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**THE SOCIALIZATION OF INTERNATIONAL
WOMEN FACULTY**

By

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A DISSERTATION

Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the

Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

(in Education)

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The University of Maine

May 2014

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DISSERTATION ACCEPTANCE STATEMENT

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THE SOCIALIZATION OF INTERNATIONAL WOMEN FACULTY

By Daniela Ximena Véliz Calderón

Dissertation Advisor: Dr. Susan K. Gardner

An Abstract of the Dissertation Presented
in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the
Degree of Doctor of Philosophy
(in Education)
May 2014

Research indicates that women and minority faculty often experience disparate socialization experiences in academia (Clark & Corcoran, 1986; Tierney & Bensimon, 1996; Tierney & Rhoads, 1994). For faculty, a positive socialization experience can lead to a successful academic career, whereas a negative one can cause alienation and departure (Tierney & Rhoads, 1994). Faculty attrition rates are higher for women than for men (Menges & Exum, 1983; Rothblum, 1988), and at high prestige institutions, women and faculty of color may have higher rates of attrition (Olsen, Maple, & Stage, 1995). Currently, the majority of international faculty members are employed at research universities and concentrated at the most prestigious universities in the US (Chow & Bhandari, 2011). This study focuses on the socialization experiences of international women faculty through a gendered view of socialization (Tierney & Bensimon, 1996). Employing a qualitative design, I explored the socialization experiences of 12 international faculty members working at one research university in the US. The data gathered from both individual and focus group interviews with 12 participants highlight

the significant role that culture, gender, and mentoring have in faculty members' experiences, as well as the importance of the anticipatory socialization experience.

DEDICATION

To: Felipe, Diego y Nicolás

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

I think that sometimes it's hard to make connections because we're international students or international faculty members and we come from different countries, no matter if it's a culture or the environment is different from here. For example, when you attend a conference sometimes it's very hard to build a connection easily with other faculty members so you have to learn first your new culture, your environment while you talk as fast as you can. This was a challenge for me, especially at the beginning.

This quote from Tiffani, an international woman faculty member working at a research university in the United States (US), illustrates some of the issues, such as barriers in their socialization process, that minority faculty experience in academia. At the same time, this quote also illustrates that the acclimation, adjustment, and socialization experienced by international women faculty is complex.

As findings from the present study indicate, the socialization of international women faculty is a product of both cultural and individual characteristics. When one joins a professional organization, such as academia, the individual goes through a process to become an accepted member of the organization, otherwise known as organizational socialization (Merton, 1957). The quote above elucidates a common impediment to socialization for those who might be considered “different” or outside of the norm (Aisenberg & Harrington, 1988; Tierney & Rhoads, 1994), particularly when those barriers exclude them from accessing information and networks they need in order to achieve resources and rewards (Aguirre, 2000; Clark & Corcoran, 1986). As such,

socialization is a vital part of a faculty member's experience (Tierney, 1997), wherein a positive socialization experience can lead to a successful academic career, such as through the granting of tenure (Tierney & Rhoads, 1994). On the other hand, a negative socialization experience can cause alienation and departure (Tierney & Rhoads, 1994).

Researchers have found that women faculty and minority faculty often experience disparate socialization experiences in academia (Clark & Corcoran, 1986; Tierney & Bensimon, 1996; Tierney & Rhoads, 1994). The lack of socialization or the negative socialization that individuals from minority groups (e.g., women, faculty of color) face may result in accumulated disadvantage over time (Clark & Corcoran, 1986). Further, the lack of positive socialization experiences for women and minority faculty can be problematic, leading to increased turnover and attrition (Aguirre, 2000; Tierney & Rhoads, 1994). Indeed, women and minority faculty are more likely to depart academia than their White, male peers (Johnsrud & Heck, 1994; Menges & Exum, 1983; Rothblum, 1988).

International women faculty members represent the merging of two of these minority groups among the professoriate. According to Kim et al. (2011), how "international faculty" is defined matters when studying this population. As the findings from the present study highlight, it is important to differentiate between international faculty who study in the US from those who have studied abroad, as they have had drastically different experiences and preparation for the socialization they receive as faculty members.

Currently, the majority of international faculty members are employed at research universities and concentrated at the most prestigious universities in the US (Chow &

Bhandari, 2011). International faculty are usually found in the biological and biomedical sciences, health sciences, and engineering (Chow & Bhandari, 2011). They come from all around the world with the three top leading countries being China (26.1%), India (10.3%), and South Korea (8%) (Chow & Bhandari, 2011). In the past 20 years, the number of international faculty has increased considerably at colleges and universities in the US. In 1969, international faculty numbered 28,276, representing only 10% of the total faculty in the US. By 1998, this number increased to 74,220 (15.5% of the total) and then reached 115,313 in 2010 (Chow & Bhandari, 2011). Despite these increases, women remain underrepresented among international faculty, making up only 36.3% of the 115,313 international faculty in the US in 2010 (Chow & Bhandari, 2011).

Despite their increase in representation and their vital roles in US colleges and universities in teaching, research, and service, relatively little is known about the experiences of international faculty in US colleges and universities. These perspectives are important when one considers the aims of US colleges and universities. More than ever before, colleges and universities recognize the importance of promoting international exchange on their campuses because of the benefits this exchange has for their students, faculty, and staff (Gurin, Dey, Hurtado, & Gurin, 2002). It is well documented that diversifying faculty and staff provides several positive outcomes that promote the mission of higher education in the US including: (a) diversity provides support for students from particular groups; (b) diversification is an important symbol to students of these groups about their own futures and about the institution's commitment to them; (c) diversification on campus creates a more comfortable environment for students as well as for faculty and staff; and (d) diverse faculty and staff reflect one

measure of success for an educational institution in a pluralistic society (Smith & Wolf-Wendel, 1996). International faculty can offer “the diversity of perspective and worldviews that potentially enrich the university on the global context” (Kim et al., 2011, p. 722).

Study Purpose and Research Questions

The purpose of this study is to understand the socialization experiences of international women faculty at a research university in the US. This qualitative study investigates the perception of the socialization experiences of 12 international women faculty members at one research university through semi-structured interviews and a focus group. All participants in this study grew up outside the US and represent a range of disciplines, including six from STEM, three from the social sciences, and three from professional and applied fields. Additionally, 11 of the participants received their terminal degrees from US universities. Lastly, they also represented diversity in rank and age.

The following questions are addressed in this study: What do international women faculty working at one research university perceive as their socialization experiences? What do they perceive to facilitate or hinder the socialization experiences?

In order to understand participants’ perceptions of their socialization experiences as international women faculty, I utilized qualitative methods guided by the tenets of phenomenology. Qualitative methods are useful in revealing participants’ understandings of the “events, situations, and actions they are involved with and of the accounts that they give of their lives and experiences” (Maxwell, 1996, p. 17). This was a phenomenological study since my interest was to gain a deeper understanding of the

meaning of the socialization experience for these international women faculty. Phenomenology is an interpretive research methodology, which aims to gain a deep understanding of the lived experiences of people (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010). This approach focuses on how participants make sense of their experiences; in other words, “how they perceive it, describe it, feel about it, judge it, remember it, make sense of it and talk about it with others” (Patton, 2002, p. 104). For this study, I used the interpretive (hermeneutic) phenomenology as well as the Heidegger tradition (Lopez & Willis, 2004; Moustakas, 1994). Central to Heidegger’s work is the idea of “lifeworld”, which is the idea that individuals’ realities are always influenced by the world in which they live. I looked to uncover the meaning that international women gave to their socialization experiences as faculty members in relation to the context in which they were situated: the research university at which they work.

Conceptual Framework

Due to the disparate socialization experiences of women faculty and faculty of color in US colleges and universities (Clark & Corcoran, 1986; Tierney & Bensimon, 1996; Tierney & Rhoads, 1994), in this study I used a gendered view of organizational socialization (Tierney & Bensimon, 1996) in order to understand the socialization experiences of international women faculty working at one research university. This framework represents both organizational socialization theory and critical feminist theory. Organizational socialization as a theory has been used widely as a framework to understand the experience of faculty members in academia (Tierney, 1996; Tierney & Bensimon, 1996; Tierney & Rhoads, 1994) and has been described as a process by which new members acquire the norms, knowledge, and skills they need in order to exist in a

given society (Merton, 1957) – in this case, academia – and to explain how the organization’s values are transmitted to and experienced by these new members (Van Maanen & Schein, 1979). While the traditional view of socialization is one widely used in studying this population, such a perspective is problematic when trying to understand the experiences of international women faculty because it assumes that the organizational socialization process is gender neutral (Tierney & Bensimon, 1996). In other words, organizational socialization theory presumes the socialization experience is equal for everyone and that the organization treats each member equally or neutrally (Tierney & Bensimon, 1996). Critical feminist theory is a more appropriate lens to use to understand the gendered aspects of the organizational socialization process, as it brings gender to the forefront of the analysis (Ropers-Huilman & Winters, 2011). Given this, a gendered view of organizational socialization that merges socialization and feminist theory is used as a lens to better understand the socialization experiences of international women faculty.

This study consists of a review of the literature relevant to international faculty, faculty socialization, as well as women faculty socialization in chapter two. Chapter three includes the research design and methodology, followed then by the findings of the study. The findings are divided into two areas, with chapter four painting portraits of the 12 participants and chapter five describing the socialization experiences of the participants. Chapter six includes the conclusion and recommendations for future research.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

In this chapter I present an overview of the literature related to international women faculty and their socialization experiences in academia. I begin with a discussion of international faculty, followed by a discussion of the nuances of women's experiences, and conclude with an overview of the concepts of faculty socialization and critical feminist theory.

International Faculty

In many ways, the study of international individuals in US colleges and universities has been limited. For example, until recently, relatively little was known about international students' experiences at the undergraduate level (Guidry Lacina, 2002; Hayes & Lin, 1994; Lin & Yi, 1997; Russell, Rosenthal, & Thomson, 2010), and there was even less scholarship about international graduate students' experiences (Chapdelaine & Alexitch, 2004; Le & Gardner, 2010; Park, 2004; Trice & Yoo, 2007). As such, international faculty and their experiences have only begun to be explored in the existing literature. To set the stage for understanding this population, I begin with a discussion of the terminology and definitions related to international faculty as well as the status and emergence of this population in academia.

Terminology

The terminology surrounding the status of international faculty is important for understanding the scope of the population being discussed. According to Kim et al. (2011), how "international faculty" is defined matters when studying this population. Prior scholars have defined international faculty as those who are foreign-born or non-

citizens (Lin, Pearce, & Wang, 2009; Mamiseishvili & Rosser, 2010), but such a definition may be misleading. For example, some scholars who focused only on citizenship (Mamiseishvili & Rosser, 2010) included faculty who were born and educated abroad but became naturalized, which resulted in underreporting the number of international faculty (Kim et al., 2011).

While several datasets (e.g., IPEDS, NSOPF, Digest of Education Statistics) are useful in understanding the trends of international faculty working at US colleges and universities, they may present some issues when trying to determine the number of international faculty who are currently employed in the US. For example, the Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System (IPEDS), sponsored by the National Center for Education Statistics (NCES), began collecting data for “non-resident alien” (NRA) faculty as a separate “racial/ethnic” group by 1993 (Smith, Tovar, & García, 2012). Even though this dataset is helpful in providing the number of international faculty who are non-resident aliens, it does not include those who were foreign-born and/or educated abroad and naturalized after working in the US for some time. The Open Doors report lists the number of international scholars in the US, but includes only those faculty who are under a visa status (see Table 1). Similarly, the Digest of Education Statistics reports the number of faculty that are non-resident aliens (see Table 2).

Table 1: Comparisons of international scholars data, Open Doors Report, 2010-2011

Sex	Number International Scholars
Male	73,454 (63.7%)
Female	41,859 (36.3%)
Total Number of International Scholars	115,313

Source: (Chow & Bhandari, 2011)

Table 2: Comparison of international scholars data, Digest of Education Statistics 2011

Institutional Type	Number of Faculty Non-Residents Aliens
Public 4-Year	22,714
Private 4-Year	14,995
Public 2-Year	2,610
Private 2-Year	15
Total	40,334

Source: (Snyder & Dillow, 2012)

In summary, several available datasets are helpful in providing information about the current number of international faculty who are employed at US colleges and universities, but it is important to keep in mind that international faculty who have been in the US for a long period of time or have become naturalized may not be included in these statistics. Some international faculty may be categorized as ethnic minorities (e.g., Black, Hispanic, Asian/Pacific Islander, & American Indian/Alaska Native) instead of foreign born.

From Immigrant to International Faculty

International faculty can be considered a subgroup of US immigrants in professional positions. Like other industries, the American academic profession has been affected by the incremental importation of labor (Finkelstein, Seal, & Schuster, 1998; Manrique & Manrique, 1999). The tendency toward internationalization in the US has been shaped in many ways by the policies and laws concerning immigration trends. For example, the Immigration Act of 1965 attempted to provide a more “permissive and racially neutral immigration policy” (Gabaccia, 1994, p. 10), thereby increasing the number of immigrants admitted every year; however, this law gave preference to skilled and professional workers such as international faculty. Currently, there are several factors that have contributed to the increase of immigrants with professional status. Some of these factors have to do with the international division of labor; the global communication system, including the system of higher education and the exchange of scholars and thoughts; the “brain drain,” or the flow of intellectual talent from less developed to more developed societies; and immigration laws, such as those in 1965 and 1990, which gave preference to hiring immigrants in certain professional settings (Gabaccia, 1994).

According to data from the NSF and the Open Doors report (National Science Board, 2009; Chow & Bhandari, 2011), a substantial number of professionals with immigrant status work in the fields of science and engineering. In addition, many of these professionals trained in US colleges and universities as international students before becoming international scholars (Skachkova, 2007).

According to available data from Open Doors, in 1999-2000 the number of international students was 514,723, rising to 723,277 by 2010-2011 (Chow & Bhandari, 2011). The number of international scholars increased 30.9% between 2000-2001 and 2010-2011, from 79,651 to 115,313 (Chow & Bhandari, 2011). Among these international scholars, 36.3% are women. It is important to remember that these figures include only international scholars under a visa status.

Other data sources, such as Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System (IPEDS), sponsored by the National Center for Education Statistics (NCES), are also useful for providing a broad picture of the trends among international faculty. In 1993, for the first time, the NCES began collecting data for “non-resident alien” (NRA) faculty as a separate “racial/ethnic” group (Smith et al., 2012). In 2009, international faculty of all races/ethnicities (NRA) constituted 4.4% of full-time faculty in the US. Among these international faculty, 1.5% were women. Even though the percentage may seem small (4.4%), there has been substantial growth within this population. Between 1993 and 2009, NRA faculty have increased by 188% (women by 333%) (Smith et al., 2012). These data show that international faculty are a growing population in the US professoriate.

While there has been an increase in immigrants in professional positions in the US, including international faculty, this trend has not been gender neutral (Gabaccia, 1994). For instance, after the Immigration Law of 1965 that gave preference to skilled, professional, and entrepreneurial immigrants, almost 75% of all immigrants were men (Gabaccia, 1994, p. 39). Some scholars have suggested that women are more likely to immigrate to the US because of marriage rather than professional opportunities

(Gabaccia, 1994). Other scholars have found that work experience, age, and marital status tend to be the most prevalent factors contributing to relationships between foreign women and the professional market in the US (Seller, 1994).

Benefits of International Faculty

Since the 1980s, colleges and universities in the US have focused on culturally-diverse campuses with an emphasis on global awareness (Manrique & Manrique, 1999). Having international scholars on the faculty is crucial to meeting these goals (Manrique & Manrique, 1999). Colleges and universities have increasingly acknowledged the benefits this cultural exchange has for their students, faculty, and staff (Gurin et al., 2002). For example, it has been well-documented that diversifying faculty and staff leads to positive outcomes that promote the mission of colleges and universities in the US, including the fact that (a) diversity provides support for the benefit of the students from particular groups; (b) diversification is an important symbol to students of these groups about their own futures and about the institution's commitment to them; (c) diversification on campus creates a more comfortable environment for students as well as for faculty and staff; and (d) diverse faculty and staff reflect one measure of success for an educational institution in a pluralistic society (Smith & Wolf-Wendel, 1996). In this regard, international faculty offer "the diversity of perspective and worldviews that potentially enrich the university on the global context" (Kim et al., 2011, p. 722).

Cultural Background and Challenges

Despite the potential benefits diversity offers colleges and universities, international faculty often face challenges on campus. International faculty encounter and learn US cultural norms when interacting with students and colleagues via everyday

experiences (Thomas & Johnson, 2004). Some of these cultural differences have been found to lead to both positive and negative experiences for these individuals. For example, international faculty may feel that their unique cultural background affords them the opportunity to develop closer relationships with students (Thomas & Johnson, 2004), bring a fresh perspective into the classroom, or diversify the academic environment (Manrique, 2002; Manrique & Manrique, 1999; Skachkova, 2007).

From a negative perspective, international faculty have found their cultural differences may affect their teaching credibility. For example, their accent may negatively influence their student evaluations (Marvasti, 2005; Skachkova, 2007). Indeed, the language barrier is one of the most common hurdles for non-native English speaking international faculty (Marvasti, 2005). Linguistic problems in the classroom can create a perceived ineffectiveness among students, also leading to poor student evaluations (Marvasti, 2005). This linguistic barrier may present an obvious challenge for the international faculty population (Rubin & Smith, 1990), who are often evaluated for their teaching as part of the faculty reward system. In addition, scholars have found that international faculty women experience challenges due to gender stereotypes (Skachkova, 2007). For example, international women faculty may often be questioned more about their teaching credibility by their students when compared to international men faculty (Manrique & Manrique, 1999; Skachkova, 2007). In describing her own identity as an international faculty woman, Manrique (2002) stated, “The three characteristics that make us unique in academe – gender, ethnicity and foreign origin – are both pluses and negatives” (Manrique, 2002, p. 146).

In addition, Skachkova (2007) found that international women faculty members' cultural backgrounds may influence the way they conduct their research by encouraging them to conduct certain types of research. Some scholars have referred to this phenomenon as the "brown-on-brown research taboo," meaning that minority faculty may be more likely to conduct minority-related research (Reyes & Halcon, 1988). The problem is that this type of research may not be recognized as legitimate by other colleagues (Turner & Myers, 2000), thereby creating an obstacle for international faculty working at institutions where research is highly valued. It is important to acknowledge that Skachkova's (2007) study included a diverse group of immigrant women faculty in terms of country of origin and academic field, including a considerable number coming from the humanities where this phenomenon is perhaps more prevalent than in the STEM fields.

Work Role and Productivity: Institutional Type and Gender

Where international faculty members are situated also plays a role in their experiences. For example, if one considers the four major types of institutional settings in the US as research universities, liberal arts colleges, regional comprehensive institutions, and community colleges (Wolf-Wendel & Ward, 2006a), the majority of international faculty are employed in research universities (Chow & Bandari, 2011).

These institutional settings factor greatly into the experiences of the faculty who are employed there (Clark, 1987; Wolf-Wendel & Ward, 2006a). For example, the workload, or the specified division among teaching, research, and service in a faculty member's appointment (Clark, 1987), and associated duties of faculty members in each of these institutional types varies (Clark, 1987; Wolf-Wendel & Ward, 2006a). Faculty

members in research universities are asked to allocate the vast majority of their time to research, whereas faculty in liberal arts colleges generally place higher emphasis on teaching (Clark, 1987). In leading research universities, scholarship and research are the most prized activities in the faculty reward system, which results in an increased international reputation, as judged by their peers (Clark, 1987).

Inasmuch as institutional type shapes the experience of faculty members, gender may also have an impact in faculty members' lives. Several scholars have demonstrated that women and men have different experiences in academia (e.g., Bellas & Toutkoushian, 1999; Clark & Corcoran, 1986; Valian, 1999; Ward & Bensimon, 2003). One example is the role of family among women and men academics. Some scholars have found that having children may produce a negative effect on women faculty members' productivity (Sonnert & Holton, 1995), but may have a positive effect for men and their salaries (Perna, 2005).

Wolf-Wendel and Ward (2006a) demonstrated that the role of children in one's career also varies by institutional type. They found that tenure-track women faculty at community college were generally more positive about combining work and family as compared to their peers at other types of institutions; however, it is important to acknowledge that the vast majority of the participants in Wolf-Wendel and Ward's study were European American women and not necessarily international faculty.

