets the known weakness of a quantitative survey by including several qualitative questions, thus converging a qualitative component for comparison. My mixed methods model combined the “parallel-databases variant” of the convergent design with the “questionnaire variant” (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018, p. 73). Appendix A provides a visual flow chart of the mixed methods convergent project design for this study. Teddlie and Tashakkori (2009), in enumerating seven steps for selecting an appropriate mixed methods design, gave nascent researchers the following instructions: “You want to select the best available MM research design for

your study, but you realize that you may have to eventually generate your own . . . You may have to combine existing designs . . . for your study” (p. 163). Following this advice, I employed the widely used mixed methods convergent design, while also combining identified variants of the convergent design, thus offsetting the weaknesses of one with the characteristics of another.

The strengths of this choice are that the design made intuitive sense for the study and was efficient for gathering all data somewhat simultaneously. This design also allowed direct comparison of participants’ words and themes that emerged from the qualitative data analyses with the results of statistical data analysis. Thematic analysis was performed on the qualitative data, which were collected in the open-ended questions on the survey, as well as from the transcripts of the focus group interviews. Quantitative data, pulled from the surveys, was used in descriptive statistics and for tests of association of various variables. Meta-inferences involved corroborating, validating, or noting divergences in the findings. The level of interaction of the data was intended to be dependent (or interdependent), in that there was iterative consideration as all data from both research strands were reviewed for trends, significance, and themes. This is also called using crossover tracks (Datta, 2001; Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009).

Admittedly, this study design leaned towards qualitative inquiry, as data collection and analysis entailed more qualitative than quantitative data. However, mixed methods research design allows for this skewed emphasis. For those who want to ask questions within the messy context of everyday life, qualitative research allows for emergent design that tackles multifaceted social situations in their full complexity. For a researcher oriented towards learning as discovery “in the field” (Rossman & Rallis, 2012,

p. 23), qualitative research offers a means for useful, enlightening, and potentially impactful research. This current study attempted to offer deeper understanding of the research questions through the emphasis on qualitative inquiry within a mixed methods design, with quantitative data analyzed in tandem to confirm or disconfirm findings.

Limitations of Mixed Methods Inquiry

Creswell and Creswell (2018) discussed several issues that create limitations in the performance of mixed methods research. First, mixed methods design requires extensive data collection and analysis of both qualitative and quantitative data, which is time-consuming and requires methodological knowledge of what constitutes rigorous research for both quantitative and qualitative research. In addition, the nature of any mixed methods design is complex and can be difficult to follow. For this study to address these limitations, ample time was allocated so that both study strands had appropriate time and effort dedicated to research, analysis, and discussion. Visual models are provided to illustrate the integration between protocol design in Appendix B and accompany mixed methods findings in Chapter 4 to clarify the parallel analysis of both strands of the design.

Study Site

The study site for this mixed methods study was a large, Tier 1 research university in a major metropolitan area of the southeastern United States. The university is driven by its research agendas and funding. Not surprisingly, it draws large numbers of international faculty, as well as international visiting scholars and international students,

to its research and teaching enterprises. Because of the difficulties in ascertaining the exact number of international faculty on any given campus, as discussed in the literature and is also the case at this university, the number of potential participants in the study was estimated between 400 and 800 faculty members, although the exact number was largely unknown.

The history of internationalization at this university is one of investing significant effort towards international initiatives. However, efforts have been decentralized throughout the enterprise, largely lacking systematic coordination. In steps towards intentionality and growth, the university participated in a nationally recognized internationalization self-study in the decade prior to this research. After the formal process was complete and recommendations made, the university reorganized all international endeavors under a new high-level Global Engagement office, named a Senior International Officer, formalized a new international student recruiting partnership, and created a position to support faculty training in internationalization. In addition, a committee representing all schools was established to begin work on a strategic plan for internationalization. Although the plan was finalized at the time of writing this dissertation, it had not yet been disseminated or put into use, for reasons that could be related to the COVID-19 pandemic or a change in the Senior International Officer position. In summary, the campus has made overt steps towards formalizing comprehensive internationalization efforts, but the process is still in early stages.

Sampling and Participants

The study involved distributing a survey throughout the university. It was administered electronically through Qualtrics (<https://www.qualtrics.com>), the survey management software available at the university and familiar to many faculty members. Identification of participants was characterized by criterion sampling (Mertens, 2015; Rossman & Rallis, 2012), as all participants needed to be international faculty according to the definition being used in this study. Potential methods for identifying the desired survey participants were considered alongside dissertation committee members and other informants on campus. Suggestions were made that university units might maintain lists of faculty with international backgrounds and/or professional linkages, and that the units might be willing to provide those lists for this study. Such lists were not available from several units, nor were administrative leadership in most units comfortable identifying faculty members who met the study criteria. Suggestions were also made that using criteria available through the university's central human resources department could be employed to identify the population such as identifying individuals through the record of having an international academic degree on file. However, I personally knew of international faculty who had earned all their degrees from U.S. institutions and would therefore be hidden under those search criteria. Other ways of identifying individuals, such as country of birth or citizenship status, were considered not comprehensive or potentially offensive as an identification measure. The international office did not have a way of providing information on international faculty who are naturalized U. S. citizens, so any information that they could provide would likely be incomplete according to the definition of international faculty used in this study. Because of these reasons, the desired

research participants were deemed as difficult to identify at this institution. Therefore, I selected the method known as snowball sampling (Rossman & Rallis, 2012) for hard-to-reach populations.

Snowball sampling relies on the use of thoughtfully identified individuals to help “seed” the survey, who then reach out to other individuals who may, or do, meet the criteria for the study. Even though snowball sampling is known as a qualitative technique, and therefore is essentially nonrandom, research has been done on increasing sample diversity within snowball sampling. Recommendations from Kirchherr and Charles (2018) were employed in this study. First, the researcher should employ personal contacts who are able to knowledgeably seed the study. For this research, dissertation committee members helped to seed the study, as most were international faculty members themselves or had significant international faculty contacts within their networks. In addition, the researcher asked for the help of other known individuals within the university who could identify potential participants. Kirchherr and Charles (2018) also pointed out that trust must be established for snowballing to occur, that persistence is necessary in recruiting participation, and that multiple waves of sampling may be required to encourage participation. All of these were addressed in the study’s snowballing procedure, through personal comments and endorsements offered by individuals assisting with the snowballing, persistence in follow-through by the researcher to ensure that the seeding effort had occurred, and reminders from seeders that were distributed throughout the survey period.

Kirchherr and Charles (2018) stated that diversity of the sample seeds themselves is also critical. To maximize sample diversity, techniques related to chain

referral sampling were also employed. Snowball sampling can be characterized by a heavy reliance on social networks if individuals only reach out to individuals they personally know. However, in chain referral sampling, an effort is made to access many relevant networks to significantly enlarge the scope of the sample. By starting “multiple snowballs,” more individuals from an increased number of social networks can be canvassed for participation, resulting in a larger, more varied, sample for the study (Penrod et al., 2003). Interestingly, Penrod et al. compared the sample derived through chain referral to two different samples of the same population derived through random probability techniques and found that its sample approximated the random ones. They recommended a variety of steps for effective chain referral sampling in an effort to maximize perspectives, some of which include assessing the settings available for seeding participants and working to gain access to these settings through informants. In this study, chain referral “seeds” were frequently members of the central administrative team in an academic unit, from whom the invitation email went to all faculty members to allow for self-identification for study participation. In a few instances, these seeds within academic units were department heads or professors in the unit. In addition, the invitation to participate was sent to several large, independent entities on campus which employ many international faculty or faculty with international ties. Finally, an invitation to participate was issued in a meeting of the Faculty Senate. In this way, the sample allowed for participant self-identification through large-scale “seed” distribution, with the intention of providing for higher variability in participant subjects identified.

In summary, the description of the study, including the definition of international faculty used in the study, and the survey link were sent throughout the campus through

multiple, varied networks, both personal and institutional, meeting the definition of both snowball and chain referral sampling techniques. It was sent to contacts throughout the university, including personal contacts who were able to identify individuals at the university who meet the criteria for the study, as well as associate and assistant deans, individuals connected to departments with international missions, and contacts in several large entities within the university for large-scale distribution. The email asked individuals to fill out the survey, if appropriate, and/or forward the survey to other possible participants. In this way, the sample was gathered. Appendix C features a diagram of the sampling method which illustrates the robust effort to distribute the survey widely throughout the enterprise. Sampling efforts resulted in the following actions taken: 94 people opened the survey, 85 answered the qualifying questions, 75 answered the first question on cultural identity, 73 answered the question about involvement in internationalization, 67-72 participants answered all the remaining demographic questions, and 57-64 answered the qualitative questions. Final sample size is described at 75, although each survey question had a different number of responses because of the survey design and personal agency in involvement with the survey. Each of these subset numbers is reported in the findings.

The survey opened with questions to ensure that the participant was indeed an international faculty member as defined in the study, as well as informed consent information and an explanation that questions could be skipped, if so desired. The survey also featured an option, at the end of the survey, to volunteer to participate in the focus group interviews with information that the recruitment would commence at three weeks after survey distribution began. The survey was expected to take between 15 and 30

minutes to complete, depending on the level of detail provided in the qualitative, open-ended questions. See Appendix D to read the survey. See Appendix E to review all recruitment email templates for survey participation.

Because of the desire to gather increased amounts of demographic information and as many volunteers for the focus group interviews as possible, focus group recruitment actually commenced at six weeks after the survey distribution began. The snowball and chain referral efforts did take some time to engender participant results. The intent was to identify and recruit several individuals to participate in three focus groups with four to six participants per group to insure the collection of a robust pool of qualitative data. Five criteria were used to determine what cross-section of faculty should be invited to participate in the focus group interviews, with care taken to achieve diversity. These criteria were as follows: (a) original home region, (b) gender, (c) age range, (d) university disciplines, and as was possible, (e) rank within the university faculty body. In reality, participant availability affected the focus group demographics more than intentional planning. However, the final focus group interview participant profiles were diverse and represented the variety intended through the five selection criteria.

Of the 75 faculty members who participated in the survey, 17 volunteered through the survey to participate in the focus groups. The majority ($n = 16$) were invited to participate. In the end, 11 of the 12 participants scheduled for interviews had volunteered through the survey. After receiving affirmation of the invitation to respond, I felt that the study needed another East Asian faculty member to participate in the focus groups in order to appropriately represent the number of East Asians who completed the survey. I

relied on criterion and chain sampling once again to identify additional faculty members who might be interested in participating in the focus groups, primarily through reaching out to other focus group volunteers and the same group of campus contacts. I identified another individual willing to participate and received affirmation that the individual had already participated in the survey, maintaining the nested sample design described below.

Upon identification, faculty members were sent an emailed invitation to participate, which also contained the information sheet about the focus group interview (see Appendix F). There were two email templates drafted to be used for this purpose depending on whether the faculty member volunteered through the survey or was recruited directly (see Appendix G for the focus group recruitment email templates). The information sheet conveyed that coming to the scheduled Zoom interview time would be considered indication of consent to participate. Upon indication of a willingness to participate, the researcher scheduled the Zoom interviews at a time conducive to all, using Doodle Poll as a scheduling tool. The interviews were scheduled very soon after the closing of the survey. Directly before the third interview, a participant dropped out of the interview because of an unexpected scheduling conflict. My advisor and I decided to allow the interview to proceed with 11 focus group participants instead of 12.

Table 1 provides the pseudonym for each faculty member that is used throughout this study and describes the demographic profile of the focus group participants, except for academic area, which was not listed on the table to protect anonymity. Six focus group participants were male, and five were female, which matched the percentages in the survey profile. The age ranges represented all but the oldest of the faculty age ranges who participated in the survey. The focus groups had appropriate percentage weights for

the ranges represented, although the full survey sample had more participants in the 40-49 year age range than was represented in the focus groups. Three individuals were originally from Eastern Europe, with an additional two from Western Europe, two from South America, two from Sub-Saharan Africa, and two from East Asia. Ideally participants would have been recruited from South Asia and North Africa/Middle East for the focus groups, and I might have had one less Eastern European participant for the balance overall. However, four of the five most represented regions in the overall survey were also represented in the focus groups, and one of the less represented regions in the survey was represented in the focus groups as well. Lack of availability of some individuals invited to participate in the focus group interviews led to voices missed from certain regions of the world. Regarding faculty status in the focus groups, four were full professors, four were associate professors, and three were assistant professors, which mirrors quite well the spread of faculty status in the overall survey sample. Finally, regarding academic disciplines, the focus group profile represented generally the same percentages of the full sample set. However, the focus group sample has more involvement from professors who teach in the discipline of business than does the full sample because of a very effective and committed contact who encouraged fellow business professors to participate in the research opportunity.

Table 1*Demographic Profile of Focus Group Participants, Listed by Pseudonym*

Pseudonym	Gender	Age range in years	Area of world	Faculty status
Damir	Male	50-59	Eastern Europe	Professor
Mateo	Male	60-69	South America	Professor
Walter	Male	60-69	Western or Southern Europe	Associate Professor
Alejandro	Male	50-59	South America	Professor
Joy	Female	29 or younger	Sub-Saharan Africa	Assistant Professor
Gabriel	Male	60-69	Sub-Saharan Africa	Professor
Veronica	Female	40-49	Western or Southern Europe	Associate Professor
Alina	Female	50-59	Eastern Europe	Associate Professor
Lan	Female	30-39	East Asia	Associate Professor
Nadia	Female	40-49	Eastern Europe	Assistant Professor
Bingwen	Male	30-39	East Asia	Assistant Professor

In summary, the layers of sampling in this mixed methods design are described as a *nested sample* by Onwuegbuzie and Johnson (2006), in which the participants in one smaller sample (participants in the focus groups) are also members of the larger sample (survey respondents). The sampling design can also be categorized under *stratified purposive sampling* (Teddlie & Yu, 2007), in which the population is first divided into groups, and the researcher identifies certain individuals from this group to interview.

Data Collection Procedures

Because this study is a convergent mixed methods design, the quantitative strand of investigation happened concurrently with the qualitative strand. As there are qualitative questions on the survey, both types of data were collected at the same time. To give time for any immediately interested participants to consider their availability to join

focus group interviews, the recruitment for the interviews commenced six weeks after the survey distribution began. Surveys were accepted for eight weeks after distribution began. The focus groups were completed within the following four weeks.

Considerations for the Convergent Design

Creswell and Plano Clark (2018) provided four questions that should be addressed regarding data collection for a convergent mixed methods design (Table 6.2). The first question corresponds to whether the two databases will have the same or different individuals comprising the samples. When the purpose of the mixed methods design is to compare or otherwise relate two analyses on a topic, Creswell and Plano Clark (2018) recommended that “the individuals who participate in the qualitative sample be the same individuals or a subset of individuals who participate in the quantitative sample” (p. 188). This was the intention of soliciting volunteers from survey participants to participate in the focus group interviews. Because there were enough volunteers who represented a range of the criteria established as corresponding to the sample overall, survey participants were primarily the individuals who were asked to join in the focus group interviews. Additional recruitment efforts for the focus groups were initiated only to fill in perceived gaps during the recruitment period. As it was, the recruited individual had already completed the survey; if not, he would have been invited to participate in the survey to insure crossover between the pools of data in the nested sample design.

Next, Creswell and Plano Clark (2018) indicated that the second consideration for designing a convergent design is to decide whether the sample sizes will be identical or different. Generally, a first option is to have a large quantitative strand with a smaller

qualitative strand; the idea is to have statistical analyses that can provide generalizations while a close look at qualitative examples provides a deeper level of comprehension of the issues. Another option is to have similar sample sizes, which can better facilitate the converging of the databases for meta-analysis. In this convergent mixed methods design, both options are actualized. The focus group interviews allowed for a smaller, deeper look at individual experiences in which participants added information not predicted in the survey format, and the researcher probed responses. However, because the survey also has a qualitative component and because many participants answered the qualitative questions on the survey, the research had qualitative information recorded for many survey participants as well, making the sample sizes similar in terms of participation in both qualitative and quantitative input.

Additionally, Creswell and Plano Clark (2018) recommended that the researcher in a convergent mixed methods design write parallel data collection questions. In other words, “the same concepts are addressed in both the qualitative and quantitative data collection so that the two databases can be readily compared or merged” (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018, p. 189). This was a deliberate part of the design for the questionnaire/survey and the focus group interview protocols. Both of these research protocols featured concepts of intercultural identity formation, involvement in campus internationalization activities, and any possible relationship between these two areas. See Appendix B for a joint display of how the research questions informed both protocols.

The final decision that Creswell and Plano Clark (2018) identified for a convergent design is whether data collection will involve two separate protocols or come from the same protocol. Because “the use of a single form often limits the extent and

quality of one or both databases” (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018, p. 189), this research design used two design variants of the convergent mixed methods model in order to avoid the extremes that either decision on this point would cause, and each design variant involved different protocols. The survey provided qualitative data to accompany the quantitative data, but alone it does not provide the depth of qualitative information that an exploratory interview format added. Adding the focus groups to the study ensured that there would be a very strong qualitative database. On the other hand, furthering this study as a qualitative, interview-based study alone would have limited the generalizability or transferability of the findings. The quantitative data provided by the study allowed for statistical analysis that enriched the findings overall.

Mixed Methods Survey Design

In their discussion of mixed methods questionnaires, Teddlie and Tashakkori (2009) conveyed that any survey used for mixed methods can feature a combination of both open-ended and close-ended questions. In fact, they noted that some studies have garnered their most revealing information through the open-ended, qualitative-focused questions on their mixed methods questionnaires. The strength of using a combined questionnaire and survey for this study was that it allowed for input from a larger number of participants than only conducting interviews would have, thus strengthening any findings for the purposes of generalizability and transferability. For clarity, please note that the word *survey* is frequently used in the description of this study’s mixed methods design for simplicity and especially because this protocol has many more quantitative questions than qualitative ones.

This mixed methods survey design was underpinned with the principles of “tailored design” (Dillman et al., 2014). This concept stresses survey development designed to reduce error by focusing on knowledge about the topic of the survey, the participants in the survey, and the time frame for gathering surveys. As a method of survey building, it holds to the assumption that individuals will respond more positively to the opportunity to complete a survey if they are motivated by trust in the purpose or sponsor of the survey and feel that there may be some benefit for taking the time to complete it. Dillman et al. (2014) recommended ways to increase the understanding of benefits for completing the survey. Ideas that are employed in this survey included telling how the results may be used, asking for the participants’ help, asking interesting questions, discussing the potential direct benefits to the individual, and using a trusted sponsor (or intermediaries, in this case). In addition, to establish trust, this survey demonstrated the authenticity and legitimacy of the request by referring to the university’s center for faculty training on teaching, building on past relationships (in using known intermediaries to distribute the survey), assuring confidentiality, and employing a professional design through using Qualtrics. Finally, the survey reduced perceived cost to individual participants by being as succinct as possible, using good visual design, making response very simple and convenient, and providing a way out of completing any questions that seem too sensitive.

Survey questions were prepared with best practices in survey writing in mind. I followed suggested techniques such as asking oneself the purpose of each question as the survey was constructed (Mertens, 2015). Terms were defined in simple language to avoid misunderstandings, especially considering that the survey was to be taken by individuals

from multiple language backgrounds (Fowler, 2013). Very few open-ended questions were included, as research writing guidance indicates that motivation will be higher with few open-ended questions (Dillman et al., 2014). For close-ended questions, I incorporated suggestions, such as making sure that all choices for answers included reasonably possible answers, as well as developing answer possibilities that were mutually exclusive (Dillman et al., 2014). Optional wording was avoided when possible, and specified responses to closed questions were indicated (Fowler, 2013). I addressed visual layout by grouping similar questions together (Mertens, 2015) and giving extra motivation to respond through writing introductory and guiding statements throughout the survey (Dillman et al., 2014).

The survey went through several rounds of feedback during initial drafting. Individual dissertation committee members recorded their thoughts as they worked through the content of the drafts to give me informal feedback (Mertens, 2015). Additionally, following the procedures outlined in Mertens (2015), I conducted a pilot study of the survey with international faculty members from other universities identified by the dissertation committee.

Pilot Study. Dissertation committee members contacted 15 potential participants with the “Endorsement email for piloting the survey,” introducing the researcher and the study to personal international faculty contacts. Then, potential participants were invited to respond through the template “Recruitment email for piloting the survey” which also contained the Qualtrics link to the electronic survey. The recruitment email provided instructions for participants to record their thoughts in a separate document as they

completed the instrument. The instructions indicated that the researcher was specifically curious about the comprehensibility of the questions and concepts in the survey. Pilot participants were asked to note any ambiguities or missing response choices.

Of the nine individuals who started the pilot survey, seven completed most of it and provided the qualitative content. It was noted that the response to the final survey might have the same profile. However, because the qualitative content was rich, and the quantitative responses were varied, it was decided that data would be rich even if subset sample sizes for questions were inconsistent. As Dillman et al. (2014) predicted, giving individuals the freedom to answer questions according to comfort appeared to engender participation with the whole survey rather than truncating participation after an uninteresting or problematic question.

I analyzed the responses and feedback for any changes that needed to be incorporated into the survey before wide-scale distribution, specifically looking for unanswered questions, unexpected answers, and any answers that suggested misinterpretation of a question. I carefully considered the responses, particularly to the qualitative prompts, to ensure that the questions were eliciting the type of information desired. In the pilot, the qualitative prompts did engender the types of thoughtful feedback that were planned, ranging from straightforward factual answers to philosophical, theoretical ones. The quantitative questions received a range of answers. Four participants submitted written feedback on the protocol itself as had been requested. These comments included suggestions on clarity of wording on two questions, a report of a technical problem in the survey's flow, a suggestion to include an additional option as an answer on one question, and a comment on the use of the term "home country"

throughout the survey. The clarity of wording, technical problems, and additional answer option were addressed, but I decided to leave “home country” as is, for three reasons: (a) no one seemed to misinterpret the term throughout the pilot, (b) the participant’s response to the term evoked the sort of consideration of issues of cultural identity transformation that the survey hopes to encourage, and (c) any other change in the term was more wordy or would have excluded other possible participants (for example, using “country of birth” instead could exclude third-culture kids, whose perspectives are valued in this study). In addition, I made a few changes that had not been noted earlier in the preparatory process (e.g., adding the phrase “or life partner” to questions having to do with spouses was deemed appropriate).

Changes in content or format were made to the survey, and it was submitted to the university’s IRB for approval prior to university-wide distribution. See Appendix H for the “Endorsement email for piloting the survey” and the “Recruitment email for piloting the survey.”

Focus Group Interview Design

Focus group interviews were selected for this study rather than individual, in-depth interviews because of the desire to hear from a greater number of individuals rather than only a very small number. Although I appreciate the in-depth nature of using a few individual interviews in qualitative research, this study required input from a larger number of international faculty to ensure a range of viewpoints and experiences from across campus. In addition, focus group interviews are often used at an earlier stage of researching a topic, when a study topic is not widely developed in the literature, so that a

wider range of perspectives is gathered to explore possibly overlooked issues for the research (Smithson, 2000).

However, the key characteristic of focus group interviews, and the most important reason for employing them, is the impact of interaction within the group on the interview (Morgan, 2018; Robinson, 2020; Smithson, 2000). The interaction between the members can encourage more expression of nuanced points of view than might emerge in an individual, in-depth interview, especially concerning certain topics. Robinson (2020) posited that the social space created by the focus group interview allows for the time and reason to probe a topic, about which participants all share some experience, resulting in “data and insights that would not otherwise be accessible to the researcher” (p. 338). As Mertens (2015) explained, the interaction in a focus group “allows the exhibition of a struggle for understanding of how others interpret key terms and their agreement or disagreements with the issues raised” (p. 382).

According to my personal observations over the years, many individuals with experience living in more than one culture have not considered issues related to the development of an intercultural identity. An unpublished study that I conducted (in 2017) among international students revealed a powerful synergy that emerged when the students realized that their experiences in developing an intercultural personhood (Kim, 2015) were not unique to them individually. For that same reason, focus groups were used in this current study. They were also used because we were overtly discussing participants’ potential involvement in internationalization, which may or may not have been a previous topic of consideration for each of the faculty members as individuals

before their survey participation. In focus group interviews, participants may have more examples or ideas come to mind because of hearing their colleagues' experiences.

The fact that all participants were international faculty interested in discussing issues related to internationalization and cultural identity served as the necessary “common ground” required in focus group interviews, providing homogeneity for the group. As Morgan (2018) explained, in a focus group, this shared characteristic and focus is more important to the success of a focus group than is demographic similarity. Although a demonstrated effort was made and has been described to differentiate demographics of the focus groups so that representation could mirror, somewhat, the makeup of international faculty survey respondents, research supports that the demographic composition for focus groups does not need to be exact according to the criteria; a best-faith effort is good enough. Morgan (2018) assured that “there will always be some variation in composition from one group to the next, so there is little point in trying to perfect the membership of each group” (p. 50). Originally, I had hoped to consider cultural differences in the construction of focus groups, such as being aware of professor rank for individuals hailing from hierarchy-influenced cultures. However, this was not possible due to scheduling constraints. Although I cannot be sure that cross-cultural differences did not influence participation in the conversation, the conversations were robust, all individuals participated to similar degree, there was turn-taking in the groups, and participants actively ensured that everyone participated in giving their perspectives. This could be because the faculty participants are likely accustomed to working groups that contain great diversity within their academic units, including that of faculty rank.

Individuals were identified and recruited to participate in three different focus groups to ensure the collection of a robust pool of qualitative data for analysis. This decision was based on a research study by Guest et al. (2017), which sought to establish guidelines for the number of focus groups needed to establish theoretical saturation. The study found that 80% of themes were discoverable in two to three groups, although 90% were ascertainable in three to six (Guest et al., 2017). If thematic consistency was not achieved from conducting three interviews, more could have been convened, but they were not found to be necessary.

Regarding the number of participants, the research literature reviewed did not collectively identify a standard number of participants. Mertens (2015) recommended groups of five or six participants, while Robinson (2020) reported that six to eight is ideal. Via a literature review, Guest et al. (2017) recommended no more than eight participants. Morgan (2018) pointed out that larger focus groups were used when the method was primarily employed in marketing research; now that they are more common in social science research, the group size is more normally six to eight. However, Morgan (2018) also admitted that smaller group sizes, of four or five, provide opportunity for higher levels of engagement with the discussion. As I hoped for a high level of participation from each group member in the interview, I targeted a smaller group size of four to six, while staying within the range recommended by the literature reviewed. However, because of already-discussed difficulties in scheduling the interviews and a last-minute cancellation of participation, the final group numbers were two groups of four and one group of three.

A focus group interview protocol (see Appendix I) was established and approved by the university IRB to guide the facilitation of the focus groups using an interview guide approach (Mertens, 2015; Rossman & Rallis, 2012) in which the researcher guides the content of the interview with questions but remains open to probing topics revealed by participants during the interview. A guided, but open, interview fits the emergent nature of qualitative inquiry, its focus on participant involvement, and the provision of a holistic account of an issue (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). According to the literature on research methodology, the protocol should have between five and ten questions and should include several distinct components: information about the interview, the introduction (which should include terminology), content questions, and closing instructions (Creswell & Creswell, 2018; Mertens, 2015). In this study, a small number of questions allowed ample time for probing any new or interesting directions in the interview. The interview protocol allotted time for me to share briefly that I, too, have a similar background to the participants, addressing the key issue of establishing rapport with participants that is often lacking in focus group interviews (Robinson, 2020).

Each focus group interview lasted 60 minutes. Participants met for the interview in my university-based Zoom meeting room, which allowed for privacy and uninterrupted space. I was behind a closed office door while conducting the interviews on Zoom. Employing a videoconferencing format was necessary due to pandemic-induced limitations on gathering in groups. However, online focus groups, even when characterized by full anonymity, have been shown in previous studies to be convenient and also accurate, similar to in-person groups (Woodyatt et al., 2016). Conversely, a limitation of the anonymous online focus group was found to be the interviewer's

inability to respond to non-verbal, visual cues (Woodyatt et al., 2016). Thus, I anticipated that the online, video format of a Zoom interview would serve as well as a face-to-face interview to generate qualitative data. The interviews were recorded through Zoom to facilitate accurate transcription, which took place in the months after the interviews transpired. I transcribed the interviews myself, working through several rounds to ensure accuracy in transcription.

Importantly, the focus groups allowed for participant involvement in implementation of the research. The emergent design of the focus groups, as well as the interactive nature of focus groups in the cooperative effort to make meaning of experiences, allowed participants to express ideas relevant to the study that I had not previously identified for the survey or the interview. In addition, focus group participants were given the chance to review their individual, transcribed contributions to the interview for accuracy prior to researcher analysis, providing the triangulating validation of member-checking.

Full IRB approvals were received before the study commenced. The university's IRB permission letter appears in Appendix J.

Data Analysis

All qualitative data from the survey was input into NVivo (12). There were 63 and 64 qualitative responses to the two questions about cultural identity, respectively, and 58 participants answered the qualitative question about the intersection between cultural identity and participation in internationalization. The qualitative survey responses were analyzed alongside the transcribed focus group interview data in NVivo (12).

Quantitative descriptive data were input into SPSS (27). Tests of association were performed in SPSS (27). Data were then integrated for the mixed methods analysis in NVivo (12). I followed procedures for analyzing and interpreting both qualitative and quantitative data (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018), which include preparing each type of data for analysis, exploring the data, analyzing it according to type and appropriate method, presenting the data analysis, interpreting the results, and validating the results. Mixed methods data analysis and interpretation followed the parallel mixed analysis design (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009) with the assumption that crossover tracks analysis (Datta, 2001) would occur.

Quantitative Data Analysis

All quantitative data from the survey were collected through Qualtrics. After the survey closed and data were gathered, the final survey sample size was ascertained. Of the 94 people who opened the survey, 85 answered the qualifying questions, 75 answered the first question on cultural identity, 73 answered the question about involvement in internationalization, and between 67 and 72 participants answered the remaining demographic questions. Exact information on the number of each subset of the quantitative data is provided in Chapter 4 regarding Research Question 5.

Demographic data were analyzed to inform best-case focus group composition after the first six weeks of survey collection. The survey-gathering period closed eight weeks after initialization. Demographic data were then gathered for descriptive statistics to be used in reporting findings. These data can be found in Chapter 4 with respect to Research Question 5.