Since the majority of international faculty are employed at research universities (Chow & Bhandari, 2011), a number of scholars have focused on understanding international faculty members' workloads as well as their research productivity (Corley & Sabharwal, 2007; Kim et al., 2011; Mamiseishvili, 2010; Mamiseishvili & Rosser,

2010; Marvasti, 2005). In research on workload, scholars have compared the time foreign-born and US-born faculty spend on their work each day and concluded that foreign-born faculty – both men and women – spend more time conducting research than their US-born peers (Mamiseishvili & Rosser, 2010; Marvasti, 2005). Similarly, other scholars have found that international women faculty are less involved in undergraduate teaching compared to their US-born peers, even though they are assigned to the same number of classes (Mamiseishvili, 2010). Interestingly, these findings contradict the conceptualization of the gendered division of labor in academia (Mamiseishvili, 2010) in which women tend to be assigned more teaching and service responsibilities (Bellas & Toutkoushian, 1999; Nettles, Perna, & Bradburn, 2000) than their male peers. The discrepancy in teaching-related duties may happen because students prefer to enroll in classes taught by US-born women faculty (Mamiseishvili, 2010); however, it is not clear how the workload of international women faculty is decided or experienced.

Another important way to measure overall productivity is to examine research productivity. Scholars usually refer to productivity as a multidimensional construct that can be measured as the amount of publications and external grant dollars of an individual faculty member (Porter & Umbach, 2001). A number of scholars have recently suggested that international faculty, regardless of gender, are more productive than US-born faculty in terms of their research publications across all disciplines (Lin et al., 2009; Mamiseishvili, 2010; Mamiseishvili & Rosser, 2010). It is important to note, however, that distinctions are not made between those international faculty who completed their undergraduate degrees in US universities and those who completed their undergraduate degrees in another country. Kim et al. (2011) were the first to ask whether country of

education was related to productivity. They concluded that only those international faculty working in the US who completed their undergraduate studies in another country were more productive than their US-born counterparts. In addition, they found that US faculty productivity was also positively affected by having more international colleagues (Kim et al., 2011). Other scholars have focused specifically on the productivity of international faculty in the sciences, or in fields in which they are highly-concentrated (Chow & Bhandari, 2011), and concluded that in the sciences, international faculty were more productive than US-born faculty (Corley & Sabharwal, 2007; Espenshade, Usdansky, & Chung, 2001). However, this level of productivity is not always reflected in international faculty members' earnings (Corley & Sabharwal, 2007). In fact, international scientists in academia have been shown to earn significantly less than their US-born peers, although the opposite is true for international scientists outside academia (Espenshade et al., 2001).

Job Satisfaction

Even though international faculty who complete their undergraduate degrees outside the US are more productive than their US peers, they are less satisfied with their jobs (Kim et al., 2011). Job satisfaction can be conceptualized as including three major elements: recognition, achievement, and responsibility (Herzberg, Mausner, & Snyderman, 1959). International faculty in science fields are significantly less satisfied than their US-born peers in all dimensions of their work, including work environment, opportunities for advancement, job benefits, intellectual challenge of the job, degree of independence, location, level of responsibility, salary, job security, and contribution to society (Corley & Sabharwal, 2007). The same has been noted of international faculty

who completed their undergraduate degrees in their home countries (Kim et al., 2011). Contradictory findings have been reported by other scholars, who found international faculty reporting being more satisfied with their jobs than US-born peers (Lin et al., 2009).

It is important to note, however, that none of these studies included descriptions of gender differences. While Skachkova's (2007) study did not necessarily focus on job satisfaction, her findings suggested that international women faculty did feel excluded from their US-born colleagues within their social networks and experienced both discrimination and a lack of institutional support.

Women Faculty

It is well documented that women face more challenges and barriers than men in academia (Aguirre, 2000; Clark & Corcoran, 1986; Donaldson & Emes, 2000; Etzkowitz, 2000; Glazer-Raymo, 2008; Nettles et al., 2000; Samble, 2008; West & Curtis, 2006). Scholars have attributed many of the barriers experienced by women and minority faculty to the fact that academia has been dominated for decades by White American men. As a result, the definition of how things should be learned or done has always been measured by men's privileged parameters (Menges & Exum, 1983). While men and women experience differences in academia, it is also important to understand that women are themselves a diverse group and that each woman's experience will be different based upon her own unique background and context (Aguirre, 2000). For example, some of the differences between White women faculty and minority faculty women may be explained by the fact that minority faculty women face more obstacles due to differences of both gender and racial or ethnic differences (Aguirre, 2000).

Another challenge that women in academia face is that men and women are treated differently in the negotiation process (Babcock & Laschever, 2009). It is well documented that the attributes associated with men include assertiveness, dominance, and decisiveness, whereas women are thought to be warm, expressive, nurturing, emotional, and friendly (Eagly, 1995). These stereotypes create ideas about how men and women should behave, including in negotiation situations. Researchers have found that women tend to feel more anxiety and discomfort compared to men when negotiating (Babcock, Gelfand, Small, & Stayn, 2002). The discomfort women may feel with negotiation not only makes the process of negotiating harder for them, it also prevents women from negotiating as much as men do (Babcock & Laschever, 2009).

Although the number of women serving as faculty members in postsecondary institutions has risen significantly over prior decades (Allan, 2011), from the perspective of equitable gender representation, it has been an unbearably slow shift (Glazer-Raymo, 2008; Valian, 1999). According to the literature, while women faculty have made progress in academia, they are still represented primarily in the lower ranks and in part-time positions (Barber, 1995; Snyder & Dillow, 2010; Valian, 1999), are less often awarded tenure and promotion (Moore & Sagaria, 1993), and earn less than their men counterparts (Nettles et al., 2000; Umbach, 2007), even when controlling for variables such as age, rank, discipline, and institutional type (Nettles et al., 2000). In addition, women usually are underrepresented in disciplines such as engineering and science; likewise, they have lower paying and less prestigious jobs (Barber, 1995). As a result of the lack of representation, women suffer from isolation in their units or departments and experience discriminatory treatment that may affect their professional experiences (Clark

& Corcoran, 1986; Tierney & Rhoads, 1994). Researchers have found that women faculty and minority faculty often experience disparate experiences in academia (Tierney & Bensimon, 1996; Tierney & Rhoads, 1994), which may ultimately result in their departure from the academic workplace, as reflected in their proportionally higher turnover rates (Aguirre & Martinez, 1993; Menges & Exum, 1983; Rothblum, 1988).

Over the past two decades women have benefited from Title IX, which prohibits sex discrimination in higher education, and other affirmative action programs. Enacted in 1972 by the US Congress, Title IX states that all schools receiving federal funds must provide equal opportunity for men and women. Affirmative action programs have led to substantial increases in minority student enrollment and minority faculty hiring at US colleges and universities (Dugger, 2001). Women and minority faculty who are recruited through affirmative action programs bring fresh points of view to their colleagues, new areas of research to their institutions, and nuance to the teaching and learning that goes on in their classrooms (Dugger, 2001). However, there has been controversy regarding affirmative action programs, and women and minority faculty may experience backlash because these programs exist (Dugger, 2001). For example, when it is perceived that sex played a determining role in a woman's selection for a position, she can experience more role stress, as well as be seen as less committed to the organization and less satisfied (Chacko, 1982).

As discussed earlier, institutional type plays an important role in the experience of faculty members (Clark, 1987). Additionally, women faculty members' experiences are influenced by institutional settings in ways that are distinct from their men peers. For example, Wolf-Wendel and Ward (2006) found that tenure track women faculty with

young children working at community colleges were more positive about the experience of balancing work and family than women faculty at other types of institutions. Taken together, however, scholars have found that women faculty are more often tasked with care-taking or motherly roles in the department (Clark & Corcoran, 1986; Tierney & Bensimon, 1996), as evidenced in higher teaching loads, more advising, and more service work than their men peers (Menges & Exum, 1983; Nettles et al., 2000; Schuster & Finkelstein, 2006).

Tenure Track Faculty in Research Universities

In the US, the Carnegie classification system has been used for more than 30 years to assist research in higher education (McCormick, 2001). The Carnegie classification system helps represent the diversity of higher education institutions by grouping them into meaningful categories according to what they do and who they teach (McCormick, 2001). The basic classification includes research universities, master's colleges and universities, associate colleges, and so on. Research universities are those who award at least 20 research doctoral degrees per year and have an emphasis on research.

In 2010, women represented 40.6% of full-time faculty in tenure-track positions at all types of higher education institutions, but they seldom represented more than 30% at research universities (Snyder & Dillow, 2010). Minority faculty women are the least well-represented group among full-time, tenure track academics (Menges & Exum, 1983; Perna, 2001; Snyder & Dillow, 2010). Full-time, tenure-track faculty members at research universities in the US are expected to spend their time teaching, doing research, and participating in service and administrative functions at their institutions (Clark,

1987), often with the ultimate goal of promotion and tenure (Aguirre, 2000; Tierney & Bensimon, 1996). These three areas in which tenure track faculty are evaluated are not equally weighted. For example all faculty are expected to do some service, however faculty members are not denied tenure on the basis of deficient service (Kasten, 1984). Also all tenure track faculty members are expected to do some teaching, but outstanding teaching will not by itself guarantee tenure. The most important factor in tenure and promotion is research (Daly & Townsend, 1994; Kasten, 1984).

Even though the purpose of tenure is clear, the process can be ambiguous for those who seek it (Tierney & Bensimon, 1996). At research universities, it is not surprising that research is heavily considered in promotion and tenure decisions (Menges & Exum, 1983). At these institutions, publications are commonly used to measure faculty productivity. Scholars have found that while women may publish less than men (Bellas & Toutkoushian, 1999), they often spend more time teaching and engaged in service activities (Menges & Exum, 1983; Nettles et al., 2000; Schuster & Finkelstein, 2006), which are activities that carry less weight in the tenure-granting decision (Menges & Exum, 1983). It is important to note that international faculty women working at research universities have reported that they spend more time conducting research and less time in teaching and service activities compared to White women faculty (Mamiseishvili, 2010).

The workload of women faculty at research universities is also influenced by the reward system that dictates what is valued and what is counted. For example, the reward system may often fail to take into account the familial responsibilities that are part of women's lives, such as having children (Aguirre, 2000). Balancing this dual role of

mother and professor can bring stress and guilt (Ward & Wolf-Wendel, 2004), which can also affect women's desire to remain in academia. In male-dominated fields, such as science and engineering, finding balance between career and family may be especially challenging for women. Scholars have reported that women working in these fields either delay parenthood or decide not to have children, in large part due to the demands of their career (Grant, Kennelly, & Ward, 2000).

Other challenges experienced by faculty women at research universities have to do with the campus climate. Women and minority faculty at large research campuses have been documented as perceiving a "chilly" and unreceptive environment that may isolate them from others in academia (Aguirre, 2000; Sandler & Hall, 1986). Women and minority faculty have also been found to experience more stress than their White male peers, which can have implications for these women's performance (Aguirre, 2000). Some scholars have also found that minority faculty women are more likely than White women to experience negative stereotypes in the workplace (Menges & Exum, 1983) or face additional demands due to their "minority status" (Aguirre, 2000). If the workplace stressors prevent these faculty from performing their workplace tasks satisfactorily, "then professional socialization, such as promotion and tenure, is disrupted" (Aguirre, 2000, p. 59).

Striving Environments

Environments that encourage striving behaviors have been found to be less friendly for women faculty members than their male counterparts (Wolf-Wendel & Ward, 2006a; Wolf-Wendel & Ward, 2006b). Striving institutional culture has been defined as "the pursuit of prestige within the academic hierarchy" (O'Meara, 2007, p. 123). Striving

behaviors result when institutions imitate more successful institutions in the hope of gaining market advantage (Bess & Dee, 2007) and are common in the United States (Dubrow, Moseley, & Dustin, 2006; O'Meara, 2007). Due to the economic climate, institutions of higher education may be more likely to participate in “mission drift” (Berdahl, 1985) by moving away from their original missions toward those of elite institutions (Morphew & Huisman, 2002). The pressure to gain more prestige has implications for students, administrators, and faculty (Gardner, 2010). For example, striving environments are related to high faculty turnover in part due to changes in expectations for being granted tenure (Gardner, 2010). Additionally, women at research institutions, where international faculty are more concentrated (Chow & Bhandari, 2011), are apt to express less satisfaction compare to women at other institutional types (Wolf-Wendel & Ward, 2006a). The lack of satisfaction may eventually result in faculty attrition (Hagedorn, 2000; O'Meara, 2007).

Organizational Socialization

Organizational socialization can be defined as a process by which new members acquire the norms, knowledge, and skills they need in order to exist in a given society (Merton, 1957). While many different types of socialization can exist – whether to a gender role or to a society – the focus in this study is on that of organizational socialization. The organizational socialization process entails learning about the culture of a given group, including its values, attitudes, and expectations (Clark & Corcoran, 1984; Van Maanen, 1976). Organizational socialization has been defined by scholars as “the process by which an individual acquires the social knowledge and skills necessary to assume an organizational role” (Van Maanen & Schein, 1979, p. 211). This theory

describes how organizational values and norms are transmitted as a component of organizational culture from established members to new members.

Organizational socialization is usually passed on to new members through the organizational culture. According to Tierney (1997), an organization's culture is "the sum of activities – symbolic and instrumental – that exist in the organization and create meaning" (p. 3). The organizational culture represents the values and beliefs each individual uses to make meaning of their experiences, which affects their actions and behaviors. According to Geertz (1973), these actions and behaviors create the social structure of an organization or social system. In this sense, faculty members must become socialized into the organizational culture of the academic profession but also to the culture of their discipline (Becher, 1994). Faculty members as experts in their field of study usually serve as gatekeepers for new members within their disciplinary community (Clark, 1987). As a process, organizational socialization is ongoing; however, in the case of new faculty members, it is more clearly viewed at the time they join an organization – or a new institution of higher education (Tierney & Rhoads, 1994).

Organizational socialization is usually viewed as a two-stage process: anticipatory and organizational (Tierney & Bensimon, 1996; Van Maanen, 1978) (see Figure 1). For academics, the anticipatory stage occurs primarily in graduate school and also includes the new faculty recruit's anticipatory learning (Van Maanen, 1978). In other words, socialization begins prior to the faculty member's first day of employment. Faculty often learn what it means to be a member of the profession and discipline during their graduate experience (Tierney & Rhoads, 1994). The second stage is organizational socialization. Organizational socialization occurs during what is called "initial entry" and then the "role

of continuance.” The initial entry includes interactions that may occur during the faculty recruitment and selection process (Tierney & Rhoads, 1994). The role of continuance occurs when the faculty is situated and usually throughout the tenure process (Tierney & Rhoads, 1994).

Figure 1: Faculty socialization

<p>Stage One Anticipatory Socialization</p>	<p>Stage Two Organizational Socialization</p>	
<p>Graduate School</p>	<p>Phase One Entry</p>	<p>Phase Two Role Continuance</p>

Source: (Tierney & Bensimon, 1996, p. 40)

Specific actions occur that socialize an individual into an organization, which are called socialization processes (Van Maanen, 1978). From an organizational perspective socialization can be explained as happening through different strategies or dimensions: (a) collective versus individual, (b) formal versus informal, (c) random versus sequential, (d) fixed versus variable, (e) serial versus disjunctive, and (f) investiture versus divestiture (Tierney & Bensimon, 1996; Van Maanen, 1978). Collective socialization can be seen when a group shares common experiences (e.g., faculty orientation), whereas individual socialization happens in a singular and isolated manner. Formal socialization happens when a new member is separated from the current members of the organization to participate in specific activities (e.g., workshop for new faculty), while informal socialization occurs as the new recruit learns through trial and error. Random socialization is a progression of unclear steps that leads to a clear goal. Sequential

socialization happens through clear steps to achieve the goal. Usually in academia, the tenure and promotion process happens as a random socialization process unless the department explicitly gives the criteria through a more sequential socialization process. Fixed socialization explicitly spells out the way individuals move through organizational roles (clear timetables), while variable socialization is vague and has unclear timetables. Serial socialization is the planned training of an individual by a senior member (e.g., faculty mentoring programs), whereas disjunctive socialization is the opposite, when there are no role models to guide the individual. Lastly, investiture socialization processes welcome the recruit's anticipatory socialization experiences and individual's characteristics. On the other hand, a divesture process involves the stripping away of the personal characteristics of the individual because they are not compatible with the organizational culture (Tierney & Rhoads, 1994; Van Maanen, 1978).

Organizational socialization is a "bidirectional" process in which the individual is influenced by the organization but also influences it (Tierney & Rhoads, 1994). A positive organizational socialization experience can lead to a successful academic career; for example, by the granting of tenure (Tierney & Rhoads, 1994). On the other hand, a negative socialization experience is often associated with alienation and departure (Tierney & Rhoads, 1994). The lack of socialization or the negative socialization that individuals from minority groups (e.g., women, faculty of color) face may result in accumulated disadvantage over time (Clark & Corcoran, 1986).

During their first years at an institution, faculty usually are under significant stress; therefore, it may be difficult for them to assimilate to the culture of the organization (Tierney & Rhoads, 1994). Some of the challenges that all new faculty

members experience in academia surround balancing research and teaching activities, feelings of isolation, getting unclear messages regarding tenure and promotion, and feelings of stress (Boice, 1992; Menges, 1999). In addition to the challenges that all new faculty experience, scholars have provided evidence that women and minority faculty experience specific challenges while working in academia, which may affect their socialization process (Aguirre, 2000; Tierney & Rhoads, 1994).

Women and Minority Faculty Socialization

It is well documented that women and minority faculty experience the academic workplace differently than White males (Aguirre, 2000; Clark & Corcoran, 1986; Tierney & Bensimon, 1996; Tierney & Rhoads, 1994). Some of the issues reported in the literature affecting minority and women faculty members' organizational socialization have to do with insufficient anticipatory socialization. Women and faculty of color are more likely to receive inadequate socialization during graduate school, which is often the result of weak mentoring (Tierney & Rhoads, 1994). Scholars have pointed out that underrepresented groups have difficulty creating and sustaining mentorship relationships while in graduate school (Aisenberg & Harrington, 1988). The relationships that develop during graduate school are crucial for faculty since it is the time socialization for the profession usually begins, wherein the student acquires the values, attitudes, and actions of the institution and department in which they are employed (Tierney & Rhoads, 1994). If the anticipatory socialization process does not happen properly, faculty may be at a disadvantage compared to their peers. In other words, the lack of socialization or the negative socialization that individuals from minority groups face may result in accumulated disadvantage over time (Clark & Corcoran, 1986).

Another issue affecting socialization that new women and minority faculty may experience is weak mentoring. Similar to what happens in undergraduate or graduate school, women and minority faculty may lack mentorship as new faculty members (Bova, 2000; Gibson, 2006; Tierney & Rhoads, 1994). Mentoring relationships may bring positive outcomes for new women faculty, which in many cases is associated with the organizational culture in which these individuals work (Gibson, 2006). The lack of mentoring can have severe repercussions for women faculty considering that developing these relationships can help to orient faculty to different aspects of their professional lives, such as publishing or accessing grants (Aguirre, 2000; Bova, 2000; Tierney & Rhoads, 1994).

A number of scholars have suggested that women and minority faculty are usually in marginal positions in the academic world and lack collegiality (Aguirre, 2000; Exum, Menges, Watkins, & Berglund, 1984; Jackson, 2004; Tierney & Bensimon, 1996). For example, women faculty may feel they are “left out of the collegial circle” (Tierney & Bensimon, 1996, p. 89). Further, women faculty may also suffer from isolation if they are the only woman in the department (Tierney & Bensimon, 1996), which may be the case for women faculty who are part of male-dominated fields (e.g., STEM). This isolation may exclude them from information they need to succeed in academia (Clark & Corcoran, 1986). Additionally, isolation can prevent these women from getting emotional support, which can be helpful when dealing with the stress of being a new faculty member (Aguirre, 2000; Turner, 2002).