Survey questions that specifically probed the study's research questions, namely the survey questions concerning perceived stage of cultural identity and levels of involvement in campus internationalization, were investigated through tests of association in SPSS (27) for insights into the data. Specifically, the Fisher's Exact test (Fisher, 1925), and its extension by Freeman and Halston (1951) commonly known as the Fisher-Freeman-Halston Exact test, were used to check for associations in the data between survey variables that related to research questions and various testable demographic characteristics. The Fisher's Exact test was used for investigating exact associations between nominal variables in a 2 x 2 table, and the Fisher-Freeman-Halston test was employed for looking at associations between two or more nominal variables in a $r \times c$ contingency table. The decision to use these Exact tests was made because of several important factors. First, a smaller sample size, between 67 and 75 (depending on the particular set of variables being tested), is a characteristic of these data. Both of these Exact tests provide better measures of association for small data sets, although known to be conservative in results given (Lydersen et al., 2007; Ozturk et al., 2021). Next, the Exact tests were selected for use on all possible associations because of these three reasons: (a) in order not to apply the more commonly used chi-square test of independence because of an expected cell count frequency of less than five in many of the tests, (b) because chi-square is known to not be as accurate with smaller sample sizes even if the expected cell count frequency is not problematic, and (c) because of a need for consistency in test type for comparison (Lydersen et al., 2007; Ruxton & Neuhäuser, 2010). In addition, the decision to use the Exact tests was informed by the fact that each association featured at least one categorical variable because of the nature of the research

questions. Assumptions for the tests include that the row and column totals are fixed, not random, and that each observation is mutually exclusive and can only be classified in one cell.

Consequently, in preparation for running Exact tests, scaled data were converted into categorical data to reduce the size of contingency tables. The values of the following variables were transformed into categories of 5-year ranges: the age of the participant when they moved away from their home country, as well as the number of years participants have lived in the United States, have taught at institutions of higher education in the United States, and have taught at institutions of higher education both in the United States and abroad. In addition, because the number of different values involved were few, values for numbers of languages spoken were treated as categorical variables for the purpose of the contingency tables ($n = 6$, resulting in a 4 x 6 table and a 2 x 6 table for testing). In one instance, quantitative and qualitative data (from a write-in option) were converted into categorical data as well. The number of internationalization activities in which participants reported involvement were counted and included as a quantitative value in a new variable ($n = 7$, including the value 0, resulting in a 4 x 7 table and a 2 x 7 table for testing). The only demographic variables not tested for association were variables in which multiple responses were possible, including academic areas of expertise and job responsibilities, as these were challenging to convert into meaningful testable categorical values due to response variability.

Statistical significance was set at $p < .05$ for a two-sided test. A null hypothesis of having no association between various demographic variables and levels of cultural adaptation, as well as various demographic variables and levels of involvement in

campus internationalization, was used for all tests, as these are the two variables represented in the research questions. Potential associations were tested for 33 pairs of variables. It should be noted that the Exact tests only test for associations between values that are actually present; for example, if a test is run between a variable with 71 values and 75 values, only 71 sets of values will be tested for association. Results of the Exact tests are reported under quantitative findings in Chapter 4.

In addition, employed as a secondary measure (Sun et al., 2010), Cramer's V values are also reported and were interpreted as a measure of the magnitude or estimated effect sizes of the findings of these tests, as recommended for tests of $r \times c$ contingency tables (Grissom & Kim, 2005). Although the application of Cramer's V is limited with a smaller data set (Ferguson, 2016), and although the Cramer's V value in this situation is dependent on a chi-square calculation influenced by relative cell frequencies, it nonetheless provides useful information in considering possible effects of the findings. As this is an exploratory study, the use of Cohen's (1988) benchmarks for interpreting effect size are appropriate (Sun et al., 2010), which are small (.10), medium (.30) or high (.50). However, according to other research on effect size (Gignac & Szodorai, 2016), the 0.10, 0.20, and 0.30 values can be considered an association of small, medium, and high strength, respectively, for correlation studies investigating individual differences. Effect size values are reported under quantitative findings in Chapter 4.

Qualitative Data Analysis

Qualitative data analysis is inductive and iterative (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009). Merriam (2002) asserted that the descriptive, interpretative approach of straightforward

qualitative analysis is likely the most common form of qualitative research performed in the field of education; it was employed in this study as well. This approach is used to articulate “the researcher’s understanding, mediated by his or her particular disciplinary perspective, of the participants’ understanding of the phenomenon of interest” (Merriam, 2002, p. 38).

In qualitative analysis, researchers examine the data for larger themes that emerge. This process can involve revisiting the same data multiple times with various analytical lens such as different individual research questions, differing codes that have emerged from other data sources, or multiple underpinning theories. A constant comparative method was employed as the framework for data analysis, which was articulated by Glaser and Strauss (1967) and refined by Lincoln and Guba (1985), among others. In the constant comparative method, the researcher codes units of data that seem meaningful and compares these units with others in the data, with the intent of producing “tentative” categories that can then be further investigated and considered (Merriam, 2002). In other words, as Creswell (2013) explained, the data analysis involves categorical aggregation, in which “the researcher seeks a collection of instances from the data, hoping that issue-relevant meanings will emerge” (p. 199). The coding process for this research followed the eight basic steps of coding outlined by Tesch (1990). In this process, I also looked for expected, surprising, and unusual codes or ones of interest specific to the study conceptually (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). Once coding was completed, I reduced the codes, as much as possible, into a few carefully constructed categories, from which themes emerged. Both the qualitative survey answers and the

transcripts from the focus group interviews were coded and categorized in NVivo (12) to aid in management of the qualitative data and subsequent analysis.

The constant comparative method of data analysis is widely used in interpretive, descriptive qualitative research. The method allows the researcher to develop statements about “some facet of professional practice” or “about real-world situations” that emerge through inductive analysis of data (Merriam, 2002, p. 142). Corbin and Strauss (1990) further explained that this sort of analysis (in their case, used in grounded theory) “seeks not only to uncover relevant conditions but also to determine how the actors under investigation actively respond to those conditions, and to the consequences of their actions” (p. 419). This uncovering of relevant conditions for participation in internationalization and a development of understanding of the role of cultural identity in the process was accomplished through analyzing the data from the focus group interviews and the qualitative questions on the survey. Research questions provided the organizing principle to inductively explore themes that emanated from categories that emerged, through coding, from the data.

Particular to focus group interviews, the dimension of interaction between and among participants was addressed as relevant in the data analysis. Animated or strongly expressed interaction patterns were noted and considered for insights revealed (Morgan, 2018; Robinson, 2020; Smithson, 2000). The fact that focus groups were group discussions held in a particular, controlled setting in which participants came together for the formal consideration of an already-established topic (i.e., they were not wholly “natural”) is acknowledged for discussion of the data (Smithson, 2000). My role in conducting the interview was also considered in analysis (Smithson, 2000). However, as

Morgan (2018) argued, the content of the interaction was not conflated with the means of interaction; the primary focus of the qualitative analysis was on what was expressed, not how it was expressed.

Mixed Methods Integrated Data Analysis

Data integration is considered to be the “centerpiece” of mixed methods research (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018, p. 220), with the hope that both strands of research together will reveal insights that, alone, neither database could illuminate. The qualitative and quantitative data in this study were integrated in a side-by-side comparison to capitalize on the value afforded by examining two types of data probing the same research questions (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). Teddlie and Tashakkori (2009) refer to this type of mixed method data analysis as parallel mixed analysis.

Creswell and Plano Clark (2018) discussed the specific steps for a convergent mixed method design’s parallel data analysis. After both databases are analyzed using appropriate techniques for each type of data, the researcher examines the data for common ideas that emerge from both sets of findings. Joint display tables are employed as appropriate to make the comparison of information easier. Findings are compared, noting confirmation, disagreement, or expansion of ideas. For any ideas that disagree, further investigation is enacted to try to comprehend the finding. Finally, the researcher forwards meta-inferences and explanations of how the evidence from the combined databases “enhances understanding of and provides insight into the research problem” (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018, p. 224).

The integrated stage of data analysis occurred in two phases. First, mixed methods data analysis was conducted by performing straightforward comparisons of findings. To better explain the integration, data are arrayed in tables that provide visual maps of key integrated findings. In addition, further investigations were made using NVivo (12) analysis tools on codes and variables that were thought to possibly provide insight, particularly using NVivo's crosstabs feature as described in other research literature (Andrew et al., 2008; Elliot, 2022). These findings are reported in Chapter 4. The second phase of the integrated analysis, which included presenting insights gained, differences noticed, and questions that emerged for further investigation, is provided in Chapter 5. Meta-inferences and conclusions from the combined databases are discussed to address Research Question 6.

As additional information, this mixed methods study can be seen as conducting a crossover tracks analysis (Datta, 2001; Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009). In this type of parallel mixed analysis, the "findings from the various methodological strands intertwine and inform each other throughout the study" (Datta, 2001, p. 34). In other words, crossover tracks analysis acknowledges that each strand of data analysis can inform the other strand earlier than in the mixed methods analysis phase. For example, qualitative data were quantified for including that data in the quantitative investigation before concluding the qualitative data analysis phase. Those data were used in the qualitative analysis concurrently while employed in the quantitative analysis. Counting the frequency of codes in the data helped determine the most important qualitative themes, which is another incidence of quantifying qualitative data. Additionally, as qualitative themes were reviewed, ideas for further mixed methods cross tabulations were

developed. Because data analysis of both strands occurred in parallel, rather than in sequence, a crossover tracks analysis was appropriate.

Validity

Mixed methods researchers have forwarded multiple models for determining “validity,” recognizing the complex interplay of validity and credibility issues specific to different research paradigms within a single study. These models include, but are not limited to, *inference quality* (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009), *legitimation* (Onwuegbuzie & Johnson, 2006), and the *validation framework* (Dellinger & Leech, 2007). Because establishing validity is an ongoing conversation in mixed methods research, my study relied on the validity threats identified in Creswell and Plano Clark (2018), which are specific to convergent mixed methods designs and intended to specifically address threats to integrating data for analysis and making correct inferences from the combined findings. Considering the type of data collected and the scope of the data collected, specific validity issues specific to each strand of data collection and analysis are presented below. In addition, in mixed methods research, the etic and the emic perspectives are inextricably linked during data analysis. Teddlie and Tashakkori (2009) explained that in mixed methods research, each inference made from the data can represent “different shades of participants’ and investigators’ interpretations of events and phenomena” (p. 288). Thus, based on qualitative research norms, the positionality of the researcher to the researched must be acknowledged and is also explored.

Survey Validity

Validity in mixed methods questionnaire/survey writing calls for a consideration of construct and content validity. Construct validity was established for this study through judgmental validation (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009), the strategy of asking subject-matter experts to review the survey for a degree of accuracy between what the questionnaire is supposed to collect and what information it actually gathers. In addition, while composing the survey, I discussed wording possibilities and connoted meanings with all questions (Fink, 2003; Fowler, 2013; Mertens, 2015). For content validity, the research questions were directly employed in creating the survey to ensure that all issues needing measurement were being addressed. In addition, as previously discussed, the survey was preliminarily tested with a piloting procedure to reveal any intrinsic weaknesses, which, in turn, increased rigor of the study as well as provided for construct and content validity. In the pilot survey, I followed the procedures for field testing with a small population similar to the actual study sample (Mertens, 2015).

Addressing validity in the quantitative strand of the study is somewhat affected by the response size to the survey. The characteristics of this small response did not allow for inferential testing characterized by high statistical power, strong effect size estimations, and nonrandom sampling procedures. Hence, conclusions would be weak. Therefore, descriptive statistics and tests of association were used for data analysis. Exact tests were applied to understand the significance level for any associations among sample characteristics. Assumptions for the tests were met. Even though the sample was gathered as randomly as possible for the study site, the fact that the sample used in the quantitative analysis was gathered using a qualitative technique is clearly transparent in the findings.

Validity in the Qualitative Analysis

Validity, often called trustworthiness in qualitative research, involves establishing credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability in order to convince a reader that the findings of the study are “worth paying attention to” (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, p. 290). Because the qualitative strand of this study’s data collection involved multiple individual voices, triangulation was incorporated as a natural part of establishing credibility. The study involved the perspectives of multiple faculty members, both through surveys and focus groups, achieving a rather large sample size for a qualitative study. The study also employed participant validation, also known as “member checking.” Because the results should reveal the experiences of the participants, allowing participants to validate the transcription of their contributions was a natural step to include in establishing validity of the research. I emailed individuals a copy of their transcribed contributions to the discussion and invited any corrections or comments. If they wished to “elaborate, correct, extend, or argue about” the transcripts of the interviews, they had opportunity to do so through communication by email (Rossman & Rallis, 2012, p. 65). Finally, the study included negative case analysis, which involves looking at examples in the data that do not seem to fit with the overall findings.

In addition, I included several other steps in this study for establishing trustworthiness of the qualitative findings. Information for assessing transferability was provided in three ways. First, the selected faculty participants met the study’s articulated criteria. Next, I used thick description and rich examples supporting each subcategory to analyze and report the data. In addition, I reported multiple cases in the form of multiple participants. Through the description of data collection and maintenance, I established

dependability. Finally, to provide for confirmability and an audit check, “the logic that is used to interpret the data” was presented (Mertens, 2015, p. 272),

Role of the Researcher

To address the personal perspective I bring to the research, I will comment on “past experiences, biases, prejudices, and orientations” (Creswell, 2013, p. 251) that impact my approach to and my interpretation of potential findings. As a third-culture kid myself, I spent a significant amount of my childhood in another culture. As an adult, I lived and worked abroad as an international faculty member in two countries on two different continents. Consequently, I am personally interested in the phenomenon of crossing cultures and its impact on identity development. I have also, as an adult, observed my parents living cross-culturally for an extended period and was involved in their adjustment to living back “at home.” I also worked for many years at the university’s English language program alongside other third-culture kids and intercultural individuals. Therefore, my emic positionality to the topic should be acknowledged. As I have previously mentioned, I work in a faculty development unit, so I have contact with international faculty from across campus as a part of my job. Because I have obtained various intercultural experiences myself and personally know the joys and challenges of cross-cultural living and its impact on identity and practice, I do hope to make a meaningful impact on the experiences of international faculty at our university, and perhaps other universities as well. My job involves promoting internationalization of the campus through the training of faculty members in relevant areas. Consequently, my

interest in this topic is driven by my personal experiences, my mission at my job, and my desire to see internationalization promoted across campus.

Validity in Mixed Methods Research

Both qualitative and quantitative researchers take systematic precautions to provide for high quality data collection; both sides often repeat similar measurements, use multiple types of data collection, and collect as much information as possible about the topic (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009). Thus, a study with more than one method should allow a researcher the opportunity to demonstrate the overall quality of data across a variety of types of data collection (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009). However, a convergent mixed methods design has several specific validity threats to address, according to Creswell and Plano Clark (2018) in their Table 7.3 (pp. 252-253). The first threat is to use parallel concepts when engaging in data collection for both strands of the study. I addressed this through building the research questions into both data collection instruments. Appendix B illustrated how the survey variables and the focus group questions were directly related to the research questions. The second validity threat is to address any inconsistency in unequal database sizes. The study's sampling design helped to create a nested sample (Onwuegbuzie & Johnson, 2006), in which the participants in one sample (the focus group participants in this case) are also members of another sample (the larger survey sample in this study). The sampling design can also be classified as stratified purposive sampling (Teddlie & Yu, 2007), in which the population is first divided into groups, and the researcher identifies specific cases from the group to interview. Thus, the sampling design for this study was purposeful. The focus group

participants were selected as representative examples of the larger quantitative sample, because the qualitative data is intended to provide deeper exploration of the research questions than the qualitative questions on the survey are able to garner. A third validity threat that Creswell and Plano Clark (2018) identified for convergent mixed methods studies is the challenge of keeping results from the two databases separate. To assist with this threat, joint visual displays of findings in tables were provided as they were felt to be helpful, and the results of the research were presented through a written strategy that clearly denotes which data are from the qualitative strand and which are quantitative. The final validity threat rests in whether the researcher engages in a process to explore disconfirming results, which is necessary and important. After all, one of the strengths that mixed methods research offers is the possibility of disconfirmation that the two databases might enable. If using two databases shows disagreement between the qualitative and quantitative strands, then the study is stronger than either individual strand would have offered on its own. The findings and discussion have engaged in this exploration of disconfirming results.

Finally, the critical realist paradigm emphasizes that validity must be addressed in the contexts of specific studies. Maxwell and Mittapalli (2010) explained that from the critical realist perspective, validity should not focus on set, articulated procedures, but on the procedures that are relevant to the plausible threats for that particular study, in its context, for its purposes, and with its particular methods. Thus, when issues of validity are addressed, the considerations for the specific methods outlined in the literature have been addressed here, but only as they made sense in the context of this study and its purposes. For example, I have not forced quantitative tests for validity onto the

quantitative data analysis because the sample size and types are not appropriate for those tests and because there are admitted limitations as to the use of the quantitative data outside of the context of this study.

CHAPTER 4

FINDINGS

This chapter presents the research findings in three separate data analysis sections through the lens of the relevant research questions. First, the quantitative data analysis is discussed, using quantitative data collected in the survey as well as a small amount of quantified qualitative data. Next, the sizeable qualitative findings are presented in data analysis of the qualitative (open-ended) responses on the survey and the transcripts of the focus group interviews. Finally, the findings of the formal mixed methods analysis of the combined data sets are described.

Quantitative Data

Quantitative data are presented in the following order: first, the survey responses that answer the first, second, and third research questions, or relevant portions of them, and then the demographic data on the survey participants in general and to answer Research Question 5. (The fourth and sixth research questions are designed exclusively to be explored through qualitative and mixed methods findings, respectively, and will be addressed in the next section on qualitative findings and in Chapter 5, respectively.) Each survey question was written as optional to encourage comfort with participation. Although not all faculty participants responded to every question, 71 participants answered most questions. Consequently, subset sample sizes are provided throughout the data reporting.

Research Question 1

How do international faculty describe their current sense of cultural identity and its development?

Corresponding to this research question, an early quantitative survey question asked participants how they would describe their current sense of cultural identity. The four possible answers correspond to Berry's four (1997) levels of cultural adaptation. All 75 participants answered this question. Nine participants indicated they still fully identify with their home culture, and six participants identify with the United States instead. A majority (59 participants or 78.7%) designated that they feel their cultural identity has changed somewhat since coming to live in the United States. They agree that while they still identify culturally with their home cultures in some way, they also have changed over time and are now best described as a mix of two or more cultures. Only one participant selected the final option, which indicated that the individual is not sure of their sense of cultural identity, neither identifying with their home culture or as an American.

An area of interest with the data was to see whether any statistically significant associations exist between levels of cultural adaptation and various other demographic characteristics. The Fisher's Exact test (Fisher, 1925) through its extension by Freeman and Halston (1951), commonly known as the Fisher-Freeman-Halston Exact test, was used to check for associations in the data. Whereas the Fisher's test is used for testing exact associations between nominal variables in a 2 x 2 table, the Fisher-Freeman-Halston test is regularly used for testing associations between two or more nominal variables in an $r \times c$ contingency table. As discussed in Chapter 3, the following are the reasons this test was chosen: (a) the smaller sample size, (b) the tests are being conducted

with nominal variables, (c) a need for consistency in testing for comparison, and (d) an expected cell count frequency of less than five in many of the tests thus preventing application of the more commonly used chi-square test of independence (Lydersen et al., 2007; Ruxton & Neuhäuser, 2010). Both of these Exact tests provide greater accuracy as measures of association for small data sets, although known to be conservative in results given (Lydersen et al., 2007; Ozturk et al., 2021). Table 2 lists the results for statistical significance ($p < .05$, two-sided) of the Fisher-Freeman-Halston Exact tests performed in SPSS (27) for this analysis. The tests were based on a null hypothesis of having no association between levels of cultural adaptation and several demographic variables included in the survey that could hold potential association.

In addition, employed as a secondary measure (Sun et al., 2010), Cramer's V is also reported and interpreted as a measure of the magnitude or estimated effect sizes of these test findings, as recommended for tests of $r \times c$ contingency tables (Grissom & Kim, 2005). Although the application of Cramer's V is limited with a smaller data set (Ferguson, 2016) and the Cramer's V value in this situation is dependent on a chi-square calculation that is influenced by relative cell frequencies, it nonetheless provides useful information in considering possible effects of the findings. In addition, as this is an exploratory study, it is appropriate to use of Cohen's (1988) benchmarks (small, .10; medium, .30; or high, .50) for interpreting effect size (Sun et al., 2010). However, according to other research on effect size (Gignac & Szodorai, 2016), a 0.10, 0.20, and 0.30 value can be considered an association of small, medium, and high strength, respectively, for correlation studies looking at individual differences. The variables demonstrating statistical significance and noteworthy effect sizes are discussed below.

Table 2

Tests of Association for Reported Cultural Adaptation (CA) and Various Other Characteristics

Variables	Fisher-Freeman-Halston Test: p <.05, Two-tailed	Cramer's V
CA and age range	.044 ^a	.354
CA and number of years in the United States (U.S.)	<.001	.477
CA and age when moved away from home country	.420	.234
CA and reasons for moving to the U.S.	.346	.211
CA and lived away from home country before age 18	.055	.338
CA and lived in another country as an adult before moving to U.S.	.730	.152
CA and having completed graduate studies in the U.S.	.405	.203
CA and having spouse or partner in the U.S.	.510	.144
CA and having children living with them in the U.S.	.294	.238
CA and number of languages spoken	.922	.161
CA and home region of the world	.084	.487
CA and gender	.355	.221
CA and faculty status	.562	.197
CA and years teaching in post-secondary	.074	.377
CA and years teaching in post-secondary in the U.S.	.128	.366
CA and involvement in internationalization activities	1.0	.101
CA and number of reported types of internationalization activities ^b	.712	.271

^aThe highlighted numbers are values of statistical significance and their respective effect sizes. ^bThe number of reported types of internationalization activities is discussed in Table 19.

The only two associations shown to have statistical significance ($p < .05$) in the Fisher-Freeman-Halston Exact tests are the association of cultural adaptation with age range ($p = .044$) and cultural adaptation with number of years that participants have lived in the United States ($p < .001$). According to Cohen (1988), the Cramer's V association of cultural adaptation with age range shows a value of .354, which is an association of

medium strength. According to Gignac and Szodorai (2016), however, a .354 value can be considered an association of large strength for correlation studies looking at individual differences. In addition, the other test result showing statistical significance, the association of cultural adaptation with number of years that respondents have lived in the United States, shows a value of .477, a medium effect size according to Cohen (1988) and large strength according to Gignac and Szodorai (2016). Therefore, even with the sample size and type and the forementioned caveats of using Cramer's V, the effect size of these variables, taken together with statistical significance, is interesting enough to merit closer investigation.

To explore the statistically significant associations of variables in this collection of tests, the SPSS (27) cross tabulation outputs were examined. The four levels of cultural adaptation were interfaced with the age ranges reported by survey participants, organized into 10-year ranges on the survey. All five of the participants 29 years of age or younger already claim an intercultural identity. Of the nine respondents in the 30-39-year age range, one reports still identifying with their home culture, and seven report having a merged identity made up of both cultures. Interestingly, the only individual who claimed identification neither with home nor with the United States was also in the 30-39-year age range. Of the 22 respondents in the 40-49-year age range, 19 claimed an intercultural identity, while three still align their identities with their home cultures. Of the 19 respondents in the 50-59-year age range, a similar split in the data continues, with 16 participants reporting a merged identity and one reporting identification with their home culture. However, for the first time in this cross-tabulation, two participants also reported that their cultural identities most align with the United States. This becomes more

pronounced in the 60-69-year age range, in which three of the 17 individuals reported alignment with their home culture, four reported identifying the most with the United States, and eight conveyed identifying with an intercultural identity. In the final 70-year and above age range, the one participant reported identification with their home culture. Data is shown in Table 3.

Table 3

Reported Level of Cultural Adaptation Compared to Age (in 10-year Range)

Age range in years	Fully identify with home culture	Fully identify with U.S. culture	Best described as a mix of the two cultures	Not comfortable identifying with either	Total in each year range
29 >			5		5
30-39	1		7	1	9
40-49	3		19		22
50-59	1	2	16		19
60-69	3	4	8		15
70 <	1				1
Total	9	6	55	1	71

The second cross tabulation examined was for the four levels of cultural adaptation interfaced with the number of years that survey participants reported they had lived in the United States, which had been organized into 5-year ranges for ease of analysis. The query illuminates multiple points. Of the participants who have been in the United States for 10 years or fewer, three participants indicated that they still identify with their home culture, while six already claimed an intercultural identity. Interestingly, the only individual who claimed identification neither with home nor with the United States was in the 6-10-year range. However, a shift begins in the 11-15-year range and

continues through the 25-30-year range, in which all but two of the participants considered themselves to have an intercultural identity. After 31-35 years in the United States, cultural adaptation is spread in the group of 14: three respondents reported an identification with home, two with the United States, and nine with both cultures. Through the remaining three groups, the numbers of participants are small, but identification remains inconsistent or spread. In summary, 79% of all survey participants ($n = 75$) reported a merged, integrated intercultural identity, and the most stable sense of an integrated identity, in the data set of participants who also reported an amount of time in the United States ($n = 71$), emerges in the 11-30-year range of time in the United States. Data are shown in Table 4.

Table 4

Reported Level of Cultural Adaptation Compared to Years Lived in United States (in 5-year Range)

Number of years in United States	Fully identify with home culture	Fully identify with U.S. culture	Best described as a mix of the two cultures	Not comfortable identifying with either	Total in each year range
0-5	1				1
6-10	2		6	1	9
11-15			8		8
16-20			15		15
21-25		1	6		7
26-30	1		10		11
31-35	3	2	9		14
36-40		1			1
41-45	1	1	1		3
46+	1	1			2
Total	9	6	55	1	71

In addition, in the Fisher-Freeman-Halston Exact tests, three sets of compared variables were shown to be comparatively close to statistical significance, when considered next to the findings for other sets of variables, which were far from the alpha level. They also all had an effect size of greater than .35, which relates to medium effect size (Cohen, 1988) and large effect size (Gignac & Szodorai, 2016). Because of the problems inherent with the sample size and sample collection, and because of the known conservative nature of the Fisher's Exact test and its Freeman-Halton extension (Lydersen et al., 2007; Ozturk et al., 2021), these areas of possible closer association are noteworthy. The three sets of compared variables are the association of cultural adaptation and having lived away from one's home country before the age of 18 years ($p = .055$, $V = .338$), cultural adaptation and home region of the world ($p = .084$, $V = .487$), and cultural adaptation with years of teaching in post-secondary institutions, either in the United States or abroad ($p = .074$, $V = .377$). The specific values for these three associations are provided in Tables 5, 6, and 7 for reference.

Table 5

Reported Level of Cultural Adaptation Compared to Having Lived Away from One's Home Country (before the Age of 18 Years)

Having Lived Away from Home Country	Fully identify with home culture	Fully identify with U.S. culture	Best described as a mix of the two cultures	Not comfortable identifying with either	Total in each year range
Yes	3	0	8	1	12
No	6	6	48	0	9
Total	9	6	55	1	71

Table 6*Reported Level of Cultural Adaptation Compared to Home Region of the World*

Years in United States (U.S.)	Fully identify with home culture	Fully identify with U.S. culture	Best described as a mix of the two cultures	Not comfortable identifying with either	Total in each year range
East Asia	0	0	12	0	12
Central Asia	0	1	0	0	1
South Asia	1	0	5	0	6
Southeast Asia	0	0	1	0	1
Oceania	-	-	-	-	-
South America	3	1	10	0	14
Mexico and Central America	0	1	1	1	3
Canada	1	0	1	0	2
Northern Africa/the Middle East	1	0	4	0	5
Sub-Saharan Africa	0	1	2	0	3
Western/Southern Europe and Scandinavia	3	2	12	0	17
Eastern Europe	0	0	8	0	8
Total reporting	9	6	56	1	72

Table 7

Reported Level of Cultural Adaptation Compared to Years Taught in Post-Secondary Institutions (in 5-year Range)

Years Taught in Post-secondary Institutions	Fully identify with home culture	Fully identify with U.S. culture	I am best described as a mix of the two cultures	I am not comfortable identifying with either	Total in each year range
0-5	2	0	12	1	15
6-10	1	0	7	0	8
11-15	1	1	12	0	14
16-20	2	2	9	0	13
21-25	1	0	11	0	12
26-30	1	0	4	0	5
31-35	0	2	1	0	3
36-40	1	1	0	0	2
Total	9	6	56	1	72

Research Question 2

Regarding campus internationalization efforts, how are international faculty currently involved? What ideas do they have for further involvement?

A second key quantitative area of inquiry in the survey asked participants if they currently encourage an international perspective in their work on campus, whether in teaching, research, or service. Participants could choose to answer the question negatively. However, if they did report encouraging an international perspective, the question also asked them to choose all activities that applied to them from a list of potential internationalization activities. The participants were also given the opportunity to describe in prose any other activities they use. Of the 75 survey participants, 73 respondents (97%) answered this question.

Only six participants indicated clearly that they do not currently encourage an international perspective in their work on campus. (Although two others also selected the “no” option, they went on to select other options indicating that they in fact did encourage an international perspective; consequently, these were counted as affirmative answers.) A total of 67 participants (92%) reported ways that they encourage an international perspective in their work at the university. Using course materials in class that provide an international perspective was employed by 23 of the question respondents (12% of the total responses). In addition, 45 individuals (23%) reported using personal examples from their work in their discipline that provide an international perspective. The most popular activity reported was giving personal examples of living abroad or of working with people from different cultures, when appropriate; 55 survey participants (29%) relayed using this technique. Sharing insights with colleagues or students on how to work with people from their home culture or people who are, in general, different from oneself was reported as an internationalization activity by 42 individuals (22%); in addition, 14 respondents (7%) reported that they pursue a personal research agenda that is focused on populations in or from other countries. Finally, six participants provided written descriptions of additional types of internationalization activities, several of which were correlated to previous options and counted with them. However, four of those six participants provided unique ideas that were not correlated to the previous options: (a) promoting exchange of experiences between students of different backgrounds; (b) hosting students from other countries in a lab; (c) mentoring international students or other international faculty; (d) facilitating reciprocal exchange agreements with a home country university; (e) hosting international speakers, and (f) leading study abroad trips.

The next survey question asked participants whether they had ideas for encouraging an international perspective on campus that they do not currently use. Among the 69 respondents answering this question, 49 indicated they do not have further ideas. However, 20 did have additional ideas, and those will be analyzed along with the other qualitative survey responses under qualitative study findings.

Research Question 3

What actions might be undertaken to encourage international faculty to be more involved in campus internationalization efforts?

To explore Research Question 3, a question on the survey sought to identify any barriers or opportunities that could be identified quantitatively to support faculty members in further encouraging an international perspective on campus. The question explicitly asked participants to consider how any obstacles could be lessened. This question was answered by 72 participants. The total number and percentage coverage of responses for each choice are provided below.