Lastly, women faculty may face barriers to positive socialization due to the difficulty of balancing family responsibilities and their own careers. Even though the

issues affecting the socialization of women faculty are usually shared by White and non-White women faculty, there are specific issues that are unique to minority faculty, including cultural taxation (Tierney & Bensimon, 1996):

Cultural taxation is the obligation to show good citizenship toward the institution by serving its needs for ethnic representation on committees, or to demonstrate knowledge of and commitment to a cultural group, which may bring accolades to the institution but is not usually rewarded by the institution on whose behalf the service was performed (Padilla, 1994, p. 26). In this regard, minority faculty, and particularly women of color, may feel that the academic system uses them selectively because of their “minority status” (Aguirre, 2000). For example, these faculty may be asked to serve on different committees than their peers (e.g., committees related to diversity) or to advise a particular type of student (e.g., students from the same racial group) (Aguirre, 2000). These extra demands are usually not rewarded within the academic system, but women faculty are expected to take them on as a way of contributing to the mission of the organization.

Taken together, the lack of positive socialization experiences for women and minority faculty can be problematic and lead to increased turnover and attrition (Aguirre, 2000; Tierney & Rhoads, 1994). Indeed, women and minority faculty are more likely to depart academia than their White, male peers (Johnsrud & Heck, 1994; Menges & Exum, 1983; Rothblum, 1988).

Gendered View of Socialization

According the gendered view of organizational socialization, the culture and the history of the academic profession must be taken into account when thinking about

socialization (Ward & Bensimon, 2003). As mentioned previously, higher education has been and continues to be dominated by White men, consequently the socialization experience as well as the organizational culture reflect the experiences of these men (Ward & Bensimon, 2003). Most of the traditional views of socialization assume that socialization is a gender-neutral process (Tierney, 1997), whereas the gendered view of socialization acknowledges that the experience of new faculty varies greatly by gender as well as by race, ethnicity, sexual orientation, and other socio-cultural factors (Ward & Bensimon, 2003) and that these gender differences continue through the traditional path of faculty socialization (Ward & Bensimon, 2003).

A gendered view of socialization brings gender to the forefront as an analytic lens for understanding the differences men and women face in the socialization process. This view of socialization also examines the institutionalized sexism embedded in the culture and structures that are in place in the academic profession. “An engendered view of socialization recognizes that women (and men) can succeed as academics when definitions of socialization are altered to include them, their experiences, and their needs” (Ward & Bensimon, 2003, p. 434). In this way, a gendered view of socialization encompasses aspects of feminism and critical feminist theory.

Critical Feminist Theory

Feminist theory has been used in academia as a framework to illuminate and guide ways of addressing gender equity in higher education. Feminist lenses can expand perspectives of power and help address the roots of inequity in academia. There are several strands within feminist theory (e.g., liberal, radical, Marxist, multicultural, global, post-colonial); however, some share common roots around the concept of power: (a)

power as a resource to be redistributed, (b) power as domination (oppression); and (c) individual and collective empowerment (Allan, 2011). Feminist theory is a type of critical theory that examines and critiques social phenomena related to the subjugation of particular groups in society (Allan, 2011). Critical theorists are not only concerned about the oppression of a particular group but also the liberation of these groups. Along these lines some scholars argue that one must examine the individual and/or collective forms of oppression as the starting points, beyond which one can then move forward to combat and free oneself from this oppression (Freire, 1970). Both traditions are committed to system change. In other words, the goal of feminist theory and critical theory is to challenge and hopefully change aspects of social relations that create the need for one group to dominate the other.

Feminist theory positions gender as the central category of analysis for examining how our society is organized; in this sense, feminist theory focuses on the historical subjugation of women and tries to explain the ways that social structures reflect and reinforce women's oppression (Ropers-Huilman & Winters, 2011). Critical feminists ascribe to the view that the roots of women's oppression are patriarchal values and beliefs as well as gender relations within society. In this sense, in a patriarchal society created for and by men, the biological differences that exist between men and women are used as a way to construct what is considered "masculine" or "feminine." These constructions of identity empower men and disempower women (Tong, 2009). As a result, a patriarchal society reinforces the power men have over women by making them "act" in relation to the biological sex (Tong, 2009). According to critical feminist theorists, to achieve

gender equity it is crucial to include men, since men are the primary agents who maintain and support sexism and sexist oppression (Hooks, 2000).

The academy was developed and has historically been dominated by men in a way that reinforces the epistemological beliefs associated with a patriarchal society in which the rules of men are used as a way of measuring success. From this perspective, the socialization of international women faculty is the socialization to a patriarchal culture. Patriarchal culture emphasizes that male values are considered superior (e.g., rationality, independence, autonomy, productivity), whereas those associated with women are devalued (e.g., emotion, community, dependence, connection, reproductive activities) (Tong, 2009). In order to achieve gender equity, patriarchal values must be changed in a way such that the society values and integrates “feminine” ways of acting and thinking with “masculine” values (Code, 1991).

Conclusion

Despite the fact that international faculty are a growing population in US colleges and universities (Chow & Bhandari, 2011; Kim et al., 2011), little is known about their experiences and more specifically what hinders or helps them in their socialization process. Attrition rates are a particular matter of concern for women and minority faculty (Aguirre & Martinez, 1993; Menges & Exum, 1983; Rothblum, 1988), as these individuals are more likely to leave academia than their White male peers (Johnsrud & Heck, 1994; Menges & Exum, 1983; Rothblum, 1988).

A better understanding of the structures, the socialization processes, and the needs of this population may help to design programs and policies that encourage faculty retention. At the same time, the research related to international faculty is still in

development. Most of the published literature has tended to be quantitative in nature, utilizing national datasets to examine specific outcomes (Corley & Sabharwal, 2007; Espenshade, Usdansky, & Chung, 2001; Kim, et al., 2011; Lin, Pearce, & Wang, 2009; Mamiseishvili, 2010; Mamiseishvili & Rosser, 2010; Marvasti, 2005). There are few studies that address the day-to-day lived experiences of international faculty members, particularly from their perspective (Skachkova, 2007; Thomas & Johnson, 2004). While the overall literature regarding international faculty is sparse, the work related to faculty organizational socialization (Tierney, 1997; Tierney & Bensimon, 1996; Tierney & Rhoads, 1994) may be helpful in understanding the experiences of this population. Although many scholars have used the concept of organizational socialization to better understand the experiences of faculty members when looking at minority faculty (Aguirre, 2000; Tierney & Bensimon, 1996; Tierney & Rhoads, 1994), they have failed to address the differences within this group. In other words, scholars have treated “minority faculty” as a homogenous group without taking into consideration certain characteristics that distinguish this population (e.g., race, ethnicity, country of origin, language). This omission may have an impact on the way this population acquires the norms, knowledge, and skills they need in order to exist in a given organization, or, in this case, academia, as well as how they overcome any barriers they might encounter. With a growing number of international faculty, higher education institutions should be cognizant of the ways to best support the needs of this population in order to retain them.

CHAPTER 3

DESIGN AND METHODS

To better understand the organizational socialization experiences of international women faculty working at a research university, this study asked the following research questions: (1) What do international women faculty working at one research university perceive as their socialization experiences? (2) What do they perceive to facilitate or hinder their socialization experiences? The conceptual framework and methods utilized in this study are the rationale of this chapter.

According to the literature, international faculty are a growing population in US colleges and universities (Chow & Bhandari, 2011; Kim et al., 2011). The majority of these faculty members are employed at research universities (Chow & Bhandari, 2011). Beyond this, however, little is known about their experiences and, more specifically, what hinders or assists their socialization processes at research institutions. A positive socialization experience for faculty members is a vital part of job satisfaction and retention (Van Maanen & Schein, 1979). For women and minority faculty, in particular, attrition rates are a matter of concern (Aguirre & Martinez, 1993; Menges & Exum, 1983; Rothblum, 1988). Therefore, having a better understanding of the structures, the socialization processes, and specific needs of this population may help to design programs and policies that encourage faculty retention. In this study, I aimed to contribute to improving the understanding of this population from their own perspective.

Methodology

In order to understand the socialization experiences of international women faculty and to address the proposed research questions, I utilized qualitative methods

guided by the tenets of phenomenology. Qualitative methods are useful in revealing participants' understandings of the "events, situations, and actions they are involved with and of the accounts that they give of their lives and experiences" (Maxwell, 1996, p. 17). Given the fact that the majority of literature related to international faculty members has been conducted from national datasets (Espenshade et al., 2001; Kim et al., 2011; Mamiseishvili, 2010; Mamiseishvili & Rosser, 2010; Marvasti, 2005), a better understanding of these individuals' experiences was warranted. Qualitative research is also useful to understand issues in depth and in detail (Patton, 2002).

Further, qualitative research is helpful in answering the "what" and "how" questions regarding social phenomena by examining the individuals' lived experiences (Marshall & Rossman, 2006). In this regard, my research study aimed to understand: (a) "What" the socialization experiences of international women faculty working at a research university is and (b) "How" the institutional setting is perceived to facilitate or hinder this experience. Qualitative research can address these issues by focusing on the specific context in which the individual's experience is taking place (Patton, 2002); or, in this case, one research university. I focused on one institutional context, which allowed me to better understand the socialization process at work within the organizational culture of the university under examination. It is well known that the institution is one of the key forces that shape faculty culture and behavior and plays a critical role in the organizational socialization of faculty (Tierney & Rhoads, 1994).

Qualitative research is not intended to uncover a universal "Truth" since it is based on the premise that there are multiple realities (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). In other words, qualitative research is fundamentally interpretative (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). My

objective was not to find a “Truth” about these faculty members’ experiences, but to understand the meaning that the participants gave to the phenomenon of organizational socialization within their context and perspective. In this sense, I was able to obtain internal generalizability, which refers to the conclusion within the setting studied or, in this case, one private research university in the United States (Maxwell, 1996).

Qualitative researchers understand the relationship and interconnection between the researcher and the researched, in which the research methods used are not separate from the researcher (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010). The researcher is the instrument used to conduct the research. The data are interpreted by the individual researcher, and the knowledge constructed during the research is shaped by the context of the specific study and also by the personal background of the researcher (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000). My perspective as a qualitative researcher and as an international woman pursuing a Ph.D. in Higher Education will be discussed later in this chapter.

Phenomenology

I used a phenomenological approach since my interest was to gain a deeper understanding of the meaning of the socialization experiences of international women faculty within one institution of higher education. Phenomenology is an interpretive research methodology that aims to gain a deeper understanding of the lived experiences of people (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010). This approach focuses on how participants make sense of their experiences; in other words, “how they perceive it, describe it, feel about it, judge it, remember it, make sense of it and talk about it with others” (Patton, 2002, p. 104). A phenomenological approach helped not only to illustrate “what” these women faculty experienced throughout the course of being a faculty member in a foreign

country, but also how they made meaning of those lived experiences within their unique context of the chosen institution. Examining these meanings ultimately allowed for a more complex view of the “essence” of these international women faculty members’ experiences and realities in this research university in the US (Van Manen, 1990).

Since phenomenology as a method of inquiry is related to philosophy, Creswell (2007) proposed that the philosophical assumptions that guide the research are necessary for inclusion in any given study. Creswell described two phenomenological approaches: descriptive phenomenology and interpretative phenomenology. For this study, I utilized the interpretative (hermeneutic) phenomenology as well as the Heidegger tradition (Lopez & Willis, 2004; Moustakas, 1994). As mentioned previously, a central point of Heidegger’s work is the term “lifeworld,” the idea that individuals’ realities are always influenced by the world in which they live. In this study, I tried to uncover the meaning that international women gave to their socialization experiences as faculty members in relation to the context in which they were situated. Interpretative phenomenology allowed me to discover the hidden meanings by looking at the women’s lived experiences as they understood them.

An additional philosophical assumption of the interpretive phenomenological approach is that the researcher is a valuable tool for the research. In other words, Heidegger (1962) proposed that the researcher’s background and prior knowledge is fundamental for determining the way the study will be conducted (Lopez & Willis, 2004). For example, the knowledge that I had in terms of the literature around international women faculty was fundamental for me as a researcher to make the argument for the need of research on this specific topic. Along these lines, I was aware

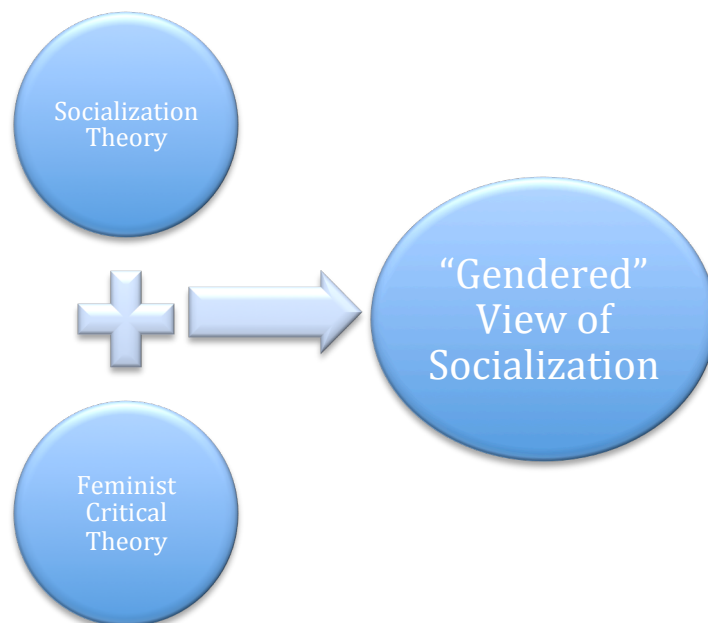
that my preconceptions and prior experiences as an international graduate student working on equity issues as well as my identity as a minority woman influenced my research decisions. In my opinion, some of my prior knowledge as well as my preconceptions were advantageous for my study since even though I have never worked as a faculty member, I do understand first-hand the implications and challenges international people go through when becoming immersed in a new culture. In addition, as a woman, I also understand how sexist environments are detrimental for women and a challenge for those who live and work in them. On the other hand, having these preconceptions created only one perspective of the “reality” I experience and I acknowledge that there are multiple realities for individuals who have also shared this experience. In order to work with my preconceptions I was reflective of my potential bias throughout my study, which will be explained in more detail later in this chapter.

Conceptual Framework

An interpretative phenomenological approach rests upon the importance of a theoretical orientation to guide the research questions, methods, and interpretation of the findings (Lopez & Willis, 2004). As discussed in chapter two, a gendered view of organizational socialization was used as the framework for this study. In other words, this study used a conceptual framework that combined organizational socialization theory and critical feminist theory to understand the experiences of international women faculty. In order for faculty members to be successful, they must learn to navigate the role of an academic, which itself is dependent upon being adequately socialized into the institutions they join (Van Maanen & Schein, 1979). According to Merton (1957), organizational socialization is a process by which new members acquire the norms, knowledge, and

skills they need in order to exist in a given society. This ritualized process involves the transmission of the culture through the exchange of patterns of thought and action (Tierney & Rhoads, 1994). The organizational socialization process also entails learning about the culture of a given group, including its values, attitudes, and expectations (Clark & Corcoran, 1984; Van Maanen, 1976). Organizational socialization is a two-way exchange, in that individuals both influence the organization and are influenced by it (Tierney & Bensimon, 1996). In particular, the “gendered” view of organizational socialization was useful for this study as it brings gender to the forefront of the analysis (see Figure 2).

Figure 2: Conceptual framework: Gendered view of socialization



In addition, the feminist critical perspective assumes that gender is a crucial lens through which human experience is interpreted, since gender affects all aspects of the human experience (Lather, 1991). Throughout my research I took a critical view of the

gender relationships that influenced the lives and careers of international women faculty working at this one research university.

Feminist research also aims to produce social change in women's lives (Allan, 2011; Denzin & Lincoln, 2000; Lather, 1991). By critically examining the experiences of international women faculty, I not only aimed to contribute to the knowledge about this particular group of faculty, but also to honor their voice. In order to do this, I developed a report, beyond this dissertation, for the university at which the participants work as a way of helping them be seen and heard. I will provide more detail on this report later in this chapter.

Researcher Perspective

Due to the nature of this qualitative study, I understand that I am the primary instrument through which the data were collected, analyzed, and interpreted (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010). Consequently, I was aware that my prior experiences as a woman international doctoral student impacted the way I made decisions throughout my research. My interest regarding international women faculty began while working with the National Science Foundation's (NSF) ADVANCE grant at the University of Maine. This project's objective is to recruit, retain, and advance women faculty in the science fields. As a research assistant working for this project, I developed a particular interest in international faculty members. This interest began due to my own personal background as an international student as well as a woman pursuing a degree in Higher Education. As such, I conducted a pilot study of international faculty at the University of Maine in 2012, which included interviews with six men and three women faculty at the university. Findings highlighted barriers perceived by international faculty that impacted their

socialization process were not having a complete understanding of the cultural differences between their students and themselves in this predominately White, rural environment as well as their concerns about the academic abilities of their students. These findings of the pilot study influenced my approach to this study, as described further below.

As a researcher, I was aware of my role and position since these characteristics had an effect on my understanding of these women's lives (Stewart, 1994). I acknowledged my own position as an "outsider within," which could also have had repercussions on my research. The term "outsider within" refers to people who may not have a clear membership in any one group, thereby bringing potential contradictions to them (Collins, 1986). In my case, I have the qualification of a doctoral student; however, I am not part of the dominant group. While studying in this country, my position as international woman student coming from a "developing country" helped to give me a unique identity that, according to some feminist researchers, cannot be dropped entirely during the research process (Collins, 1991).

The term "outsider within" also refers to the knowledge/power relationship that exists between the researcher and the researched. As a woman coming from a South American country, I was aware of the power relationship that existed between a "developing country" and Western society and also the importance of honoring the voice of this population of women. In addition, I was aware of the power relationship between student and faculty member; in this case, my role as a student mitigated that power imbalance between me as the researcher and my participants. Lastly, throughout my data collection and analysis, I focused on understanding the socialization experience of these

international women faculty and took into consideration the context in which these experiences took place.

Research Design and Methods

A qualitative approach guided by the tenets of phenomenology was utilized to better understand the socialization process of international women faculty working at a research university. The study described the experiences of international women faculty at one research university. In the study, I relied on the use of semi-structured interviews (Bogdan & Biklen, 2003) and a focus group to generate data in response to my research questions.

As mentioned before, I conducted an initial pilot study in March of 2012 in order to test the interview protocol. This pilot included nine international faculty members, including three women and six men; eight were in a tenure-track appointment at one research university. After I conducted the pilot, I updated the interview protocol (see Appendix A) to reflect the information I garnered in these interviews. I used this revised protocol in the remainder of the study.

Site Selection

One university was chosen to conduct this study: a research university hereafter referred to as Private Research University (PRU). Scholars have found that international faculty are more concentrated in highly selective research universities on the East and West Coasts of the US (Chow & Bhandari, 2011) and that minority faculty women are the least well represented group among tenured and full-time academics (Menges & Exum, 1983; Perna, 2001; Snyder & Dillow, 2010). Therefore, I selected one East Coast research university with a critical mass of international faculty as the primary context for

examination. Given my connection to the NSF ADVANCE program, I utilized the network of existing ADVANCE institutions to identify a potential site for examination. In December 2012, I contacted the ADVANCE Director by email at the chosen university to determine the feasibility of my study. The ADVANCE Director requested I submit my study proposal in order for the internal steering committee to evaluate the potential contribution to the literature of my study. Following their request, I submitted my plan of study in February of 2013. After the committee at the university reviewed my proposal and made recommendations, I received the committee's approval to conduct the study. At this point, the human subjects application at my university was approved through the institutional review board.

Ethical Conduct of Research

After the approval of the feasibility of my study in the university selected, I received institutional review board (IRB) approval from the University of Maine and formal approval from the university selected. After securing IRB approval, I asked the ADVANCE Director to provide a list of international women faculty at her university. I received a list with 48 potential participants, including their email addresses. These 48 women were chosen as they fit several criteria, including: (1) she must be a female faculty, (2) she must have been foreign-born and grew-up outside the US, and (3) she must be in a full-time tenure track faculty appointment. Prior to contacting potential participants, a letter of introduction from one of the principal investigators at the university selected was sent by mail to all women faculty (see Appendix D), at the end of April 2013. The letter described the purpose of my study, invited all international women faculty at the university selected to participate, and introduced me to all potential

participants. After two weeks, I sent an email of invitation to all 48 potential participants. The invitation email described the purpose of study, the approximate duration of the interviews and the focus group, information about confidentiality, and the potential benefits and risks of volunteering in my study (see Appendix E).

In the invitation email, I requested that faculty members who would like to participate in the study contact me via email or phone. A week after sending the initial email, a second reminder of the email was sent in the hope of increasing the number of participants in the study. Through the initial email I received responses from eight participants. I increased the number by using a strategy called “snowball sampling.” Snowball sampling refers to a strategy in which the researcher develops a participant profile and then asks the current participants to suggest additional participants who fit that profile (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010). Through that technique I was able to increase the number to 12 participants, which according to Guest et al. (2006), was a desired number of participants for phenomenological studies. With 12 participants I was able to reach “data saturation,” or the point at which no new themes were gleaned/emerged from the data when analyzed (Guest et al., 2006; Merriam & Associates, 2002).

Participant Selection

As an exploratory study, the participants for the study included international women faculty from different disciplines and countries of origin. To participate in my study the participants had to meet three main criteria: (1) a woman, (2) foreign-born and grew-up outside the US, and (3) a full-time tenure-track faculty appointment. The participants could have been either on a visa or have had permanent residency. They

could either have previously studied in the US or in another country. The final participants included 12 international women faculty members who were on a tenure-track appointment, did not grow up in the US, and represented 5 regions of origin (see Table 3). The participants also represented a range of disciplines including six from STEM, three from the social sciences, and three from professional and applied fields. In addition, they represented diversity in rank and age. Lastly, 11 of the participants completed their terminal degrees in US universities. This approach to sampling was preferred as little research exists about this population, thereby creating the need for an exploratory study (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010).

I used pseudonyms for each participant and a password-protected electronic file with demographic information linking to the interview and focus group data. All transcripts were kept on a password-protected computer and encrypted as recommended by the IRB. No names were maintained or connected to any data. Field notes of observations were coded for possible emergent themes and were also kept in a confidential and secure place.

In this study, I sought to capture the “essence” of international women faculty members’ socialization experiences and what helped or hindered this process. As such, the data came from two main sources: in-depth interviews and a focus group with the same participants. Each of these methods is described in detail below.

Interviews

Due to the desire to obtain data on how international women faculty members made meaning of their socialization process, I used in-depth interviews as my primary data source. According to McMillan and Schumacher (2010), in-depth interviews are

useful for understanding the meaning participants ascribe to events in their lives. While phenomenological studies often require multiple interviews (Creswell, 2007; Moustakas, 1994), I conducted one in-depth face-to-face or phone interview depending on the availability of the participants with each international woman faculty member. I then followed up with a focus group. Prior to each interview, I submitted the consent information approved by the IRB (see Appendix F) by email and reviewed it with each of the participants before starting the interview. All the interviews for the study were conducted between May and August of 2013 at their campus or via internet/telephone.

Table 3. International Women Faculty Participants

Pseudonym	Disciplinary Area	Region of Origin	Rank at PRU	Range Age	Completion Terminal Degree *
Ester	Professional/Applied	The Americas and Caribbean	Full	50-60	Public
Molly	Social Science	Asia	Assistant	30-40	Public
Denise	STEM	The Americas and Caribbean	Assistant	30-40	
Tiffani	STEM	Asia	Assistant	30-40	Public
Ana	STEM	South America	Associate	40-50	Private not-for-profit
Ashley	Professional/Applied	Europe	Associate	30-40	Private not-for-profit
Alice	STEM	Africa	Associate	30-40	Private for-profit
Laura	STEM	Europe	Assistant	20-30	Public
Carmen	Social Science	Europe	Associate	50-60	Public
Kelly	Social Science	Africa	Full	50-60	Private not-for-profit
Sarah	STEM	Asia	Associate	40-50	Public
Susan	Professional/Applied	South America	Associate	50-60	Public

*Carnegie Classification

The structure of interviews in phenomenological research “involves an informal, interactive process and utilizes open-ended comments and questions” (Moustakas, 1994, p. 114). As described above, I used a semi-structured interview protocol, as is required for phenomenological studies (Moustakas, 1994). The protocol (see Appendix A) included questions that offered the women faculty members the freedom to discuss different aspects of their experiences and give a narrative of their own stories. During the interview, I asked the participants about their socialization experience at this their university, and I inquired about the factors that facilitated or hindered their socialization experiences. The interviews were between 60 and 90 minutes in duration. Because I used a semi-structured protocol, I was open to emergent ideas occurring during the interview process that helped to clarify certain experiences or meanings. I also offered the opportunity to the Director of the NSF ADVANCE program at the university selected to include interview questions in my protocol in order to inform their work. With the permission of the participants, I audio recorded each of the interviews and then transcribed them verbatim. Prior to each interview I followed a protocol of instruction (see Appendix B).

Focus Group

The second form of data collection was through the use of a focus group with four participants (see Appendix C). This focus group was scheduled approximately one month after the completion of the interviews, in June of 2013 at their university. After finishing the one-on-one interviews I asked each participant if they would be interested in participating in a focus group. All the participants agreed, but not all were sure about their availability. By the end of May of 2013, I contacted each of them via email and

worked with their schedules to find a day that would work for most of them. Four participants were able to make to the focus group. Prior to the focus group, I submitted the consent information approved by the IRB (see Appendix G) by email and reviewed it with the participants before starting the focus group.

This focus group allowed the participants to get together and share the experiences of being a faculty member in another country and also served as a way to discuss preliminary themes that emerged from the one-on-one interviews. Feminist inquiry has utilized focus groups as a way to empower, provide moral community, emotional engagement, and the development of long-term relationships (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005; Madriz, 2000). Scholars, such as Madriz (2000), have stated that this method is useful in giving a “voice” to women – in particular, women of color, who have often been silenced and also “facilitate women writing culture together” (Madriz, 2000, p. 648). From this perspective, the convening of this group was to discuss preliminary findings, allow the participants the opportunity to share their experiences, and reduce the isolation that many times women faculty experience in academia (Clark & Corcoran, 1986; Tierney & Bensimon, 1996; Tierney & Rhoads, 1994).

In addition, focus groups are useful in reducing the distance between the researcher and the researched and can create a safe space for sharing one’s experiences (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005); in other words, focus groups “de-center” the authority of the researcher. Through doing so, I intended to provide a safe space for women to talk about their own lives and struggles (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005). Prior to starting the focus group I reviewed the informed consent information with participants. Due to the nature of focus groups, however, confidentiality could not be guaranteed. As the researcher, I

informed the participants about the procedures in place to maintain confidentiality of the research data and reminded them not to repeat what was said in the focus group to others. I videotaped and audiotaped the focus group with the permission of participants in order to capture data, including facial and body language, for later transcription.

Report

Lastly, as a way to give back to my participants and honor their voices (i.e., one of the main concerns of feminist inquiry) (Madriz, 2000), I developed a report of the major findings of the study as well as recommendations for practice for the university in which the participants work (see Appendix H). After I wrote the initial report I submitted it to each of the participants to gather feedback. All recommendations were based in the data provided by the participants and with the ultimate goal of improving the lives and careers of the participants. Prior to sending the final report to the ADVANCE Director, I sent a copy to each participant. All quotes were de-identified in order to maintain the confidentiality of participants.

Analysis

Qualitative data are best analyzed through an inductive perspective (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010). The data were analyzed using the constant comparative method (Bogdan & Biklen, 2003; Glaser, 1978), guided by the framework of the gendered view of socialization (Tierney & Bensimon, 1996; Ward & Bensimon, 2003). In particular, I used Glaser's (Glaser, 1978, 1992) steps in data analysis: (1) Begin collecting data; (2) Find key issues or events in the data that later will become categories of focus; (3) Collect the data that provide incidents of the categories of focus; (4) Write about categories you are exploring but also find new incidents; (5) Work with the data and

emerging model in order to discover relationships; (6) Always write with focus on your categories. This method allowed emergent themes to develop from the data and provided a means by which large amounts of data were compressed into meaningful units for analysis.

The gendered view of socialization (Tierney & Bensimon, 1996; Ward & Bensimon, 2003), which combines both feminist and socialization theory, guided the analysis of this study. In essence, socialization theory provided a lens through which to view the findings of the study. Through this analysis, emergent themes on the experiences of the international women faculty studied were sought from the interviews and focus group. As I conducted interviews and the focus group and analyzed the data, I grouped findings by the different aspects of the socialization process that the faculty experienced, tying each of these experiences to the different stages of the socialization process.

The analysis of the constant comparative method (Bogdan & Biklen, 2003) and the conceptual framework of socialization with a feminist research lens helped me to develop a series of codes and themes. To better organize the themes, I then grouped them according to the different stages of socialization. To organize the data, I used NVivo software. I also collected field notes during the research process that enriched the data and helped me to better understand the phenomenon studied. Specifically, the field notes recorded what I saw or heard during the interviews and focus groups and my own reflections of what was occurring in the setting studied (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010). The field notes also helped me to triangulate my data, which is a cross-validation approach among the data sources (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010). I analyzed the field

notes by coding them by relevant themes. In total, I had 20 pages of field notes that I coded into 4 main categories using the constant comparison method of Glaser (1978).

Trustworthiness

In qualitative research, validity is the “degree to which the interpretations have mutual meaning between the participants and the researcher” (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010, p. 330). To enhance the validity and trustworthiness of the data collected and the analysis, I conducted member checking (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010) of faculty participants primarily through the focus group. Member checks allowed for the data and conclusions to be verified by individuals of the study (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). I submitted a copy of the transcribed interview to four of my participants and gave a copy of the analysis to two participants in order to confirm the findings. From these participants, I received comments and suggestions that I incorporated into the analysis.

I confirmed the trustworthiness of the analysis through research triangulation, in which a colleague and I both coded each transcript independently and then compared and contrasted the codes and themes we felt had emerged from the data. Although the general themes we took from the transcripts were congruent, we found some of our initial codes to be dissimilar. Through conversation, we came to agree that while we had initially different codes, the themes we found were congruent with the framework.

I also engaged in peer debriefing (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010) with a colleague. Having this peer debriefing allowed me generate alternative explanations of my data as well as to corroborate my analysis. My colleague and I met several times to discuss the themes that emerged from my data, and we used this time to discuss, for example, how my own positionality as a woman could influence the way I was looking at

my data. My colleague was a man which allowed me to check my data from another gender perspective.

To establish credibility, I used reflexivity throughout the study. Reflexivity refers to a rigorous self-examination process undertaken by the researcher (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010). As part of my self-examination, I kept a journal in which I wrote about my potential biases and my subjectivity, as well as ways to mitigate them. In addition, I also wrote about my positionality as a woman, as an international student studying in a research university in the US, and as a foreign woman coming from a “third world country.” Being reflexive was important for my study, since through this process I was able to take into account that I could not be neutral, objective, nor detached from my data (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010). For example, during my data collection I felt that I could relate more with the perceptions of those international women faculty who were from Spanish-speaking countries or those who had young children because we shared something in common. Through my journal I was able to reflect on how my own identity could potentially influence my analysis.

Lastly, a thick description also assisted me in confirming trustworthiness. Through verbatim accounts I was able to obtain literal statements and quotes from my participants during the interviews and focus group, which also allowed me to enhance the validity of my study (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010). The quotes used in the study were not always verbatim (e.g., grammatical changes were made to assist in clarity of meaning), but they reflect the meaning of what participants said. In the presentation of the data, a thick description is used to allow the voices of these 12 international women faculty to emerge and provide as much of the description of the faculty, their context, and

culture necessary to understand the findings. Cumulatively, all these methods promoted trustworthiness and validity of the data collected and worked toward an integral study.

Limitations

As is inherent in any study, limitations to this study exist. The context-bound nature of the study is one limitation. The conclusions made about the socialization process of these 12 international women faculty members may only reflect the experiences of these participants within their particular context. As such, the perceptions and experiences of these faculty members may not reflect the experience of this same population at another university. Moreover, the unique disciplinary cultures in which these women find themselves may also account for a unique perspective that may not be shared by others in different disciplines.

Another limitation of this study is that participants were self-selected. It is possible that participants who agreed to be in this study may have had overly positive or overly negative experiences, which may have prompted their participation and therefore biased the responses I received. Since the ADVANCE office at PRU sent out the participants' invitations, it is possible that this may have been biased them to discuss gender as a more salient status. Further, the participants in this study were not necessarily representing a nation; consequently, I was not able to draw solid conclusions regarding a specific country or ethnicity.

Since I was the instrument collecting and interpreting the data, there was also an element of subjectivity in my findings. The descriptions I provided about the faculty members and the university were limited to my own personal interpretation of what I observed. I made my best effort to mitigate these accounts through member checks as

well as the triangulation of the data; however, the natural limitations are yet present in the analysis.

Limitations were also present in the inclusion of the quotes and expression of the analysis of the study. While I attempted to maintain the integrity of the participants' statements during the transcription and writing, the interpretation of these comments may not be necessarily the real representation of how these women intended to voice their testimonies. Through the use of thick description (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010) I hope these limitations were overcome.

CHAPTER 4

PORTRAITS OF 12 INTERNATIONAL WOMEN FACULTY

A portrait of each of participant in this study provides salient characteristics, including gender, age, completion of their studies, and how their international status influenced the different stages of their socialization process. All these characteristics are elaborated in the following chapter.

Ester: “I received a first-class education”

Ester is a widow, mother of two children, and grandmother to one. She is in her late fifties. Ester came with her husband to the US for her doctoral education. She is currently a full professor in a professional applied field. Ester completed her undergraduate degree in her home country (Americas and the Caribbean region) and she is proud of the first-class education she received at a university ranked in the top five in the US. After she graduated, Ester applied to different top-ranked universities and got a number of interviews. Ester was pregnant while she was on the job market, and during one of her interviews a male faculty member in his late fifties commented, “What makes you think you can be a faculty member when you are about to have a child?” She received an offer from an institution where she stayed for four years, but was denied tenure there. She moved to PRU and has been there for more than two decades.

Ester has been a productive faculty member with a strong academic reputation; however, she mentioned to me that when she moved to her current university she received some advice from the associate dean that could have been detrimental for her academic career. She shared, “I was advised by a senior associate dean to go into the full

length tenure clock, so it took me a long time to get tenure. It was a detriment at the time to delay my salary increase, my status.”

Ester has excellent relationships with her department colleagues and collaborates with highly talented faculty. When I asked if she has faced any challenges because of being an international faculty member, she explained, “Because I come from a country very culturally similar to the United States I haven’t faced any challenges because I am international.” Additionally, she emphasized that her first-class education had always helped her along with having several mentors throughout her career. Overall, Ester has found fulfillment in her role as a faculty member and has been able to see the changes that have happened in the university first-hand.

Molly “I am always thinking how to be politically correct with what I am saying”

Molly is a social science assistant professor in her early thirties. She is married and came to the US 11 years ago from Asia. She completed her bachelor’s and master’s degree in her home country. Later, she completed a second master’s and a Ph.D. in the US, funded through a fellowship and a scholarship. She emphasized the fact that her alma mater was an “immigrant-friendly school,” of which she felt very fortunate to be a part. Her involvement in research began in her second year of her Ph.D.; however, her post-doctoral experience was critical for her training to become a faculty member at a research university. During the time in her post-doc, Molly was able to develop a research identity. After graduation she applied to several jobs within some geographical limits. The only faculty position offer she received was from PRU.

Molly describes PRU as being very welcoming; however, her impression is that this welcome is only on the surface level. She said, “People are very kind of welcoming

on the surface level, but not necessarily active or specifically helping you in doing something.” She has been grateful for her other colleagues who have protected her from doing too much administrative work. Molly believes she hasn’t had good mentorship within her department, partly because she feels they do not understand her research focus. She describes PRU as being polarized between an older generation of faculty who are more oriented to teaching and current faculty who are more research focused, which sometimes can cause tensions.

Molly believes that because of her international status she is able to empower other women students in her classes; however, she believes that at research universities “there is no understanding that you are a human being.” In other words, according to her experience in academia, one’s job must be top priority, which is many times incompatible with having a family. Molly believes that one of the challenges of being in academia is balancing the variety of demands of the job. While she describes that the first year was the hardest one, she believes that with time one is able to learn to navigate the system. She strongly believes that being a student in the US was helpful for understanding the system first-hand. At the same time, she experienced some cultural differences. She explained, “I feel like people in the US take things personally when you're discussing a topic of about how to improve something.” She then elaborated, “I am always thinking about how to be politically correct with what I am saying.” In her opinion these cultural differences can be even harder for international faculty to grasp who do not have previous experience in the US Molly likes connecting with other international people and, in general, she describes her experience as a faculty member in the US as being very positive, even though learning the culture is a day-to-day experience.

Alice: “I was told that I was working way too much”

Alice is an associate professor in STEM. She is originally from Africa and is in her late thirties. She is single with no children. Alice has been in the US for the past 15 years. Her parents are both faculty members so being a professor “was in the family.” The experience of juggling many responsibilities was something she has been familiar with throughout her life. Alice completed her undergraduate degree in her home country and both her master’s and Ph.D. in the US Through graduate school she had a male advisor who served as a good mentor. He helped her be ready for her job interview and with preparing her teaching portfolio and research statement. Prior to starting her job at PRU, Alice worked in industry for a year and then as an assistant professor in a highly research-intensive university. She then moved abroad to collaborate with industry while still working in academia; however, her experience was not as she expected. She shared, “I was told by the department chair that I was working too much and that I have too much funding and too many publications and I was making other people look bad.” After that experience, she felt she had to move somewhere and decided to move back to the US where she got a position at PRU.

At PRU, Alice has felt fantastic and supported in terms of building new ideas and taking specific risks. While her application process at PRU was pretty standard, she emphasized that because of her previous experience she learned to negotiate and put everything she wanted in writing before accepting a position. Alice had a positive experience with the tenure process and has been able to establish formal and informal mentors throughout her academic career. She also has been asked to take a director position, which she enjoys; however, she believes that this takes a lot of her research

time. As a woman faculty member, Alice feels she can be vocal with any gender-related issue she comes across as part of the benefit that comes with being senior and tenured. In other words, having tenure gives Alice the safety to be more vocal when needed, even though she acknowledges that there are some other venues at PRU for faculty who are not tenured to address gender-related issues.

Denise: “Being a woman and younger is a challenge to building relations with senior faculty”

Denise, an assistant professor in STEM, hails from The Americas and Caribbean. She is in her mid thirties and single. Denise completed her undergraduate and graduate degrees in a public research university ranked top five in her field of study in the US. She funded her degrees through working on different research projects. Before graduating she began thinking that she wanted to be a faculty member, and she was fortunate that her advisor had been helpful in preparing her for an academic position by giving her experience in teaching, research, and grant writing. Before going on the job market, Denise was clear that she only would apply to universities that had an NSF ADVANCE grant. To get some extra preparation for the job market she attended a workshop at PRU and knew about the position that was open. She applied to PRU and after a “standard process,” as she described, she got a job offer.

When she was first hired, she was assigned to a mentor, a female full professor who has been very helpful. Additionally, she has also been able to select other mentors within the university whom she also considers helpful for her advancement.

The combination between age and gender has been a challenge in her department. She has found it a challenging process to building relationships with the senior faculty,

most of them in their late 50s or 60s, in her department. To bridge this age and gender gap, she has engaged her outside advisors with the senior faculty, and it seems to be working. She says, “I have tried to bridge that gap but it has been a challenge.” As an international faculty member, Denise believes that one of the challenges is not being able to apply to certain grants because of her status; however, this has not prevented her from being a highly productive faculty member in her field.

Tiffani: “My advisor, she is also a woman; she played a very good model to me”

Tiffani is an assistant professor in STEM. She is in her mid-forties and was born in Asia. Tiffani is married and the mother of two children. She completed her bachelor’s degree in her home country and came to the US where she pursued her master’s degree and Ph.D. at a public research university. Tiffani had a female advisor, in a male-dominated field, who served as a role model. After graduation, Tiffani applied to many faculty positions and got several phone interviews. Following a standard interview process she was offered a position at PRU. At PRU she has had two mentors, a female and a male, who have been very helpful to her career. She describes her department as being large, and, even though she is not familiar with the entire faculty, she feels she has a good relationship with most of them. One of the main challenges for her has been finding the balance between work and family. During graduate school, where she did not have children, there was not a problem working at the same pace as her male colleagues, but after having children this has not been possible.