Of the 72 respondents, eight (11%) felt that nothing else needs to be done to provide an environment that would enable faculty members to encourage internationalization further; these participants felt that enough support is already provided. However, 64 respondents (89%) felt that additional support for internationalization initiatives and activities could be provided. In the strongest response to the choices provided on what types of support could be given, 41 respondents (20% of total responses) agreed that it would be empowering if the potential contributions of their cultural background towards campus internationalization efforts were acknowledged. In second place, 35 respondents (17%) indicated that training to address discrimination,

racism, and/or cultural sensitivity towards international faculty members needs to be promoted and provided. Similarly, 32 participants (16%) expressed that increasingly explicit support from university leadership for internationalization activities is needed. As international faculty working to be supportive of internationalization efforts, 29 respondents (14%) felt that they could benefit from training on ways to be involved in developing intercultural competence across the university campus, and 21 respondents (10%) indicated that they could also personally benefit from training on being successful in teaching, research, and service expectations for the U.S. university context. Additionally, 16 participants (8%) reported that training on ways to add international perspectives into their work would be helpful in enabling them to further an international perspective on campus. Having expectations from leadership for job performance in encouraging international perspectives on campus would be enabling or empowering to 15 participants (7%). Finally, six individuals reported additional ideas for enabling the encouragement of an international perspective or the lessening of obstacles. These are analyzed along with the rest of the qualitative survey responses in the qualitative section of the study findings.

Research Question 5

What is the profile of international faculty involved in campus internationalization efforts?

Tables 8-11 present various demographic data collected on all study participants. Each table indicates the number of survey participants who completed each of the optional survey questions for each type of demographic data, and the percentages provided are the percentages of the sample for each respective question. In addition, for

specifically addressing Research Question 5, parallel demographics are also listed for the sample subset who report being involved in campus internationalization efforts ($n = 67$).

The results of tests of association for involvement in internationalization and other demographic variables are provided in Table 12, and the revealed statistically significant association is discussed. Finally, to explore the relationship between involvement in campus internationalization and an integrated sense of cultural identity, a cross tabulation is provided in Table 13 and discussed which may inform the mixed methods analysis.

Table 8 delineates gender, age range, and home country region of the world.

Table 8

General Demographic Data on Survey Participants and for the Data Subset Involved in Campus Internationalization (Intz)

Characteristic	Number of participants	Percentage of sample provided	Total number involved in Intz	Percentage of Intz sample subset provided
Gender				
Male	38	54	32	50
Female	33	46	32	50
Total reporting	71		64	
Age Range in Years				
29 or younger	5	7	5	8
30-39	9	13	9	14
40-49	22	31	21	33
50-59	19	27	18	28
60-69	15	21	10	16
70 or older	1	1	1	1.5
Total reporting	71		64	
Home Country Region of the World				
East Asia	12	17	11	17
Central Asia	1	1	1	1.5
South Asia	6	8	6	9
Southeast Asia	1	1	1	1.5
Oceania	-	-	-	-

South America	14	20	14	22
Mexico and Central America	3	4	3	5
Canada	2	3	1	1.5
Northern Africa/the Middle East	5	7	5	8
Sub-Saharan Africa	3	4	3	5
Western Europe	17	24	12	19
Eastern Europe	7	10	7	11
Total reporting	71		64	

Table 9 provides information related to the faculty members' academic lives: pursuit of graduate studies in the United States, their academic area of expertise, their faculty rank at the university, and their job responsibilities. In addition, Table 9 indicates reported numbers for length of time teaching in post-secondary institutions in any location versus length of time teaching in post-secondary institutions in the United States.

Table 9

Academic Demographic Data on Survey Participants and for the Data Subset Involved in Campus Internationalization (Intz)

Characteristic	Number of participants	Percentage of sample provided	Total number involved in campus Intz	Percentage of sample subset
Attended Graduate School in United States				
Yes	38	54	61	91
No	33	46	6	9
Total reporting	71		67	
Academic Area				
Medicine	18	26	17	26
Healthcare	16	23	16	25
STEM	31	44	26	40
Humanities	9	13	9	14
Business	6	9	6	9
Education	3	4	3	5

Arts	1	1	1	1.5
Total reporting/responses ^a	70/84		65/78	
Faculty Rank				
Full Professor	27	38	24	36
Associate Professor	23	32	21	32
Assistant Professor	17	24	17	26
Full-time Instructor	0			
Adjunct Instructor	1	1.5	1	1.5
Assistant/Associate Adjunct Professor ^b	3	4	3	5
Total reporting	71		66	
Job Responsibilities				
Teaching	66	93	61	92
Clinical	14	20	14	21
Research	59	83	55	83
Service	49	69	44	67
Other	7	10	7	11
Total reporting/responses ^c	71/195		66/181	
Years Teaching in a Post-Secondary Institution				
5 or less	15	21	15	22
6-10	8	11	7	10
11-15	14	19	14	21
16-20	13	18	12	18
21-25	12	17	11	16
26-30	5	7	3	4
31-35	3	4	3	4
36-40	2	3	2	3
Total reporting	72		67	
Years Teaching in a Post-Secondary Institution in the United States				
5 or less	12	17	12	18
6-10	9	13	8	12
11-15	11	16	11	17
16-20	12	17	12	18
21-25	11	16	10	15
26-30	8	11	7	11
31-35	3	4	2	3
36-40	4	6	4	6
Total reporting ^d	70		66	

^aThis question could have more than one answer. Each answer (of four) written into the option of “other” was calculated once into each relevant category. The entries of “Dentistry” as “other” have been categorized as “Healthcare.” “Basic neuroscience” and

“electrical engineering” have been categorized as “STEM.” ^bAssistant or Associate Adjunct (part-time) Professor was not a category listed on the survey; however, since either one or the other was written in when the category “other” was selected, it has been made into a category of its own. ^cParticipants could choose any job responsibility that applied. ^dA discrepancy is apparent in the responses to the number of years taught in a post-secondary institution and in a post-secondary institution specifically in the United States; this may be due to confusion with the wording of the questions.

Table 10 presents demographic data on the survey participants regarding their personal lives in the United States. The survey sought to establish how long they have lived in the United States, whether the respondents live with a spouse or partner here in the United States, and whether that spouse or partner is of a cultural background different from their own. The survey also asked whether participants have children living with them in the United States. Another area of interest includes how many languages, including English, that participants report they can productively use in professional and/or social situations.

Table 10

Personal Demographic Data on Survey Participants and for the Data Subset Involved in Campus Internationalization (Intz)

Characteristic	Number of participants	Percentage of sample provided	Total number involved in campus Intz	Percentage of sample subset
How Many Years Lived in the United States (U.S., 5-year range)				
5 or less	1	1	1	2
6-10	9	13	9	14
11-15	8	11	8	12
16-20	15	21	14	21
21-25	7	10	6	10
26-30	11	15	10	15
31-35	14	20	12	18
36-40	1	1	1	2

41-45	3	4	3	5
46 or more	2	3	2	3
Total reporting	71		66	
Has Spouse or Partner in the U. S. and Their Cultural Background				
Yes	64	90	59	89
No	7	10	7	11
Total reporting	71		66	
Spouse or partner is same cultural background	32	52	31	50
Spouse or partner is different cultural background	35	48	31	50
Total reporting	67		62	
Has Children in Home in the U. S.				
Yes	36	50	35	52
No	36	50	32	48
Total reporting	72		67	
How Many Languages Productively Used				
1	5	7	4	6
2	36	51	33	51
3	21	30	20	31
4	6	9	6	9
5	1	1	1	1.5
6	1	1	1	1.5
Total reporting ^a	70		65	

^aOne participant indicated that they productively used zero languages. As this was clearly a mistake, this response was counted as unanswered.

Finally, Table 11 reports demographics related to survey participant's lives before coming to live in the United States. Questions included if they had lived outside their home country during their childhood and adolescence and, if so, how long they had done so. In addition, these demographics include information on how old individuals were when they moved away from their home countries as adults and for what primary reason they initially left their home countries. Questions also asked for information on whether

respondents had lived in countries other than their home country before coming to live in the United States and, if so, in how many countries.

Table 11

Demographic Data on Survey Participants' Lives before Moving to the United States (U.S.) and for the Data Subset Involved in Campus Internationalization (Intz)

Characteristic	Number of Participants	Percentage of sample provided	Total number involved in campus Intz	Percentage of sample subset
Lived Outside of Home Country as Child or Adolescent				
Yes	12	17	12	55
No	60	83	55	82
Total reporting	72		67	
If yes, how many years				
1	3	20	3	4
2	3	20	3	4
3	1	8	1	1.5
4	1	8	1	1.5
6	2	17	2	3
7	1	8	1	1.5
17	1	8	1	1.5
Age When Moved Away from Home Country (in 5-year ranges)				
16-20	7	10	7	11
21-25	32	47	30	48
26-30	20	29	18	29
31-35	6	9	5	8
36-40	3	4	3	5
Total reporting	68		63	
Primary Reason Left Home Country				
Education	55	76	53	79
Employment	12	17	9	13
Refuge	0	0	0	0
To be closer to family or friends	4	6	4	6
Immigration ^a	1	1	1	1.5
Total reporting	72		67	
Lived in Other Countries (Other than Home Country) before Living in the U.S.				
Yes	10	14	8	12
No	62	86	59	88

Total reporting	72	67
If yes, how many years		
0-5	7	3
10	1	
15	1	1
21	1	1
Total reporting	10	5
If yes, how many different countries		
1	7	4
2	3	1
Total reporting	10	5

^aAlthough 4 individuals reported their reason for leaving their home country as “other,” all but one reason was able to be included in the other categories from reading the explanation of the choice of “other” as a category. “Immigration” was added as an independent category.

To analyze the demographic data regarding involvement in internationalization activities, as for Research Question 1, the Fisher-Freeman-Halston Exact test was used to consider whether associations with variables that had more than two categories had statistical significance. In addition, the original Fisher’s Exact test was used for comparing involvement in campus internationalization with gender and with whether the participant had attended graduate school in the United States, because both are 2 x 2 contingency tables. Once again, Cramer’s V was calculated for each of the associations. The null hypothesis being tested was that there were no statistically significant associations between involvement in campus internationalization and the other tested variables. Test results are reported in Table 12.

Table 12

Tests of Association for Reported Involvement in Internationalization Activities (IIA) and Various Other Characteristics

Variables	Exact Tests: p < .05, Two- tailed	Cramer's V
IIA and age range	.450	.273
IIA and number of years in the United States (U.S.)	.900	.224
IIA and age when moved away from home country	.654	.164
IIA and reasons for moving to the U.S.	.095	.320
IIA and lived away from home country before age 18	.582	.122
IIA and lived in another country as an adult before moving to U.S.	.139	.206
IIA and having completed graduate studies in the U.S.	.003 ^a	.440
IIA and having spouse or partner in the U.S.	1.0	.091
IIA and having children living with them in the U.S.	.357	.164
IIA and number of languages spoken	.595	.177
IIA and home region of the world	.546	.382
IIA and gender	.363	.146
IIA and faculty status	.578	.183
IIA and years teaching in post-secondary	.113	.398
IIA and years teaching in post-secondary in the U.S.	.200	.338
IIA and cultural adaptation	1.0	.101

^aThe highlighted numbers are values of statistical significance and their respective effect sizes.

The only test in this group showing statistical significance is the association of involvement in campus internationalization activities and attending graduate school in the United States ($p = .003$). Whether or not international faculty complete their graduate education in the United States appears to be associated with their interest in issues of comprehensive campus internationalization. In addition, the Cramer's V test shows a

value of .440, a medium effect size according to Cohen (1988) and of large strength according to Gignac and Szodorai (2016). Even considering the sample size and type and the caveats discussed previously that are involved with using Cramer's V with this data, the statistical significance of the association of these variables, taken together with the effect size description, is interesting enough to merit closer investigation.

A cross tabulation analysis was conducted between involvement in campus internationalization and having attended graduate school in the United States. Whereas only 54% (38 of the 71 respondents) indicated that they had attended graduate school in the United States, a full 91% (61 of the 67 respondents) of the subset who reported involvement in campus internationalization activities had experience studying at an American graduate school. The only other significance value near the tested alpha level is the association between the reason that participants came to the United States and involvement in campus internationalization activities ($p = .095$). The analysis of the cross tabulation table provides additional information. In the full sample of international faculty participating in the survey, 76% (55 of 72 respondents) came to the United States for education, and 17% (12 of 72 respondents) came for employment. However, in the subset sample of those reporting involvement in internationalization activities, 79% (53 of 67 respondents) of them came for education and a lower percentage of 13% (9 of 67 respondents) came for employment. In summary, of the 55 individuals (76% of the subset) who left their home country for education, 50 (91% of this smaller subset who left their home for education) completed graduate studies in the United States, and 49 (89% of this smaller subset) reported that they are now involved in campus internationalization activities.

Finally, a cross tabulation was conducted to examine the interface of international faculty members' sense of cultural identity with reported involvement in campus internationalization. Table 13 reports the findings. Although no statistically significant association exists in the data, of the 73 respondents who answered both questions, 52 faculty participants (71%) who report that they have an integrated sense of cultural identity also report that they are involved in campus internationalization activities.

Table 13

Reported Level of Cultural Adaptation Compared to Involvement in Campus Internationalization

Involvement in campus internationalization	Fully identify with home culture	Fully identify with U.S. culture	Best described as a mix of the two cultures	Not comfortable identifying with either	Total in each category
Yes	8	6	52	1	67
No	1	0	5	0	6
Total	9	6	57	1	73

Summary of Quantitative Findings

Research Question 1 sought to investigate the sense of cultural identity that survey participants reported, using Berry's four (1997) levels of cultural adaptation as a guide. A strong majority of all survey respondents (79%) indicate alignment with an integrated sense of cultural identity. The association of cultural identity to age ranges is statistically significant and of medium effect size. International faculty participants through age 60 years are most associated with the integrated identity. The highest effect size and significance score were noted when examining the association between an

integrated identity and the number of years lived in the United States. An integrated identity is most strongly noted as the primary selection in those international faculty who have been living in the United States for somewhere between 11-30 years. Other possible important associations in the data for potential review are the following: (a) the association between levels of cultural identity and home region of the world, (b) the association between levels of cultural identity and having lived away from one's home country before the age of 18 years, and (c) the association between levels of cultural identity and length of time teaching in post-secondary institutions, either in the United States or abroad.

A total of 67 participants reported ways that they encourage an international perspective in their work at the university, representing 92% of the respondents to the question ($n = 73$). The four most popular methods employed (a) were giving personal examples of living abroad or of working with people from different cultures; (b) using personal examples from their work in their discipline that provide an international perspective; (c) sharing insights with colleagues or students on how to work with people from their home culture or people who are, in general, different from oneself; and (d) using course materials in class that provide an international perspective. In addition, survey respondents provided information regarding what actions could be taken to encourage increased involvement by international faculty members in internationalization activities. Of the 72 participants who responded, 64 respondents (89% of the subset) felt that additional support for internationalization initiatives and activities could be provided to encourage increased involvement. The four most prevalent themes were (a) that it would be empowering if the potential contribution of their cultural background towards

campus internationalization efforts were acknowledged; (b) that training to address discrimination, racism, and/or cultural sensitivity towards international faculty members needs to be promoted and provided, (c) that increasingly explicit support from university leadership for internationalization activities is needed; and (d) that they could benefit from training on ways to be involved in developing intercultural competence across the university campus. Interestingly, even though there are no statistically significant associations in the data, 52 respondents (71% of the subset) of international faculty reporting involvement in campus internationalization also claim an integrated sense of cultural identity.

The quantitative analysis investigating any association between whether international faculty complete their graduate education in the United States or not and their involvement with comprehensive campus internationalization showed a statistically significant association and at least a medium effect size. A reasonable conclusion from this data is that international faculty who have attended graduate school in the United States may have a higher interest in involvement in campus internationalization activities.

Finally, in a simple comparison between total numbers of participants and participants who indicate involvement in internationalization on various demographic variables, a few observations were noted in the descriptive data. The data showed fewer men than women reporting involvement in internationalization, comparatively fewer individuals from the age range of 60-69 years, less involvement reported from international faculty from the region of Western Europe, and less involvement reported from STEM faculty members. These data may point to possible areas of special

consideration regarding involvement or particular emphasis in recruitment of international faculty members to internationalization efforts.

Qualitative Data

By design, the qualitative element of this study was larger than the quantitative, comprised of four open-ended survey questions, options for providing additional qualitative information on two quantitative questions, and three transcribed focus group interviews. These interviews were each one hour in length and explored three of the research questions in depth. Results of data analysis will again be presented as aligned to research questions. Quotes from the data are included with unedited grammatical or punctuation errors, in respect of the multilingual speakers and writers contributing to the study and not wanting to risk changing their voices or their meaning in any way. The 11 focus group participants are referred to by their pseudonyms, which were listed along with their relevant demographic information in Chapter 3 (see Table 1). Survey respondents (SR) are referred to by a survey participant number used in the data analysis, from SR1 through SR75.

Research Question 1

How do international faculty describe their current sense of cultural identity and its development?

The first question area for the focus groups, as well as the first two open-ended survey questions, addressed Research Question 1, which explored how international faculty describe their current sense of cultural identity and its development. Several individuals interpreted this survey question in a way that did not address cultural identity

as defined in the survey, either answering the question by explaining where they had lived in a short personal biography, or by giving examples of characteristics of their home cultures versus characteristics of the United States. As an example, SR40 commented, “In many respects there are the cultures of the US and my home country are similar. But there [are] considerable differences in the education systems. There are both advantages and disadvantages when those systems are compared.” Another example is the following as a description of cultural identity from SR51:

I lived for many years in 3 very different countries . . . I picked up many cultural things from different cultures. For example, in Eastern Europe, it might be a big offense not to call people by their first and middle name, while in the Middle East even children call their teachers by the first name. In the US, this could be decided between the people talking. I adapt to how people address me and try to mirror their approach.

The majority of survey participants, however, did discuss their sense of cultural identity and its development in their responses to the prompts, as did all 11 focus group participants. Five themes emerged from the data: (a) mixed or merged identities, (b) ties to home, (c) insights into adaptation, (d) limitations to cultural identity development, and (e) the primacy of language and food. Each theme will be discussed in turn with examples from the data to provide thick description of the findings.

Mixed or Merged Identities. International faculty often describe their cultural identities using the term “mixed identity” or conveying the idea of having one. For example, SR55 explained, “I identify fully with both cultures, am proud and enjoy

aspects of both.” SR35 related, “I am a mix of the two cultures. Hopefully this mix contains the best aspects of each of the two cultures.” “I am definitely a mix of the two” echoed SR18. “In reality,” SR63 pondered, “I live with 2 different cultures like living in 2 different worlds at the same time.” Similarly, focus group participant Mateo explained, “I think that I have one foot in each place.” “I feel integrated,” SR8 stated, adding, “Individuals like me feel like in a state of limbo.”

“I think my home country is the core of my being and my outlook,” SR48 shared, “but I have absorbed parts of every facet of American life as well.” “I’m a cultural hybrid,” concluded SR23. Focus group participant Damir elaborated on the personal element of his cultural identity as contrasted with his professional identity, sharing that “I think I’m blended at the present, acquiring some of the things that are good or bad here and still retaining things that are good or bad back where I came from.” Another focus group participant, Veronica, quipped in her survey entry, “I feel very [Western European nationality] when I’m in the U.S. and very American when I’m in [home country in Western Europe].” She elaborated further, “I feel ‘balanced’ in the sense that I see the good and the bad in both cultures and consider myself lucky to be a part of both.” “I am both worlds, really,” declared focus group participant Joy, in a comment echoed by Lan in her survey entry, who explained, “I identify myself a member of both countries.” Lan expounded on this in the focus group interview, saying, “I’m kind of in the middle.” Then she commented, “Recently there have been some . . . tension between the two countries. There were a lot of words thrown . . . It felt hurtful because I felt like I identify with both sides of the countries.” Additionally, in a focus group, Alina shared, “I really feel equal in both identities,” explaining that “In the questionnaire . . . I kind of identified as both . .

. I'm seeing this mostly recently as being split into two identities, which means having an absolute comfort of living in both countries without any problems.”

Several respondents, however, went farther in their descriptions, describing their integrated identities in language that connotes a merging of the two cultures. “I think of myself as someone who is an embodiment of multiple cultures,” SR38 explained, while SR41 divulged, “I share values from both countries and don’t feel like there’s a clear boundary anymore.” SR71 pondered the following about her cultural identity:

I would describe myself as international - intercultural. I still identify with many things present in my home culture, but, in time, I have also adopted some of the values/norms/behaviours more characteristic of the US culture. I probably wouldn't describe it as a mix of the two cultures, though; in my perception, it is more of a new, different set of values/behaviours rather than just replacing some old values with new ones from a different culture.

Focus group participant Nadia first agreed that she was “kind of in the middle.” Then she altered her position with the following:

I would say kind of not really in the middle between the cultures. I would say something different . . . I do identity with where I’m from, but it’s kind of a mixed feeling . . . It’s not about accepting or not accepting [the new culture]. It’s about, you know, there are some things about me that are different, that are culturally related to where I come from or where I lived before. But there are also some things that obviously since I’ve been living here I accepted and are now part of me and are completely different from what I was before.

Gabriel, a participant in a different focus group, concluded comments on his cultural identity by declaring, “Just think of us as chameleons.” This kind of cultural identification is in “constant change,” explained SR9, while SR17 forwarded that it is “dynamic and not static.”

Many of these same survey respondents and focus group participants, as well as others, also considered the difficulties inherent in having a mixed or merged cultural identity. “I think an example of a change in your cultural identity is when you go back to your home country and start to feel uncomfortable,” said SR22, explaining that the discomfort comes “When you think that you could never go back to live among those who exhibit certain behaviors that are part of the culture.” SR22 then provided the example of differences in perspectives on punctuality between her home country and the United States. SR18 shared that “going back to my home country to visit is a surreal experience,” adding, “Common society standards are different, and I find myself perplexed at some of the things my family and friends will do routinely or without even thinking.” Echoing these ideas, SR44 declared, “When I visit my home country, it does not feel anymore my home country.”

Focus group participant Nadia shared that “for a very long time” visiting her home country once or twice a year for several weeks “was kind of like having the double life.” She explained that she lived in the United States and had friends and a full life here; then, after returning home and having a 2-day acclimation period, she lived in her home country “for a month, and it’s like I never left.” However, she explained, as time went on, the “way of life evolves,” and “at some point . . . I want to say six or seven years ago, I

realized that I don't know the rules there anymore, and I know the rules here better. And it was weird, to be honest."

Responding to Nadia, on a similar theme, Lan described her experience in this way: "It does feel like you're becoming more of a stranger when you go home. There will be some things that is happening that you grew up . . . with [that] you feel you are becoming unfamiliar with." She then provided the example of differences in the amount of traffic on the roads and with adherence to driving rules, saying that she will no longer drive in her home country at all, relying instead on parents for transportation when visiting. Lan also shared how "weird" it is to celebrate major holidays with family when living on the other side of the world from them, with a large time difference and while at work when "nobody knows what is going on in your life." Lan reflected that, in addition to this difficulty, some minor holidays "you just don't really celebrate all . . . that much. It . . . does feel a little bit sad . . . when you think about it."

A few faculty members went so far as to say that they no longer belong anywhere. SR54 explained, "It almost feels that I am the foreigner when I go home, and I am the foreigner when I am in the U.S.," a statement repeated almost verbatim by SR57. Focus group participants discussed this as well. Veronica forwarded the thought, "It's just that in the way I do things, in the way I see things, sometimes I feel foreign in both places." Joy said that she does not feel fully American because she still feels a strong connection to home, but when she is at home, she is told that she does not sound or look the same anymore. She concluded, "So it feels like I'm not really also completely home or completely myself." Gabriel stated, "I'm a foreigner regardless of where I go in this world. I just stick out." SR64 explained her cultural identity in this way:

I would describe my culture as just my own, no label. It is not that im NOT happy with my home culture or that i reject it, it is just that I just dont agree or identify with it anymore . . . As far as identification, there is no opportunities anymore that allow me to practice things that were part of my culture . . . As for not identifying as an American, I feel as like a person who joined a party late and missed all the jokes. It is hard to adopt new practices that you necessarily cant relate or have a ‘traditions’ attachment or something that you didnt share with a loved one or family member before.

In conclusion, describing cultural identity as a mixed, merged, or integrated phenomenon was common in the qualitative data collected on Research Question 1. In addition, several faculty members also shared difficulties inherent in having such an integrated cultural identity.

Ties to Home. International faculty also described their identities largely in terms of what links them to their home countries and cultures. Throughout the qualitative data, faculty members shared elements of their cultural identities that are formed by their home culture. Participants also described strategies that they use for maintaining connection to their home countries and cultures. Examples of this from the data follow.

SR7 indicated that “The way I conduct myself on a daily basis stems from how I was raised in [my home] culture.” SR27 forwarded, “I still maintain a lot of my culture when it comes to food, habits, daily activities, raising kids, education,” adding that “On top of this, my childhood bond with friends and classmates is still intact but mostly on social media.” Echoing this idea, SR30 explained “At home, I live very similarly with

how I would at my home country,” elaborating with examples of language, food, and that her “close friends are from my home country that have also moved to the US.” Many international faculty continue life in a way that maintains strong ties to home, as SR43 described:

My daily habits have not changed significantly since I moved to the States. On basic terms, I still eat the same food, wear the same clothes, listen to the same music and have similar regular routines I had when I lived in [home country.] I maintain a strong cultural bond with my country of origin and I do not feel ‘americanized.’

SR43 stated, “I have been exposed to both cultures and still prefer a more ‘[home region]’ way of living.”

In a focus group discussion, Alejandro asked the group to agree that we tend to see ourselves as the way we were in our late 20s or 30s, no matter our age. He then added that this tendency “spills into our cultural identity, because I feel as [home country nationality] as when I left, when I first came 30 years ago.” Alejandro shared the myriad ways that he stays connected to home, including listening to the radio, reading newspapers, following sports and politics, and supporting young researchers from the region. Supporting this idea, SR59 pondered the following:

It is hard to change cultural identity when you are born and brought up in another culture. Although I lived in the US for more than 30 years, I still associate with my home culture, celebrate the cultural holidays, love the food that my mom used to make, have friends and relatives from that culture . . . Since I decided to maintain touch with my home culture, it was a conscious decision.

In another conscious move, SR37 shared, “I still recognize my country’s holidays and introduce myself as a native of my home country. I also proudly display my country flag on my vehicles.” Focus group participant Veronica considered unconscious loyalties in this comment: “So when I think of where my heart is . . . it doesn’t happen very often, but there was a soccer match between [my home country] and the U.S., and I, we were, like, [home country nationality] all the way.”

For some participants, an interplay exists between who individuals are in their U.S. environments and the strength of ties to home. Focus group participant Mateo noted the following in his survey response: “I wanted to assimilate from the moment I came to the US but at the same time text my sister every day in [home country], was very close to my parents until their deaths and still communicate regularly with several close friends in [home country].” In a different focus group, Nadia shared the insight that although neither she nor her family practiced the common religion in her home country, she began to celebrate those religious holidays once living in the United States. She expounded on the observation, “And honestly, I started to celebrate not because of a religion, but because of tradition, when I came here, because it kind of reminds me of home. And I also . . . realized then how different that is.” Thus, maintaining ties to home is a crucial element to many international faculty in their cultural identities.

Insights into Adaptation. Adaptation to life in the United States was an expected positive conclusion to living in the United States for some international faculty study participants. “I am an immigrant who moved to live a better life elsewhere, and have embraced that life,” declared SR24. Similarly, SR29 shared, “I love the American culture

and totally embraced it,” while SR68 explained, “I wanted to assimilate from the moment I came to the US.” A few others forwarded that assimilation was not an option, instead saying that it was “almost expected” (SR2) or that there was “no choice but to adapt” (SR51). In answer to the question regarding what brought changes to one’s sense of cultural identity, SR11 simply answered “Adaptation.” She then expanded her initial answer as follows:

It is hard for one to choose to make a new country their home and not embrace some of the values. I see it as additive rather than "either/or". That is, this new culture added to my repertoire, which, in turn, helps to understand even other cultures that are so different than the ones I grew up in or embraced through immigration.

Regarding changes to his cultural identity, SR59 shared, “I did not feel there was much of a transition for me in maintaining the American way of life and at the same time, keeping my home cultural identity. I feel the US is the home where other cultures can be exercised and thrive.”

Research results reveal that adaptation to the United States by international faculty study participants was heavily influenced by (a) having family in the United States, (b) joining new communities, (c) curiosity and exposure to different cultural values and practices, (d) formal ties to the United States and its institutions, and (e) time and age of arrival. In discussing cultural identity, some international faculty also identified the value they received from adaptation to the United States.

Marriage and raising a family in the United States play a substantive role in cultural adaptation to the international faculty members in this research study. Survey

participants made declarative statements about the impact of marriage or family on their adaptation throughout the data. “Watching my own children grow and the role culture played in their maturing,” was the impetus of adaptation for SR32, while “marrying somebody from the dominant culture” was a major point of influence for SR46. SR2 explained, “While I still consider myself as [home country nationality] and introduce myself as such, my family is fully integrated within the United States,” and SR23 related, “I would describe myself as [home country nationality] but my family as American.” In a focus group, Veronica expressed that her relationship to American culture when she arrived as a younger woman to the United States was “very different than now that I have husband, house, kids.” In addition, focus group participant Walter explained that he “married an American, and [we] have children, which I think is a big major shift in terms of who you marry and if you have children that are part of American culture,” later adding, “in terms of identity, I think immersion in US society comes from marriage and kids and wanting them to be integrated.” Responding to Walter, Alejandro completely agreed, expressing that “having kids born in the US is sort of like the breakpoint when . . . you start thinking, ‘Why, I’d better invest in this community!’”

In addition to the impact of having family in the United States, international faculty members also discussed the influence of joining new communities on their adaptation. Focus group participant Joy stated in her survey entry that “spending a long time in the United States and integrating myself in the community here” influenced her adaptation, whereas SR17 explained that for adaptation to transpire, you “learn and grow and become a member of new communities.” SR23 and SR54 discussed “interacting” and “interactions,” respectively, with different people as a cause of their adaptation. SR31

provided “church and volunteer activity” as the reasons for her adaptation. Two responses gave insight into how this happens. Focus group member Nadia related the following observation: “I have many people that I’m still very close to in my home country, and . . . a number of people that I’m close to here in the US. After some time, I could see the changes in my thinking compared to them.” SR28 shared her thoughts on her adaptation as well, which are quoted here in part:

It is hard to judge which factors bring the changes, but I expect that it was the relationships I have formed here were initial contributors of change . . . I was fortunate enough to be welcomed by Americans who were happy to have me here, did their best to help me. Many of them are still friends to this day.

Of course, as individuals join new communities and build relationships, they are exposed to cultural differences. “Curiosity about how things are done in the US” encouraged the adaptation of SR41. SR62 provided explanation of her adaptation process in the following statement: “Similarities between both the cultures where I could see the strengths helped brought change while dissimilarities where I could see the wisdom of one versus the other culture dissuaded the changes.” Similarly, focus group participant Lan explained in her survey response, “I guess I am quick to embrace differences and ready to change when I see change is for better.” SR35 provided insight into her adaptation through explaining that “I like to evolve as a person and try to learn and keep what makes me better. Each culture allowed me to experience different things, and I like to keep what I learned from these experiences.”