Tiffani has received support from other women faculty members, especially those who are also mothers. She says, “I think that talking to other women faculty helps because we share the same experiences.” She believes that one of the main challenges

for women faculty is to find the time and energy to do everything. As an international woman faculty member, building connections with other faculty in her field has been a learning process because of the cultural differences that exist between countries.

Ana: “I was very hesitant to go to a female advisor”

Ana is an associate professor in an applied and professional field hailing from South America. She is in her late forties, is married, and has one son. Ana came to the US in her early twenties after finishing her bachelor’s degree at home, as she wanted to pursue a Ph.D. and at that time there were not any programs available in her country. She funded her Ph.D. with a fellowship at a highly prestigious university in the US. She is grateful to her advisor who gave her freedom to explore her own interests and be independent. She was hesitant to choose a female advisor because she knew of the pressure women faculty have in terms of academic production. She explains, “There is a lot of pressure for female faculty and they have to produce, produce, produce, and have to push students and they cannot mess around and explore on their own.” In other words, she knew that with a female advisor her freedom to explore her own interests might have been limited and having that freedom has made a difference in her career.

Prior to coming to PRU, Ana worked at a top five-ranked research university as a scientist. She had a great experience at her previous university and was comfortable; however, her advisor suggested finding her own way. She tried a position in industry but discovered that it was not what she wanted. She then decided to pursue a career in academia. At that time, she was in her forties and she was concerned about her age. She shared, “I was older than most of the people who come to this business.” Her advisor had

the same apprehension. Ana only applied to 10 places but received six interviews and four job offers - many more than what she anticipated.

Adjusting to the new student culture was a challenge for her, but through trial and error she was able to find the balance between her expectations and the students' needs. Her prior experience working with highly motivated students and coming to a different culture of students was a shock to her in the beginning. She currently enjoys working at PRU and has good relationships with her colleagues. She believes that one of the main challenges international faculty face is adapting to the culture. She appreciates the mentors she has had through her career and believes in the importance of recruiting more minority faculty (not necessarily international) to PRU.

Ashley: “Having an accent never helps you”

Ashley is an associate professor in an applied and professional field. Ashley is married and the mother of one child. She is originally from Europe. She completed her bachelor's degree in her home country and her Ph.D. at an Ivy League school in the US. She funded her doctoral degree through a fellowship, which required her to go back to her home country for two years after the completion of her degree. As requested by her fellowship, Ashley went back for two years and worked at a prestigious university in her country, but because of personal circumstances decided to come back to the US for an academic position at PRU. Even though the interview was pretty standard, she told me that during the interview process she was asked questions, mainly by senior faculty, such as, “Do you have children? What would happen if you have children and your husband has to move?” She explained to me that the university did not have formal standards at

that time as to what questions were appropriate to ask during interviews, something that has changed now.

Ashley shared that the visa process added extra pressure to her hiring process as well as to her first years as an international faculty member in the US. Ashley was hired with a cohort of faculty members who were very helpful to her experience. She developed close relationships with that cohort; however, she was the only one who got tenure. She shared that it is very difficult to get tenure in her department. Ashley believes that because of the age difference and research versus teaching focus that exists within her department, there is a lack of understanding about how the profession has changed over time. In other words, there are unrealistic expectations for faculty to get tenure.

Ashley shared that she does not consider academia to be a family-friendly environment for women. Some of the examples she gave were that, throughout her tenure, she heard other faculty members saying things like, “She didn’t get tenure because she has children.” Ashley believes that academia loses good women faculty members because of the incompatible cultures of family and work. She also shared that language barriers for international faculty members are a challenge; however, having previous studies in the US is helpful.

Laura: “I want to be able to have a life outside my job”

Laura is an assistant professor in STEM. She is currently engaged and is originally from Europe. She is in her late twenties and completed her undergraduate and graduate studies at a public research university in the US. She funded her studies through a fellowship. During graduate school, she had exposure to research and a little

experience teaching. Laura decided to stay in the US because of her fiancé's work. Prior to graduation, she applied to several positions and got three offers. She was counseled by her male advisor and other mentors that she should negotiate, and that is what she did. Looking back, she believes she should have asked for more. She shared, "I thought I was negotiating really hard but looking back I am pretty sure I wasn't at all."

Due to the fact that she is in an interdisciplinary appointment, she has been assigned to do more service than what she should be doing. Recently, her dean told her she was doing too much service; however, he did not provide concrete advice on how to do less. Laura explained that she did not have any female faculty members as role models prior starting her position. Consequently, she was worried about sexism in the workplace. She said, "I do feel I am aware that I am one of the only women all the time and that makes me uncomfortable." She appreciates talking to other women faculty members, especially senior female faculty. She feels because she is teaching in a male-dominated field and is young she needs to dress up more than her colleagues to be taken seriously, which is frustrating for her. Even though Laura is not looking to have children right now, she is concerned about the family-friendly policies that are currently in place at her university. She is not sure she will be able to balance work and family by staying in academia.

Carmen: "I see my international status as being a plus"

Carmen is an associate professor in the social sciences in her mid-fifties. She was born and raised in Europe. She is married and the mother of two adult children. She currently lives with her husband, mother, sister, and one niece. She completed her undergraduate and master's degree in Europe and her Ph.D. in a public research

university in the US. Her studies in the US were funded through a scholarship. During her doctoral program she was exposed to research and teaching. She believes that her previous experience prepared her well for her current position. She decided to pursue a degree in another the US because of circumstances in her country at the time. While working on her dissertation, Carmen applied to PRU, where she has been working for more than two decades. She described the atmosphere in her department as being “very collegial.”

While working at PRU Carmen got tenured and was promoted to associate professor; however, later she was encouraged to take an administrative role that she enjoyed. The problem came later when she was turned down for promotion. I asked her what reasons were given for the denial of the promotion and she shared, “The reason that was given to me was that I did not have enough publications in peer reviewed journals.” She also stated, “Doing this work [the administrative position] in a way hurt me professionally.” She never received any signs that she was not prepared for promotion. Carmen believes that part of the problem was the mission shift that the university was experiencing where research was becoming more highly valued. Carmen emphasized that being a caring person – which she considers herself, especially with students – is never considered as part of the evaluation process. As she stated, “There is no way to calculate that contribution.” Of course, caring for students takes significant time and energy.

Carmen explained that there are some immigration and legal processes that international faculty members have to deal with that make the process of being from abroad more time-consuming and complicated; however, she sees her international status

as being a positive factor. She said, “Being international I think is helpful because you have different systems and you can compare things and you can draw strength from a different way.”

Kelly: “ It is challenging to find a community of colleagues”

Kelly is a full professor in the social sciences. She is in her sixties and is married without children. She grew up in Africa and completed her undergraduate and graduate studies in the Americas and Caribbean. She also currently holds an administrative position at PRU. Prior to arriving, she worked at different universities and organizations in the US as well as in Europe. She has a strong academic reputation in her field and has very good relationships with her PRU colleagues. Kelly believes that her own efforts and dedication to research, as well as the network she built throughout her career, helped her progress as a woman faculty member.

One of the biggest challenges Kelly believes that women faculty face is finding a community of colleagues. She also acknowledges that international women many times encounter stereotypes because of their home country. Lastly, Kelly emphasizes that it is crucial to look at cultural issues and social class together when studying international women faculty.

**Sarah: “The biggest obstacles when having my kids were from other women
faculty”**

Sarah is an associate professor in STEM. She was born in Asia and then moved to North America. She is in her early forties and is married with two children. Sarah is the only participant who completed her master’s and Ph.D. in a country other than the US; however, the country in which she studied was culturally very similar to the US.

After graduation, Sarah came to the US because her husband was studying here. Prior to working at PRU she worked as a faculty member at a highly prestigious university in the US where she had a great experience plus amazing mentorship from senior faculty. Her husband took a job in the city in which PRU is located, so Sarah applied to PRU because they did not want to be apart. Her experience at PRU has been good even though the culture of support among faculty has been quite different from that of her previous university. She explained that when she came to PRU the research focus was not as evident as it is now so faculty who conducted research “were special people...it was a very different atmosphere than the one I experienced before.” During her years at PRU there have been some dramatic changes, specifically in terms of the increased focus on research.

As a woman faculty member, Sarah believes that balancing life and work has been challenging, specifically because academia is not a family-friendly culture for women. In fact, she shared that one of the biggest obstacles she had when having her children came from women faculty in her own department. She said, “It was absolutely terrible that when I had my second child I think that one faculty member in my own department called human resources to let them know that I was having my child in April.” She shared that the faculty who called was concerned about how she was going to fund her salary during summer time, months that many faculty wants to have their children. When I asked her about her challenges as an international woman faculty member, she replied, “I don’t really consider myself international; where I grew up is not that different than the US”; however, elaborating further, she added that one of the

biggest cultural differences she really sees is in terms of math skills that students have in the US compared to the country in which she grew up.

Susan: “They didn’t know how much I was struggling to understand the US system”

Susan is an associate professor of a professional and applied field. She was born and grew up in South America. She is single and in her fifties. Susan completed her undergraduate degree in her home country and then a first master’s degree in Europe. Later in life she decided to make a change and completed a second master’s degree in the US. Her first master’s was funded through her home government and her second through her own funds. She had not previously considered becoming a faculty member in the US, but she had the opportunity to teach during her second master’s program. Teaching was something she really enjoyed and still does. During her second master’s program, her advisor encouraged her to apply to an academic position because he saw first-hand how much she enjoyed teaching. After graduation, Susan applied to five faculty positions and got two offers, ultimately accepting the position at PRU. Since she never expected to become a faculty member in the US, she was not familiar with the system. She explained, “I did not have any idea of what a tenure-track position meant.” Then, she added, “I did not have an understanding of the American university system.” The problem was that she believed nobody knew how challenging she found it. She said, “They didn’t know how much I was struggling to understand the system and how it worked.” As she elaborated, the problem was, in part, that she did not have the academic staircase that is first a master’s and then a Ph.D., primarily because, in her field of study, she never went to a “university” and she never really thought to stay in the US for more

than two years. All these elements combined contributed to struggles that she was ultimately able to overcome.

Throughout her career Susan has had two men as advisors/mentors, both international. She described them as generous. For example, they advised her about the negotiation process. She shared, “I am horrible at negotiating so I didn’t negotiate when I decided to take the position. I regret it when I look back, and see that it is a personal problem.” While starting her position, Susan was assigned to two mentors within the university; however, they were not as helpful as she would have expected. After the “normal period of time” Susan got tenure and later on was asked to serve in an administrative role. Her experience in this role was not as expected, as she explained:

I don't think I ever have a problem as a woman faculty member but I did encounter some problems when I was serving in an administrative capacity.

When I was entering as a chair in my department the interaction with other chairs was hard. They were very prejudiced.

Susan believes that prejudicial treatment she received when serving in this administrative role was primarily because of her gender but then she elaborated further and said, “I think they (chair colleagues) are prejudiced against women and the fact that I was coming from a poor country also added to the equation.”

CHAPTER 5

FINDINGS

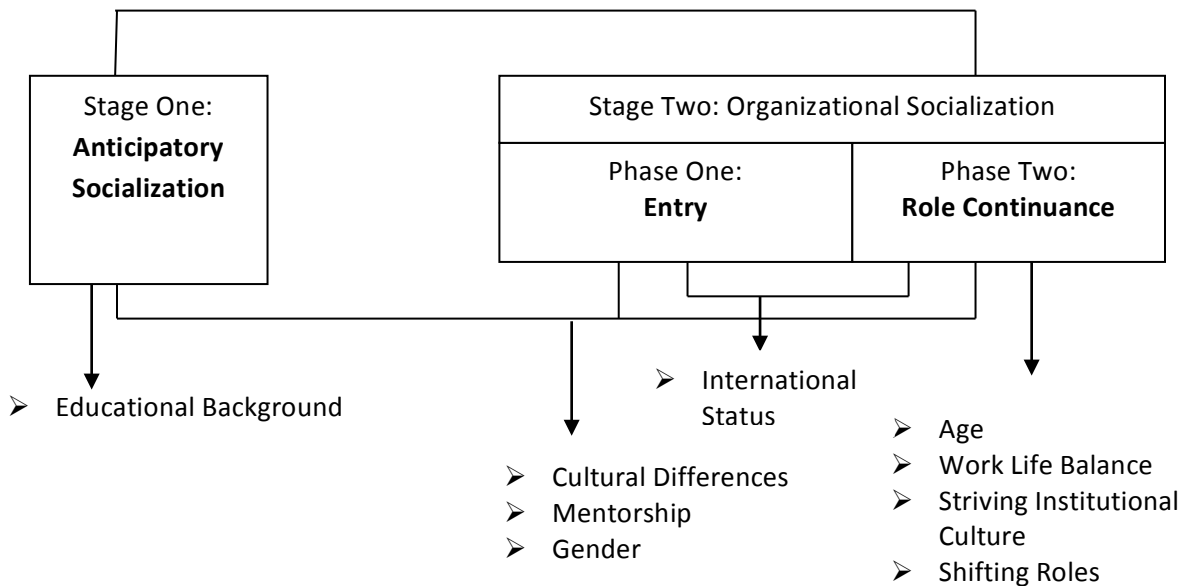
Socialization has been defined as a process by which new members acquire the norms, knowledge, and skills they need in order to exist in a given society (Merton, 1957). Socialization is a vital part of a faculty member's experience (Tierney, 1997), as a positive socialization experience can lead to a successful academic career, including the granting of tenure (Tierney & Rhoads, 1994), whereas a negative socialization experience may cause alienation and departure (Tierney & Rhoads, 1994).

Interviews and a focus group with the 12 international women faculty members revealed two stages of socialization in their experiences. Indeed, socialization is usually viewed as a two-stage process: anticipatory socialization and organizational socialization (Tierney & Bensimon, 1996; Van Maanen, 1978). For faculty members, the anticipatory stage occurs primarily in graduate school while still a student and includes the new faculty recruit's anticipatory learning (Van Maanen, 1978). The second stage is called organizational socialization. This stage occurs in two phases: (1) initial entry and (2) role of continuance. The initial entry includes interactions that may occur during the faculty recruitment and selection process (Tierney & Rhoads, 1994). The role continuance stage occurs when the faculty member is located in a position and usually lasts throughout the tenure process (Tierney & Rhoads, 1994). This chapter is organized by these distinct socialization stages: anticipatory and organizational.

Although participants' experiences fit broadly into anticipatory and organizational socialization stages, it was evident that salient characteristics of these women affected their socialization differently in different stages (see Figure 3). For example, all three

stages were influenced by gender, cultural differences, and mentorship, but the women’s international status only came to be salient in their entry stage and the stage of role continuance. Similarly, their educational background seemed to influence only their anticipatory socialization. Lastly, they described how age, work-life balance, a striving institutional culture, and how shifting roles influenced the stage of role continuance. Below, I describe each stage of their socialization experience and provide information about how salient individual characteristics and experiences had an effect on their socialization.

Figure 3. Socialization Experiences of 12 International Women Faculty Members



Anticipatory Socialization

Socialization begins prior to a faculty member’s first day in their academic position. Faculty members often learn what it means to be a member of the profession and discipline during their graduate experience (Tierney & Rhoads, 1994). According to the literature, some of the problems women and people of color face as faculty members

may be due to their anticipatory socialization (Turner & Thompson, 1993). For example, poor anticipatory socialization may be due to the weak mentoring many women receive during graduate school (Aisenberg & Harrington, 1988; Bova, 2000), or the tendency of advisors and others to doubt women's potential for research productivity (Clark & Corcoran, 1986). In this study, however, the women discussed how the influence of the US culture in their graduate school experience made a difference for them. Cultural differences, good mentorship, and their gender also influenced their anticipatory socialization experiences.

Educational Background

The 12 international faculty women members represented diversity in terms of country of origin, rank, discipline, and familial situation, but 11 of the participants had in common that they completed their terminal degree (e.g., Ph.D. or master's degree) in a US university. Only one participant completed her terminal degree in a country other than the US. As described in several instances during the interview and focus group, having completed at least part of their education in the US was considered important for their careers. Several of these international women faculty members talked about how having previous educational experiences in the US helped them to understand the American system as well as the American academic profession. Molly described her own experience this way, "I did not come to this faculty position right from my home country. I can't imagine if I did; it would have been unbelievably overwhelming."

The graduate training they received also helped them anticipate the type of roles and behaviors they would need to be a successful faculty member. Being exposed to the American system as a graduate student helped their anticipatory socialization in terms of

having a better understanding about the profession as well as increasing their training to become an academic in the US. Denise, who had graduated from a top-five school in her discipline, explained, “Definitely [studying in the US] is helpful because you get used to the system very quickly and you know what is expected.” Susan emphasized, “I personally think that [studying in the US] helps because the people that have a college education here are already prepared to do whatever they need to set up a career.” Consistent with what has been reported in the literature (Tierney & Rhoads, 1994), participants in this study began acquisition of the values, norms, attitudes, and beliefs associated with their discipline and profession during their graduate experience. Alice explained how different mentors exposed her during graduate school to the academic profession. She said, “He [my mentor] prepared me during graduate school for what a faculty position is like.” Carmen also emphasized how her graduate school experience was helpful for learning what is expected from a faculty member. She added, “My department [during graduate school] combined all the three elements: teaching, research, and service.” Taken together, having previous studies in the US, constituting their anticipatory socialization (Merton, 1957), helped these individuals adopt the values of the group to which they were aspiring to belong, the American higher education system.

Consistent with other reports in the literature (Chow & Bhandari, 2011), the majority of these international women faculty members (11 of 12 or 90%) graduated from highly prestigious research universities in the US. According to their narratives, having had these previous studies in the US affected their socialization process in a positive way. Almost all of the participants mentioned that the training they received at their alma mater prepared them for two of the main areas in which a tenure-track faculty

member is evaluated: research and teaching. Carmen, who graduated from a research-intensive school, described it this way:

I had that research experience during my graduate school but I also was teaching a class the last three years so it prepared me for being a teacher, it kind of prepared me for both sides. Also I worked with two faculty members and I co-published with them so that also allowed me to have publications.

Similarly, some participants emphasized that being trained in a research university really provided strong training for conducting research. Ashley, who graduated from an Ivy League school, described her preparation this way:

I was well prepared for research. The teaching not so much because I had fellowships so I never really had to teach when I was a graduate student. So the course work, writing papers, all that prepared me for research, but not so much for teaching.

In other words, having strong research training provided a foundation for starting a successful academic career and a building a research reputation. Much like what has been reported in the literature in regard to domestic graduate students (Austin & McDaniels, 2007), the majority of women in my study discussed how their graduate education prepared them well to conduct research but not necessarily to teach.

Cultural Differences

Even though having previous exposure to the American system was perceived as positive for their socialization process, several participants emphasized how their cultural background and the resulting differences from the US culture caused tension in different stages of their socialization. Every international woman faculty member interviewed

talked about these differences in one way or another. At this stage of their socialization, these cultural differences had to do with the type of students with whom they had previously worked in the US or abroad. For example, some participants explained that they had higher expectations for the academic achievement of their students at the beginning of their employment, mainly due to the fact that they previously had taught in more selective universities than their current one. In this sense, their anticipatory socialization did not prepare them well for the particular type of students at this one university. Ana, who had previously worked at a top-ranked university, explained, “This is a very different student culture, at my previous university, students were tremendously driven...here they are very different and that was a cultural shock.” The participants had to adapt their teaching approach to this new culture of students, adding extra pressure to their work.

Mentorship

While the cultural differences of the participants added an extra level of pressure to their socialization experience at this stage, the effect was mitigated by having good mentorship throughout their academic careers. For these women, mentoring was present in each of the different stages of the socialization process. The literature points out that in graduate school students are expected to develop close relationships with their advisors, which is critical for their success (Austin, 2002). These relationships tend to not only be important during the graduate program, but also for entry into the professional world (Austin, 2002). In other words, mentoring during graduate school is crucial to a student’s development as a future academic (Wilson, 2006).

Most of the participants in this study talked about the importance of mentorship during their academic life. These international women faculty members described the mentorship they have received, with some participants emphasizing their advisors and others the role of other formal and informal mentors. For participants, formal mentors referred to those assigned by the university to the new faculty member, and informal mentors referred to those chosen by the new faculty member. Denise, who had a male advisor during graduate school and has two formal mentors in her current university, remarked, "It seems that people are recognizing that is really important to get used to the system so mentors can help with that a lot." She also emphasized the number of opportunities in graduate school she was given through her advisor, when she shared:

My advisor gave me a lot of opportunities. I had teaching experience; I was a teaching assistant so I was able to lecture different classes and conduct research. I was also given the opportunity to contribute to writing grants.