Formal relationships to the United States and U.S. institutions fostered the cultural adaptation of other international faculty. Some participants mentioned becoming

a U.S. citizen in their responses, such as SR24, who stated, “I am a US citizen and regard myself as American as anyone else born in this country.” SR25 explained, “Just like all other immigrants that came here, I identify myself as an American citizen who immigrated from another country.” SR60, who holds dual citizenship with her home country, expressed, “My home is in the USA and while I acknowledge my roots I feel American first and foremost.” Many focus group participants relayed that they were naturalized citizens. SR6 did not mention citizenship, instead framing identity in terms of location of residence: “I identify as someone who grew up in [region], came to the US for graduate education, and stayed here.” The relationship to the United States through citizenship or at least through residence influences adaptation. “I try to integrate US cultural values as I was welcomed by this country and I owe it gratitude and identification with basic cultural values, even if they do not fully align with my home country’s cultural identity,” revealed SR57. Citizenship also fostered civic engagement for some international faculty, which facilitated adaptation. “Once I got citizenship,” focus group participant Damir considered, “I must say then I start feeling that I also owe something to society in terms of . . . I care more about society than I . . . cared before becoming a citizen.” Alejandro relayed that he applied for citizenship because he wanted the right to vote in his new home, adding how gratifying it has been to call representatives in Congress, describing it as “a piece of satisfaction.” SR28 explained this position well:

I live, work, and vote here, and I am affected by people, policies, and institutions here. I want to make the world a better place, however small my contribution may be. Change typically starts local. This was how I felt. I want a better world, and a

better home country, and a better America, and a better [state], and a better [city], and better [university name]. So this notion of interconnectedness was always there.

Another major influence on adaptation of international faculty in the study was studying and working at institutions in the United States. “The education degrees received and working experiences from the United States added great value to my home cultural identity,” said SR19. SR33 agreed, explaining “Before I came to the US, I had only one home country perspective. After studying and working in the US, I have more than one perspectives because I have learned from students and colleagues with different cultural background.” In fact, the international environment at the university has been another boon to the experience of living and working here. Mateo shared in a focus group that he “did not feel that the fact that I was a foreigner impair my advances in my profession,” also describing how he enjoyed the company of colleagues from around the globe in his work at the university. Bingwen, in an entirely different field, also conveyed his observation that working in the United States allows one the chance to “communicate with lots of people who are also immigrants,” which gives opportunities for further cultural growth.

Finally, quite a few study participants mentioned the role that time plays in adjustment to a new culture. “I think the time living in the new culture has determined the changes in terms of my cultural identity,” shared SR9. SR53 explained, “I have lived in the USA for 44 of my 65 years. This is the culture I have spent the most time in.” Similarly, SR56 shared that she “live in the US for over 40 years which has great influence on changing the sense of culture identity.” After 46 years, says SR29, “my

behavior and daily interactions are fully American.” “I came to the USA when I was 22 and very quickly knew I would stay here all my life,” revealed SR60, adding “America is where I was able to grow and bloom. This country allowed me to be who I am.”

Individuals in all three focus groups also mentioned the influence of time on their adaptation, whether naming it directly or in discussing a change that happened as a result of time passing. “It took a while to get where I am today,” shared Veronica in her survey entry. She also reiterated the observation in a focus group, conveying that when she first arrived, everything from the United States seemed better, then everything from her home country appeared better. For the last several years she has lived in the United States, she related, “I feel like I’m fine with both—that the two identities and approaches complement each other instead of fight with each other.”

In summary, international faculty participants point to a variety of factors as influencers of their adjustment to living in the United States. Some international faculty also shared that living in this new environment has provided enriched value to their lives. SR22 concluded, “I think positive experiences, time, and the degree of immersion in the new culture changes your cultural identity.” Adding to this, SR27 articulated, “Living my daily life in the US, dealing with Americans on a daily basis, having a career, establishing friendship and a family with kids that go to American schools enriched my American life.” “Living in the US indeed brings you a new perspective,” said SR17.

Limitations to Adaptation and Discussing Cultural Identity. A few international faculty described limitations to their adaptation. Age at arrival was the reason for only partial adjustment according to some participants, as illustrated in this

statement by SR17: “Probably moving to a different country later in life has less impact on change in cultural identity.” SR16 explained the problem in this way, in a different opinion from those faculty who felt that time in the United States aided their adaptation:

Although I have spent a similar numbers of years in my home country (28) and in the USA (28) and I have gone through different experiences (positive and negative), I have matured, adjusted to a new culture, adapted to new habits, but I have not changed my sense of cultural identity. Probably I moved to the States when I was too old to change my cultural identity.

“Certain things are hard to change,” mused SR38, “views on relationship between individuals and the community, family relationships, views on politics.”

A few faculty members expressed limitations concerning their cultural identity development particularly in terms of not wanting to identify with the United States. Although these did not represent primary themes, they are presented for negative case analysis. “America has a less than ideal identity worldwide and my own cultural identity is preferable,” shared SR37. Focus group participant Walter explained in his survey entry, “Other than being more service-oriented, American life has nothing to offer in terms of replacing core values I grew up with in my home culture.”

Finally, when discussing cultural identity development, several faculty members claimed no cultural identity or do not feel bound to any particular cultural identity. SR58 explained, “I don’t think about this and I don’t discuss my cultural identity. I feel I fit well both in my home country and in the U.S.” “I would describe my culture as just my own, no label,” SR64 indicated, echoed by SR47 in the answer, “trying to be cultural independent.” SR2 explained, “While I still consider myself as a [home nationality] and

introduce myself as such, my family is fully integrated within the United States. I am not sure who I am culturally.” In a longer, illustrative answer, SR1 described his thoughts about cultural identity:

I have a slight accent when I speak so even though I have been living in the U.S. for 10 years, the conversation always begins with "Where are you from?" followed by "I could hear an accent so I figured you were not from the U.S." Culture/Citizenship is currently defined by our place of birth, not the place where we live. I don't define my cultural identity. To explain who I am, I just tell my journey. I have trouble defining myself as 50% this or that. I am just a 100% who I am and so a little bit of every place I have lived in.

Primacy of Language and Food. Throughout the qualitative data, in both the survey and the focus group interviews, the themes of language and food are reiterated as of central importance to cultural identity, with a high representation of codes in the data. Each will be discussed in turn below.

As can be seen in the final quote of the previous section, language may be equated in a communicative exchange with cultural identity itself. International faculty in this study mentioned ideas related to language that permeate both adaptation to a new culture and maintaining ties to another culture. In addition, being multilingual contributes to a mixed or merged identity. Finally, language features significantly in the experience of being an international faculty member.

The frequency of or importance of using English were discussed by study participants. Focus group participant Mateo, in discussing his family's demographics,

stated, “So English, of course, is language at home.” SR21 explained that “English is the only language of business used in my workplace.” SR18, in discussing what brought changes to her cultural identity, considered the following:

Language was a big one. Although I have Spanish speaking friends, 90% of my daily interactions are now in English. It's shaped the way I think, the way I write and the way I dream. However, should Spanish music come on the radio, for example, I will immediately feel a connection I don't have with English-lyrics/sound.

SR2 eliminated vestiges of a home language accent by studying intonation and phrases used on television, further explaining that assimilation in language was not an option as she adjusted to life in the United States: “Adults made it clear to me (on multiple occasions) that speaking and acting like an American would benefit me in the long run.”

For other international faculty, using their home language now provides a strong sense of attachment to their home culture. In discussing the changes to cultural identity experienced after living in the United States, SR1 shared, “All aspects changed more or less, except for the comfort in speaking in my native tongue.” “I identify with the warmth character of people in my home country, with the [country's] language, with the way of speaking,” shared SR9. Echoing this affection, Mateo said, “I love to be with other people speaking [home language].”

Study participants also discussed language when considering their mixed or merged senses of cultural identity. As focus group participant Joy mused on her cultural identity, she explained, “just in the way I talk is different, like, Americans say I have an accent, but then [people from home country] also say I have an accent. So the way I talk

is influenced by both.” SR44 discussed his merged cultural identity in his survey responses, saying “I would say that the best thing that came from my life in [home country] and in the US is the possibility to fully appreciate [home country]-language and English-language culture.”

Language also features prominently in international faculty participants’ discussion of work at the university. “I am a bit self-conscious of my accent so I sometimes abstain from participating in leadership/service activities,” forwarded SR6. Several faculty members shared how they handle student reactions to their accents in class. Focus group participant Bingwen related how he learned to manage this struggle. “And I always just mention . . . my accent is very strong when I speaking, when I speak English,” he said, explaining that a former professor encouraged him to point out to students that if they tried to speak in his language, they would also have a very strong accent. “If they have some difficult in communicating with me during the teaching, I would encourage them to come to me and talk to me,” he explained. Regarding any difficulty his students face with the redundancy of some terminology in his course, Damir tells his students, “Rest assured . . . I do have accent but some of this have nothing to do with my accent,” commenting further that “I think it helps tremendously with communication.” Alina believes that the differences in the way English is used by international faculty benefits the students. She elucidated, “Because the way I talk, sometimes with all the casual mistakes and . . . kind of the phrasing of the thought is actually showing my way of thinking. A lot of judgment sometimes come from cultural experience.”

Study participants often mentioned language in the same phrases as food, which also had a large number of codes in the qualitative data. “I identify fully with both cultures, am proud and enjoy aspects of both,” SR55 discussed, adding “Good example is in the foods I enjoy, friends, and use of language.” Providing a different angle, when considering what impacts her levels of adaptation to the United States, SR12 shared that “My language and my favorite food limit my change.” Food was mentioned in terms of maintaining ties to home culture and as a manner of adaptation to new communities through sharing food from home cultures. In addition, examples of mixed or merged identities sometimes featured examples regarding food.

Many individuals who said that their daily lives were not different than they had lived in their home countries offered food as example of a way that nothing had changed. “On basic terms, I still eat the same food,” SR43 stated. “My home culture is part of my being; the way I interact with people, the food I love,” SR16 said. On the other hand, SR64 discussed cultural identity by simply sharing that “it is difficult to cook and eat authentic food as I do not have time to cook and is impossible and expensive to find ingredients.” Focus group participant Gabriel manages that quandary in his own way, saying “I’m still into [regional] food . . . I grow lots of vegetables. [Home country] vegetables.”

To a lesser extent, study participants shared how they use food to connect with new communities in the United States or to share U.S. culture with friends visiting from home. “I invite friends to enjoy the food of my native country,” shared SR46. Focus group participant Bingwen likes to “share our country’s food with others,” describing how he brings a regional food specific to a regional holiday for his colleagues or

American friends to try. SR11 uses food to share her cultural identity with others, which she described in this way:

I feel I share some of beliefs and behaviors of both cultures (when referring to countries). I think food is the best example. I can make a typical meal of my home country and share the history and context of that meal with friends as I can make a typical [state of current residence] dinner to introduce visitors to our state and at that point in time identify myself with [state of current residence].

International faculty also used food to illustrate their mixed or merged cultural identities. SR38 revealed that she had lived in four countries over her life so far, and “I love food from those 4 countries and to a great extent can identify with people with those culture backgrounds.” Joy explained in her focus group that she considers herself a “true African-American.” One of her examples was that “I cook both African and American food in my house.” SR48 shared that he can “cook barbecue like a southerner,” whereas SR28 placed the role of food in her cultural identity in this way:

One of the areas to observe the cultural mix is food. The way I eat and cook reflects a true mix. I enjoy the authentic cuisine of my home country and cook such dishes often. I also enjoy the traditional American and southern food (such as hamburgers, mac and cheese, barbecue, collards, cornbread, biscuits), which I incorporated into my diet.

As will be discussed in sections to come, the role of language and food also emerges in discussions of comprehensive internationalization, although in a lesser extent than in this discussion of cultural identity, in which both featured prominently.

Table 14 presents the primary themes from the findings for Research Question 1 on the qualitative findings from analysis of the data from international faculty members on how they describe their cultural identity and how they describe its development.

Table 14

Themes of Cultural Identity and Its Development

Theme	Categorical codes
Mixed or Merged Identity	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Descriptions of a mixed or merged identity • Cultural identity not fixed • Merged identity challenging
Ties to Home	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Current cultural identity shaped by home culture • Strategies for maintaining connections to home
Insights into Adaptation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • How adaptation happens • Added value through living in a new place
Limitations to Adaptation and Discussing Cultural Identity	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Nature of limitations to adaptation • Not wanting to identify with the United States • Claiming no cultural identity or not bound by it
Primacy of Language and Food	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Influence of language • Role of food

Research Question 2

Regarding campus internationalization efforts, how are international faculty currently involved? What ideas do they have for further involvement?

One set of questions in the focus group interviews explored perspectives of international faculty on Research Question 2, which asks how international faculty are currently involved in campus internationalization efforts and ideas that they have for

being increasingly involved. To investigate this question through the survey, an initial list of possible internationalization activities was first provided for the participants to indicate any current activities. The data from this survey question has already been presented in the quantitative data findings. An open-ended opportunity to add any other activities was provided as well, and the content of those responses is included in these qualitative findings. After that, an open-ended follow-up question on the survey was included to probe if there were other ideas that the respondents have for campus internationalization but do not yet use. Thus, the findings for this research question are reported in two sections. First, the ways that focus group participants are involved in campus internationalization are presented, along with the extra activities that survey respondents reported in open-ended questions. Then, the ideas that focus group participants and survey respondents have for further involvement are reported together below. The findings also indicate whether themes emerge from focus groups alone or from the focus groups and open-ended survey responses as well.

Involvement in Campus Internationalization Activities. Four themes emerged in the qualitative data regarding how international faculty study participants are involved in university internationalization activities. The most frequently reported theme was the use of international or intercultural teaching and learning opportunities, discussed by all three focus groups and survey respondents. Multiple types of involvement were discussed. Research and service activities, the second-strongest theme, were presented in all three focus groups and by the survey respondents. Third, two focus groups discussed their previous involvement with co-curricular activities on campus. Even though this theme was not reported by survey respondents as a current internationalization activity, it

was heavily reported by survey respondents as a theme in ideas for internationalization on campus, discussed in the next section. Two focus groups and a few survey respondents also reported ways that they shared their home cultures with colleagues. Finally, at least one member of each of the three focus groups expressed that they were not aware of many internationalization efforts or thought that effort was missing or less than its previous levels. These themes are presented in depth below.

International faculty discussed multiple ways that they are involved in campus internationalization through their teaching activities as they encourage student engagement and learning. In class itself, faculty members teach international perspectives on issues in their field through course materials and examples. SR11 shared, “I use a bidirectional approach in my work of taking the lessons learned in another country and apply to the US and vice-versa.” Focus group participant Nadia shared in her survey response about how she compares “standard practices in [her] discipline in US and other countries,” and elaborating with a specific example from her field in her focus group interview. She concluded with this statement on the importance of providing an international comparative perspective in her courses: “So I feel that that’s something that I should include. I always include it.” SR50 provided “examples of work experience in another country relevant to [STEM field].” In a different focus group, Mateo described how he collaborates on a module in a colleague’s course, in which he presents on an international topic that he has expertise on because of lab research in his home country prior to his relocation to the United States.

International faculty also look for opportunities to share information about their home culture or cross-cultural life experiences with students. Focus group participant Lan

relayed that “I do see myself as an ambassador in a sense . . . to introduce my culture to more people.” Veronica works to help her students understand the difference that being from a country such as hers has on perspectives on international significance. She explained, “understanding where I’m coming from culturally and my background, it’s really important for them to know . . . how maybe other countries perceive . . . international collaboration and those kinds of things that I actually teach differently.” SR10 explained how she brings the strengths of both collectivism-oriented cultures and individualistic cultures to her classroom, teaching the “value of work together and the importance of peer support” while also promoting “being clear about individual contributions to projects and holding ourselves and others accountable . . . when working in a project as a team.” Also, regarding teaching students to appreciate cultural differences, Joy mused, “I love showing students a different perspective and having respect for differences,” adding the following:

So that's something that I do on purpose with my students, is showing them a different way of thinking that, you know, would be completely out there, but giving them the reasons as to why this might work, and in what situation and why. Just because it's different from yours doesn't mean that it's bad, right? Or, or any less effective than your methods.

In addition to sharing cross-cultural insights such as these, international faculty promote an exchange of experiences among students who are culturally diverse. Nadia related in the survey that she encourages “exchange of personal experiences among students from different backgrounds.” During her focus group interview, she further explained that she does this through semester-long small groups in which students work

on case-based studies. She feels that the groups would work well whether or not she created groups of students with mixed backgrounds, and that the benefit of doing so is chiefly in that they “do learn about each other and about the culture just naturally because they communicate that way.” Gabriel, who purposefully employs diverse groupings in his class, feels that groups do learn more, or differently, because of student differences. He expressed that what is “important is everyone brings a diversity of thoughts in the projects that they end up working on, the way they analyze things, the kinds of way they think about things,” adding that this sort of experience mirrors the real-world working environment his students will enter.

Other teaching and learning opportunities discussed by international faculty included promoting cultural exchange by inviting international speakers to class, facilitating reciprocal exchange agreements between universities in their home countries and their U.S. institution, and participating in study abroad programs. Alina expressed that she had led two study abroad trips to her home country and discussed the primacy of the study abroad experience in promoting international and intercultural understanding, especially as a way for an international faculty member to share their culture. As an international faculty member leading a trip, she shared that “you don’t really differentiate between what exactly you want to tell the students or the community or how to present your culture,” but that the experience itself would lead the students to explore, ask, and seek understanding on the topics that interested them. Lan conveyed that she had been given a rich opportunity to help prepare students in her discipline for a study abroad trip. She encouraged students about the “growth” that living abroad had “instilled” in her, and that she found she benefitted “immensely by living in a different country.”

Finally, study participants in all three focus groups alluded to or directly mentioned the perspective that simply having international faculty members as teachers during their tenure at university enriched their academic experience. “I’m proud to share my identity with my students,” said Lan. “I always tell them where I’m from, and some of them do have an interest and come to try to speak [my language] with me, ask me questions about where I’m from, the culture,” adding that she truly welcomes this type of exchange. Damir shared how he presents information about his life and career trajectory at the beginning of new classes and introduces his cultural background to students through sharing a typical sweet treat from his home region. Alejandro reported participating in student events in which he presented similar information as Damir about his background and career, explaining that he chose purposefully to participate in order to educate and encourage students who also might have a less-than-typical trajectory for their discipline. Alina forwarded the benefit of simply being in class with faculty members who have diverse backgrounds. “Most of us are engaged with students,” she said. “And the fact that we’re here speaking in our kind of broken English, messing up words, and we talk to them, and we talk to them in a particular way in the classroom, I think this is important.” She then quipped, “they can really tolerate anybody when they go abroad if they can tolerate me as the instructor.”

The second most-prevalent theme in this data set regards research and service activities. Four different focus group participants mentioned international research activities, such as having projects in different parts of the world that inform research, using data from an international context, having international research topics, or having collaborators from around the world working on projects together. Bingwen described

how his international array of collaborators “are motivated by . . . each other’s insight for things.” Other survey respondents and focus group participants discussed internationally oriented service activities. SR63 reported that “for the past 5 years [he] has had 5 fellows from 5 different countries.” Alejandro relayed in a focus group interview and in the survey that actively supporting scholars from his region of the world through mentorship was a personal advocacy interest. Other service ideas mentioned in the survey and focus groups included mentoring international students and faculty and serving on committees or organizations with international reach, membership, or missions.

Focus group participants in two of the interviews widely discussed various co-curricular activities in which they had participated over the years at the university. Memories shared included the university’s international bazaar, which until recently was held actively each year and featured booths for international student groups, clubs, and offices on campus and also featured food and entertainment. Similarly, Gabriel remembered a one-time, university-wide event in which international faculty were invited to share about their home countries. Individuals involved in the medical and medical-research areas of campus recalled attending its international food festival. Mateo remembered a map at the festival on which the home countries of international faculty, students, and scholars at the school were identified, commenting that it provided a stunning visual representation of the considerable international diversity present in the large university entity. A similar food festival on a much smaller scale (a “potluck”) was described by Walter that is tied to an interdisciplinary, undergraduate course. Walter also mentioned the vibrant international mentoring effort on campus in which mentors are hired to purposefully help new international students, as well as the large number of

registered student organizations representing different countries around the world. Two faculty participants mentioned serving as faculty advisors for such clubs. Mateo mentioned having joined in discussions with a foreign-language cinema club, and that this contact had led to opportunities for students studying that language to interview him about his job.

A few focus group participants and survey respondents mentioned sharing their culture with their colleagues as an internationalization activity. Bingwen mentioned in his survey response that he likes to share traditional food from his home country with colleagues. Nadia described with detail in her focus group interview how the members of her lab came to embrace all holidays represented by the international members of the lab, including her own. She said that “we also had . . . the Americans within the group who are very interested in our cultures,” acknowledging that their interest was key because “not everybody’s ready to do that and not everybody’s happy about that.” However, for her group, everyone “thought it was fun.”

Finally, focus group participants expressed a lack of knowledge about current internationalization efforts on the campus, a desire to see former activities rekindled, or a dismay at the level of internationalization efforts. Alejandro conveyed that other than formal recruitment of foreign medical students to the university, he is “not aware of any internationalization efforts at [the university],” adding later that if they are present “I’m not a part of it.” Walter agreed that while there is considerable effort being invested in international student recruitment, there are active international student organizations, and that there may be some activities happening that “I’m totally not aware of,” there is also “not a lot of stuff faculty-related,” going on to discuss possible activities (discussed in an

upcoming section) that international faculty could be a part of for internationalization initiatives. One focus group repeatedly mentioned the loss of an “international house” on campus that could serve as a center for internationalization efforts. In another focus group, Lan shared how much it had meant to her to see an array of international flags flown in the student center when she had first arrived on campus, but that they were gone now, musing, “And I don't see them anymore . . . When I first came to [the university] that was very positive. I wanted to come up to a place where there was a lot of diversity, and diversity is being celebrated.” A focus group member, who wished to distance herself from the statement, expressed her opinion that the university “is trying on paper to become more international, then added the following thought: “But I don't think they're practically doing much about it. I really don't. I think it's on paper, and they want it to look that way. But when anything practical needs to be done, I don't think anything really happens.”

Table 15 summarizes the themes described regarding international faculty perspectives on their current involvement in campus internationalization activities.

Table 15

Themes of Current Involvement of International Faculty in Internationalization, in Order of Prevalence

Theme	Categorical codes
International and Intercultural Teaching and Learning Activities	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Using course materials that provide an international perspective • Finding opportunities to share information about home culture or cross-cultural experiences with students • Promoting group work among culturally diverse students • Promoting cultural exchanges

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Using identity as international faculty member to expand students' experience with diverse others
Research and Service Activities	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Incorporating international elements into research projects • Supporting international scholars • Mentoring international students and other faculty • Serving on committees or organizations with internationally related membership or missions
Co-curricular Activities	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Participating in international bazaars or food festivals • Advising or participating with clubs about international issues or for language practice
Ideas for Sharing Home Culture with Colleagues	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Sharing food and holidays
Comments on Lack of Awareness of or Lack of Internationalization Opportunities	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Lacking awareness of initiatives to participate in • Feeling there is little for faculty, and especially specifically for international faculty, to be involved in

Ideas for Further Involvement in Campus Internationalization. Participants in all three focus groups had many ideas to share regarding ways to further campus internationalization. Additionally, on an open-ended qualitative question probing for input, 16 survey respondents included ideas for internationalization that they do not currently use. Five themes emerged from the qualitative data analysis. Ideas for co-curricular activities was the most common category shared, found in all focus group transcripts and in multiple survey responses. Next were ideas for teaching and learning internationally and interculturally, which were also discussed in focus groups and

mentioned in survey responses. Third, in all data sources but especially in the focus groups, study participants shared ideas related to international students and scholars, ideas that could, to use the words of SR35, “create a more inclusive and supportive environment and culture that supports international students, postdocs, and scholars.” Only survey respondents mentioned ideas regarding research. Finally, some international faculty shared that they had no innovative ideas or that they had reservations about the ideas regarding internationalization being expressed in the focus groups or mentioned in the survey. Themes are discussed below with examples from the data sets.

Many international faculty had ideas for co-curricular activities that they felt would promote campus internationalization. Several, although varied in specific details, were related to the idea of an international fair. SR27 felt that an international day on campus in which food, dance groups, and cultural hobbies were shared was “the best way to introduce internationalization,” while SR64 felt that the focus of an annual international festival should rotate and that the university could “adopt a different international holiday based on % population workforce of that origin,” including “simulation workshops on international cultural behaviors” in the day. SR10 felt that each month could be designated for a rotating emphasis of “different parts of the world and their cultures.” SR59 was sure to add that festivals such as these should be funded and prioritized by the university itself, noting that “it used to be done before but has been limited or stopped for whatever reason.” SR43 commented that attendance at these sorts of events should be promoted for all. Focus group participant Bingwen thought that the university could sponsor different cultural activities such as the celebration of large regional holidays or sports games, which might involve the entire university community.

The following was Walter's perspective on an international festival, which emphasizes the importance of involving both international students and faculty:

I think there could be . . . social kind of things . . . a given country or region of the world that would be celebrated at a given time of year, and that students and then faculty from that area would combine, because the student and faculty thing is totally separate right now and . . . there's no integration . . . and so students seeing faculty kind of at home in their own social setting. Eating food from their country, I think, would help students' perspective and student-faculty relations.

In addition, Joy mentioned a willingness to be a faculty advisor for a student club focused on her region of the world, and Bingwen suggested in the survey that international clubs should be organized for different countries of the world, not only for students, but also for faculty. In the focus group interview, he elaborated on the faculty group that he is a part of with international faculty members from his home country, explaining that it gives faculty members both community and organization for collaborative efforts.

Finally, Walter forwarded the idea that "there is a paucity of debates or forums on issues . . . around the world, I mean, they're few and far between," sharing that he had attended a few, but that "there's other hotspots around the world that could have forums involving faculty that have . . . experience in those regions." Damir echoed that international faculty could also be invited to share about their life histories and work trajectories. In a different focus group, Gabriel mentioned a willingness to be called on to be a part of such a discussion about his home country or region. Three of the four members of the first focus group lamented the loss of a stand-alone international center

razed in recent years to construct a new residence hall, expressing that such a location would be the best choice for events such as food festivals, cultural events, international faculty visits, and academic debates on international issues, as well as new international student and scholar support.

Ideas for improving the internationalization of teaching and learning was the second-most discussed theme in the qualitative data. SR8 shared a conviction that studying another language should be part of the undergraduate core curriculum, adding “How else can you say that your university mission has a global perspective when your students are not exposed to different languages and cultures?” In the focus groups, Mateo forwarded that international faculty, especially those who speak in-demand global or critical languages, could partner with language faculty as native-language speakers to support language learning, contributing to their efforts.

Continuing with ideas of encouraging internationalization at home, in her survey entry, Veronica commented that building “more understanding of how important global competence is in our interconnected world” is a needed emphasis for the university. Expanding on this in her focus group, Veronica had much to share regarding the need for an international perspective in teaching and learning, not only regarding languages, but throughout the curriculum. She expressed a concern for a focus on the local region instead of global issues, conveying an observation that individuals will frequently think only about civil rights in the context of the United States, for example, instead of taking a global perspective. She continued as follows:

So there’s definitely need, I would say, for more international perspective, or just the realization that we can learn from others and others can learn from us . . . it

goes both ways. And there's a lot of the problems, issues . . . people face in their daily struggles . . . these are issues that are similar across the world.

Alina agreed that an international perspective should be provided to students, but she prefers that it come about in a more “impulsive” way, such as through a dialogue between international faculty members and students. She gave the example of a type of governmental system that she lived through during her early years in her home country, and said that she would prefer to interact with students informally about it, with responses to curiosity such as, “What do you need to know? I lived it; I know it.” In his focus group, Bingwen considered the benefits of establishing open communication with his students, saying “And if you are very open-minded, if you'd like to just share your feelings, share your mind set...they would like to come to you [and talk].”

Contrasting internationalization efforts that happen at home such as these rather than a focus on going abroad, SR11 relayed the perspective that traveling abroad is not necessary for gaining international and intercultural exposure, saying that we should instead be about “valuing what we have here. I think students and faculty need to . . . have more exposure to different cultures that are right here in our own backyard.”

However, several other faculty participants did mention study abroad as an idea for further internationalization, including Gabriel and Joy, who mentioned in her survey entry a specific idea for international faculty to take students to their country of origin. Alina, in her focus group, took the study abroad idea a step further, recommending that the university set up study abroad bases in countries from where students could take classes from instructors while abroad and also explore, possibly even multiple countries or regions, from that base. An extended stay in a country is “really something that can

shake up the [university] community,” Alina expressed, because living somewhere “makes a better experience.”

A third theme concerning ideas for campus internationalization regards international students and scholars. Alejandro indicated a willingness to help with recruitment of individuals from his area of the world, then explained why he perceives a diverse university as critical. He commented that while gender and racial diversity are already seen as necessary, “national origin and culture, upbringing, is also . . . beneficial because it brings different perspectives to solve the problem,” giving an example of how the practical resourcefulness of his home culture is useful “not just in the classroom, but also in the research enterprise.” Also highlighting the importance of international student diversity for a campus, Joy described an experience she had in her undergraduate education at a university in the United States where a student exchange was set up with a partner university. She served as a volunteer to befriend and host the visiting students and shared how much impact the experience had on her. She also described formal engagement the students had while In the United States with the university community, saying “they had . . . little talks and symposiums where the students were sharing their experiences and we had opportunities to ask them questions.” Gabriel suggested that the university’s current international student population “could be given an opportunity to present about their culture to the larger [university] audience,” and Joy agreed that it would be beneficial, expressing the following:

I agree that . . . giving students space to share their culture will help them feel like my culture matters, my background matters . . . my input matters, and I don't just

have to disappear and become completely American and learn from Americans.

Americans also want to learn from me.

The focus group did also discuss the problems of allowing students to speak for an entire country, or expecting them to do so, and agreed that mitigating actions would need to be taken to make sure that it was clear that an individual's point of view was being presented.

In addition to ways in which the university community benefits from international student diversity, focus groups discussed the importance of strong student services that welcome individuals to campus, particularly upon arrival. Walter shared in his survey entry and focus group about a program he had experienced upon arrival at graduate school in a U.S. institution in which he stayed with a host family for a week until classes began, and he was settled elsewhere. He shared, "And it was the most awesome program, and I stayed in touch with them throughout grad school. And I was so welcomed." He expressed that international faculty might enjoy choosing to be a part of such a program, just to help give newly arrived students "some grounding." Alejandro then agreed that such a program would be helpful as a "welcome mat," sharing the example of a scholar from his region who was coming to the university for only one month who needed to be hosted. Nadia, in another focus group, mused on the importance of having individuals identified to help all international students and scholars get settled upon arrival, a service she experienced at a different institution. It was "immensely useful," she commented, explaining that ensuring individuals are settled well and safely is critical for the student experience. "Living somewhere is part of education," she said. "And if you cannot live there, you're not going to be educated there."

A few international faculty respondents to the survey indicated that they would like to see increased focus on and support for internationally oriented research initiatives. “I wish there was a university-wide international research office,” posited SR21. Gabriel, in his survey response, shared that research collaborations were a strong idea for internationalizing the campus, while Joy, in her survey response, forwarded that “People who have connections in their home country should be supported with international research in that country.”

Finally, several international faculty participants expressed that they had no innovative ideas for internationalization or hesitations about purposive programing. For example, Alejandro expressed that he cannot identify opportunities in which he can bring international perspectives to his work, other than helping with recruitment of students or scholars from his region of the world, because “I mean, at the level of my day-to-day work . . . the kind of work that I do doesn't lend itself to that.” In fact, several individuals in his focus group discussed that their subject matter itself is simply not related to international topics. In a different focus group, Joy pondered, “I don’t have any innovative ideas of how to incorporate . . . my background and my experience into . . . influencing the experience of the students at [the university],” expressing that she would be willing to participate in initiatives if asked.

A very different point of view was given by Alina, however, who expressed reservations with any purposeful international programming on campus, especially of the co-curricular variety, saying “I think that this may become a little bit, kind of a cliché, folkloric type of sharing, which I don't quite enjoy.” On the topic of focusing a class topic on something related to her national background, she added, “It's going to be marginal.

And it's going to be somewhat wrapped up, and branded, and essentialized, and just superfluous knowledge, if I should say.” In other comments, Alina shared that she has become “maybe a little bit more skeptical about how a culture can be understood and how this involvement can be conveyed in a more objective way,” indicating that she prefers, as was discussed earlier, more informal opportunities for student discovery and learning, whether through extended exposure to a culture through study abroad, or through organic conversations that arise with students simply because of class content. This particular concern was not seen in the remainder of the data, but it is presented for transparency regarding negative case analyses.

Table 16 summarizes the themes from the qualitative data analysis of additional ideas that international faculty have for further involvement in campus internationalization.

Table 16

Themes of Ideas for International Faculty to be Involved in Internationalization, in Order of Prevalence

Theme	Categorical codes
Co-curricular Activities	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Participating in international festivals or campus-wide emphases on specific countries • Advising student organizations on international topics or for international students • Being involved in organizations established for faculty support • Promoting and participating in faculty-led discussions on international topics
International and Intercultural Teaching and Learning Activities	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Supporting the studying of other languages

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Emphasizing global understanding, not only local, throughout the university • Supporting study abroad
Ideas to Support International Students and Scholars	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Supporting the university in recruitment efforts • Providing unique support for new arrivals
Research	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Participating in increasingly supported, internationally oriented research
Reservations about Internationalization	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Subject matter expertise not related to internationalization • Lack of innovative ideas • Hesitations about essentializing cultures or incorrectly representing them

Research Question 3

What actions might be undertaken to encourage international faculty to be more involved in campus internationalization efforts?

Focus group participants were asked to consider any barriers or opportunities that might be addressed to help international faculty encourage an international perspective on campus. To investigate this question through the survey, an initial list of possible actions that could make a difference was provided for the participants to consider. The data from this survey question has already been presented in the quantitative data findings.

However, an open-ended question to elicit any other ideas was included as well, and the six responses that were provided will be merged with the findings from the focus group interviews. Each of the themes discussed will also indicate whether the theme emerged from only the focus groups or from the open-ended survey responses as well. The only study participant that indicated a negative position on ideas for encouraging international faculty involvement in campus internationalization efforts was by SR50, who simply

stated being against “the proliferation of university bureaucracy, no matter how well-intended.” Other participants identified important steps to take, which have been organized into the following themes: (a) cultural sensitivity training is needed on campus to encourage internationalization, (b) explicit support from leadership is critical regarding internationalization, and (c) that international faculty should be purposefully involved in internationalization initiatives, acknowledging the helpfulness of their international backgrounds to the process of internationalization. Unlike the previous sections, these findings will be presented in reverse order of their prevalence.

The first theme, the need for cultural sensitivity training across campus to encourage international faculty members to be involved in internationalization, was discussed in one focus group and in the survey responses. During the discussion, Walter recalled being aware of a faculty member who was offended to be identified as an “international faculty member” for this study, despite having been born and raised abroad, because he was now an American citizen. While the group agreed that individuals may have their own perspectives on their international backgrounds and may or may not want to be identified as such, they also concurred that it was important to consider the influence of the university environment on the situation Water had shared. Related to this, Damir pointedly shared a politically insensitive name he had been called by a department chair, who was using it casually as part of a greeting. “This is what is the status of [the university],” the participant said. “It’s kind of derogatory. But that’s where we are.” In addition, SR18 commented that a person’s birth country does not change the minority group they identify with in the United States, so that even though they are of international origin, they may also be an underrepresented minority after moving here.

She cited a recent frustrating example she had recently experienced and asked that the entire university population be educated on this point. Although in her focus group, Nadia shared her perception that there are “less obstacles for faculty than for students” to being incorporated into the university’s culture and identity, in her survey response she also shared the following observation about a need for training in campus diversity awareness efforts:

Recognition of international background as important form of diversity that is supported on campus [is needed]. From what I notice, efforts to promote diversity and address disparities at [the university] and in US in general are concentrated on racial diversity, specifically between Caucasian and African Americans, and other types of disparities (such as gender, international vs US, financial) are largely overlooked.

Finally, SR6 expressed that faculty members need to be given more time to participate in whatever trainings are made available, saying “There is a myriad of trainings, but it is difficult to find time to do any.”

Another prevalent theme regarding ideas that would enable international faculty to promote internationalization more is the need for increasing levels of explicit support from university leadership for internationalization. To this point, Nadia commented, “I don’t think anything more impactful will be possible unless there are some changes in [university] priorities.” This was discussed in all three focus groups and appeared in survey responses. Study participants shared a variety of ideas that would forward support. First, SR54 indicated a desire for “our degrees” to be “recognized as equal as American degrees since we are training students using them.” Damir shared that he feels, at least in

his area, that international service work is underappreciated, explaining his perspective that volunteering time on committees of internationally oriented organizations is considered being done for “your own good,” and that it is “not considered . . . getting done anything for [the university].” Joy, who is still early in her career, conveyed that she would be more than willing to be involved in internationalization initiatives, but they would need to “be counted towards service for my evaluations or for my tenure,” adding “I would pick something . . . where I could use my international voice over something that [wouldn’t],” and that “even if this would require more of my time, I would do it.” Thus, emphasizing internationalization as a university priority, and recognizing the value of international training and internationally oriented service work, especially for tenure, are both ideas from study participants for more explicitly supporting international faculty involvement in internationalization activities.

Finally, the largest theme that emerged from this data set is that the acknowledgement of the helpfulness of international faculty for the goals of internationalization would empower international faculty participation in those goals. Study participants from all three focus groups and the survey respondents identified several ways that this could be done. First, focus group participants discussed the need to be invited to participate. When Mateo shared about being interviewed by students who were studying his home language and mused about how useful this sort of involvement by international faculty could be for students and language faculty, Walter added, “I think that it is a question of being asked to pipe in and contribute,” noting that even though there are foreign language tables at the university, he is not sure “if . . . international faculty are even approached” to participate. “I just need a platform,” declared Lan in a

different focus group. “I do think that I have a lot of knowledge about what is life in [home country and its] culture; I would love to share that with more people,” she said, adding, “And I’m sure many people with similar background would love to . . . share what they know” as well. Walter summed up the benefit of being asked to contribute to student learning and experiences on campus. He agreed with others in his focus group who had observed that their fields might or might not be relevant to international topics, and that international faculty “aren’t necessarily” going to bring in an international academic perspective to share. However, he posited that “in terms of providing cultural contexts and understanding the socio-cultural,” the “value of having such a rich international faculty is going to be more . . . of a cultural contribution for student enrichment rather than academic content area.”

Interviewees and survey respondents expressed that being identified to participate validates the helpfulness of having international faculty on campus. “There is such a big international faculty at [the university],” commented Walter about the likelihood that international faculty would want to help host newly arrived students, saying “I think there would be faculty that would be willing,” since they had experienced the same transition in their pasts. In addition, the university should “provide leadership opportunities to competent faculty who can bring a diversity perspective,” expressed SR11. At this university, most internationalization initiatives are focused on students and “little on employees,” SR44 shared, saying that that a focus on faculty is what he missed most from his previous institution, with programming that offered “endless opportunities.” Damir expressed how astonished he was that in his time at the university, he had never been asked to use his language skills to translate for a new student or visitor to campus,

sharing that he had been asked to do this at two previous, similar institutions. He shared that international faculty were tracked at those institutions; people knew to ask him and where to find him.

In fact, all three focus groups discussed that a primary issue in the question of their involvement in internationalization is that international faculty are not systematically tracked and/or are difficult to identify for university-wide initiatives and support. Because of this, it is not possible for them to be asked to participate in activities that might be relevant to their backgrounds, languages, or interests. Walter, in his survey entry, commented that the university “is very much a cosmopolitan institution, which makes it a wonderful oasis of intellectual endeavor.” However, he added, “There are no mechanisms or forums to find out where other faculty are from.” Focus group participants discussed the need for organized efforts towards this with specific examples. In the first focus group, a faculty member in one part of campus mentioned a co-curricular activity that he felt was useful, but a faculty member from a different part of campus commented, somewhat sardonically, “I don’t get those newsletters.” In the third focus group, as an example, Bingwen shared about an international faculty group that has supported his involvement with the university. As there is a sizeable international faculty community from his home country, the group self-organized and self-perpetuates. Bingwen posited how useful international faculty support is, reflecting that “we can try our best to make some contribution to the whole community,” but for some elements of participation, “we need help, to grow, to support.” To help these international faculty who need support participate and develop, they must be identifiable, especially because most faculty at the university are not from sizeable communities that create their own

support organizations. To the point of the need to systematically identify faculty with international backgrounds, Damir commented, “there is a little catch-up game I think we are playing,” then affirming that the information is out there. His focus group agreed that the effort to collect information on international faculty to invite them to be more systematically involved in campus internationalization is logistically possible, if administratively supported.

Revealingly, in the second focus group, an interesting faculty connection was made highlighting the need for a campus information source on international faculty who would like to be identified as such. The focus group had brought together faculty members from disparate areas of campus. Veronica knew of a campus event concerning a major current disruption in Joy’s home country and concerning her home ethnic group. Joy had not heard of the event and was deeply moved to learn of the event, which was designed to inform the campus community of the conflict. As her home country is quite small and the conflict was not receiving a lot of media coverage, the fact that the university was focusing on the problem was meaningful. Joy commented the following about her thankfulness at finding out about the campus event:

I want to be part of a community that cares about where I'm from, and the issues, and the things good and bad that are happening where I where I come from. So, thank you for sharing that . . . If there's a way for us to be more connected to where we can find out about these things purposefully and not just, you know, by chance, [it] would be great.

She added that she had come to the focus group anticipating talking about ways to help the campus internationalize further for the benefit of students, but she now realized that improved efforts in these areas would positively affect international faculty as well.

Table 17 succinctly lists the thematic areas regarding ideas that could encourage further involvement of international faculty members in comprehensive campus internationalization.

Table 17

Themes of Ways to Facilitate International Faculty Involvement in Comprehensive Campus Internationalization, in Order of Prevalence

Theme	Categorical codes
Acknowledging the Helpfulness of International Faculty to the Process of Campus Internationalization is the Key to Increasing International Faculty Participation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • International faculty would be happy to be involved, but they have to know what there is to help with and they should be asked. • To be asked, interested faculty must be found, supported, and receive communication about opportunities for involvement.
Explicit Support for Campus Internationalization is Critical.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Supporting internationalization must be a communicated priority by university administration. • Valuing international activities in tenure and promotion would be helpful.
Cultural Sensitivity Training is Needed to Encourage Involvement.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • International faculty experience discrimination because of their backgrounds. • Intercultural sensitivity training should be expanded.

Research Question 4

To what extent can any observations be made regarding an international faculty member's level of cultural identity and current involvement in campus internationalization efforts?

To investigate international faculty perspectives on how their cultural identity might affect their involvement in campus internationalization activities, a section of the focus group interview directly asked participants to consider this possibility. On the survey, one open-ended question was included to probe this issue as well, and 57 participants provided a response. These questions asked individuals to consider any associations between the areas, so the qualitative data presents their perspectives on how the areas might be related. Several faculty participants reported in the survey that they did not feel that the issues were meaningfully associated, did not know of campus internationalization initiatives, were not involved with them, or did not have time. These findings are presented below. In addition, participants also expressed that their cultural identity influences their involvement in campus internationalization in a number of ways. First, many international faculty, from the survey and in one focus group, reported that sharing diverse perspectives that emerge from having a different cultural identity helps broaden an understanding of differences across campus. Next, participants in the survey and in two focus groups described how their cultural identity helps them create a sense of community on campus that is international and not only local in orientation. Finally, international faculty in the survey and two focus groups conveyed that their sense of cultural identity encourages their involvement in internationalization initiatives. Each of these findings are discussed in turn.

First, several survey respondents shared that they did not feel their cultural identity was connected in any way to their involvement in campus internationalization. “It has nothing to do with my cultural identity,” SR5 declared, adding, “It is just the right thing to do.” Similarly, SR7 conveyed that cultural identity and internationalization involvement were not related, explaining that “I do bring the perspective as I see it in meetings, etc. but that’s not focused on my culture just who I am.” SR26 forwarded that “It does not have a direct impact,” and SR23 said that “It does not have a major role.” SR64 related, “I don’t feel like being born somewhere should define you. I adopt what I like and what I don’t. So I don’t go around with a label or card of my culture or identity.” SR58 provided an interesting response, saying at first, “I don’t know.” She then added that in her work in academic environments, she does not experience differences between individuals from diverse backgrounds, noting that “they are all driven by the same purpose in the pursuit of knowledge and knowledge translation.” Walter also expressed in the survey that his cultural identity “really doesn’t” affect his involvement in campus internationalization. “I don’t know what ‘campus internationalization’ really means,” said SR39, commenting that “I have not encountered any problem to be involved in any activity I wished to participate at [the university].”

Other respondents indicated that they were not aware of campus internationalization activities in which they could be involved, regardless of their cultural identity. “I am not aware that there is such a movement or initiative,” shared SR10. “I was not aware of any serious effort in this area,” commented SR53, and Alejandro expressed, “I’m not aware, have not been asked” in his survey response. “I do not feel campus internationalization at all, except having a few international students in my

classes,” relayed SR31. “The whole school still thinks and works very American, or very [region], and unaware of the different needs of international staff and students,” she added.

Still other survey participants shared that they were not involved in campus internationalization activities at all, so they could not answer the question directly. “I am not involved in campus internationalization other than via my personal interactions and as such as an exemplar of a person from a particular culture,” said SR50. SR22 said that she was not involved because she was only part-time, while SR6 conveyed, “I am very busy as it is so I am not looking for more service opportunities.” “I am so busy with my duties, [I] have to confess that I don’t have much time to think of this issue,” shared SR30, adding “I am ok with how things are.” Several other survey respondents simply answered in the manner of SR12, who stated, “I am not sure how to answer this question.”

Conversely, many international faculty members did comment on how their cultural identities and internationalization activities are linked. First, study participants conveyed the idea that their cultural identity helps them appreciate and share diverse perspectives, which, in turn, helps broaden understanding of differences in general. SR15 explained that his cultural identity gives him “a different background and experience that adds to the education.” SR35 forwarded that his integrated cultural identity provides a way “to share perspectives and experiences with others on campus that I would not be able to do otherwise.” SR29 mentioned that “I accept all people and cultures and display this in my daily activities and interactions with students and others.” SR27 tries to “always transmit the best picture of my country to others through example,” adding

“Leading by example is the best way for internationalization.” Nadia shared this perspective in the survey:

As someone who has lived in several countries before coming to US, I try to expose the students and people I work with to different aspects of the other cultures where I lived, and share different perspectives. In the current [university] environment, I think the only thing that I can do to contribute to campus internationalization is through personal contact with coworkers/students around me.

Specifically, several international faculty members discussed how their awareness of cross-cultural values differences can help others such as in “understanding on how some things may be perceived by others and to create empathy and social wellbeing, harmony and understanding,” a statement shared by SR64. SR54 mused specifically on how it helps “particularly in interacting with people,” giving an example of how “patient interactions are given by values that are slightly different from place to place.” Gabriel shared the following in his survey entry:

My cultural identity helps me see how people can make wrong assumptions about others. Having invested a lot of time and interest in US geopolitical history has helped me to know that International scholars often know more about the US than do many who were born and raised in the US. This enables me to understand people that have different backgrounds. It also helps me bridge the gaps between their differing perspectives so we could all support [the university’s] agenda to continue to lead in internationalization.

In the focus group interviews, Nadia further considered the impact that international faculty members could have with colleagues on behalf of students, specifically considering the possibility that intercultural knowledge could be used to advocate for international students, pointing out that perhaps an issue that a student is having in class may be due to a cultural or linguistic challenge rather than an inability with the content of the course. She expressed that they could help colleagues not “underestimate those students.” Nadia discussed this further in the following:

I think having different experiences makes us . . . not automatically thinking negatively about something. Like, it makes us think that it may be a cultural difference, even if it’s something that we don’t know, even if we don’t recognize it because it’s not something we’ve seen before, but I think it makes us aware that, that may be the possibility, and I think that’s important for teaching.

In summary of this theme, international faculty participants feel that their cultural identities enable them to engage in the internationalization at home initiative of helping broaden others’ understanding of intercultural and international issues across campus. SR33 shared that “my cultural identity makes me open my eyes to other cultures,” and SR60 agreed, stating that her cultural identity “makes me more understanding of international students, first-generation American students, and other international faculty or staff . . . It makes me more open-minded and more compassionate towards others who are not like me.”

An additional way that international faculty participants perceive their cultural identities influence their involvement in campus internationalization is that their cultural identities help them participate in creating a broad, global “sense of community” (SR1)

that can even extend “beyond the confines of our campus” (SR55). Individuals reported different activities to do this, ranging from the individual to the global. SR16 conveyed, “My cultural identity makes me appreciate, respect, befriend, and try to connect with international people,” and SR28 explained that “I can relate to international students and support and advise them . . . It has been my observation that they are more likely to reach out to me than other professors who have been born and raised here.” Alina’s perspective aligned with this in her survey entry, in which she conveyed, “I find it easier to communicate with foreign students in class and I hope my presence and perspectives make it easier for them to adjust.” Other participants shared that they give their time as faculty advisors for international organizations or serve on committees and participate in activities related to diversity or international students. Still others work to bring others into the university community to broaden its global reach. For example, SR46 expressed a need to “connect with others from my culture, and help them achieve their educational goals,” whereas SR63 conveyed “understanding the needs of other countries to have specialists in my field and the desire of educated individual to continue their education in the US,” as well as having inside knowledge of adjusting to a new culture to share with newcomers. SR32 broadened the scope of impact of internationalization efforts at the university even further, explaining, “My sense of internationalization is to advance theories and technologies that benefit mankind as a whole.”

SR8 conveyed an idea in his response for creating a stronger sense of community that would aid in internationalization efforts. “There is a painful separation between the international students and the American students learning languages on campus,” explaining that not making a “conscientious effort to unite both groups” is “a lost

opportunity in this regard.” SR8 also commented that there is a “disconnect” between students and faculty. Similarly, in a focus group, Lan shared that she realizes that her colleagues see her not only as a coworker, but as a “person with a different background.” Consequently, she expressed that she has a role to play to “help the campus to become a more international place.” Lan added, “Diversity becomes a very important topic these days and not just about race. Diversity is about nationality as well.” Alejandro reiterated the idea when sharing why he takes the time to give presentations of his career path to students:

If I’m invited to . . . any kind of activity to bring my perspective as a . . . foreigner, I’ll . . . be more than happy to so . . . I would definitely contribute my time if invited . . . And I think it’s absolutely critical, not just to bring the perspective to the American students, but also to feel welcome whatever number of . . . foreign students are present in those activities.

Finally, international faculty participants shared that their cultural identities propel them towards involvement in international initiatives. Whether it is leading study abroad trips so that students “can be immersed in a different culture with the help of somebody that understands how to do it” (SR35), mentoring students planning on studying abroad, designing classes that specifically feature scholarship focusing on a home region of the world, contributing to food festivals, being involved in internationally focused student clubs, or marketing a program to potential international students, international faculty report that involvement in university initiatives with an international purpose is driven by their cultural identities. Veronica explained this well in her survey entry, saying, “Most of my research work is international, the classes I teach are

internationally focused, and I advise international student clubs.” Other international faculty reported that their cultural identities influence their research agendas. “My identity . . . influenced my decision to study other countries,” conveyed SR9, sharing a research agenda that is focused on three countries from the same region as her home country. Cultural identity propels “everything” that SR11 does, which includes sharing research “bidirectionally,” working in “very different countries with very different perspectives,” and even working locally with immigrant populations.

Two survey participants reported that their known cultural identities, or assumptions about them, have not only propelled them to become involved in internationalization initiatives, but they also cause additional work. “As I am easily identified as a minority, I get pulled into too many committees and too many initiatives,” shared SR18. SR60 agreed that international faculty members are “more often asked to serve on committees about international student success or campus internationalization.” However, despite the service that international faculty members provide to the university community in these and other ways, she also made the following point regarding whether the cultural identity of international faculty is even seen as a possible influence for campus internationalization:

International faculty are not necessarily valued and acknowledged for what or how we add to the campus' diversity agenda, although we were more so under [previous administrations]. We are not represented in the leadership of the Office of Diversity, Equity, and Inclusion. Undergraduate international students seem to be valued for adding diversity to our student body and for the revenue they bring, as well as the reputation they will take with them when they go back home.

Graduate international students seem to be valued for their brains and the way they will enhance our reputation. International faculty are not really valued for anything much, except for their work as faculty members.

To visually represent these findings, Table 18 lists the primary thematic elements that emerged from the analysis of the data asking international faculty to consider any association between their cultural identities and involvement in campus internationalization.

Table 18

Themes of the Relationship between Cultural Identity and Involvement in Comprehensive Campus Internationalization

Theme	Categorical codes
When international faculty members share perspectives informed by their cultural identity, it helps broaden an understanding of differences across campus.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Sharing cultural background • Helping others see different perspectives, both colleagues and students • Leading by example
Purposeful international faculty involvement helps create a campus community that is international and not only local.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Supporting newer arrivals from abroad • Connecting with international students • Sharing perspectives increases understanding of types of diversity
Cultural identity spurs an international faculty member's involvement in internationalization initiatives.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Being involved in study abroad • Teaching, research, and service all impacted by aspects of cultural identity
The issues are not meaningfully associated, or issues of time or awareness prohibit involvement.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The issues should not be related, or cultural identity does not affect choices to be involved.

Summary of Qualitative Findings

By design, the qualitative database for this study was robust, and the discussion of the findings is lengthy. A summary of the range of findings is presented below, with emphasis on key areas for exploration in further conceptual meta-analysis.

Many international faculty in the study described their sense of cultural identity as being comprised of two mixed or merged identities; whether mixed or merged, the idea of integration is present. Words or phrases such as blended, hybrid, being in the middle, and chameleon were used to describe the sense of identity, and participants also conveyed that this identity is not static but changes over time. International faculty also conveyed that having this sense of an integrated cultural identity does present challenges, especially when visiting one's home country and discovering that you and perhaps also the culture at home have changed, that you now feel like a stranger or uncomfortable. In fact, several faculty members described the challenge of not feeling a full sense of belonging in either place, although others described a feeling of fully being at home in their new environment.

International faculty also described the ways that they remain tied to their home cultures. Several provided descriptions of how they remain primarily characterized by their home cultures in most elements of life, while others conveyed the myriad of ways they work to stay connected to their home cultures. Other participants provided many ideas regarding influencers of adaptation to life in the United States, including having family in the United States, joining new communities, having a sense of curiosity about and exposure to new cultural values and practices, developing formal relationships with the United States through citizenship and with academic institutions, and the time and age

of arrival to the United States. A few participants discussed limitations to adaptation because of the age of arrival to the United States, and others shared that they claim no cultural identity or do not feel bound to one cultural identity. Finally, many international faculty participants discussed the importance of language and food, both in the contexts of maintaining connections to their home culture and in adapting to the United States.

International faculty discussed ways that they are currently involved in internationalization activities on campus, as well as ideas that they have for additional internationalization efforts on campus. Correspondence between the themes is noted below. First, both sets mentioned ideas for international and intercultural teaching and learning activities, although the emphasis was different. Currently, international faculty use teaching and learning opportunities to share international perspectives and intercultural experiences with students, as well as promoting group work among culturally different students and cultural exchanges in general. Ideas for involvement included tapping international faculty specifically for the language enrichment they could help provide to language courses and in leading study abroad, as well as the support they could provide towards creating an environment that promotes global understanding. In addition, international faculty discussed current research and service activities in the context of internationalization, including incorporating international elements into research projects, supporting international students and scholars, and serving in organizations with an international focus of some kind. On the other hand, ideas forwarded a straightforward desire for more support for internationally oriented research. Next, international faculty reported current activities related to co-curricular activities, such as advising clubs or participating in bazaars or food festivals. However, co-

curricular activities were the strongest category in terms of ideas for internationalization. Whereas participants mentioned the same two activities, they added ideas for establishing organizations for international faculty support and promoting international faculty participation in discussions on topics of international import. Current activities were shared related to sharing food and holidays with colleagues; also, ideas were given for supporting the university at large in recruitment efforts and in welcoming new international arrivals to campus. Finally, related to current internationalization activities, several individuals conveyed a lack of knowledge about initiatives to support, especially initiatives that would take advantage of their international backgrounds. Reservations about generating ideas for internationalization included a position that subject matter area of expertise should be related to internationalization, a lack of having innovative ideas, or a hesitation about being involved in internationalization activities that could essentialize cultures or incorrectly represent them.

International faculty focus groups and qualitative responses on the survey provided several key points regarding ways to encourage involvement of international faculty in furthering comprehensive campus internationalization. First, the importance of acknowledging the helpfulness of international faculty to the process of campus internationalization was discussed as the key to increasing their involvement. International faculty would be happy to be involved, but they need to know where they can help and be asked for it. Naturally, interested faculty must be found, supported, and receive communication about opportunities for involvement. Next, explicit support for campus internationalization is critical. According to international faculty, university administration must communicate that supporting internationalization is a priority. In

addition, international faculty convey that valuing international activities, particularly for tenure and promotion, would be helpful. Finally, international faculty expressed that further cultural sensitivity training is needed across campus to encourage their involvement in internationalization efforts. International faculty experience discrimination because of their backgrounds, so international faculty feel that intercultural sensitivity training by the university should be expanded.

Finally, the research probed what international faculty participants thought about any relationship between their sense of cultural identity and involvement in campus internationalization. In other words, the participants were asked to consider how one's sense of cultural identity influences involvement. Three themes emerged from the data provided by international faculty members. When international faculty members share perspectives informed by their cultural identity, it helps broaden an understanding of differences across campus. They do this by sharing their cultural backgrounds; by helping others see different perspectives, both colleagues and students; and by leading through example. The next way that participants convey that cultural identity influences campus internationalization is that purposeful international faculty involvement helps create a campus community that is international and not only local. Some ways that this can be expressed are by supporting newer arrivals from abroad, intentionally connecting with international students, and sharing their global perspectives with others, which increases an understanding of types of global diversity on campus. Other international faculty conveyed that, in general, cultural identity simply spurs an international faculty member's involvement in internationalization initiatives; examples given included study

abroad involvement, and that their cultural identity impacts all aspects of internationalizing teaching, research, and service activities in general.

Integrated Data

Formal mixed methods data analysis was performed by running queries and crosstabs in NVivo (12), as relevant, that examined aspects of the quantitative data against the coding performed during the qualitative data analysis. In NVivo, crosstabs are a query that cross-references qualitative codes with one or two quantitative variables. Additional coding queries in NVivo allow a researcher to investigate patterns within codes and particular attributes within variables. A wide variety of analyses were run, including a close look at the specific variables shown to be statistically significant for research questions in the quantitative analysis. Findings felt to be most relevant to the research questions are presented below. Also presented are the relevant results of quantifying some of the qualitative data.

Research Question 1

How do international faculty describe their current sense of cultural identity and its development?

A key quantitative survey question asked for individuals to choose whether they felt their cultural identity aligned most closely with their home culture (Option A), U.S. culture (Option B), a mix of both, sometimes referred to as an integrated identity (Option C), or neither culture (Option D). Crosstabs were run to investigate the answers to this question ($n = 75$) against the qualitative coding from the survey for the two follow-up questions on cultural identity. First, comments coded for a “mixed or merged” sense of

cultural identity were explored. Of this smaller subset, 26 individuals were identified as having reported both a sense of integrated cultural identity on the quantitative question (Option C) and also having contributed comments in the qualitative survey questions that were coded with a mixed or merged sense of identity. In addition, three others provided comments in the qualitative question about cultural identity that were coded as mixed or merged identity. These included one individual who identified with their home culture the most, one who identified with the United States most, and the only individual who chose Option D as identifying with neither.

Interestingly, of the six individuals who made qualitative statements that aligned themselves strongly with a U.S. cultural identification, two had selected an integrated sense of cultural identity on the quantitative question. In addition, all six individuals who expressed an identification with their home culture (Option A) were among those with qualitative comments coded as “ties to home” and with ideas coded as “maintaining connections” to home. However, many of these comments were also provided by those who selected Option C, the integrated identity ($n = 18$). Those with an identity oriented towards the United States (Option B) or neither culture (Option D) provided no ideas related to staying connected to their home culture.

Of those five individuals who qualitatively commented on their sense of cultural identity as no longer being able to define it, all had selected Option C to indicate an integrated identity. The individual who indicated not being bound by their identity chose Option B on the close-ended survey question, which is the identification with U.S. culture. The individual who commented that they had lost their home identity was indeed the only individual who chose Option D as not identifying with either their home or U.S.

culture. However, both of these individuals were also third-culture kids, having reported that they had lived in other countries during their childhoods before moving to the United States, which aligns with the idea of having an integrated identity that is not bound or feels lost (Pollock & Van Reken, 1999).