Along these lines, Alice also described how different mentors helped her to become a faculty member:

I got mentorship from a different faculty member than my supervisor, outside faculty, and other faculty members who had just taken a position at this university. We were co-teaching together so he was also a mentor and prepared me that last year when I was graduating on how to do well at job interviews, what a faculty position is like in the kind of funding, and how to fill out the teaching portfolio and write my research statement.

Almost all of the participants had men advisors during graduate school, some of whom were also of international descent. The quality of mentorship from their advisors,

however, varied greatly, from giving the participants the opportunity to find their own research to providing them with advice about the negotiation process. Ana explained the influence her advisor had in her career, “My advisor gave me the freedom so that I was able to do what was interesting to me and I think that makes a difference because you are the one making the questions.” Ana further discussed how she was hesitant to have a woman advisor because she knew the pressure women faculty members have to be productive, so she thought a woman advisor would never give her the freedom to explore her own research interests as a man advisor would.

For the faculty members who had a woman as an advisor, the advisor served as a role model for pursuing an academic career. Tiffani, who graduated from a male-dominated field, had a woman as her advisor and she explained how her advisor served as a role model for her decision to pursue a career in academia. She said:

My advisor – she is also a woman – she was a very good model to me. I looked at her career and then I thought it was a good future for me as well so I decided to continue on the academic path.

Gender

As reported in the existing literature (Aguirre, 2000; Bellas & Toutkoushian, 1999; Clark & Corcoran, 1986; Tierney & Bensimon, 1996), the issue of gender loomed large in discussions with these 12 international women faculty members in different stages of their socialization process. Several participants, for example, did not consider being a woman advantageous for their careers. The issue of balancing life and work was apparent across disciplines, country of origin, and even rank. Tiffani, an assistant

professor, who is married and has two children, explained how having a family changed the amount of time she could dedicate to her work:

So, because you are a woman, you have to take care of, or care about, your family more than male colleagues. As a graduate student, there was not a huge difference. I could do that...now I have kids and then I have to split my time in two parts.

Because academia can be an unsupportive environment for women, some of participants coming from male-dominated fields were advised during graduate school to apply for faculty positions only at universities with ADVANCE grants. Denise explained her experience, “I have a mentor in graduate school who told me to only apply to ADVANCE universities, because of policies such as maternity leave.” Some participants in male-dominated fields felt that the lack of role models and the feeling of being the only woman were sometimes uncomfortable. Laura shared, “I had never had any female role models so I was not sure what to expect in my first job.” It was apparent that gender influenced these women’s careers more during the organizational stage of socialization, which will be explained more later in this chapter.

Organizational Socialization: Entry

The first phase of organizational socialization is the entry stage. This phase involves relationships and interactions that happen during the recruitment and selection process, as well as the early period of taking the position, when organizational knowledge begins to be transmitted to the newcomer (Tierney & Rhoads, 1994). During this first stage the participants described how their previous experience in the US, including having mentors who guided the process, helped the entry phase of their socialization.

Denise explained the role of her advisor in her experience, saying, “My advisor prepared me as much as possible [for a faculty position].” The participants also emphasized the adaptation to the new culture in which they were immersed as well as how their own international status added extra pressure to this first phase. Ashley described it this way, “Speaking with an accent never helps you...it just takes you more time to write papers. At the beginning, when you are just starting, it is time that you taking away from work.” For most of these international women faculty members, learning the educational system as well as the institutional setting was challenging.

In sum, for these 12 international women faculty members, some of the characteristics that influenced this first stage in their position as a faculty member in the US were mentorship, cultural differences, gender, and international status. I discuss each of these in turn below.

Mentorship

Most participants talked about the role their mentors played while they were looking for an academic position. For some of the participants, the role taken by their advisors or mentors was more active when they were entering the job market. Ester, who graduated from a top-ranked university, described it this way:

I went on the job market, my dissertation chair was highly supportive as well as my committee members at my university. My dissertation chair sent out letters about me introducing me to colleagues at top-ranked universities around the United States, and I got a number of interviews.

For other participants, the role their advisor played during this stage was helping them navigate the negotiation process after accepting a faculty position in a US university.

The negotiation process was something with which many participants were unfamiliar, so having guidance regarding this process was useful. Susan described her experience this way:

I talked to my advisor. I have this advisor and also another that is a generation older, so I have these two generations of international males as my mentors. They were very generous and they both told me how to negotiate.

Participants were often advised about the negotiation process by several mentors/professors besides their advisors. Laura talked about who gave her advice on how to negotiate her first position as a faculty member in the US. She said, “I received advice from my advisor, from my advisor from college who was also a male, and from other faculty members.”

Cultural Differences

The cultural differences experienced by the participants were also present during the entry stage of their socialization process. For some of the participants these differences had to do with teaching expectations that, in part, were influenced by their previous experiences. Laura, a STEM faculty member, shared:

That class was a big mismatch because my expectations and what students came to get was different. I came from a very intense research environment and my idea was that everybody in the lab was enjoying the class...I cannot say that it was completely bad evaluations but I think that it was a clear mismatch because I had no idea what the students were going to be doing in life.

In order to adapt to a new type of students, some of the faculty members described making changes in their courses to fit the students' needs. Ana explained her approach

this way, “I didn't have to lower the level but I just made it more approachable for these new students.”

For those faculty members who had previous experience teaching abroad, cultural differences were manifested in the dissimilarity between countries. Alice, who completed her undergraduate degree in her home country, explained, “My American students are afraid of everything that has to do with math, which is weird, very strange to me. This is not the way students are in my home country.” Ashley, who also had a faculty role abroad, emphasized the fact that in her country the expectations were higher: “In my previous university- in my home county- the university has higher expectations, the whole level of expectations here is more like a high school where I come from...it's just a very different system.” Understanding these differences between countries and adapting to the new student culture of the university added extra pressure to the participants, but having previous studies in the US helped. Molly described it this way:

It took me a little time to get used to this culture, but I think it was an advantage that I was here as a student and saw it as a student. If I had come here as a faculty member I would have been in much more trouble.

Another sort of cultural difference perceived during this stage by participants had to do with the type of university at which they had previously worked or studied. For instance, some participants mentioned the transition from a public to a private university was challenging in regard to their teaching experience. For example, students at PRU were treated differently by faculty members than students at public universities. Carmen, who had graduated from a public university, described this difference: “The kind of work is just very different...like academically, it's different here. It is more like taking care of

the students. I would have never have done this in other places.” These cultural differences were also reflected in the way faculty members were evaluated. Denise, who had graduated from a public research university, shared, “I came from a public, very high research school. ...if you do a good job teaching or if you don't do a good job, it's not a big deal at all in your tenure. Here, your evaluations and how the students perceive you are very important.”

Lastly, the cultural background of participants also influenced their socialization to the profession. As described by some of them, having a different cultural background was considered a challenge in meeting new colleagues because of the lack of common background they shared with their US peers. Tiffani, a faculty member of Asian descent, said:

I think that sometimes it's hard to make connections because we're international students or international faculty members and we come from different countries, no matter if it's a culture or the environment is different from here. For example, when you attend a conference sometimes it's very hard to build a connection easily with other faculty members so you have to learn first your new culture, your environment while you talk as fast as you can. This was a challenge for me, especially at the beginning.

Gender

Gender was again present during the entry phase of participants. Some of participants talked about how individual negotiations (e.g., regarding research, teaching, and service) were made between deans and these faculty members when they were hired. The literature is rife with examples of how men and women are treated differently in the

negotiation process (Babcock & Laschever, 2009), and the participants' experiences in this study were rarely different. A few participants explained that, without awareness of negotiation techniques, women faculty members cannot be successful in negotiations at the same level that their men colleagues are. Ester, a full professor, explained her concern:

I would say that women faculty members, regardless of whether they are international or not, need to keep closely monitoring how they are being treated in the reward system in terms of salary, research, research release time, research funding... too many deals are made between individual faculty members and the higher administration and if you don't pay attention and inform yourself and stand up for what you just deserve you will be overlooked and not rewarded commensurate with your performance.

Interestingly, as previously mentioned, most of the participants did negotiate their position at the beginning of their employment, but, depending on their country of origin, negotiation strategies were neither taught nor well-regarded for women.

For other participants, gender was present during this stage in that it they were left wondering what role it had played securing their position. In other words, some participants were concerned that affirmative action programs that aim to increase women faculty in male-dominated fields had influence on their hiring. Laura who works at a male-dominated field explained her concern:

I guess that there is a kind of wondering of all the people who applied for this job. I am sure that there were not many women, so I wonder how much of me

being interviewed was because I am woman and how much is because my research is really interesting. That nagging is kind of awful.

Lastly, for some participants, gender was present during this stage in the messages about having children the women received prior to applying for tenure. Some participants explained how women faculty members sometimes do not to have children during this period because of the messages they receive – implicitly or explicitly – about the difficulty they will face if they decide to start a family before tenure. Ashley shared what she heard from another man at PRU referring to an untenured women faculty member, “She didn’t get tenure because she got children.”

International Status

It is perhaps not surprising that identifying as foreign-born had an impact on these women faculty members’ experiences, especially as nearly all of them grew up outside of the US. For example, some of the difficulties they experienced during the entry stage as an international faculty member related to the amount of paperwork had to do, whether in order to be able to stay in the country or to apply for certain grants.

Specifically, having to deal with immigration paperwork at the beginning of their employment added extra pressure to many of the participants’ experiences. Some participants described that while the university provided resources and an office to process their visas, the immigration process itself added a level of pressure to their lives. Particularly those faculty members who had been a long time at the university explained that part of the problem was that, many years ago, the office that dealt with immigration was not as well-established as it is now. Ashley, who applied for her faculty position

from abroad, had to delay her travel to the US and begin her position a month late because her visa got lost. She shared:

I was supposed to start my position in September and supposedly my visa was lost in the mail so they had to ask for a copy. When it finally arrived somebody else was teaching my class...my teaching evaluations were horrible the first time I was teaching a class. That was horrid.

In addition, because of their international status, some of the participants shared negative experiences Denise, a faculty member in STEM, said:

Being international has been a challenge because it prevents you from being able to apply to different grants. It is hard because you can have your good research to win that award but, without that paperwork, you can't apply for them. So, for my career, I have missed quite a few opportunities because of that status.

Perhaps also not surprising was that, for those faculty members coming from non-English speaking countries, language was a matter of concern. Ashley, who came from a non-English-speaking country, shared, "When you have an accent people can give you a hard time and that can be very detrimental." However, the language barrier was mitigated by having previous studies in the US. Ashley explained, "I think that having previous studies in the US helped me to become better at English and, for many of us, English is not our first language so it is a few more years you have for practice."

Organizational Socialization: Role Continuance

The last stage of the socialization process is role continuance and occurs after the entry period of employment (Tierney & Rhoads, 1994). For tenure-track faculty members, role continuance takes place through the tenure process (Tierney & Bensimon,

1996). This socialization process is usually both formal and informal. Going through the tenure process is, for example, a formal process, whereas casual conversations that occur between senior faculty members and junior faculty members about the tenure process might be considered an informal socialization experience (Tierney & Bensimon, 1996). In my study 8 of the women had already received tenure and did so while at PRU, and the remaining 4 were still pre-tenure. Of those who had received tenure at PRU, most had a positive experience with the tenure process, with a few exceptions. Ashley, an associate professor in an applied field, said, “For me, the tenure process was successful, so I guess my experience was fine. However, I think that the university demands a lot from junior faculty members. I don’t think they have realistic expectations.”

For these 12 international women faculty members, this stage of socialization was also influenced by their cultural background, mentorship, international status, age and gender, work-life balance experiences, the surrounding striving institutional culture, and their changing roles. Below, I discuss how each of these influences had an effect on their socialization at this stage.

Cultural Differences

As discussed in the literature (Thomas & Johnson, 2004), participants’ cultural background had an effect on their perceptions of cultural differences during their time as a faculty member in the US. As an illustration, some of the women described differences in relationships between faculty members and students. Molly, who had completed her bachelor’s and master’s degree in her home country, remarked, “In my home country a professor can say anything you want about students. Here, you have to be very politically correct and not let your emotions out.” In this sense, the participants felt that

they had to be aware of the cultural norms that are accepted in their current university and behave according to them, something that is expected of all faculty members (Tierney & Rhoads, 1994). Along these lines, some participants shared that it was important to know the culture and how to behave; learning the cultural context was crucial for not getting “in trouble.” Molly remarked, “I am always thinking about how to be politically correct with what I am saying...you have to read between lines with what people are saying, what they mean. If you actually do it differently you are in big trouble.”

Understanding the new culture was a learning curve for many of the participants. Laura, who comes from a culturally different country than the US, said, “You need to learn this new system and unlearn your previous system because it is very different.” Therefore, for those participants who came from cultures that were more similar to that in the US, having this similarity was considered a plus for their socialization process. Ester, who was raised in a culturally similar country to the US, explained:

I would say that because I have come from a very culturally close country that is very similar to the United States that I haven't faced any challenges particularly because I am international and born in another country, particularly born and raised there for the first three decades of my life.

Mentorship

Mentorship was present again in this stage of the participants' experiences. Several participants emphasized the role of their formal and informal mentors through their careers. Sarah, who worked at another university prior to coming to PRU, described the informal mentorship she received in her previous department and how that helped her. She shared:

It was two people in particular who really believed that if you want a faculty member to succeed you have to show them the way. To them I am grateful because they were so kind and so helpful. Mentoring is very valuable for early years when you're trying to balance all these new things.

For the most part, participants agreed that either formal or informal mentors were instrumental to their careers, a finding shared by the literature (Kram, 1988). Ana explained the role each mentor played in her career. "I would say that a formal and informal mentor are equally important. I had some formal and informal mentors who have been terrific for my career." Ashley remarked on the importance of having at least one mentor who is assigned by the university. She said:

I think it is good to have both because it is very personality driven. If you are not the kind of person who is not going to look for an informal mentor, at least having one assigned to you is very good.

Gender and Age

Gender was another salient factor at this stage of participants' socialization experiences. For some participants, as an example, the issue of their biological clock ticking as they worked toward tenure affected not only their careers but their lives. Ashley explained, "I think the whole biology-culture [thing] is a killer because you are just here for five years [to earn tenure] for your career, and I only have one child because I am too old now to have more."

Several participants also shared that because of their gender they were assigned to do more service than men colleagues. According to some participants, women faculty

members are asked to do more service because women “get things done.” Ana, a faculty member in STEM, said:

Everybody has to do a lot of service in my department because we are very small. So, when you want to get stuff done, you give it to the female faculty member. I mean, the guys will do it...but the females are the one who do all the nitty-gritty.

Much like their domestic women counterparts (Exum, 1983), the extra demands of service created intensified pressure on these international women faculty members. Sarah, an associate professor in STEM, said, “I have spent the last three years on hiring committees and that is a lot of work but it is also a lot of stress because people sometimes are not happy with the decisions.”

Not only was gender considered an issue during this socialization stage, but the intersection with age was also considered challenging, specifically for the younger women faculty members in male-dominated fields. Laura, a young faculty member in one such department, explained some of her frustrations:

I'm aware of the fact that I'm one of the few women teaching in my department and the majority of my students are males...I do feel like I have to dress up more than what a male colleague would do, and probably part of the thing is because I am young. And it's frustrating to me because my male colleagues don't need to do it.

Denise, another STEM faculty member, also explained the challenges of being a younger woman in a male-dominated field:

Being a woman and younger is challenging, just really building relationships with senior faculty members, and part of it is the age. Most of the senior faculty

members are in their late 50s or early 60s and I am 35, so, you know, I'm kind of the age of their children but I'm also their colleague and that has been difficult. Most of the senior faculty members are men so it is a little bit challenging to build those kinds of relationships with the age gap. That has been probably the most challenging [part] and it is very important because of the external reputation of the university.

International Status

Although there were challenges faced by these women because of their international status, being from another country was also considered positive for their careers by some of them, especially during the role continuance stage. A few of the participants emphasized that due to their international status they could better relate to international students or that having an international background gave them another perspective. Carmen, a social science faculty member, stated:

I think that being international is helpful because you have different systems and you can compare things and you can draw strengths from different ways of doing things so I think I have benefited from that as well. So, I see my international [status] as being a plus.

Molly, who is originally from a non-English speaking country, also considered her international status as being positive because of the influence it may have on other women and international students. She stated, "I think being international to some extent is an advantage. I can empower women students and especially those who are immigrants because they cannot give me an excuse that English is not their first language."

Work-life Balance

Similar to their domestic counterparts (Menges & Exum, 1983; Rosser, 2004; Ward & Wolf-Wendel, 2004), balancing work and life outside academia was a recurring topic for these international women faculty members. For some participants, the challenge was to find the “right balance.” Susan explained, “The balance between the different kinds of responsibilities – between teaching, research, and service. The personal challenge is to find this balance including life outside those responsibilities.” Other participants described how having babies while going through the tenure process was a hard decision to make. They shared that some women decide to leave academia because of the perceived incompatibility of family and career. Ashley, a faculty member in a professional field and mother of one child, described how institutions of higher education might lose women faculty members because of this situation: “Women in the tenure process do better than all, but I think you can lose a lot of people who might be really good because they leave academia to have children.”

Moreover, according to several participants, the policies in place at PRU were far from being “family-friendly” and made it even more difficult to balance family and work. Sarah, a faculty member in STEM and mother of two children, stated, “I think we don’t even have a maternity leave policy. I mean you can take leave obviously for 12 weeks [through FMLA], but it is unpaid.”

Even though having children was not an impediment to a successful academic career in these women’s opinions, it was a concern for those considering having children. Laura, who was engaged at the time of the interview, explained her concern:

I'm not thinking to have a child now but in a couple of years maybe...I wouldn't be able to work late, I wouldn't be able to work through dinner. I will have the flexible schedule that I have but it would not be flexible in my life. And, then I will have these other responsibilities. I've been trying to think how I could make that work and I struggle with it sometimes. I'm not really sure if I can do it.

Striving Institutional Culture

Some of the challenges experienced by the participants during the role continuance stage were attributed to their institutional culture. As is the case of many other higher education institutions, PRU has experienced mission drift and could be considered a striving institution, or an institution that pursues “prestige within the academic hierarchy” (O'Meara, 2007, p. 123).

In this regard, PRU has changed from being a teaching-focused university to one that is more focused on research. Due to this shift, some participants talked about the polarization between older and newer faculty members. Molly, an assistant professor in the social sciences, explained that her department has two types of faculty members, some who are research-focused and some who are teaching-focused. She said, “There is a polarization in terms of the type of people that work here; some who are very interested in doing research and there are people who have no experience with research.” Several participants described the conflicts that occurred because of the shifting mission at their university. For Ashley, an associate professor, the polarization between faculty members was evident in the lack of understanding that “older” faculty members had in regard to the changes in the profession. She explained:

It [the expectation to gain tenure] was completely unrealistic and what has happened is that I was the first person to come up for tenure from this group and the person who had gone up for tenure before me was 20 years ago. So, there was really not a very good understanding of how the profession has changed...so that is difficult.

Some participants also talked about the pressure this newer general of faculty members have to obtain more grants. Carmen stated:

In the years that I have been at PRU, there have been some dramatic changes happening. One, the emphasis on research and the [newer] focus of research have been huge. That means that there has been more pressure to get grants.

Regardless of the discipline, bringing more money to the university has been a requirement for all of these international women faculty members. At the same time, these women described that the mission drift of PRU has been positive in some regards. For example, an incremental growth of new faculty members coming to campus with interesting new research and the promotion of interdisciplinary work within the university has been beneficial to all those on campus. On the negative side, this mission drift was not always supported by the infrastructure of the university. A lack of laboratory space and doctoral students to support research programs are two impediments some faculty face at PRU. To illustrate this concern, Sarah explained, "It has been very exciting being a part of that change but there also is not sufficient infrastructure to support the change." She added that some disciplines at PRU do not have doctoral programs, so there are no students at that level to support faculty in their research

agendas. “I know that many programs in this University are not established in the same way as in other places.”