Thus, the idea of an integrated, mixed, or merged sense of cultural identity is replete throughout the data, both qualitatively and quantitatively. Instances are found where both the quantitative and qualitative perspectives align along the integrated identity. However, participants also indicate this sense of identity in either the quantitative or qualitative coding, with the other data source illustrating some other facet of their intercultural experience. Therefore, because of the prevalence of the sense of integrated identity (Option C) in these results, further exploration was conducted on the codes associated only with those individuals who answered C on the survey question about cultural identity and also who provided qualitative answers on the topic ($n = 50$). Findings from these analyses are below.

First, even though these individuals have an intercultural identity, they work to maintain ties to home to keep that sense of home. As already mentioned, “ties to home” and “maintaining connections” were codes identified with this group; 18 comments were provided. Most of the 17 codes for “role of food” from this group who identify as having an intercultural identity have to do with eating one’s home culture’s food or sharing it with others. In addition, 7 of the 17 codes for “influence of language” from this subgroup are related to continuing to use one’s home language actively. Also, individuals who have an intercultural identity are the most likely in the coding to comment that their identity is not finalized and is still able to be influenced. Finally, in an examination of the “How

Adaptation Happens” code against the quantitative question regarding levels of cultural adaptation, it is noteworthy that 77 of the 89 codes (87%) come from people who aligned themselves with Option C, an integrated sense of cultural identity. Thus, those individuals with an integrated identity seem to be more likely to recognize the elements of their adaptation and the purposeful actions they can take to be both connected to home and integrated into their new culture.

Next, in the quantitative data, the association of age range with level of cultural identity was statistically significant. Consequently, the frequency of codes from the question about cultural identity in the qualitative data was cross tabulated with the variables of age range and cultural identity level. Because there are larger numbers of participants from certain age groups in the data, larger numbers of codes from those groups would be expected. Thus, the aim was to identify particularly noteworthy patterns in the data while acknowledging the unbalanced nature of the data set on this variable.

The codes for having a mixed or merged sense of cultural identity were explored first. In general, having an integrated sense of cultural identity was discussed most in the coding by age group 50-59 years. Participants from the two mid-age groups (40-49 and 50-59 years) mention that their sense of cultural identity is not finalized. They are aware that cultural identity is fluid and that changes could still happen.

All age ranges except for the two groups at the extreme (29 years and younger, 70 years and above) discuss the challenging nature of having an integrated identity. The same four middle groups make comments about how difficult it is to go home and the odd feeling it causes. The codes about not being home anywhere or having a feeling of difference or being alone come from the two age ranges of 30-39 and 40-49 years.

Regarding the coding related to preserving ties with one's home culture in general, the coding is strongest in the mid-to-older age ranges, from age 40 to 69 years. In an interesting finding, all age ranges until age 60 years mentioned using media to maintain connections with home. However, for faculty members who are 29 years and younger, media is the only code related to maintaining connections to one's home culture provided in the data.

The subcodes in the data for the theme "Insights into Adaptation" provided an exploration of the ways that participants describe the process of adaptation to U.S. culture. Crosstabs were run on multiple subcodes for any interesting trends. "Influence of U.S. Institutions" was the most prevalent subcode in the data, which included civic, university, or governmental institutions. This was discussed by participants in the age ranges 40-49 and 50-59 years the most, while participants in the age range of 29 years and younger did not mention it at all. The code for "Marriage and Children" was the second most-prevalent code in this theme, and it was mentioned for the age ranges 40-49, 50-59, and 60-69 years, with the strongest number of mentions in the age range 50-59 years. In the third most-popular code, "Time Influenced Changed Identity," seven of the 15 codes were from the 40-49 years age range. Next, "Curiosity and Exposure to Cultural Differences" was strongest in the age range 30-39 years. The code for "Joining New Communities and Building Relationships" had a presence throughout the age ranges.

The theme "Primacy of Language and Food" had two subcodes, one regarding language and one regarding food. Participants in the age range of 40-49 years were the most active in mentioning the influence of language in their cultural identity; respondents in the age range 60-69 years were next. The role of food was mentioned most by

individuals from the age range 50-59 years, and those in age range 30-39 years discussed it actively as well.

Next, the second attribute associated with level of cultural identity that had statistical significance in the quantitative analysis was the number of years participants had lived in the United States, which was organized in 5-year ranges. As before, a variety of crosstabs in NVivo (12) were performed examining these two variables against the coding for the two qualitative questions in the survey regarding cultural identity. Only the most noteworthy findings from my perspective are presented below.

Survey participants actively discussed the nature of having an intercultural identity, with 44 codes unique to separate individuals, in every range of time except for the first (5 years or less) and the ranges at the far end (36-40 and 40-45 years); however, it is mentioned again by the participant in the year range 46 and above. In addition, the challenges of having a merged or integrated cultural identity are discussed by survey respondents in the three ranges of 6-10, 11-15, and 16-20 years of living in the United States. After that, challenges are only mentioned by one other participant. The idea that cultural identity is not finalized, implying the understanding that cultural identity development is a process, is discussed up through year range 21-25 years (with the exception of year range 6-10), then it disappears as a topic.

Limitations to adaptation were mostly reported by participants in the earlier year ranges of being in the United States (6-10, 11-15, and 16-20 years), but one individual reported it in the 26-30-year range as well. Interestingly, the comments in the data about not wanting to identify with the United States come near the beginning of the ranges (6-10 years), near the middle (26-30 years), and at the end (40-45 years). Thus, this theme

emerges throughout the time lived here by whomever has reason to experience these feelings, but it is not tied to any particular range. In addition, the feeling that a sense of home is lost was found in the ranges of 6-10 and 31-35 years; the feeling is relatively rare and is spread. Similarly, the position of being not bound or defined by any sense of cultural identity is found in four different year ranges, spread throughout the ranges until 35 years of time spent in the United States.

For the codes about relating to one's home culture, participants from year range 31-35 had the strongest response, with 12 codes on the topic in general, of which 7 are directly about maintaining ties to home. Media is discussed in groups by survey respondents who have been in the United States from between 6-15 years and 21-35 years. Interestingly, it is the only means of retaining a connection to home culture discussed by participants who have been here from 11-15 years.

In the coding that provides insight on "How Adaptation Happens," the code for "Influence of U.S. institutions" runs throughout most of the year ranges, starting with the year range of 6-10 years and only skipping the range 40-45 years. "Marriage and Children" is discussed by all the time ranges from 16-20 years in the United States and above, missing only the year range with one survey respondent (36-40 years). The code is mentioned most in the year ranges of 21-25 and 31-35 lived in the United States. The amount of time spent in the United States is an influencer in all ranges of years, but it is most prevalent in the year range 11-15.

Food is a popular topic of cultural identity in the survey data, with 18 unique individuals discussing the "Role of Food" in their survey responses. Interestingly, it was a much more popular topic in the surveys than in the focus groups. Discussing the role of

food was coded for all year ranges up through having been in the United States for 35 years. The same is true for the code related to the “Influence of Language” in cultural identity formation or maintenance. After having been here for 36 years, survey participants mention neither food nor language in their discussions of cultural identity.

Investigations were conducted on other possible interesting connections between the qualitative themes and codes and the demographic data collected through the survey. As before, many potential associations were investigated, but only two that may provide noteworthy information are noted.

First, a crosstab was run in NVivo (12) to investigate any possible relationship between the amount of time that a person has been in the United States (organized in 5-year ranges) and specific codes in the data related to the amount of time in the United States influencing adaptation to the United States. Of the 13 codes in the survey respondents’ qualitative data on the role of time in cultural identity development, the codes were spread across the time ranges, from an international faculty member who reported being in the United States for five years or less to two participants who have been here from between 40 and 45 years. A similar crosstab investigated the reported cultural identity of these individuals: eight report an intercultural identity, three report an identity tied to the United States, and one reports an identity tied to their home culture or to neither culture. Therefore, time as an influencing factor is recognized throughout the ranges of time spent in the United States and throughout multiple cultural identity levels.

Next, the influence of family dynamics on cultural identity was examined more closely, because qualitative coding revealed that one of the influencers of adaptation was family life. Of individuals who reported having a spouse or partner, the survey asked

them to indicate whether the spouse or partner is from the same or different cultural background. Of the 67 individuals who responded to the question, 32 of them (48%) have a spouse or partner of a similar cultural background, and 35 (52%) have a spouse or partner of a different cultural background. Another survey question asked whether the participant had children living with them in the United States. Similarly, 36 of the 72 participants (50%) who responded reported that they have children living with them in the United States, although 50% do not. Further exploration of data revealed that of the nine individuals who expressed that they have a cultural identity that aligns with their home country, half of those participants had a spouse or partner of a similar culture and half of a different culture, and half of them had children at home while the other half did not. Similarly, of the six participants who conveyed a cultural identification with the United States, four of those had a spouse or partner of a different cultural background than their own, and five of them had children. Thus, in this sample, the cultural background of the spouse or partner, and whether children were with the participant in the United States, do not have influence on only identifying with one culture or the other. Other demographic characteristics were also investigated in terms of those participants who identified only with one culture or the other, and no other patterns of note were found.

Research Question 2

Regarding campus internationalization efforts, how are international faculty currently involved? What ideas do they have for further involvement?

Performing a mixed methods analysis for this question involved counting the number of ways each individual reported using the listed methods of internationalization.

This is a quantifying of qualitative data, a method used in mixed methods research (Teddle & Tashakkori, 2009). If individuals provided additional ideas in the qualitative section of the question, they were counted as one additional idea each during this process. The data were used as a potentially informative variable in the statistical analysis and therefore can be seen in the quantitative results section as well. Table 19 presents these data. This action followed the principle of crossover tracks often employed in mixed methods research, in which ideas from one level of data analysis inform another level, and the researcher uses new or different data to go back and investigate a new idea (Datta, 2001; Teddle & Tashakkori, 2009).

Table 19

Frequency of Selection of Methods of Internationalization

Number of different methods selected	Number of participants who selected that they use this number of methods
1	13
2	18
3	19
4	11
5	4
6	1
9 ^a	1

^a One participant used the “other” survey question option to provide three additional activities for a total of nine activities.

A joint display is featured in Table 20 to demonstrate the ranking of the popularity of different types of current internationalization activities selected in the quantitative survey question, as well as the number of individuals who indicated that they did not currently participate in internationalization activities, against the themes that

emerged from the qualitative data on the same question. As a reminder, the qualitative data from this question is almost exclusively from the focus group interviews; although answers from the open-ended survey question asking for additional ideas was included in the qualitative data, it is comparatively small in amount. The quantitative options provided in the survey were mostly related to activities associated with internationalization at home, by design. However, interestingly, when allowed to consider any internationalization activity in which they might participate, the international faculty provided focus group data aligning their internationalization activities primarily with the same sorts of international and intercultural teaching and learning activities associated with internationalization at home. Research activity is also supported by both groups as a current internationalization activity. As anticipated, the qualitative data revealed other categories that were not included in the original survey, including co-curricular activities such as participating in international bazaars and supporting international student clubs in various ways, as well as ideas for sharing one's home culture with colleagues. A small amount of the qualitative data pointed to a lack of awareness of internationalization initiatives in which to participate, especially those related to an international faculty member's cultural identity. A similarly small percentage of the subset of participating faculty members in the survey support this position.

Table 20

Joint Display of Quantitative versus Qualitative Findings on Types of Current Internationalization Activities

Findings from Quantitative Survey indicating percentage of total responses	Themes from Qualitative Data, ranked from greatest to least according to number of codes, and including categorical codes
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I use course materials that provide an international perspective (12%)	International and Intercultural Teaching and Learning Activities
I give personal examples of living abroad or of working with people from different cultures when appropriate. (29%)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Using course materials that provide an international perspective • Finding opportunities to share information about home culture or cross-cultural experiences with students • Promoting group work among culturally diverse students • Promoting cultural exchanges • Using identity as international faculty member to expand students' experience with diverse others
I give personal examples from my work in my discipline that provide an international perspective. (23%)	
I share insights with colleagues or students on how to work with people from my home culture or people who are, in general, different from oneself. (22%)	
I pursue a personal research agenda focused on populations in or from other countries. (7%)	Research and Service Activities
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Incorporating international elements into research projects • Supporting international scholars • Mentoring international students and other faculty • Serving on committees or organizations with internationally related membership or missions
	Co-curricular Activities
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Participating in international bazaars or food festivals • Advising or participating with clubs about international issues or for language practice
	Sharing Home Culture with Colleagues
Individuals who indicated that they do not currently encourage an international perspective on campus (8% of $n = 73$)	Comments on Lack of Awareness of or Lack of Internationalization Opportunities

In a different way to explore the mixed data relevant to this research question, a crosstab in NVivo (12) was run. This crosstab investigated the internationalization

activities that participants reported they do and their ideas for internationalization involvement, interfaced with the quantitative answers to their current cultural identity and whether or not they are involved in comprehensive campus internationalization. Of the subset of participants who provided both sets of quantitative information ($n = 73$), 52 individuals (71%) who report an intercultural identity also report involvement in internationalization activities to some degree. This is greater than those who are involved in internationalization who also reported identification with their home countries ($n = 8$, 11%), those identifying mainly with the United States ($n = 6$, 8%), and the one individual reporting not having a cultural identity related to either a home country or the United States (1%). In addition, nine of the 52 respondents (17%) claiming an integrated cultural identity reported additional current internationalization activities (for a total of 15 activities), and 11 respondents (21%) with an integrated cultural identity reported additional ideas for internationalization activities (one each). Participants who identify with their home country also provided ideas for internationalization ($n = 3$) although only one reported current involvement. Of those identifying with the United States or with neither country, they provided no additional current activities and provided one additional idea for internationalization each. In this data, therefore, individuals who are involved in internationalization activities are more likely to have an integrated sense of cultural identity and are more likely to report additional internationalization activities or ideas for additional activities in the data.

Because of the statistical significance found in the quantitative data between the association of being involved in internationalization activities and having gone to graduate school in the United States, a crosstab in NVivo (12) was also run on these two

quantitative variables and the qualitative codes related to providing additional information on current internationalization activities or additional ideas for internationalization. Of the 59 individuals who reported completing graduate work in the United States, 58 (98%) of those also conveyed that they are involved in internationalization, and they provided 19 of the additional current activities and ideas for potential involvement. Of the 13 who did not complete graduate work in the United States, nine (69%) of them report involvement in internationalization, and three of them provided a few additional current activities and ideas for future involvement.

Research Question 3

What actions might be undertaken to encourage international faculty to be more involved in campus internationalization efforts?

A joint display is featured in Table 21 to demonstrate the ranking of the popularity of different actions to encourage faculty involvement selected in the quantitative survey question against the themes that emerged from the qualitative data on the same question. Again, the qualitative data for this question is primarily from the three focus group interviews, although the six additional ideas written in on the survey were also included in the qualitative coding. Except for one answer option from the quantitative question on the topic (seen at the end of Table 21), all of the quantitative options were also discussed in the qualitative data. For example, the integrated data supports the position that international faculty need to be affirmed as to the helpfulness of their role for meeting the goals of internationalization. The qualitative data provided an enriched understanding of faculty perspectives on this, in that to encourage faculty participation, there is a preeminent need for better communication with and training for

international faculty on the topic of internationalization and how they can be of service.

In addition, the critical importance of support from university leadership for internationalization, expressed at least in part through the formal valuing of a variety of internationally oriented efforts, is clear in the integrated data. Finally, integrated data supports the need for expanded efforts on intercultural sensitivity training, especially as it relates to global diversity among the faculty.

Table 21

Joint Display of Quantitative versus Qualitative Findings on Ideas for Encouraging International Faculty Participation in Internationalization Activities

Findings from Quantitative Survey, indicating percentage of total responses	Findings from Qualitative Data, ranked from greatest to least according to number of codes, and including categorical codes
Acknowledgement that my cultural background is helpful for campus internationalization efforts (20%)	Acknowledging the helpfulness of international faculty to the process of campus internationalization is the key to increasing international faculty participation. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • International faculty would be happy to be involved, but they need to know what there is to help with and should be asked. • To be asked, interested faculty must be found, supported, and receive communication about opportunities for involvement.
Training on ways to be involved in developing international competence across campus (14%)	
Training on ways to add international perspectives to my work (8%)	
Increasingly explicit support from leadership for internationalization (16%)	Explicit support for campus internationalization is critical. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Supporting internationalization must be a communicated priority by university administration. • Valuing international activities in tenure and promotion would be helpful.
Expectations from leadership for job performance in this area (7%)	

Training to address discrimination, racism, and/or cultural sensitivity towards international faculty members (17%)

Cultural sensitivity training is needed to encourage involvement.

- International faculty experience discrimination because of their backgrounds.
- Intercultural sensitivity training should be expanded.

Training on being successful in teaching, research, and service expectations for the U.S. university context (10%)

To investigate Research Question 3 further through the integrated data, a crosstab in NVivo (12) was run to consider any areas of interest. The query included the qualitative codes on additional ideas for encouraging international faculty to be involved in internationalization, as well as survey variables regarding involvement in campus internationalization and reported levels of cultural identity. Of the 10 survey participants who reported additional ideas for encouraging involvement, nine reported an integrated cultural identity; only one of those was not involved in internationalization. The one that was not involved in internationalization conveyed that a more specific focus on involving international faculty would make a difference, and that this was a difference noticed in comparison to how the participant's previous institution had served and involved international faculty. One individual reporting an identity still tied to their home culture also provided additional ideas for how to involve international faculty in internationalization activities. In addition, because of the statistical significance found in having gone to graduate school in the United States, in another crosstab investigating the profile of international faculty providing qualitative insights on this topic, eight of the 10 went to graduate schools in the United States, and two did not.

Research Question 4

To what extent can any observations be made regarding an international faculty member's level of cultural identity and current involvement in campus internationalization efforts?

Of the 75 survey respondents, 57 (76%) provided qualitative answers to the question regarding how one's cultural identity affects involvement in campus internationalization. An NVivo (12) crosstab was run to investigate the relationship between these qualitative responses and the variables of reported involvement in campus internationalization and levels of cultural identity. Only two of the 57 responses were from individuals who reported not being involved in campus internationalization, and both of their reasons were related to being a STEM faculty member, explaining that science is a global subject in and of itself, giving them no reasons to be involved in further internationalization activities on campus. Of the other 55 respondents, their reported cultural identities were spread between an identity still tied to their home culture ($n = 6$), an identity now related to the United States ($n = 6$), identifying with neither ($n = 1$), and an integrated sense of cultural identity ($n = 42$). Rather than being related to cultural identity, a willingness to consider the role of one's cultural identity in involvement in internationalization seems to be tied to an actual involvement in internationalization activities.

Other NVivo (12) crosstabs were run to investigate any other possible areas of interest. An examination of the number of individuals who provided answers both to this qualitative question and the survey question on the number of years they had lived in the United States ($n = 56$) was conducted. It revealed that high participation in this qualitative question (85% or above) was noted from every year range with at least 5

participants counted except for 16-20 years, which only had 60% participation (9 out of 15 respondents), 6-10 years with 78% (7 out of 9 respondents), and 26-30 years with 72% (8 out of 11 respondents). The other ranges had higher levels of participation.

Interestingly, the year range 31-35 has almost the same number of participants but a much higher percentage of participation in the question (12 out of 14 respondents).

Age range 40-49 years revealed a similarly low level of participation in answering this qualitative question, at 63% of the participants in the subset (14 out of 22 respondents), although other age ranges were at 80% or above. Of course, the age range 40-49 years has the most participants overall in the data, and individuals who have been here for 16-20 years have the most participants in the data as well. Most of the survey participants in this question moved to the United States before the age of 30 years (85%, 45 out of 53 respondents providing both sets of information).

In addition, a crosstab conducted to investigate the demographic variables for participation in this question revealed that 84% of the individuals who went to graduate school in the United States answered this question (48 out of 57 respondents to both questions). A lower 16% of the ones who did not attend a U.S. institution provided perspectives for this question (9 out of 57).

Summary of Integrated Findings

The idea of an integrated sense of cultural identity is common throughout the data, both qualitative and quantitative, and many participants demonstrated this identification in both their qualitative and quantitative answers to the survey questions. However, this mixed methods analysis also revealed that even if individuals did not show this identification in both types of questions, participants often reveal this sense of

identity in one of the two types of data, with the other data source illuminating another aspect of their intercultural experience. A close mixed methods analysis of participants with an integrated identity seems to indicate that those international faculty are perhaps more likely to recognize aspects of their cultural adaptation, as well as intentional steps they have taken to remain both connected to home and integrated into their new culture.

Examining the age of the participants through mixed methods data analysis also provided some notable observations. First, international faculty members in their mid-years appear more aware of their intercultural identity and, specifically, that their identity is still fluid and changing. Next, media is a principal medium for maintaining connections with home for all age groups. Additionally, the influence of institutions in the United States on adaptation is often recognized by participants in their mid-years, as are the influence of marriage and raising children in the United States. Perhaps by the mid-years, international faculty can reflect on the contributions of these factors more as they have been influenced by them longer. Finally, language and food maintain an important role in a sense of cultural identity, both forming a new one and maintaining an old one, through most of the age ranges.

An integrated analysis of the amount of time individuals have spent in the United States and their sense of cultural identity also highlighted several insights. Consideration of the experience of having a mixed or merged sense of cultural identity does not emerge early in the years of being in the United States, but by the time an individual has been here 6 years, the nature of the identity, as well as the challenges associated with it and the fluid nature of it, start to be recognized and discussed. The influence of time on adaptation is most keenly expressed in an earlier time range (11-15 years), even though it

is mentioned in codes in all time ranges. Although the sense of an integrated identity does not disappear the longer the individual has been in the United States, the discussion of its aspects does fade somewhat. Instead, individuals who have been here longer seem to have a stronger internal orientation towards maintaining ties to home. However, those ties are not related to language or food; once individuals have been here 35 years or longer, language and food are not the strongest considerations. In addition, limitations to adaptation are keenly experienced most by those earlier in the years of adaptation, which seems to fade with time spent in the new environment. Finally, the influence of U.S. institutions on adaptation remains prevalent in all the ranges of time that individuals have spent in the United States.

Mixed methods analysis further supported findings in the quantitative data regarding international faculty, their involvement in internationalization activities, and the association with having attended graduate school in the United States. The parallel mixed analysis looked specifically at coding related to reporting additional internationalization activities, having additional ideas for internationalization activities, or providing ideas for encouraging involvement in internationalization. Participants who were involved in internationalization activities were more likely to have an integrated sense of cultural identity and were more likely to report additional current internationalization activities or ideas for additional activities in the data. In addition, those who attended graduate school in the United States were extremely likely to be involved in internationalization activities and to provide ideas about additional activities. Individuals who have an integrated sense of cultural identity and who have gone to graduate school in the United States are also most represented in the group of participants

who provided qualitative input on ways to encourage international faculty involvement in internationalization.

Qualitative findings on current involvement in internationalization activities highly mirrored the quantitative findings. An emphasis in the qualitative data on current activities emerged regarding international and intercultural teaching and learning activities, which was echoed in the quantitative choices given on the same topic in the survey. The focus on research as a current internationalization activity was also found in both. As expected, the qualitative discussions did reveal other areas of current involvement that were not listed on the survey question options, although they were not as prevalent as the first two areas that were mirrored. Co-curricular activities are some of the most visible internationalization activities on campus, but they were not as prevalent in the qualitative discussion of current activities as were other ideas. Service activities such as mentoring international students and scholars and supporting internationally focused student clubs also emerged as themes in the qualitative data. On the other hand, when focus groups commented on potential additional activities for involvement, co-curricular ideas led the number of codes, followed by teaching and learning activities, ways to support international students and scholars, and desires for increased support of internationally oriented research.

Finally, mixed methods analysis also indicates that involvement in internationalization seems to be related to a willingness to consider the role of one's cultural identity influencing involvement in internationalization. In other words, participating in a meta-analysis of one's own role in internationalization and how one's

individual sense of cultural identity plays into that, seems to be related to active involvement in internationalization in the first place.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

Comprehensive campus internationalization is an articulated priority for many institutions of higher education around the world, and faculty members of those institutions are widely acknowledged as the key implementors of internationalization plans. However, without transformational intercultural experiences on a personal level, individual faculty members are not likely to engage in the work of infusing their teaching, research, and service with international perspectives (Childress, 2018). The numerous international faculty members already working on university campuses around the world, and certainly in the United States, have already engaged in this transformational experience by adapting to living in a new country and working in a new culture, some for many years. Even so, these faculty members are often not valued for the contributions they make to their universities beyond research output and teaching responsibilities; the specific value that their already-developed intercultural identities bring to the goals of internationalization are often missed by university administration. Through this mixed methods study, I investigated the perspectives of international faculty on their senses of cultural identity, their current and potential involvement in campus internationalization, specifically internationalization at home, and any possible links between the two. I also considered whether any demographic characteristics investigated in the survey, commonalities in cultural adaptation histories reported in qualitative data, or regions of the world that participants were from (even potentially those regions' cross-

cultural values) might be associated with having an integrated sense of cultural identity or being involved in campus internationalization.

The mixed methods study, conducted at a large, research-oriented university in the southeastern United States, used criterion sampling together with a combination of snowball and chain referral sampling to identify international faculty and request participation in a mixed methods survey, which gathered both quantitative and qualitative data. From the group of survey participants, a nested sample was established to represent the whole in a deeper investigation of the research questions through focus group interviews. Quantitative data were analyzed through descriptive and inferential statistics, as appropriate to the sample type and size, and qualitative data were analyzed through a constant comparison technique. The hallmark of mixed methods research is in the integration of databases, so combined data were also investigated by conducting comparative analyses and queries. This chapter presents larger themes that emerged from considering the integrated data, especially as they relate to the model of faculty engagement in internationalization by Childress (2018). Discussions of unexpected observations, recommendations for action, and limitations of the study follow. Recommendations for future research will conclude the chapter.

Research Question 6

What themes and meta-themes emerge from the data concerning international faculty and their involvement in campus internationalization efforts?

First, we can say quite simply that faculty members who participated in this study most often described themselves as having an integrated sense of cultural identity when given a choice of Berry's (1992, 1997) four levels of adaptation. Of the 75 survey

participants who answered this question, 59 (79%) described themselves in this way. Even those who did not choose that answer in the quantitative question still frequently described themselves as having a mixed, merged, or otherwise integrated identity in qualitative responses. Many of the international faculty participants in the study also described intentional ways in which they stay connected to their home cultures, and many of those qualitative responses were associated not only with faculty who claim cultural identification with their home cultures, but also with those who identified as having an integrated sense of cultural identity. International faculty who said that they did not feel they could define their sense of cultural identity qualitatively also selected an integrated sense of cultural identity quantitatively. In addition, international faculty who aligned themselves quantitatively with a sense of integrated identity provided the preponderance of codes that described the cultural adaptation process.

Statistically significant quantitative findings included an association between the age of the individual and having an integrated sense of cultural identity, as well as the length of time spent in the United States and the integrated sense of cultural identity. These two variables were likely related for most participants. Of the respondents who answered this question, three-quarters of them moved away from their home country between the ages of 21 and 30 years. In fact, of participants who have lived in the United States from 11 to 30 years, all but two of the participants considered themselves to have an integrated sense of cultural identity. These international faculty have experienced enough iterations of the stress-adaptation-growth cycle (Kim, 2001) to have altered their sense of identity over time. In addition, participants between the ages of 30 and 69 years all commented on the challenging nature of the integrated cultural identity, suggesting

that it is a common theme once individuals have been here long enough to have started developing an intercultural identity.

Thus, those participants who report an integrated sense of identity seem to be more likely to describe the characteristics of their adaptation process of integrating into U.S. culture and the intentional actions they take to remain connected to home. The majority of these individuals have been in the United States for quite some time and understand the challenges of living in the intercultural tension of multiple realities (Kim, 2015). They have had transformational cross-cultural experiences and know that they are not the same for it.

The faculty members who participated in this study also largely expressed engagement with internationalization initiatives. International faculty from all cultural identity levels reported participation in internationalization activities. The association between involvement in internationalization activities and having gone to graduate school in the United States was statistically significant. This might have been somewhat surprising, except that the qualitative data certainly supported the strong influence of joining new communities and associating with U.S. institutions on cultural adaptation. Even though an integrated sense of cultural identity and involvement in internationalization were not statistically associated in the study, many of the participants in the study were characterized by both, and those who were already involved in internationalization were more likely to engage in providing qualitative information about how their cultural identity and involvement in internationalization were linked.

In summary, this study gathered demographic data on international faculty participants, as well as qualitative information about cultural identity, the process of

cultural adaptation, involvement in campus internationalization, and how cultural identity and internationalization involvement might be linked, out of an anticipation that perhaps a useful profile of an international faculty member involved in internationalization could be created. It was thought that such a profile could focus recruitment of international faculty for the purposes of championing internationalization. However, the study cannot necessarily help us identify with any certainty a particular demographic profile of international faculty who might be interested in internationalization activities other than that they are likely, but are not guaranteed, to have gone to graduate school in the United States.

What this study does tell us is that the majority of international faculty participants associate themselves with an integrated sense of cultural identity or qualitatively describe themselves in those ways. Those individuals provided responses in the data that demonstrate a finesse in thinking about the cross-cultural experience, or at least an interest in discussing how to navigate the cross-cultural experience. These faculty have already had the transformative experience of crossing cultures; they are intercultural individuals. Many of them also maintain active ties with their home cultures. The majority of international faculty in this study do participate in internationalization, and they have ideas for further participation and how to encourage their participation. On the other hand, as the literature on faculty involvement in internationalization supports, their understanding of what their roles can be is ripe for expansion, and they need to be invited and empowered to be involved (Brewer & Leask, 2012; Childress, 2018; Egron-Polak & Hudson, 2014; Lee et al., 2012; Schuerholz-Lehr, 2007).

Key Recommendations for Action

Recommendations for key action steps to take based on the findings of this study are organized through the five interactive areas of the Childress (2018) model on faculty engagement in internationalization. The recommendations include the following:

- more clearly casting the vision for internationalization and inviting international faculty involvement;
- building robust and active communication networks to recruit and link up international faculty and others with international backgrounds, experiences, and interests for internationalization initiatives;
- expanding the provision for professional learning, for both international faculty as well as for all faculty;
- planning to support individual scholarly agendas throughout the operationalizing of internationalization; and
- investing in internationalization with financial resources so that all faculty are motivated and enabled to participate.

Casting the Vision

Intentionality is the first action discussed in the Childress model (2018), which refers to critical and purposeful vision-setting by university administration for internationalization, especially for faculty as the key drivers of the process. As the site for this current study has been engaged in the process of formalizing internationalization efforts for some time now, just as many other institutions worldwide, university administrators may assume that international faculty at the university already recognize

that the university is involved in internationalization initiatives and that their involvement is both needed and desired. However, research findings reveal the opposite. From the perspective of one study participant, the university needs to engage in “a little catch-up game” to better involve international faculty in the work of internationalizing the campus. Another participant expressed the feeling that internationalization initiatives are primarily “on paper,” adding “when anything practical needs to be done, I don’t think anything really happens.” Therefore, purposeful actions, supported by the research literature on faculty engagement, for forwarding the internationalization agenda among the faculty in general, and especially among international faculty, must be planned and implemented.