Shifting Roles

According to the literature (Aguirre, 2000), women and minority faculty members tend to take on more service responsibilities, such as advising or serving on committees, than their males colleagues. In the case of foreign born women faculty, scholars have reported that they are significantly more likely to engage in research and be less involved in teaching and service when compared to US born women faculty colleagues (Mamiseishvili, 2010). Contrary to Mamiseishvili (2010), however, all the participants in this study reported similar workloads to their women and men colleagues, which included research, teaching, and service. Nevertheless, several participants shared how service responsibilities were assigned more often to women faculty and how they have to be careful not to take too much on because service does not carry the same weight as research or teaching in tenure deliberations. Participants also shared the reason why women get pulled into service activities. The main reason they felt women were assigned to service duties is that women faculty members tend to “get things done.” Denise shared, “Women tend to pick up more of the work and do it.” Along the same lines, Ana added, “The female faculty members are the ones who do all the organization in the department, for example, recruiting students.”

While participants were aware of or advised against taking on too many service responsibilities, some of these women faculty members were offered administrative positions as part of their career advancement; however, this new role was sometimes seen by others as service. Carmen, who was asked to serve in an administrative position,

shared her apprehension, “I think women faculty get pulled into this service. In my case, I think I was seen as doing more service than scholarship.” According to participants’ experiences, these administrative positions were either interesting or they felt they could not reject them because of the importance of having women in those positions. Four of the participants described how they came to hold administrative positions while working at PRU, requiring a shift in their role and in their position title. All participants who had served in administrative positions agreed that even though they enjoyed the experience, being in those positions had taken a considerable amount of time from their research, with real consequences for their academic careers. This has been found to be true for domestic counterpart minority faculty members as well (Aguirre, 2000; Misra, Lundquist, Holmes, & Agiomavritis, 2011). Carmen described her experience this way:

I was asked to work in this administrative position...when it came to my promotion to full professor it turned out to be a problem because I didn’t have enough publications in peer-reviewed journals.

It is not surprising, then, that holding administrative positions was considered detrimental for the academic careers of these international women faculty members, because research carried more weight in the reward system for tenure-track faculty members at PRU.

Alice shared her concerns about holding her administrative position:

I took this director position because nobody else was around and they expected me to do it but I wish to see more women in those administration roles and I know that it makes the university look good and I think that's why I am doing it but I think it is taking a lot of my research time.

At the same time, several of the participants mentioned that some administrative appointments were gendered, which discouraged and frustrated them. Ester, who has been more than two decades at PRU, explained:

I have been highly deserving of the chair [position] for a decade and I made my case to the various deans who have been in charge, since we have turned over several deans in our department during my tenure period. I made a case and I got outside letters of absolutely glowing support for me deserving being the chair and yet I have never been awarded that position I believe I deserve.

Other participants who held administrative positions described feeling discriminated against for being women and/or foreigners. Susan, who had held an administrative position, explained:

I don't think I ever have a problem as a woman faculty member but I encountered some problems when I was serving in an administrative capacity. Like when I was entering chair in my department, with all the other chairs in the new college, the interaction was hard. They were very prejudiced.

When I asked if this prejudice was due to her gender, she said:

Yes, and a foreigner in my department... I am the only foreigner in the department and serving as an interim chair I have to interact with other chairs and they were all American White males and prejudiced. It was very hard.

In summary, all three stages of socialization were influenced by gender, cultural differences, and mentorship; however, the women's international status only came to be salient in their entry stage and the stage of role continuance. The educational background seemed to influence only their anticipatory socialization stage. Lastly, other participants

described how age, work-life balance, a striving institutional culture, and shifting roles also influenced their last stage of socialization. In the following chapter, I provide discussion and implications of this study.

CHAPTER 6

DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS

The purpose of this study was to investigate the organizational socialization experiences of international women faculty working at a research university in the US. Specifically, the study was guided by the following research questions: What do international women faculty working at one research university perceive as their socialization experiences? What do they perceive to facilitate or hinder the socialization experiences? A total of 12 international women faculty were interviewed and included in a focus group in this qualitative study. Using the constant comparative method (Bogdan & Biklen, 2003), data were analyzed and interpreted based on the different socialization stages of these 12 international women faculty members. The data gathered from this study offers new knowledge about international women faculty members experiences and implications for practice. In this chapter I present a discussion of the findings. I begin by discussing the findings in relation to socialization, the framework for this study, and in the stages of socialization that these international women faculty experienced. Then, I elaborate upon sub-themes including: gender, mentoring, striving institutional environments, and shifting roles. When applicable, I include implications for policy and practice within each subsection. I conclude with recommendations for future research.

Anticipatory Socialization

Organizational socialization has been defined as a process by which new members acquire the norms, knowledge, and skills they need in order to exist in a given society (Merton, 1957). Within academia, organizational socialization is designed to prepare the individual to become a faculty member. In this sense, organizational

socialization begins prior the faculty member starting the academic position, during graduate school (Tierney & Rhoads, 1994).

Ward and Bensimon (2003) stated, “Successful anticipatory socialization is key to gaining access to the professoriate” (p. 433). While the literature has tended to focus on the negative experiences that women and faculty of color may face in their anticipatory socialization (Turner & Thompson, 1993), the women in this study discussed having a positive anticipatory socialization experience. The women’s positive anticipatory socialization had to do, in part, with what they experienced before applying to their position at their current university. For example, Susan explained that people who study in the US are already prepared to do whatever they need to set up a career, as a result of their graduate school experience. Specifically, almost all the participants obtained their Ph.D. or master’s degrees from highly selective universities in the US, which – according to their narratives – contributed to a better understanding of the American educational system prior to starting their faculty positions in the US.

The participants were also given the opportunity to conduct research while in their graduate program or at their prior position, which helped them prepare for this part of their future faculty role. Some of these international women faculty also had exposure to teaching during graduate school, again adding to their preparation for the faculty role in the US, like Carmen, who shared that during graduate school she was exposed to research and teaching. This exposure to research and teaching in US universities, as well as their own experience as students, contributed to their anticipatory socialization.

At the same time, while this exposure to research and teaching helped their understanding of the American system, the cultural differences experienced at the

different types of universities in which they worked (public vs. private) did not prepare them well for the new types of students with whom they would work at PRU. For example, Ana shared that the students at her previous university, which was top-ranked in her field, were tremendously more driven than students at PRU. As pointed out in the literature, context constitutes an important part of the socialization process for graduate students (Gardner, 2008). In this regard, graduate programs and faculty must continue to expose international and domestic graduate students alike to the different aspects of the faculty role, thereby contributing to their socialization as future faculty members, a point underscored by Austin (2002) and others.

Overall, the anticipatory socialization discussed in this study is relevant to all international women faculty members, regardless of their discipline. Understanding the experiences of international women graduate students may be crucial to encouraging more international women students to consider an academic career.

Entry

The entry phase in socialization usually occurs during the recruitment and selection process as well as during the early period in which the recruit takes the position (Tierney & Rhoads, 1994). During graduate school, students acquire the values, norms, attitudes and beliefs associated with the profession as well as their discipline (Tierney & Rhoads, 1994). Overall, the participants emphasized the importance of having previous studies in the US for the entry socialization stage, like Denise, who discussed that having previous studies in the US was helpful because she was able to become accustomed to the American system. In other words, having previous exposure to the American system was considered helpful in their early role as a faculty member in the US. Therefore, higher

education institutions hiring international faculty should differentiate between international faculty who graduate from US universities and those who completed their degrees abroad. Much like Kim, Wolf-Wendel, and Twombly (2011) found, the findings of this study highlight the importance of differentiating between international faculty who study in the US from those who have studied abroad. Higher education institutions hiring international faculty should provide information about the American academic system (e.g., the tenure process) to all international faculty and offer individual mentoring about the American educational system to those international faculty members who are coming directly from abroad, since they may not be as familiar with the American academic system.

Cultural differences also had an effect on this early period of employment for these women, a finding confirmed by others (Thomas & Johnson, 2004). For example, some of the women's teaching style was influenced by their anticipatory socialization in more prestigious, more selective universities, such as Ana. Ana related that in order to meet the needs of PRU students she had to make the class more approachable than she had to at her degree-granting institution. In order to adapt to the new environment and new level of student expectations at PRU, the women faculty interviewed had to make changes in their teaching style. This finding confirms that new faculty members must "learn the ropes" during their first years of the academic life and then develop their organizational role appropriately (Tierney & Rhoads, 1994). Ultimately, my findings revealed that participants had to adapt to the new student culture at PRU in order to receive good teaching evaluations and to better serve the students. In this sense, the

socialization experience for some of these women was more transformative in nature (Tierney & Rhoads, 1994) in order to adapt to the needs of the institution.

To facilitate this entry period of employment, universities could provide information during the orientation process to explain the student culture as well differences between and within other types of universities. That is to say, explaining the student culture to new international faculty members more explicitly could help new faculty in this adjustment period.

Another key finding of this study was that the cultural background of the participants influenced their socialization to the profession. Some participants expressed difficulties in meeting new colleagues during this phase because of a lack of common background. For example, Tiffani expressed the difficulties of making connections with other colleagues due to the lack of common background amongst them. As a result, the participants had a double socialization experience in that they first had to be socialized to the profession while simultaneously being socialized to the culture of the country.

This double socialization experience may therefore add extra pressure to these faculty members. Institutions should consider the importance of this double socialization experience and provide support for faculty members going through it, perhaps through providing workshops for international faculty members to explain the culture of the country through their own cultural traditions, including Thanksgiving, American football, or the like.

Lastly, the foreign status of the participants had an impact during this entry phase of socialization. The extra paper work to gain a visa, their inability to apply for certain grants, and language barriers were some of the issues that these women highlighted

during this early phase of employment. Denise shared, as an example, that she missed quite a few opportunities to applying to certain grants because of her international status. As such, institutions hiring international faculty should continue to provide the services for immigration and be cognizant of the time this paperwork requires. Furthermore, institutions hiring international faculty should also offer courses to improve language and services to proofread papers. These additional services could also be extended to international graduate students who might be future faculty members. Having these kinds of services could reduce the stress that surrounds US and non-US faculty members during this first phase of their employment.

Role Continuance

The socialization stage of role continuance occurs directly after the entry phase of employment (Tierney & Rhoads, 1994), which, for tenure-track faculty members, takes place during the tenure process (Tierney & Bensimon, 1996). One of the challenges presented by these international women faculty during this stage of the socialization experience was in regard to cultural differences, a point also made in the literature (Thomas & Johnson, 2004). For instance, Molly shared that faculty members in her home country can express what they want to students, whereas in the US faculty members have to be more “politically correct.”

This finding suggests that international women faculty may have to learn how to behave in a new environment. Even though coming from countries culturally similar to the US was viewed as a plus for participants, cultural differences between their home countries and the US created opportunities for learning process for many of these international women faculty members. Although it may be difficult to “teach” the culture

of a country, there are some ways in which institutions can provide information about the culture and traditions of the country in which they are situated. Providing this information can be particularly helpful for international faculty members who come from countries that are culturally different from the US or for those faculty who do not have previous experiences with US culture.

Interestingly, throughout the tenure process, being international was considered an advantage for many of the participants. For example, it was an advantage in their eyes to be able to compare systems and draw the strengths from each when doing things and to be able to empower the international students they taught. It is therefore important to emphasize the importance of having a diverse pool of faculty and staff and the corresponding benefits this has not only for the faculty but also for the student body (Gurin et al., 2002).

Mentoring and Gender

Beyond the stages of socialization, the women in my study discussed particular experiences that influenced their socialization within each stage. Specifically, the sub-themes of mentoring and gender were present in each of the stages of the socialization for these international women faculty. I discuss each of the themes and the differences in each of the stages below.

Mentoring

Similar to what Austin (2002) and others have also found, my analysis concluded that mentoring relationships during graduate school are central to the anticipatory socialization experience of future faculty members. The participants in this study agreed that their mentors, both formal and informal, were important to their future success, from

providing the opportunity to explore their own research interests to providing teaching opportunities.

Therefore, advisors and mentors of international graduate students in the US should continue to expose these students to the many facets of the faculty role, as many international students may not be entirely familiar with the American educational system. From a programmatic point of view, higher education institutions might provide workshops to faculty members on how to better advise international graduate students, emphasizing the crucial role they play in these students' future successes. Graduate programs must also be cognizant of the unique characteristics that international students bring, as well as supporting faculty advisors in ways that will facilitate international students' success.

During the entry phase of their socialization, my participants emphasized again the positive role of their mentor, specifically in the application and negotiation process. As such, the findings of this study confirm the importance of mentors in the success of new faculty members (Tierney & Bensimon, 1996), especially for women who are not always socialized to negotiation because of the gender norms of our society. From this perspective, faculty members working with international graduate students should be aware of the role they play in guiding and supporting international students in the application process for a faculty position in the US. Specifically, faculty members should be mindful of guiding international graduate women students in the negotiation process, which has been found to be a challenging for women in particular (Babcock & Laschever, 2009).

Lastly, throughout the tenure process (role continuance stage), the participants considered mentors, both formal and informal, extremely helpful in their success, a finding that is confirmed by the literature (Kram, 1988). For example, Sarah discussed how her mentor assisted her in finding her way to an academic career. Institutions hiring international women faculty should continue to foster individual mentoring programs to support women faculty in order to enhance women's status in higher education.

Gender

Gender was also present in each of the socialization stages of these international women faculty. Through the anticipatory stage, being a woman was not necessarily advantageous to all of these women's careers. For example, while in graduate school, many of the women were able to work at the same pace as their male colleagues, but after forming a family had to split their time between family and work. This tension continued throughout their careers as international women faculty members. This finding confirms that women faculty tend to feel unable to maintain their pre-family work habits (Ward & Wolf-Wendel, 2004) and that women faculty face tension when combining work and family (Grant et al., 2000). As such, this finding reveals the patriarchal nature of the academy and its corresponding patriarchal socialization process (Acker, 1990; Ward & Bensimon, 2003). In other words, one implication of this finding is that further integration and discussion by faculty members with their graduate students about the challenges of motherhood could benefit women in academia. For example, advisors working with women graduate students could provide a climate that integrates the role of motherhood during the graduate experience and discuss the possibility of integrating work and family.

During the entry phase of their employment, the participants raised some concerns in regard to the institutional policies in place. While PRU is an NSF ADVANCE university that aims to promote and retain women faculty by different mechanisms, some of the participants were concerned about others viewing their hire at the university as a result of affirmative action policies instead of merit. This finding aligns with the literature that highlights the backlash women and minority faculty experience in regard to these types of policies (Dugger, 2001). In this sense, the participants of this study experienced the oppression of the structures of the university that still promote and privilege White males, in the way that they still needed policies and processes to be employed at the university, but that these same policies and processes were then later held against them as women or minority faculty. Institutions that aim to promote and retain women and minority faculty should be careful to foster a campus climate that encourages diversity in all forms.

During the stage of role continuance, gender was again a salient issue for these international women faculty. For some, the correspondence of their biological clock with the tenure clock was a concern. Ana discussed her concerns about not being able to have more children since she waited until tenure to have her first child and found that subsequently she was too old to have more. Indeed, many of participants carefully considered the “right time” to have children (Ward & Wolf-Wendel, 2004). Clearly, this finding shows how institutions have been constructed by men and for men without taking into consideration women’s roles in society as both individuals who want to parent and want to have a career; whereas men often do not have to choose between being a parent and a professional. Institutions aiming to hire and retain women faculty should be careful

to address some of the limitations of timing of tenure and biology for women and to revise policies to make them more family friendly, for example by stopping the tenure clock to support women faculty who are starting a family. Additionally, is important to be mindful not only of the policies themselves, but also how they are being used by the community. In other words, if the policy is truly family friendly, but women do not feel safe or supported in using the policy, then this is problematic (Wolf-Wendel & Ward, 2006b). In summary, this finding confirms how the academy has built upon men's normative paths for responsibilities such as family (Wolf-Wendel & Ward, 2006), wherein often they have a wife at home to care for children; whereas women more often must be in both roles of caretaker and professional.

Also consistent with what has been reported in the literature, participants in this study complained of being assigned more service activities than their male colleagues (Aguirre, 2000; Exum, 1983; Misra et al., 2011; Park, 1996), such as serving on hiring committees or conducting other administrative tasks. Participants explained that women faculty are the ones that “get things done” so they are usually asked to chair or serve on a variety of committees. Institutions and department chairs should be careful to monitor that women are not assigned more service activities than their male counterparts and also that all faculty members are rewarded accordingly for the service activities in which they participate. Additionally, cultural changes in regard to service are important (Misra et al., 2011). Many faculty members and administrators devalue the significance of “institutional housekeeping” even though is important for the health of the institution (Misra et al., 2011).

Additionally, the intersection of gender and age was a matter of concern for some of these international women faculty. Specifically, for those women working in male-dominated fields, being both a woman and young presented extra challenges. For example, some of the women discussed the need to dress up more than male colleagues to be taken seriously by students and the difficulty of building relationships with senior male colleagues. For these international women faculty, the advisor's role was fundamental. This finding could be seen to contradict the extant literature, given how vital these women's mentoring was in their graduate school career (Clark & Corcoran, 1986). At the same time, the majority of these women were educated in prestigious and selective universities, thereby giving them some advantage. Nevertheless, it is apparent that formal and informal mentors may play a fundamental role in supporting and validating international women faculty who are young and in promoting a campus climate that is welcoming to all women.

Work-life balance was presented as one of the biggest challenges for these international women faculty members. Several participants emphasized the lack of family friendly policies at PRU, such as paid maternity leave and childcare services. This finding reaffirms that the norms, structures, and policies that are part of the academy are not gender-blind and are invisible barriers that may contribute to less successful performance for women faculty members (Ward & Bensimon, 2003). Institutions hiring women faculty should be cognizant that policies, such as paid maternity leave, stopping the tenure clock, daycare services, reduced appointments, and the like can help to make the work environment for these women more positive and more family-friendly for their faculty. Institutions must also continue to examine their policies and explore different

options that could work toward a better balance between work and family. For example, the University of California Irvine, an NSF ADVANCE grantee, has revised its policies in regard to childbearing and made some changes such as in the appointment and service duties for faculty who are mothers of young children. The University of Montana, also an NSF ADVANCE grantee, has changed their policies in regard to spousal/partner employment or accommodation, showing a commitment to help candidates find suitable positions for their spouses or partners. All these initiatives have been shown to contribute to a more inclusive campus environment for women (Sullivan, Hollenshead, & Smith, 2004)

Lastly, having complex policies that are not well-used nor well-understood, especially when women fear the repercussions if they use them (Wolf-Wendel & Ward, 2006b), can be problematic. Institutions should not only encourage family-friendly policies on their campuses, they should also continually educate administrators and faculty members about the policies and how to use them (Sullivan et al., 2004). Institutions should also use data to promote programs regarding the balance between work and family (Sullivan et al., 2004).

Striving Institutional Environment

The specific striving behaviors of this private research university also had an effect on the socialization experiences of these 12 international women faculty members. More specifically, the increasing expectations for faculty members to produce research created a polarization between and within departments. For instance, some of these women talked about the differences between older and newer faculty in terms of research productivity. Older faculty were hired when the university had a teaching focus and

newer faculty at a time when research was more of a priority, creating tension between faculty members within some departments. This tension was reflected, for example, in the lack of understanding of older faculty members of how the profession had changed over time. PRU and its peers should consider how striving behaviors affect faculty members. Usually striving behaviors fall on faculty members (O'Meara, 2007), in that faculty are expected to produce more research and garner more prestigious funding in order to enhance the reputation of the university. In addition, research should examine how striving behaviors relate to decision making that may privilege some groups over others, specifically in light of the male-dominated administrative hierarchy in research institutions (Allan, 2011). Lastly, departments chairs and senior faculty should consider how to best mentor pre-tenure faculty in striving environments, as newer faculty may be evaluated by different standards than senior colleagues (Gardner & Veliz, in press).

Shifting Roles

Finally, my findings suggest how administrative positions that were designed for the career advancement of these international women faculty members were ultimately detrimental to their professional role and advancement. For example, Carmen expressed that when she was offered an administrative position she was perceived to be doing more service than scholarship. The participants agreed that even though they enjoyed holding administrative positions and acknowledged the importance of having more women in these leadership roles, in the end, they took away time from research. Institutions that are trying to promote and advance women faculty, such as PRU, should be clear when offering these administrative positions to women faculty about the amount of time required and the effect on their potential for promotion, particularly since women and

faculty of color are often asked to do more service than White men (Misra et al., 2011). Further, service is not rewarded in the promotion and tenure process at research universities, such as PRU. In addition, institutions should contribute to changing the culture around administrative or service work. Institutions should foster a culture that values service work and recognizes that it is important for the health of the institution (Misra et al., 2011). If service or administrative roles are not recognized as important, they may never be rewarded appropriately.