The findings also strongly indicate that to garner the specific support of international faculty members, the role of individuals with international and intercultural backgrounds and experiences should be emphasized within communication plans. Killick (2010), as cited in Deardorff and Jones (2012), posited that universities should be international, multicultural communities into which the local student is acculturated, instead of the emphasis being on helping the international student (or scholar or faculty member) adjust to the U.S. academic system. Indeed, celebrating and capitalizing on the diversity that international faculty bring to a campus can be a key to fostering such a global community, a theme that international faculty discussed in the qualitative data on how their intercultural identities and involvement in internationalization intersect. Demonstrating a purposefully inviting stance towards international faculty involvement will provide the “associative communication” from the “host environment” (Kim, 2001, p. 150) required to welcome integration of international faculty into their academic

community and provide key ways in which they can meaningfully fit in and make a difference (Rumbley & de Wit, 2017a).

Communication Networks

The importance of institutional networks for the purpose of sharing communication about internationalization is a key element of the Childress model (2018). In fact, the lack of updated information available to international faculty about international activity on campus was clear during the study. Comments about the lack of services for international students or scholars or about the lack of an international space on campus to serve as an international “hub” simply pointed to an absence of awareness of changes that have been made on campus in recent years. Lack of communication about opportunities for involvement throughout campus were clear, perhaps most pointedly illustrated in one focus group through this sarcastic comment delivered regarding not knowing about an event: “I don’t get those newsletters.” Another example included a significant connection made during a focus group about a forum on an issue keenly important to one faculty member about her home country—there was no way for her to have been found and invited to the forum outside of the chance meeting that the research study provided. Focus groups agreed that the opportunity to be aware of such events should instead be provided systematically to all interested international faculty.

The first recommendation for action to bolster this area is to purposefully identify the international faculty on campus who are interested in supporting internationalization efforts. A survey can be used to accomplish this, distributed widely throughout academic units, with encouragement for distribution coming from a senior administrator invested in

internationalization initiatives. Anyone who is interested in participating in campus internationalization initiatives should be invited to participate in the survey. The survey must express a specific desire to garner information from individuals with international backgrounds and/or international experiences because of the unique role that they can provide to the institution's goals for campus internationalization. This is important, because findings revealed, as the literature also forwarded (Altbach & Yudkevich, 2017a; Brotherhood et al., 2019), that international faculty do not perceive to be valued beyond general faculty work expectations. The point has to be expressly made. In the survey, background information and research profiles of participants should be collected, as well as interest in a wide variety of internationalization initiatives including but not limited to interest in the following: international research topics, providing support to student organizations or for campus-wide forums on current events, leading study abroad courses or virtual learning opportunities, intentionally involving international scholars or students in supporting classroom teaching or in research, learning about incorporating intercultural and international learning into classroom teaching, supporting newly arrived scholars or students, providing language translation services, and participating in interdisciplinary teams to investigate global challenges or explore regions of the world.

Next, an institution must provide a formal mechanism by which interested faculty members can be found and linked to others for coordinating research endeavors, for providing input on their home regions or on their academic expertise, or for participating in faculty learning opportunities or problem-solving forums. An updatable database on a centrally located website would be ideal; linking the survey to the database would also enable quick uploading of new faculty information. In addition, upper-level

administrative leadership should provide regular communication to the membership of this database regarding international initiatives, opportunities, information, and resources available.

Finally, considering the amount of qualitative data about supporting incoming students and scholars, the administrators leading internationalization should solicit interest from international faculty regarding providing tangible support to newcomers who need additional help in becoming adjusted to life on campus and in the community. International faculty also discussed and should be asked about providing language support when needed in crisis situations on campus or other situations when first language communication might be preferable. A mechanism to give individuals the opportunity to provide support should be made available to those who would like to participate.

Better communication channels can help educate everyone on how intentionality towards internationalization is being met with action. In addition, they can communicate available possibilities for involvement in internationalization to international faculty and others interested in internationalization. Finally, better communication channels propel the overall goals of internationalization forward by enabling an expansion of idea sharing, heightening campus exposure to international and intercultural experiences and information.

Provision for Professional Learning

Infrastructure in the Childress model (2018) refers to the organizational activities that universities put into place to support faculty development of the abilities, skills, and dispositions needed to forward internationalization initiatives. Critically, to support

campus-wide implementation, internationalization plans should expand opportunities for informational and transformative international and intercultural experiences for all faculty members (Deardorff & Jones, 2012; Egron-Polak & Hudson, 2014; Leask, 2009). Childress (2018) expressed this observation: “Faculty without significant international or intercultural experiences tend not to recognize the connections between the increasing importance of international knowledge and cross-cultural communication skills with their professional agendas” (p. 44). However, Schuerholz-Lehr (2007) found that even those faculty who did have international experiences of travel or living abroad did not automatically translate those experiences into teaching practices that would support internationalization. Thus, professional learning opportunities must be provided and institutionally supported for all.

First, even though international faculty have had significant experiences living abroad already, and even though this study demonstrates that many have a transformed sense of cultural identity, I posit that professional development should be provided to help international faculty make the connections between their personal experiences; their teaching, research, and service responsibilities; and the pivotal impact they can have on campus internationalization efforts overall. In one focus group, a participant commented that other than those faculty who have particular expertise in areas of international academic topics, the “value of having such a rich international faculty is going to be more . . . of a cultural contribution for student enrichment rather than academic content area.” This is certainly part of what international faculty can bring to the campus environment. There are also so many other possibilities for impact within internationalization initiatives, among them the potential positive impact on their colleagues’ growth in

international and intercultural awareness; as a cultural liaison within their departments concerning international students and cross-cultural challenges; as an expert on the “stress-adaptation-growth” dynamic (Kim, 2001) that students who study abroad may experience; and through the teaching of intercultural attitudes and skills throughout the disciplines.

One of the themes from the qualitative data is that international faculty who are involved in internationalization know that their purposeful involvement as intercultural individuals can play an important role in helping to create a campus community that is globally oriented. However, international faculty need guidance in specific ways that their expertise can be harnessed for good, illustrated by one focus group participant who shared, “I don’t have any innovative ideas of how to incorporate . . . my background and my experience into . . . influencing the experience of the students at [the university],” after which she expressed that she would be willing to participate in initiatives if asked. Although a few study participants mentioned ideas for such involvement, they were not frequent in the data. Professional development opportunities can build the bridge between having had a transformational intercultural experience and envisioning all the ways it can be used for greater purposes.

To do this, institutions can invite international faculty to meet other international faculty for workshops on how their intercultural experiences can be used to further internationalization. In such workshops, skilled intercultural trainers can further understanding on what an intercultural identity is (Kim, 2001, 2015) and how it is developed (Bennett, 1986; Kim, 2001), thus guiding the positionality of themselves as cultural beings (Brewer & Leask, 2012). Then, workshops can foster knowledge on what

actually comprises an ability to engage in the process of intercultural communication (Deardorff, 2006) and guide activities for faculty to consider how to forward intercultural learning in their work (Lee et al., 2012; McCalman, 2007). Workshops can also help international faculty understand how to usefully describe cross-cultural value differences so that they can have tools to help colleagues and international students navigate cross-cultural challenges within their units. Facilitators can also lead discussion on ways that international faculty can use their intercultural identities and global knowledge to make impact on internationalization initiatives on campus, and facilitators can invite them to participate in faculty-wide international engagement seminars, which will also help link them to others who are interested in their areas of the world and those with globally oriented research interests. As a side benefit, such workshops would enable international faculty to meet one another across disciplinary silos and experience the comradery that third-culture individuals share when together (Pollock & Van Reken, 2009). In addition, such workshops could also serve an orienting purpose for new international faculty on the teaching, research, and service expectations of the American academic enterprise that other research has recommended in the past (Howe, 2011; Thomas & Johnson, 2004).

At the same time, knowledge development and cross-cultural exchange for all faculty should be facilitated through interdisciplinary, international, and intercultural learning experiences, and these, in turn, can offer several benefits. In such professional development opportunities, growing in knowledge about regional and global affairs (Childress, 2018) can provide an academic benefit to all. In addition, ideas for internationalizing the curriculum (Agnew & Kahn, 2014; Beelen & Jones, 2015; Brewer & Leask, 2012; Deardorff & Charles, 2018; Leask, 2013, 2015) and ways to forward

intercultural learning in the classroom (Dimitrov & Haque, 2016; Killick, 2018; Lee et al., 2012) might be disseminated and discussed. Topics related to internationalization activities, such as working with international students or conducting international research, could also be offered. Primarily, structured opportunities to learn together cross-culturally, in interdisciplinary environments, also present opportunities for professional friendships to form among faculty that span cross-cultural differences (Davies et al., 2011). These opportunities will provide an environment of transformative experiences for those faculty members who have not yet had opportunities to engage in cross-cultural learning.

As more faculty have positive experiences working together, the secondary transfer effect of contact (Pettigrew, 2009), in which positive outcomes of cross-group interactions affect others even if they are not part of the original contact, will begin to transpire. Christakis and Fowler (2009) discussed the power of the social networks we join and ways they impact those far beyond our awareness. Because faculty are the catalysts of comprehensive campus internationalization (Childress, 2018; Godwin, 2019; Stohl, 2007), the building of intentional, intercultural, and interdisciplinary faculty relationships is necessary for internationalization to spread throughout an institution. Through such relationships, international research collaborations, study abroad plans, and ideas for internationalized classroom teaching can emerge, which provide motivation for supporting internationalization initiatives and create critical interaction between internationalization goals and individual teaching and research agendas (Childress, 2018).

Finally, given that the impact of the host environment on the process of adaptation and integration is known (Berry, 2005; Kim, 2001), the fact that international faculty still

describe experiences of discrimination must be addressed. In fact, 49% of the survey respondents (35 of 72 total) who addressed the question on how they could be encouraged towards increased involvement in internationalization indicated that increased faculty training was needed to address discrimination, racism, and cultural sensitivity. To encourage international faculty participation in a wide array of internationalization initiatives, such training should target the facilitation of a work environment in which differences in international and intercultural perspectives and experiences are welcomed, and microaggressions are eliminated from collegial exchange.

Support for Individual Scholarly Agendas

The individual support stage of the Childress faculty engagement model (2018) is concerned with the fact that faculty members are individuals who work in specific departmental units with individual scholarly agendas, teaching responsibilities, and service commitments. Any plan for engaging faculty must acknowledge and support these individual needs. Involving each unit in the development and implementation of a localized internationalization plan is key, so that disciplinary priorities can be expressed in internationalized teaching, research, and service activities. This will help with concerns expressed in the data regarding not having time for additional commitments. Faculty participants in the study discussed conducting research with international participants, themes, or scope. Thus, building support for this within unit-specific internationalization plans will bolster such efforts and will encourage more. In addition, supported by the study findings, the importance of recognizing international work in formal definitions of scholarly activity will help alleviate any concerns regarding involvement in

internationalization initiatives not being equally weighted for promotion and tenure (Childress, 2018). Finally, finding ways for faculty to be involved in interdisciplinary and intercultural learning opportunities that do not detract from a faculty member's teaching or research time may present challenges for planning; however, models can be gathered from case studies in the literature (Childress, 2018; Leask, 2015; Niehaus & Williams, 2016) and exemplary models offered through NAFSA's annual Senator Paul Simon Award for Campus Internationalization (NAFSA, 2021). Planning around potential obstacles to involvement will enable faculty to meet their personal scholarly agendas and engage in learning that will enhance their internationalization involvement at the same time.

Investment in Internationalization

The fifth area in the faculty engagement model by Childress (2018) is investments. Financial resources, both for internationalization at home efforts, as well as teaching, collaboration, and research abroad, are critical to carrying out internationalization plans. Financial investments do not have to be large to be effective. Instead, there must be many investments, and they must come from multiple sources and at multiple levels throughout the institution (Childress, 2018). Even though financial support was not discussed explicitly by most participants in this study, to make the largest impact on internationalization efforts, investment in program oversight and the communication networks discussed previously is important. Investment for training endeavors certainly must be put into place. Funding is also needed to reimburse faculty members for professional development, travel, or other activities related to

internationalization, either through discretionary funding, grants, or other sources. Such funding should result in positive impact as demonstrated in other research studies (Childress, 2018).

The key recommendations for action are presented in Table 22. The recommendations are organized by university level (upper-level administrative leadership for internationalization, school or college administrative leadership, and department or unit leadership). In addition, the recommendations are further categorized into short-term and long-term actions.

Table 22

Key Recommendations for Action Organized by University Administrative Level and Timeline

University Level	Short-term Actions	Longer-term Actions
Upper-level Administrative Leadership for Internationalization	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Establish, promote, and distribute university-wide internationalization plan, which emphasizes imperative of faculty involvement. • Develop, promote, and distribute survey to garner interest in involvement stressing desire for involvement of intercultural individuals. • Establish and begin implementation of active, regular communications plan on international initiatives. • Begin professional development seminars for international faculty (and other intercultural individuals) on how to support intercultural 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Establish database with survey information; set up survey to automatically fill with new information going forward. • Teach use of database to make connections across campus for international initiatives. • Continue active communications plan, gathering information from across the enterprise to build momentum and encourage new ideas. • Continue professional development already initiated (described in short-term goals).

	<p>learning throughout the university.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Begin faculty professional development on intercultural learning and internationalizing the curriculum. • Address the need for emphasis on global diversity in diversity, equity, and inclusion training. • Seed short-term at home internationalization grants for internationalizing courses within a variety of disciplines, incorporating service learning with global emphasis, or enacting interdisciplinary international initiatives. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Extend faculty professional development opportunities to include, for example, knowledge development on global issues or world regions, and problem-solving/collaborative research opportunities. • Pursue internal and external funding to continue to seed investment in internationalization. • Promote collaborative international research agendas; set up international research support as needed.
School/College Administrative Leadership	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Use university internationalization plan to set school internationalization plans or priorities. • Promote and help distribute survey garnering interest. • Promote university-wide professional development opportunities on internationalization. • Select faculty members with intercultural backgrounds to participate in university-wide training towards becoming cross-cultural resources for the school. • Consider making short-term internationalization funding available. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Pursue internal and external funding to continue to seed investment in internationalization. • Continue to promote university-wide faculty professional learning opportunities on internationalization. • Promote interdisciplinary international research and knowledge development. • Direct new faculty to survey and database. • Collect information and communicate with internationalization leadership on initiatives and activity.
Departmental/Unit Leadership	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Set local initiatives and priorities for internationalization. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Continue to promote involvement in internationalization initiatives, including faculty development

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Promote and help distribute survey. • Select faculty members with intercultural backgrounds to participate in university-wide training towards becoming cross-cultural resources for department or unit. • Encourage efforts to receive short-term internationalization funding from upper administration or from school. 	<p>initiatives, global learning initiatives and international research projects.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Continue encouraging efforts to receive short-term internationalization funding. • Address faculty impediments to participation in internationalization, including time requirements, promotion and tenure concerns, or vision for participation.
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Unexpected Observations

Through the process of conducting this research study, I did not find that the international faculty participants conceptualized their potential role in internationalization as being related specifically to helping others grow in intercultural competence. With a few exceptions in the qualitative data, these international faculty expressed their current and potential role in internationalization primarily in terms of expertise on issues related to international affairs, their home country, or their research. In large part, they imagined further internationalization activities as primarily related to co-curricular events such as bazaars or food festivals, purposeful events highlighting specific countries, as representatives of their specific home country or culture to colleagues or students, or as experts in their first language. Reasons for not being involved in internationalization related to not being a subject matter expert in international issues or not having time to serve in student service capacities or on committees that would benefit from an international perspective. Qualitative themes reveal that international faculty do see that becoming more involved in internationalization could increase the understanding of a

wider variety of global perspectives and differences across campus, and they know that their intercultural identities can contribute to this role. This is certainly one aspect of helping develop a global knowledge framework on campus. However, mostly unacknowledged is their potential impact on the development of intercultural competence throughout the campus, given that they are already able to understand the nuances involved in negotiating more than one set of cultural values. Only 29 of the 72 respondents (40%) who answered this question on the survey indicated that training on ways to be involved in developing intercultural competence across the campus would be a way to forward their involvement in internationalization. This perspective was even smaller in the qualitative data. International teaching and learning activities were certainly a theme for both current and potential internationalization activities. However, specific ideas to forward the development of intercultural skills and attitudes were few, primarily limited to encouraging diverse work groups in classes and simply, by being present, providing experience to students with a person from a different culture or information to colleagues as invited.

Individuals with intercultural identities have developed critical elements of intercultural competence such as a robust tolerance for ambiguity, an openness to dissimilarities, respect for differences, and a great deal of cultural humility (Deardorff, 2006; Lloyd & Hartel, 2010). They benefit from walking through life with both a universalized and an individuated sense of identity (Kim, 2001). International faculty with intercultural identities could provide significant support to achieving campus-wide intercultural learning goals. For example, through becoming involved in discussing cross-border issues in class or in co-curricular opportunities, they not only could provide

knowledge expertise from their international background but also could model seeing complex issues through multiple cultural perspectives. Interdisciplinary engagement examining difficult international issues could involve international faculty collaborating with individuals who may not yet have had the chance to engage in transformational intercultural exchange with individuals from different cultural backgrounds, another path towards lending this already-developed global lens of viewing the world to the larger university enterprise. Another idea to promote intercultural competence development is purposefully including international dimensions in teaching that call for critical thinking on intercultural dilemmas, thus pushing students towards seeing the issue through a different cultural lens. Participating in workshops in which fellow faculty are educated on their home educational cultural backgrounds is another idea; such participation could promote understanding and serving international students from their home countries better. Through actions such as these and others, international faculty can informally or formally influence the development of the attitudes and skills related to intercultural competence. They can also promote the important cognitive skill of critical thinking (Kakai, 2000) among students, and as they work with colleagues from around the campus, interdisciplinarity among colleagues (Childress, 2018).

Next are observations in the research related to the demographic profiles of individuals involved in internationalization. I was not surprised to find that having a sense of an integrated intercultural identity was common across the research participants, because I knew that this had been suggested through previous research on Berry's stages of acculturation (Berry et al., 2006; Ozer, 2017; Ward, 2008). However, I did suspect that being involved in internationalization activities would be linked to certain demographic

traits, as well as to an integrated identity itself, thus leading to a profile of individuals who could be recruited for involvement in international initiatives. The only statistically significant factors associated with cultural identity were arguably related to the amount of time spent in the United States, the influence of which research has already demonstrated (Kim, 2001). In addition, the only statistically significant factor associated with involvement in comprehensive internationalization was having attended graduate school in the United States. These are affirmative and useful pieces of information, respectively. However, it was unexpected that having an integrated sense of cultural identity was not statistically associated with an expressed involvement in internationalization activities.

I also expected to find that building a home life with someone from a different cultural background, such as an American, or raising children in the United States, would have a statistically significant impact on acculturation or involvement. The qualitative data supported the expectation, but the quantitative testing did not. Additionally, I suspected that differences in cultural values among regions of the world would have a larger effect on internationalization involvement than what I found. To the contrary, the effect seemed to be neutral, in that those who were from regions culturally dissimilar to the United States were just as likely to have an integrated sense of identity or be involved in campus internationalization as those from relatively similar cultural backgrounds. The effect of differences in cultural values was not even observed pragmatically through the focus interview process, likely because international faculty are usually well assimilated into the typical activities of academic life (Liu, 2001), which certainly include group discussions among faculty. Even though these findings somewhat surprised me, this is good news for the involvement of international faculty in comprehensive campus

internationalization. The presence of an intercultural identity is common, and that can be useful, as posited by this study. However, interest in becoming involved with internationalization is widespread among these study participants, and this should be encouraging to administrators interested in furthering faculty engagement in internationalization initiatives.

Limitations of the Study

Although steps were taken to make the sample robust and as random as possible, the sampling technique was a non-randomized, qualitative sampling design. Therefore, the first limitation to this study rests on the reliability and transferability of the findings because of the sampling technique. Relevant questions could include whether the participants joined the study because they were already interested in internationalization or whether the participants joined in the study because they already had an intrinsic interest in talking about aspects of their cultural identity. In other words, the sampling technique may have simply found individuals who already had a proclivity to be involved in campus internationalization and who already likely had an integrated sense of cultural identity. Because the sampling technique used snowball and chain referral techniques, that may be the case and should be acknowledged as such. However, the research questions aligned with this possibility. I aimed to identify what characterized international faculty involved in internationalization, if anything, and what they understood their role to be. In other words, the study was not about finding those who are not involved to determine how to involve them. Instead, it was to identify some individuals who are interested, learn who they are, and articulate how to encourage their

expanded involvement. The sample is, therefore, reliable for its purposes, and the sample is carefully described so that other individuals can determine transferability as may be warranted.

A second limitation to the study is similar. Individuals who volunteered to join the focus groups were individuals who were willing to give more time to the research topic. The groups were specifically convened to discuss the topic, and each individual had already taken the survey so was familiar with the nature of the research. Therefore, a relevant limitation to the study might be whether the focus group conversations were unnaturally steered by the content of the survey, particularly through the options provided in the questions regarding types of campus internationalization activities and ways to encourage involvement in internationalization. Findings of the qualitative data showed that the focus groups discussed options given in the survey, such as how to further internationalization through teaching and learning opportunities and the importance of university administration acknowledging the helpfulness of international faculty in the goals of campus internationalization. However, the focus group discussions also developed themes that emerged in the qualitative data from the survey but were not part of the survey content. These included the need for identifying and communicating with international faculty about opportunities for involvement and the importance of participation in co-curricular activities in current conceptions of internationalization involvement.

In addition, this study primarily encouraged consideration of and discussed elements of the movement within internationalization called internationalization at home. Survey questions asked about internationalization activities that were clearly focused on

the campus-based classroom and about faculty research. Two omissions should be discussed as possible limitations. It should be noted that during the span of time in which the research was conducted, virtual learning and exchange opportunities came to the forefront of professional discussions in international education. If the survey had been written later, virtual options for cross-cultural teaching, learning, and exchange would have certainly been included in the possibilities for internationalization activities. In addition, this research intentionally did not include teaching study abroad courses or conducting research abroad as possible internationalization activities in the survey, only because the study was focused on internationalization at home. However, when the topics were mentioned in the qualitative data spontaneously, they were certainly noted. The relevance and importance of the experience of studying and working abroad is not at all lost on me, as I benefitted greatly from both opportunities. Student and faculty mobility has been, and will continue to be, a vital part of an institution's comprehensive internationalization plan. Having said that, the potential limitation to the study should be noted. One survey participant commented that my conception of internationalization was limited in the study; the participant was observant, knowledgeable, and correct.

Finally, it must be acknowledged that this study did not include the perspectives of many other valuable individuals across the campus who might also have intercultural identities and could serve as cultural brokers for fellow colleagues and students. Other key individuals to include in recruitment and communication for comprehensive internationalization purposes are third-culture kids, third-culture individuals who were born and raised in the United States but have lived or worked for a significant period abroad, first- and second-generation immigrants, and others whose identities have been

heavily altered by cross-cultural exchange and influences. They were omitted from the study's focus only to narrow the topic specifically to one population and one definition of international faculty, and not because these individuals might not contribute to a university's comprehensive internationalization goals. As already articulated in the recommendations for action, all such individuals should be purposefully included in any recruitment or interest-gathering efforts.

Recommendations for Future Research

In conclusion, I have four recommendations for future research. First, the research might be repeated in part or whole with a randomized sample; a larger sample would allow for a wider array of inferential statistical analyses that could probe questions of association further. With a larger sample, it is possible that demographic characteristics could reveal other points of interest. Randomization of participant selection might allow for increased exploration of questions regarding non-involvement with internationalization.

Additionally, in this discussion, I propose providing training for international faculty to prepare them for deeper and more meaningful involvement in comprehensive campus internationalization. Further research should be conducted to explore whether this recommendation achieves the anticipated result. Future research could focus on whether implementation of any or all of the training described in the recommendations for action achieves measurable or ascertainable impact.

Next, although some research has been published on ways in which international and local faculty can engage in intercultural and international learning together, more

examples in the literature would help international educators make the case for investment in such infrastructure development. Specifically, case studies on international faculty engagement at the disciplinary level, especially ones that explore involvement in internationalization initiatives while also meeting unit-specific and personal scholarly agendas, might inspire other international faculty with examples of how they can accomplish the same fusion of purposes in their environments.

Finally, studies of the potential involvement in internationalization initiatives from other individuals on campus with international or intercultural backgrounds and experiences would be welcomed. The scope of this study needed to be limited to one population, and the review of relevant literature supported focusing the study on international faculty. However, all groups of intercultural individuals on campus are significant for the purposes of comprehensive campus internationalization and certainly merit targeted investigation as well.

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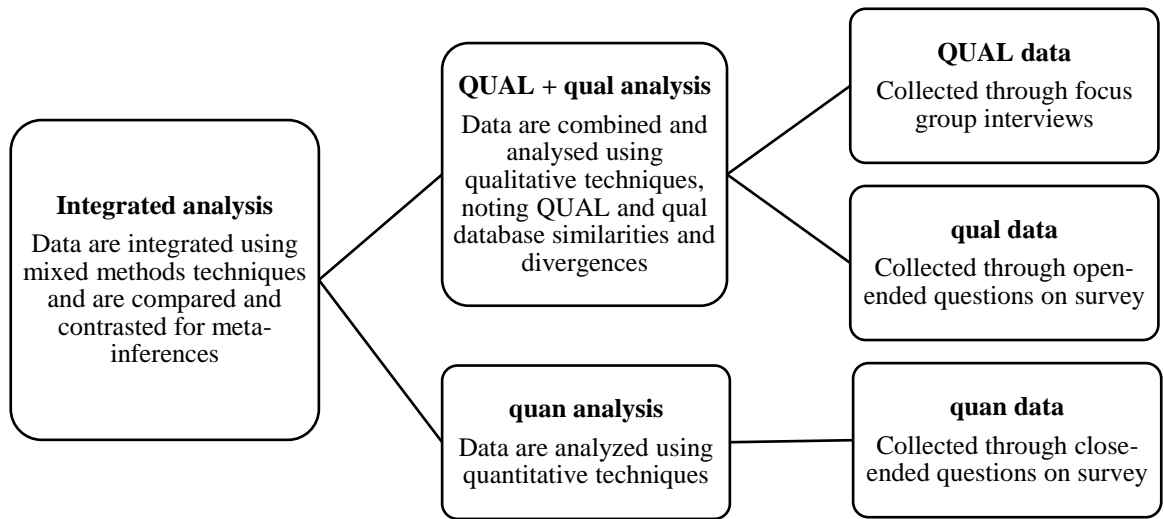
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APPENDIX A

CONVERGENT MIXED METHODS DESIGN FOR THIS STUDY



APPENDIX B

SIDE-BY-SIDE DISPLAY OF HOW RESEARCH QUESTIONS INFORMED BOTH PROTOCOLS

Research Question	Focus Group Protocol	Survey
How do international faculty describe their current sense of cultural identity and its development?	How would you describe your current sense of cultural identity? Who are you, culturally? Would you share with me an example that demonstrates your cultural identity?	How would you describe your current sense of cultural identity? _____My sense of cultural identity has not changed. I still feel I fully identify with my home culture.
	What do you think brought about/did not bring about changes to your current sense of cultural identity?	_____My sense of cultural identity has changed completely. While I am proud to be identified with my home country, I feel that I culturally identify more as an American than as a member of my home culture.
		_____My sense of cultural identity has changed somewhat. I feel that I culturally identify as a member of my home culture, but I also feel my identity has changed over time since coming to live in the United States. I am best described as a mix of the two cultures.
		_____I'm not sure what my sense of cultural identity is. I'm not happy to be identified with my home country, but I do not feel that I culturally identify as an American either, nor do I want to.

		<p>Please discuss your answer to [the question above]. How would you specifically describe your cultural identity to someone today? Who are you, culturally? Could you describe an example or two that demonstrates your cultural identity?</p> <p>What do you think brought about/did not bring about changes to your current sense of cultural identity?</p>
<p>Regarding campus internationalization efforts, how are international faculty currently involved? What ideas do they have for further involvement?</p>	<p>Do you currently encourage an international perspective in your work on campus, whether in teaching, research, or service? If so, in what ways?</p> <p>Do you have ideas for encouraging an international perspective on campus that you do not currently use?</p>	<p>Do you think that you currently encourage an international perspective in your work on campus, whether in teaching, research, or service? If so, in what ways? Choose all that apply.</p> <p>_____ I don't think that I currently encourage an international perspective in my work on campus.</p> <p>_____ I use course materials that provide an international perspective.</p> <p>_____ I use personal examples from my work in my discipline that provide an international perspective.</p> <p>_____ I give personal examples of living abroad or of working with people</p>

from different cultures when appropriate.

_____I share insights with colleagues or students on how to work with people from my home culture or people who are, in general, different from oneself.

_____I pursue a personal research agenda focused on populations in or from other countries.

_____Other (please describe:_____)

Do you have any ideas for encouraging an international perspective on campus that you do not currently use?

_____No.

_____Yes. If so, please share them below.

What actions might be undertaken to encourage international faculty to be more involved in campus internationalization efforts?

What would enable you to encourage an international perspective on campus more? How could any obstacles in encouraging an international perspective be lessened?

What would enable you to encourage an international perspective on campus further? How could any obstacles in encouraging an international perspective be lessened? Choose all that apply or add your own ideas.

_____Nothing; enough support is provided.

_____Increasingly explicit support from leadership for internationalization

_____Acknowledgement of the helpfulness of my cultural background to internationalization efforts

_____Expectations from leadership for job performance in this area

_____Training on ways to encourage an international perspective in my work

_____Training on ways to help develop intercultural competence in others

_____Other (please describe:_____)

To what extent can any observations be made regarding an international faculty member's level of cultural identity and current involvement in campus internationalization efforts?

From your perspective, how does your cultural identity shape your current involvement in campus internationalization?

From your perspective, how does your cultural identity shape your current involvement in campus internationalization?

What is the profile of international faculty involved in campus internationalization efforts?

Not a part of the focus group interviews; this is a nested sample, so demographic information will be available through the survey.

Questions 1-2, 10-31 on the survey. See Appendix ** for details.

What themes and meta-inferences emerge from the data concerning international faculty and their involvement in

Merged data from both databases

Merged data from both databases

campus
internationalization
efforts?

APPENDIX C

SNOWBALL AND CHAIN REFERRAL SAMPLING PATTERN USED IN THIS
STUDY

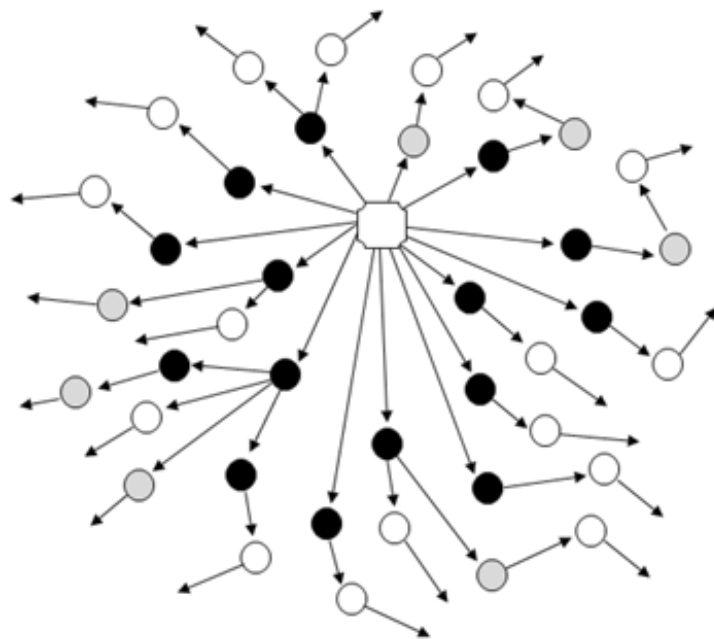
Key to figure:

□ Researcher

● Sampling seed:
Direct communication
with researcher

● Finite, identifiable
group of individuals sent
study information and
survey link, reported to
researcher

○ Unknown numbers
of distribution or
redistribution beyond
this point



APPENDIX D

SURVEY FOR INTERNATIONAL FACULTY

The Role of International Faculty in Comprehensive Campus Internationalization

Thank you for your interest in this research study! The contribution that international faculty make because of their diverse backgrounds to university campuses is not widely researched. This study will help further an understanding of international faculty on university campuses and their potential role in comprehensive internationalization efforts.

The remainder of this introductory information, below, is serving as the information sheet for participating in this research study.

PARTICIPATION

Your participation in this survey is voluntary. Participation in the research is sincerely appreciated but is not a part of your duties as an employee of the university. You may refuse to take part in the research or exit the survey at any time without penalty. You may skip any question you do not wish to answer for any reason.

The survey has 27 closed-answer questions and 4 open-ended questions. For the open-ended questions, please answer with as much detail as you are willing, as these questions particularly get to the heart of the research questions. The answer boxes will allow you as much space as you would like. Please note you can move backwards in the survey if you think of something you would like to add to an open-ended question.

Participation in the survey should take approximately **15-30 minutes** to complete, depending on the level of detail that you choose to provide in the open-ended questions.

BENEFITS & RISKS

You will receive no direct benefits from participating in this research study. However, your responses may help me learn more about ways to support international faculty in their work at UAB and may contribute to the general understanding of the role of international faculty in campus internationalization. There are no foreseeable risks involved in participating in this study other than those encountered in day-to-day life.

CONFIDENTIALITY

Your survey answers will be stored initially with *Qualtrics* in a password-protected electronic format. Data will later be downloaded and saved on my UAB *OneDrive* account in a password-protected electronic format. The data from the survey will be anonymized with exceptions noted below.

OPPORTUNITY FOR FURTHER PARTICIPATION

At the end of the survey, you may be asked if you are interested in participating in an additional focus group interview via Zoom. If you choose to provide contact information for this purpose, your survey responses may no longer be anonymous to the researcher. However, no names or identifying information would be included in any publications or presentations based on these data, and your responses to this survey will remain confidential.

CONTACT

If you have questions concerning the study, please contact me at (205) 934-9156 or by email at melissaw@uab.edu.

If you have further questions or concerns about your rights as a research participant, or concerns or complaints about the research, contact the UAB Office of the IRB (OIRB) at (205) 934-3789 or toll free at 1-855-860-3789. Regular hours for the OIRB are 8:00 a.m. to 5:00 p.m. CT, Monday through Friday.

ELECTRONIC CONSENT: Continuing with the survey indicates that you have read the above information and you voluntarily agree to participate.

DEFINITIONS

Here are some definitions for terms used in this survey:

- “Home country”: The country in which a person is raised and to which they have their first cultural and language ties; it is often also the country of the person’s birth, or (if the child was raised abroad) the country of at least one of their parents’ birth.
- “International faculty”: A teacher in higher education who spent all or most of their childhood and adolescence in their home country but now lives and has a permanent work appointment as a faculty member in a different country.
- “Cultural identity”: A term used by cross-cultural researchers to describe the ideas that adults who move to another country have about their sense of self as they live in that new culture over time.
- “Comprehensive campus internationalization”: All of the international and intercultural activities that a university undertakes which serve to infuse a university’s teaching, research, and service activities with international and intercultural perspectives.

QUALIFYING QUESTIONS

1. Is your home country somewhere other than the United States (USA)?
Yes No

If no, please stop the survey. This survey is for international faculty whose home country is different from the USA. Thank you for your interest!

2. Are you in a *temporary* placement at UAB, such as a post-doctoral scholar or a PhD student who also teaches:
Yes No

If yes, please stop the survey. This survey is for international faculty are in permanent work positions at UAB. Thank you for your interest!

The first three questions are about how you understand your cultural identity.

3. How would you describe your current sense of cultural identity?

_____My sense of cultural identity has not changed. I still feel I fully identify with my home culture.

_____My sense of cultural identity has changed completely. While I am proud to be identified with my home country, I feel that I culturally identify more as an American than as a member of my home culture.

_____My sense of cultural identity has changed somewhat. I feel that I culturally identify as a member of my home culture, but I also feel my identity has changed over time since coming to live in the United States. I am best described as a mix of the two cultures.

_____ I'm not sure what my sense of cultural identity is. I'm not happy to be identified with my home country, but I do not feel that I culturally identify as an American either.

4. Please discuss your answer to #2. How would you specifically describe your cultural identity to someone today? Who are you, culturally? Could you describe an example or two that demonstrates your cultural identity?
5. What do you think brought about/did not bring about changes to your current sense of cultural identity?

The next set of questions has to do with your ideas about participating in comprehensive campus internationalization as a person who has had life experiences in more than one culture.

6. Do you think that you currently encourage an international perspective in your work on campus, whether in teaching, research, or service? If so, in what ways? Choose all that apply.

_____I don't think that I currently encourage an international perspective in my work on campus.

_____I use course materials that provide an international perspective.

_____I use personal examples from my work in my discipline that provide an international perspective.

_____I give personal examples of living abroad or of working with people from different cultures when appropriate.

_____I share insights with colleagues or students on how to work with people from my home culture or people who are, in general, different from oneself.

_____I pursue a personal research agenda focused on populations in or from other countries.

_____Other (please describe): _____

7. Do you have any ideas for encouraging an international perspective on campus that you do not currently use?

_____No.

_____Yes. If so, please share them below.

8. What would enable you to encourage an international perspective on campus further? How could any obstacles in encouraging an international perspective be lessened? Choose all that apply or add your own ideas.

- ☐ Nothing; enough support is provided.
- ☐ Increasingly explicit support from leadership for internationalization
- ☐ Acknowledgement of the helpfulness of my cultural background to internationalization efforts
- ☐ Expectations from leadership for job performance in this area
- ☐ Training on ways to encourage an international perspective in my work
- ☐ Training on ways to help develop intercultural competence in others
- ☐ Other (please describe): _____

9. From your perspective, how does your cultural identity shape your current involvement in campus internationalization?

The final group of questions are closed-answer and should only take a few minutes to complete.

(Note: As this survey will be in Qualtrics, the survey will force the choice of a number so that the questions do not repeatedly say “for example 1 or 11”, etc.)

10. During your childhood and adolescence (age 0-17), did you ever live outside of your home country?

Yes No

If no, you may skip to question #12.

11. If yes, how many years did you live outside of your home country between 0-17 years of age?

___ Please enter a one or two digit number (for example: 1 or 11)

12. How old were you when you moved away from your home country as an adult (age 18+)? (Perhaps you realized that you were leaving to move to another country permanently, or perhaps you were simply leaving temporarily then decided later to stay.)

___ Please enter a two-digit number (for example: 21)

13. For what reason did you originally leave your home country?

- ☐ Education
- ☐ Employment
- ☐ Refuge
- ☐ To be closer to family or friends
- ☐ Other (Please describe): _____

14. Did you live in other countries (other than your home country) before coming to live in the United States?

Yes No

If no, you may skip to question #17.

15. If yes, how many years did you live in other countries (other than your home country) before coming to live in the USA?

___ Please enter a one or two digit number (for example: 1 or 11)

16. If yes, how many different countries did you live in (other than your home country) before coming to live in the USA?

___ Please enter a one or two digit number (for example: 1 or 11)

17. How long have you lived in the USA?

___ Please enter a one or two digit number (for example: 1 or 11)

18. How long have you been teaching in a post-secondary institution of higher education?

___ Please enter a one or two digit number (for example: 1 or 11)

19. How long have you been teaching in a post-secondary institution of higher education in the USA?

___ Please enter a one or two digit number (for example: 1 or 11)

20. Did you complete graduate work in the United States?

Yes No

21. Do you have do you have a spouse (or life partner) living with you here in the USA?

Yes No

If no, you may skip to question #22.

22. If yes, is your spouse of a different cultural background than you?

Yes No

23. Do you have children (from age 0-17) living with you in the USA?

Yes No

24. What is your age range?

___29 or younger ___30-39 ___40-49 ___50-59
___60-69 ___70 or older

25. In what general area of the world is your home country?

___East Asia (for example: P.R.C., South Korea, Japan)

___Central Asia (for example: Kazakhstan, Afghanistan)

___South Asia (for example: India, Pakistan)

___Southeast Asia (for example: Indonesia, Thailand)

___Oceania (for example: Australia, Marshall Islands, New Zealand)

___South America (for example: Brazil, Chile)

___Mexico and Central America (for example: Nicaragua, Panama)

- ☐ North America (Canada)
- ☐ Northern Africa or the Middle East (Morocco, Tunisia, Jordan, Oman)
- ☐ Sub-Saharan Africa, including Southern, Eastern, Central, or Western Africa (for example: Zimbabwe, Nigeria, Ethiopia, Ivory Coast, Mali)
- ☐ Western Europe (U.K., Spain, Germany)
- ☐ Eastern Europe (Russia, Poland, Czech Republic)

26. What is your home country? (Feel free to skip this question if you are uncomfortable giving this information.)

27. How many languages, including English, can you productively use in professional and/or social situations?

___ Please enter a one or two digit number (for example: 1 or 11)

28. How would you describe your gender?

- ☐ Male
- ☐ Female
- ☐ Gender non-conforming/non-binary

29. What is your general area of academic expertise? (Answer any that apply.)

- ☐ Medicine
- ☐ Healthcare (including Schools of Health-related Professions, Nursing, and Public Health)
- ☐ STEM (including, for example: sciences, technology, engineering, and math)
- ☐ Humanities (including, for example: social sciences, history, English, and languages)
- ☐ Business
- ☐ Education
- ☐ Arts
- ☐ Other (please describe:) _____

30. What is your faculty status at UAB?

- ☐ Full professor
- ☐ Associate professor
- ☐ Assistant professor
- ☐ Instructor (full-time)
- ☐ Adjunct (part-time) instructor
- ☐ Other (please describe): _____

31. If your primary appointment in the School of Medicine, please list your responsibilities:

- ☐ Teaching
- ☐ Clinical
- ☐ Research

_____ Service
_____ Other
_____ N/A

Thank you for completing this survey!

This study also includes interviews with focus groups to probe these themes more deeply and to learn from the personal experiences of international faculty. Recruitment for the focus groups is currently active, and wide representation from across the university is desired. If this topic piques your interest, please indicate your interest in participating in a focus group by providing your email address here: _____. Selection for participation based on demographic criteria will commence after the survey has been open for 3 weeks of distribution and collection.

APPENDIX E

RECRUITMENT EMAIL TEMPLATE FOR SURVEY PARTICIPANTS

Below is the first email that will contain the Qualtrics survey link, which may be forwarded by UAB colleagues to potential participants within UAB or may land in the email of a participant directly. Identification of “international faculty” as defined by this study is not simple; one cannot simply procure a list from any current entity at UAB that would be comprehensive. Consequently, this study will use chain sampling to recruit survey participants.

Dear UAB Colleague:

Warmest greetings. My name is Melissa Hawkins; I am a doctoral student in the UAB School of Education. I am also the International Teaching and Learning Specialist in the UAB Center for Teaching and Learning. I am seeking wide participation from international faculty at UAB in a survey for my doctoral dissertation research, entitled “The Role of International Faculty in Comprehensive Campus Internationalization.” The research seeks to investigate how international faculty understand their role in campus-wide internationalization efforts. It also seeks to understand the experience of international faculty as they have transitioned cross-culturally to living in the United States and working at an American university, especially in terms of their sense of cultural identity.

This study will help me understand how to better support international faculty in their work at UAB and may contribute to the general understanding of the role of international faculty in campus internationalization.

IDENTIFICATION OF PARTICIPANTS

International faculty, for the purposes of this study, are being identified as faculty who were born and had their primary and secondary education in another country but have now relocated to live and work in the United States. International faculty as defined in this study may have completed university study in the United States or abroad. Post-doctoral scholars or PhD students who may teach but who are also at UAB currently for *temporary* work and study are not included in the scope of this study.

If you are an international faculty member as described above, please consider participation in this research study. You can read more information about the survey and select to take the survey at this Qualtrics link: _____

If you are not an international faculty member, please consider if you can help identify international faculty members at UAB for this study. No single entity at UAB can provide a comprehensive list of all faculty featuring this specific international profile. In fact, this is an enduring difficulty for any research on international faculty members. Thus, I need your help in forwarding this to potential participants!

Thank you for helping with this research study!

Best regards,

Melissa W. Hawkins, MA-TESOL, Ed.S.
International Teaching and Learning Specialist
Center for Teaching and Learning

Doctoral Student
Educational Studies of Diverse Populations
School of Education

UAB | The University of Alabama at Birmingham
205.934.9156 | melissaw@uab.edu

Based on the survey methods book *Internet, phone, mail, and mixed-mode surveys: The tailored design method*, Dillman, Smyth, and Christian (2014) demonstrate that follow up emails are very important to encourage participation in electronic surveys. Consequently, below is a follow-up email that I will ask to be forwarded around to potential participants at 10 days after the initial request goes out, using the same contacts.

Dear UAB Colleague:

Recently you received an email, with a survey link, that asks for help identifying participants for my doctoral research entitled “The Role of International Faculty in Comprehensive Campus Internationalization.” The research seeks to investigate how international faculty understand their role in campus-wide internationalization efforts. It also seeks to understand the experience of international faculty as they have transitioned cross-culturally to living in the United States and working at an American university, especially in terms of their sense of cultural identity.

If you are an international faculty member and have already completed the survey, thank you. I truly appreciate your participation!

If you are an international faculty member and have not yet completed the survey, please do consider participating. This study will help me understand how to better support international faculty in their work at UAB and may contribute to the general understanding of the role of international faculty in campus internationalization, which is an under-researched area of international education studies. The survey should only take around 15 minutes to complete. I’d love for you to be a part.

If you are not an international faculty member but have helped already by forwarding this email to individuals whom you believe are international faculty, thank you. Please consider forwarding this reminder email to them as well.

Responses to the survey are confidential. More information about the survey, as well as the Qualtrics survey itself, are found at this link: _____

Thank you for your time and consideration of this request.

Best regards,

Melissa W. Hawkins, MA-TESOL, Ed.S.
International Teaching and Learning Specialist
Center for Teaching and Learning

Doctoral Student
Educational Studies of Diverse Populations
School of Education

UAB | The University of Alabama at Birmingham
205.934.9156 | melissaw@uab.edu

APPENDIX F

FOCUS GROUP INFORMATION SHEET

This is the consent information sheet that will be emailed out when recruiting and confirming the scheduling of each focus group interview session.

FOCUS GROUP INFORMATION SHEET

Research study: “The Role of International Faculty in Comprehensive Campus Internationalization”

PURPOSE

You are being invited to participate in a focus group sponsored by Melissa Hawkins, a doctoral student in the UAB School of Education, who is also the International Teaching and Learning Specialist in the UAB Center for Teaching and Learning. This research seeks to investigate how international faculty understand their role in campus-wide internationalization efforts, and it also seeks to understand the experience of international faculty as they have transitioned cross-culturally to living in the United States and working at an American university. The focus group will ask international faculty to share their observations about the cross-cultural transition to living and working in the United States and its impact on their sense of cultural identity, as well as their ideas about participating in campus internationalization efforts.

PROCEDURE

You will be in a group of 3-6 participants. The researcher will moderate the discussion and will ask the group a series of questions to guide the discussion. The discussion will be audio-taped and transcribed. However, your responses will remain confidential, and no identifying information will be included in the research findings or discussion.

The focus group interview is scheduled for 60 minutes.

PARTICIPATION

Your participation in the focus group interview is voluntary. Participation in the research is sincerely appreciated but is not a part of your duties as an employee of the university. You may refuse to take part in the focus group or leave the focus group interview at any time without penalty.

Please note that there are no right or wrong answers to focus group interview questions. In addition, you may refrain from participating in answering any question you do not wish to answer for any reason. The researcher would like to hear the varying experiences of each faculty member present and would like for everyone to contribute their thoughts and experiences to the conversation. Out of respect, please refrain from interrupting others. However, feel free to be honest even if your experiences have been different from those of other group members.

BENEFITS & RISKS

You will receive no direct benefits from participating in this research study. However, your responses may help me learn more about ways to support international faculty in their work at UAB and may contribute to the general understanding of the role of international faculty in campus internationalization. There are no foreseeable risks involved in participating in this study other than those encountered in day-to-day life.

CONFIDENTIALITY

Should you choose to participate, you are asked to respect the privacy of other focus group members by not disclosing any information discussed during the interview.

The focus group interviews will be transcribed by the researcher, and the transcriptions will be maintained on her UAB *OneDrive* account in a password-protected electronic format. You will be given the opportunity to review your transcribed responses in advance of analysis to ensure that you were transcribed accurately. Your responses will remain confidential, and no names (or combinations of other obvious identifiers) will be used in any reporting.

CONTACT

If you have questions concerning the study, please contact Melissa Hawkins at (205) 934-9156 or by email at melissaw@uab.edu.

If you have further questions or concerns about your rights as a research participant, or concerns or complaints about the research, contact the UAB Office of the IRB (OIRB) at (205) 934-3789 or toll free at 1-855-860-3789. Regular hours for the OIRB are 8:00 a.m. to 5:00 p.m. CT, Monday through Friday.

CONSENT

By participating in the focus group interview, you are giving your consent to participate fully under the conditions described above.

APPENDIX G

FOCUS GROUP RECRUITMENT EMAIL TEMPLATE

Email to accompany the focus group interviews information sheet to faculty selected to participate who have volunteered to participate through the survey or who have agreed to participate through recruitment efforts:

Dear _____:

Thank you for your willingness to participate in a focus group interview for my research study entitled “The Role of International Faculty in Comprehensive Campus Internationalization.”

Please review the attached information sheet about the research before coming to the interview session.

Your scheduled interview date and time is _____. If your availability for this date and time changes, please let me know.

The Zoom meeting information is as follows:
XXX

Thank you again. I look forward to learning from your experiences!

Best regards,
Melissa W. Hawkins, MA-TESOL, Ed.S.
International Teaching and Learning Specialist
Center for Teaching and Learning

Doctoral Student
Educational Studies of Diverse Populations
School of Education

UAB | The University of Alabama at Birmingham
205.934.9156 | melissaw@uab.edu

Email to accompany the focus group interviews information sheet to faculty who are being directly recruited to participate in the focus groups:

Dear _____:

Warmest greetings. My name is Melissa Hawkins; I am a doctoral student in the UAB School of Education. I am also the International Teaching and Learning Specialist in the UAB Center for Teaching and Learning. I am seeking participation from international faculty at UAB in my doctoral dissertation research, entitled “The Role of International Faculty in Comprehensive Campus Internationalization.” The research seeks to investigate how international faculty understand their role in campus-wide internationalization efforts. It also seeks to understand the experience of international

faculty as they have transitioned cross-culturally to living in the United States and working at an American university, especially in terms of their sense of cultural identity. This study will help me understand how to better support international faculty in their work at UAB and may contribute to the general understanding of the role of international faculty in campus internationalization.

IDENTIFICATION OF PARTICIPANTS

International faculty, for the purposes of this study, are being identified as faculty who were born and had their primary and secondary education in another country but have now relocated to live and work in the United States. International faculty as defined in this study may have completed university study in the United States or abroad. Post-doctoral scholars or PhD students who may teach but who are also at UAB currently for *temporary* work and study are not included in the scope of this study.

If you are an international faculty member as described above, please consider participation in a focus group interview for the study.

Please review the attached information sheet about the research. If you are willing to participate in a focus group interview, please respond to this email affirmatively.

Thank you again.

Best regards,
Melissa W. Hawkins, MA-TESOL, Ed.S.
International Teaching and Learning Specialist
Center for Teaching and Learning

Doctoral Student
Educational Studies of Diverse Populations
School of Education

UAB | The University of Alabama at Birmingham
205.934.9156 | melissaw@uab.edu

Email to accompany the focus group interviews information sheet to contacts who are asked to help recruit individuals to participate in the focus groups:

Dear _____:

Warmest greetings. My name is Melissa Hawkins; I am a doctoral student in the UAB School of Education. I am also the International Teaching and Learning Specialist in the UAB Center for Teaching and Learning. I am seeking participation from international faculty at UAB in my doctoral dissertation research, entitled "The Role of International Faculty in Comprehensive Campus Internationalization." The research seeks to investigate how international faculty understand their role in campus-wide

internationalization efforts. It also seeks to understand the experience of international faculty as they have transitioned cross-culturally to living in the United States and working at an American university, especially in terms of their sense of cultural identity. This study will help me understand how to better support international faculty in their work at UAB and may contribute to the general understanding of the role of international faculty in campus internationalization.

IDENTIFICATION OF PARTICIPANTS

International faculty, for the purposes of this study, are being identified as faculty who were born and had their primary and secondary education in another country but have now relocated to live and work in the United States. International faculty as defined in this study may have completed university study in the United States or abroad. Post-doctoral scholars or PhD students who may teach but who are also at UAB currently for *temporary* work and study are not included in the scope of this study.

If you are an international faculty member as described above, please consider participation in a focus group interview for the study. Please review the attached information sheet about the research. If you are willing to participate in a focus group interview, please respond to this email affirmatively.

If you are not an international faculty member, please consider if you can help identify international faculty members at UAB for this study. No single entity at UAB can provide a comprehensive list of all faculty featuring this specific international profile. In fact, this is an enduring difficulty for any research on international faculty members. Thus, I need your help in forwarding this to potential participants! Thank you for helping with this research study!

Best regards,
Melissa W. Hawkins, MA-TESOL, Ed.S.
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APPENDIX H

ENDORSEMENT AND TEMPLATE EMAILS FOR PILOTING THE SURVEY

Below is the endorsement email for piloting the survey, which will be forwarded to specific faculty contacts at other universities who might be interested in helping with the pilot. The email would be sent out by members of this dissertation committee. Ideally, I will have 5-10 participants in the pilot.

Dear [Name of contact]:

Happy New Year! I hope that this email finds you well. [Another personal greeting might be added here.]

With this email, I would like to endorse communication that you will soon receive from Melissa Hawkins, one of my doctoral candidates, here in the School of Education at the University of Alabama at Birmingham (UAB). I am currently serving on Melissa's doctoral dissertation committee. Melissa plans to start collecting survey data towards the end of January. However, before conducting the actual survey among international faculty at UAB, she would like to pilot this survey among international faculty at other universities. All of Melissa's committee members are recommending some of their own colleagues at other institutions for participating in this pilot survey. I hope you do not mind that I have recommended you as a potential participant in Melissa's pilot study.

Melissa's doctoral dissertation research is entitled "The Role of International Faculty in Comprehensive Campus Internationalization." In her study, Melissa seeks to investigate how faculty with international backgrounds (i.e., having been born and raised in another country) understand their role in a university's comprehensive internationalization efforts. She also seeks to understand the experience of international faculty as they have transitioned cross-culturally to living in the United States and working at an American university, especially in terms of their sense of cultural identity.

Through this study, Melissa hopes to understand how to better support international faculty at UAB, through her current position as the International Teaching and Learning Specialist in UAB's Center for Teaching and Learning. I also suspect that her research may contribute to the general understanding of the role of international faculty such as yourself in comprehensive university internationalization.

Please consider supporting Melissa's research by taking part in her pilot survey. Of course, please also let me know if you have any questions.

All the best,

[UAB faculty member]

Below is the recruitment email for piloting the survey, which will be forwarded to specific faculty contacts at other universities, primarily identified by dissertation committee members, who might be interested in helping with the pilot. The email will

contain the Qualtrics survey link and instructions for participation. Ideally I will have 5-10 participants in the pilot.

Dear [Name of contact]:

Warmest greetings. My name is Melissa Hawkins; I am a doctoral student in the School of Education at the University of Alabama at Birmingham. [Name of faculty member on my dissertation committee] recommended that I contact you regarding participating in the pilot of a survey I am preparing.

My doctoral dissertation research is entitled “The Role of International Faculty in Comprehensive Campus Internationalization.” It seeks to investigate how international faculty understand their role in campus-wide comprehensive internationalization efforts. It also seeks to understand the experience of international faculty as they have transitioned cross-culturally to living in the United States and working at an American university, especially in terms of their sense of cultural identity.

This study will help me understand how to better support international faculty in their work at our university and may contribute to the general understanding of the role of international faculty in campus internationalization, which is an under-researched area of international education studies.

International faculty, for the purposes of this study, are being identified as faculty who were born and had their primary and secondary education in another country (or countries) but have now relocated to live and work in the United States. International faculty as defined in this study may have completed university study in the United States or abroad. Post-doctoral scholars or PhD students who may teach but who are also at UAB currently for *temporary* work and study are *not* included in the scope of this study.

If you are an international faculty member as described above, please consider participation in the pilot of this research study. You can read more information about the survey and select to take the survey at this Qualtrics link:

If you choose to participate in the pilot of the survey, please record your thoughts in a separate Word document as you complete the instrument, then email the Word document to melissaw@uab.edu after you are finished. I am specifically curious on your perspectives about the comprehensibility of the questions and concepts in the survey. Please note any ambiguities or missing response choices that you note are not included.

Please let me know if you have any questions. Thank you for considering being a part of this research study!

Best regards,

Melissa W. Hawkins, MA-TESOL, Ed.S.
International Teaching and Learning Specialist
Center for Teaching and Learning

Doctoral Student
Educational Studies of Diverse Populations
School of Education

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APPENDIX I

FOCUS GROUPS INTERVIEW PROTOCOL

Script:

As you all know, my name is Melissa Hawkins. I'm a doctoral candidate in the School of Education; I'm also the International Teaching and Learning Specialist at the Center for Teaching and Learning. Thank you so much for your interest in participating in this focus group on the role of international faculty members in comprehensive campus internationalization. As a reminder, participating in this interview indicates consent with the terms of the research as described on the information sheet, emailed to you and available here in the chat for review, including permission for me to record this conversation for future transcription and analysis. You will be given opportunity to review your transcribed contributions for accuracy before analysis begins. If you do not wish to participate, please feel free to excuse yourself. If everyone consents, I am going to start the recording at this time.

My personal interest in the topic of international faculty and intercultural identity is that I have been an international faculty member myself, having lived and taught abroad in both Europe and Asia. Also, in my time working at the CTL, I have noticed international faculty interest in the topics of internationalization on which I present. Interestingly, I have discovered that while much research has been done exploring the phenomenon of living cross-culturally, not much research has been done on the experience of international faculty living and working cross-culturally. I'm particularly interested in the experiences of international faculty with living and especially working cross-culturally, particularly as that might relate to the roles they could play in campus internationalization.

Research shows that adults who relocate to another country have different reactions to living in a new culture over time. Some find that their sense of who they are stays firmly and unchangeably connected to their home country's culture. Other adults find that their ideas about who they are change as they incorporate some elements of the culture where they live into their sense of self. Still others find that they come to identify completely with the new culture where they now live, while having either positive or negative feelings about their home culture. Cross-cultural researchers call these ideas about self "cultural identity."

1. How would you describe your current sense of cultural identity? Who are you, culturally? Would you share with me an example that demonstrates your cultural identity?
2. What do you think brought about/did not bring about changes to your current sense of cultural identity?

Many universities around the world are interested in comprehensive university internationalization, which includes all of the international and intercultural activities that a university undertakes which serve to infuse a university's teaching, research, and service activities with international and intercultural perspectives. This includes activities that a university undertakes to help all of its students develop intercultural competence

and a richer understanding of international issues. The next set of questions has to do with your ideas about participating in university internationalization as a person who has had life experiences in more than one culture.

3. Do you currently encourage an international perspective in your work on campus, whether in teaching, research, or service? If so, in what ways?
4. Do you have ideas for encouraging an international perspective on campus that you do not currently use?
5. What would enable you to encourage an international perspective on campus more? How could any obstacles in encouraging an international perspective be lessened?

We have discussed your sense of cultural identity and its development. We have discussed campus internationalization and your involvement with it. Now, let's consider if these two things could be related, and if so, how.

6. From your perspective, how does your cultural identity shape your current involvement in campus internationalization?

Do you have any other comments/questions/thoughts to contribute?

As mentioned in the information sheet, after transcription of this interview is complete, I'll give you a chance to review your comments before I progress with the research. I'll be in touch!

Thank you so much for your time.

APPENDIX J

UNIVERSITY IRB PERMISSION LETTER

APPROVAL LETTER

TO: Hawkins, Melissa W

FROM: University of Alabama at Birmingham Institutional Review Board
Federalwide Assurance # FWA00005960
IORG Registration # IRB00000196 (IRB 01)
IORG Registration # IRB00000726 (IRB 02)
IORG Registration # IRB00012550 (IRB 03)

DATE: 01-Apr-2021

RE: IRB-300006154
IRB-300006154-005
The Role of International Faculty in Comprehensive Campus Internationalization

The IRB reviewed and approved the Revision/Amendment submitted on 18-Mar-2021 for the above referenced project. The review was conducted in accordance with UAB's Assurance of Compliance approved by the Department of Health and Human Services.

Type of Review: Exempt

Exempt Categories: 2

Determination: Exempt

Approval Date: 01-Apr-2021

Documents Included in Review:

- IRB EPORTFOLIO

To access stamped consent/assent forms (full and expedited protocols only) and/or other approved documents:

1. Open your protocol in IRAP.
2. On the Submissions page, open the submission corresponding to this approval letter. NOTE: The Determination for the submission will be "Approved."
3. In the list of documents, select and download the desired approved documents. The stamped consent/assent form(s) will be listed with a category of Consent/Assent Document (CF, AF, Info Sheet, Phone Script, etc.)