Recommendations for Future Research

This study examined the socialization experiences of 12 international women faculty members working at one private research university in the United States, or PRU. Different themes emerged in this study that correspond to the different stages of the socialization process. The findings point to the importance of distinguishing between international faculty members who studied in the US and those who completed their studies abroad and of considering the cultural differences of this population.

Even though the socialization experiences of international women faculty who studied in the US are not completely different than US-born women faculty, there is no known research that has focused directly on this population and their socialization experiences. This population has become a forgotten population in the academy. As institutions of higher education acknowledge the need for more women and minority faculty members on their campuses (Gurin et al., 2002), it is vital to understand the differences within and between international populations and to include their experiences and their needs in programs, policies, and procedures, as well as future research.

Cultural differences were present in each of the stages of the socialization process for these 12 participants. As such, more research should focus on the specific characteristics of particular ethnic groups, such as Hispanics, Europeans, Asians and so on. In addition, research should be conducted regarding the transition experiences of new faculty members who come from different types of institutions (i.e., public and private). For example, what is the socialization experience of faculty who are trained in a public university and then work at a community college? What is the socialization experience of those faculty members working in different countries from their own?

The women in this study represented a privileged group in academia in that they were in full-time, tenure-stream appointments, when the literature points out that women rarely represent more than 30% of tenure-track faculty at research universities (Snyder & Dillow, 2010). In fact, minority faculty women are the least well-represented group among tenure and full-time academics (Menges & Exum, 1983; Perna, 2001; Snyder & Dillow, 2010). Future researchers should focus on the socialization experiences of international women faculty who are part-time faculty and who have to balance different student and institutional cultures.

Mentoring played a vital role in each of the socialization stages for these 12 international women faculty. It would be useful to focus on the role that female advisors have on these international women faculty members. Also, future researchers could explore the nationality of the advisor and advisee and what influence this may have on the socialization experience.

It is not surprising that the international status of these women influenced their experience. Future research should focus more on the benefits of being international, for both the individual and the institution and its students.

Even though PRU is currently under an NSF ADVANCE grant the participants expressed the need for more family-friendly policies. Accordingly, more research should be conducted regarding the family- friendly policies already in place, their use, and educate faculty and administrators about them.

While this study focused on only one university, PRU is not the only institution with striving behaviors. Future research should continue to explore how striving behaviors may affect women faculty members' job satisfaction and turnover. In addition, future research could explore how striving behaviors affect faculty members in different disciplines. For example, what are faculty members' experiences in the social sciences versus the STEM fields?

Future research should explore the impact of accepting an administrative position for international women's faculty career at research universities. One potential research question is how holding an administrative position affects women's careers over time.

Since this study was exploratory in nature and focused on one specific university, future researchers can continue to explore disciplinary and institutional differences of international faculty and how these may vary by gender, ethnicity, and nationality. In other words, more research must be conducted within specific disciplinary contexts to better understand the differences that exist between particular cultures. Additionally, more research must also be conducted within a different institutional context, such as a public research university.

In conclusion, researchers must work toward a better understanding of the socialization experiences of international women faculty and should differentiate between international faculty who graduate from US universities and those who completed their degrees abroad. Institutions hiring new international women faculty members should continue to provide the guidance and structures to promote the success and increase the retention of those scholars by providing an environment that fosters a climate that enhances gender equity and continues with mentoring strategies. Institutions with striving behaviors should be careful about how to best mentor pre-tenure faculty in this kind of changing environment as newer faculty may be evaluated by different standards than senior colleagues. Lastly, institutions must work to create an inclusive environment that recognizes the contributions of international women faculty in all the spheres of their work.

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APPENDIX A: INTERVIEW PROTOCOL

Interviewee Name & Pseudonym:

Thank you for meeting with me today. The questions for this interview focus on three major areas. First, I will ask about your background and your prior experience during graduate school. Second I will ask you about how you became a faculty member at this institution. Lastly, I will ask you about your experiences as a faculty member at this institution.

Note: Due to the nature of this semi-structured interview, the following questions will be used as a guide and it may occur that during the interview new questions emerged as part of the process.

Demographic Information

1. Could you please tell me a bit about yourself?
 - a. Nationality
 - b. Range Age (e.g. 30-39, 40-49, 50-59, 60-69)
 - c. Familial situation (e. g. Single, married, with/without children)
 - d. Rank (assistant, associate, full professor)
 - e. Department affiliation

Stage One: Anticipatory Socialization

2. Where did you complete your undergraduate degree?
3. Where did you complete your graduate degree? When?
4. How long did it take you to complete your graduate degree?
 - a. How was it funded?
5. What part of your graduate experience prepared you to become a faculty member?

6. What more do you wish you had experienced?

Stage Two: Organizational Socialization

Phase I: Entry

7. Could you please tell me a little bit about yourself and how you came to be a faculty member at this University?
8. Why did you choose to become a faculty member in this country?
9. Tell me about how you came to apply to this university.
10. Tell me your experience with the hiring process.
11. When you were beginning in your department who or what was the most helpful to you?

Phase Two: Role of Continuance

12. Tell me about your experience with the tenure/promotion process so far.
 - a. How clear are the expectations for promotion/tenure?
 - b. What kind of support have you received?
13. Tell me about your workload in terms of research, teaching and service
 - a. In your opinion, is your workload similar to the ones of your peers?
14. Tell me about your interactions with your colleagues in the department? How, if at all, has this changed over time?
 - a. For example, pre-tenure, post-tenure, etc.
15. How would you describe your experience beyond the department - at the institution?
16. What are your impressions of your experience as a women faculty member now? Have they changed from when you first began your faculty position?

17. What has helped your progress as a women faculty member?
 - a. Follow-up: How did you learn about and access this support mechanism?
18. What factors have challenged you in your time as women faculty member?
 - a. Follow-up: Have other faculty members experience these same challenges?
19. What factors have challenged you in your time as international women faculty member?
20. In your opinion, could there be anything else done to assist international women faculty, in particular?
21. Is there anything else about your faculty experiences either within or outside [this institution] that you would like to add or mention?

(Questions to inform the ADVANCE's work at the institution selected)

1. Tell me about your experiences with the Northeastern ADVANCE program.
2. In your opinion what else could be done to assist international women faculty that is not already done by the ADVANCE grant?
3. What are the programs/events sponsored by the ADVANCE grant that have been beneficial for your career as an international faculty member?

At the end of Interview:

Thank the participant for her time and insights.

APPENDIX B: INTERVIEW PROTOCOL INSTRUCTIONS

1. Check the recorder for proper functioning prior the interview.
2. Introduce myself to the faculty member, thank her for volunteering to participate, and explain the purpose of the interview.
3. Review the informed consent approved by the University of Maine's and their institution's human subject review board.
4. Bring to copies and obtain the participants signature in both copies (1 copy for the researcher and 1 copy for the participant).
5. Explain the interview process
 - a. The purpose of this interview is to learn about your experience as an international women faculty member working at a US university.
 - b. Explain that they do not have to answer a question if they do not feel comfortable doing so, and can stop the interview at any time if they feel uncomfortable or do not wish to continue.
6. Explain the purpose of the recording process.
 - a. In order to facilitate the data collection, I would like to digitally record our conversation. I am the only person who will have access to these records. These records will be store in a secure area until they are transcribed. After the transcription the original audio file will be destroyed. Do you give me permission to record?
7. Begin recording

APPENDIX C: FOCUS GROUP PROTOCOL

Interviewee Names & Pseudonym:

Thank you all for meeting with me today. The questions for this interview will focus on the preliminary themes that emerged from the interviews I conducted about the socialization experience of international faculty women working.

Note: Due to the nature of this semi-structure interview, the following questions will be use as a guide and it may occur that during the interview new questions emerged as part of the process.

Questions:

Anticipatory Socialization:

1. All of the faculty that I interviewed for this study did at least one of their graduate studies in the US would you say that having familiarity with the US. education system prepared you better to become a faculty in the US than if you have completed all your graduate studies in another country?

Organizational Socialization

2. Some of themes that preliminarily emerged from the data had to do with the support you had during your tenure. If you had to describe your tenure process to a friend or a family member, what would you tell them?
3. Regarding your teaching experience at this institution, have you had to adjust your teaching style or standards in order to meet the requirements of the students at this institution?

4. Would you say that the tenure and promotion guidelines had change overtime in your department?
 - a. What would be the reason behind this change?
5. What had helped your progress as international women faculty in this institution?
6. What factors had challenged you in your role as a women faculty?
7. Would you agree that being a women professionally speaking have had a bigger impact on your career than been international?
8. Some people say that academia provide unsupportive environment for women. What would you think about this assumption based on your own personal experience?
9. What are some challenges international women faculty face in academia that are different compare to other women faculty?
 - a. Follow up: Do you think that the issues are different for international male faculty?
10. If you had to describe the culture of this institution to a friend or a family member, what would you tell them?
 - a. In your opinion have the culture change over time? Why?
- 11.** In your opinion what else it could be done to assist international women faculty that is not already done by the ADVANCE grant?

APPENDIX D: EMAIL PI ADVANCE PRU

Dear (first name):

The PRU ADVANCE Program was invited to be part of a dissertation study examining international women faculty member's socialization experiences in a research university. This is not a field that has been researched extensively and so we believe we can contribute to people's understanding of issues faced. The researcher is Daniela Veliz, a Ph.D. student in the higher education program at University of Maine. Her faculty advisor is Dr. Susan Gardner, Associate Professor of Higher Education and Co-PI of the ADVANCE IT Program at University of Maine.

The study entails 2-3 hours of your time. This time will be split into two separate sessions: the first hour to hour and a half will be a one-on-one interview with you in person or by phone with Daniela; and the second period of time will be a focus group discussion that examines common issues brought up in the one-on-one interviews.

I recognize this is a significant amount of time, but I believe the research will benefit the larger community and Northeastern University. I hope you will consider this investment of time. Of course, anything you share with Daniela during either of these conversations remains highly confidential and your identity will not be connected with any findings.

You may contact me or Daniela directly to discuss the study. Her complete contact information is below.

This letter serves only to introduce you to the study and Daniela Veliz. You will be hearing directly from her in the upcoming two weeks by email.

Again, I hope you can make time to participate in this very interesting research on international women faculty member's socialization experiences at research universities.

Warmly,

xxxxxxx

Associate Dean of Research and Graduate Education and
Professor of Civil and Environmental Engineering and
Faculty Director of PRU ADVANCE

Daniela Veliz
PhD Candidate, Higher Education
Research Assistant, ADVANCE Rising Tide Center
118 Merrill Hall
Orono, ME 04469-5748
University of Maine

APPENDIX E: PARTICIPANT'S INVITATION EMAIL INTERVIEW

Dear Participant:

My name is Daniela Veliz and I am a Ph.D. candidate in Higher Education at the University of Maine and a research assistant for the ADVANCE (NSF) grant at the same institution. I am originally from Chile. I am conducting a study regarding international women faculty experiences for my dissertation, and your participation in this study would greatly assist me in a deeper understanding of your experience as a faculty member in this country. I would truly appreciate the opportunity to interview you about your experience as an international faculty working at PRU.

Due to the nature of this study there are two criteria that participants must meet to participate in this study: (1) be an international women faculty member and (2) be on a full-time tenure track appointment. The interview would take approximately an hour and a half of your time and could be conducted preferably in person or by phone at your convenience. I would ask that our conversation be recorded for closer analysis, unless you request otherwise. Anything you share with me during this conversation will remain confidential and your identity will not be connected with any findings. My hope is to better understand how international women faculty socialize at a research university.

Please contact me at daniela.veliz@umit.maine.edu or at 207-944-5479 if you would like to participate or if you have any questions regarding this study. Participation in this study is voluntary and you can drop out at any time. This study has been approved by the University of Maine and University (#2013-03-07) Protection of Human Subjects Review Board.

If you have any additional questions, please do not hesitate to contact me.

Sincerely,
Daniela Veliz,
PhD Candidate, Higher Education
Research Assistant, ADVANCE Rising Tide Center
University of Maine
Email: daniela.veliz@umit.maine
Phone: 207-944-5479

APPENDIX F: CONSENT INFORMATION INTERVIEW

You are invited to participate in a research project being conducted by Daniela Veliz, M.Ed., a doctoral Candidate in the College of Education and Human Development at the University of Maine. The purpose of this research is to better understand the experiences of international women faculty at a research University. This study is part of the larger National Science Foundation ADVANCE Rising Tide initiative at the University of Maine.

What will you be asked to do?

If you decide to participate, you will be asked to answer questions related to your experience as an international women faculty. These questions will include information about your graduate experience, your experiences with the hiring process and career at Northeastern University. For example, some questions include: Why did you choose to become a faculty member in this country? Tell me about your experience with the tenure/promotion process so far.

Held in a mutually agreed upon time and place, the interview will be conducted face-to-face or over the telephone, at your convenience. The interview may take approximately one hour and a half of your time. With your approval, this interview will be taped so your responses can be better examined. If you prefer that the interview not be taped, the interviewer will take notes while you speak.

Risks

The risks associated with this study are minimal, mainly in the form of accidental social risk in potentially identifiable information. To minimize risk, your identity will remain confidential throughout the course of the study and all information related to the study will be destroyed upon completion of the project. In addition, I will assign you a pseudonym in any publications or presentations that result from the study.

Benefits

While this study will have no direct benefit to you, this research will help us learn more about the experiences of international faculty and hopefully inform future practices on this campus.

Confidentiality

Your name and any information that could potentially identify you (e.g., your nationality) will not be connected to the interview data. Transcripts from the interviews will be maintained in the interviewer's locked office indefinitely and will not be connected to you by name or any other potentially identifying information. Pseudonyms for each participant and password-protected electronic file will be used for the demographic information linking to the interview. To further protect confidentiality the data set will be encrypted. No information that has the possibility to identify you will be reported in any publications. All the tapes will be destroyed after data analysis is complete in July 2015.

Voluntary

Participation in this study is completely voluntary. If you choose to take part in this study, you may stop at any time during the study. You may also skip any questions or stop the interview at any time.

Contact information

If you have any questions about this study, please contact Daniela Veliz at (207) 944-5479 or at Daniela.veliz@umit.maine.edu. If you have any questions about your rights as a research participant, please contact Gayle Jones, Assistant to the University of Maine's Projection of Human Subjects Review Board, at 581-1498 or at gayle.jones@umit.maine.edu

APPENDIX G: CONSENT INFORMATION FOCUS GROUP

You are invited to participate in a focus group discussion being conducted by Daniela Veliz, M.Ed., a doctoral Candidate in the College of Education and Human Development at the University of Maine. The purpose of this focus group is to discuss the emergent themes from the individual interviews done regarding a study of the socialization experiences of international women faculty working at PRU. This study is part of the larger National Science Foundation ADVANCE Rising Tide initiative at the University of Maine.

What will you be asked to do?

If you decide to participate, you will be asked to discuss the emergent themes that came up from the study of international women faculty experiences at PRU as well as your experience as an international faculty. Held in a mutually agreed upon time and place, the focus-group will be conducted face-to-face at the group convenience. This focus group will take approximately one hour of your time. With your approval, this focus group will be videotaped and audiotape so the responses of each participant can be better examined when transcribed the data. If you prefer not be audiotape or videotaped, please let me know. In that case, two external researchers will be taking notes while participants speak in order to collect the data.

Risks

The risks associated with this study are minimal, mainly in the form of accidental social risk in potentially identifiable information. Focus group members will be asked to keep the information provided in the group as confidential; however, a potential risk that might

exist for some would be that information about your experience might be discussed outside the group by other participants.

Benefits

While this study will have no direct benefit to you, this research could be beneficial to describe your experience with other participants who have share the experience of be an international faculty. Additionally, this focus group can provide you with the opportunity to connect with other members of your campus who share similar or divergent experiences than you.

Confidentiality

If you choose to participate, you will not be asked your name at the focus group. Your name and any information that could potentially identify you (e.g., your nationality) will not be connected to the focus group data. Pseudonyms for each participant and password-protected electronic file will be use for the demographic information to link the interviews to the focus group. To further protect confidentiality the data set will be encrypted. Transcripts from the focus group will be maintained in the interviewer's locked office indefinitely and will not be connected to you by name or any other potentially identifying information. No information that has the possibility to identify you will be reported in any publications. All the tapes will be destroyed after data analysis is complete in July 2015.

Voluntary

Participation in this study is completely voluntary. If you choose to take part in this study, you may stop at any time during the study.

Contact information

If you have any questions about this study, please contact Daniela Veliz at (207) 944-5479 or at Daniela.veliz@umit.maine.edu. If you have any questions about your rights as a research participant, please contact Gayle Jones, Assistant to the University of Maine's Projection of Human Subjects Review Board, at 581-1498 or at gayle.jones@umit.maine.edu.

APPENDIX H: REPORT ON THE SOCIALIZATION EXPERIENCES OF INTERNATIONAL WOMEN FACULTY

According to the findings of this study, the socialization of international women faculty is a product of both cultural and individual characteristics. When one joins a professional organization, such as academia, the individual goes through a process to become an accepted member of the organization, otherwise known as organizational socialization (Merton, 1957). Socialization is a vital part of a faculty member's experience (Tierney, 1997), wherein a positive socialization experience may lead to a successful academic career, such as through the granting of tenure (Tierney & Rhoads, 1994). On the other hand, a negative socialization experience may cause alienation and departure (Tierney & Rhoads, 1994).

The following report compiles the data gathered in a qualitative study of the socialization experiences of international women faculty at PRU during the summer of 2013. The findings presented in this report are the result of one-on-one interviews and a focus group. Twelve international women faculty members participated in this study. The aim of this report is to provide recommendations for the administration, as well as to honor the voices of the international women faculty who shared their experiences. The report consists of a brief overview of the participants. Then, findings are divided into a series of sub-themes. The report concludes with recommendations.

Participants

The participants for this study were determined based on a list of international faculty generated by PRU. This list identified 46 women faculty who had completed at least one of their graduate degrees abroad. This criterion for sampling was included as it allowed the researcher to better understand how a combination of American and foreign

socialization to academia was experienced by the participants. Among these 46 women, 21 responded to the invitation, and 12 individuals agreed to participate. All participants held academic tenure-track appointments, were foreign-born, and had grown up outside the US. To protect the confidentiality of the participants further demographic information will not be provided (such as disciplinary affiliation, rank, age, and marital status).

Summary of Findings

Educational Background

- The 12 international faculty women members participated in this study represented diversity in terms of country of origin, rank, discipline, and familial situation, but 11 of the participants had in common that they completed their terminal degree (e.g., Ph.D. or master's degree) in a US university.
- Several of these international women faculty members talked about how having previous educational experiences in the US helped them to understand the American system as well as the American academic profession.
 - *"I did not come to this faculty position right from my home country. I can't imagine if I did; it would have been unbelievably overwhelming."*
- The graduate training received by these international women faculty helped them anticipate the type of roles and behaviors they needed to be a successful faculty member. Being exposed to the American system as a graduate student helped their anticipatory socialization in terms of having a better understanding about the profession as well as increasing their training to become an academic in the US.

- *“Definitely [studying in the US] is helpful because you get used to the system very quickly and you know what is expected.”*
- The majority of these international women faculty members (11 of 12 or 90%) graduated from highly prestigious research universities in the US and, according to their narratives, having had these previous studies in the US affected their socialization process in a positive way.

Cultural Differences

- Several participants emphasized how their cultural background caused tension in their socialization to become faculty members.
- Some cultural differences had to do with the type of students with whom they had previously worked in the US or abroad. For example, some participants explained that they had higher expectations about the academic achievement of their students at the beginning of their employment mainly due to the fact that they previously had taught in much more selective institutions than their current one.
 - *“This is a very different student culture than at my previous institution; students were tremendously driven...here they are very different and that was a cultural shock.”*
- Participants had to adapt their teaching approach to their new culture of students, thus adding extra pressure to their work.
- The teaching expectations were in part influenced by their previous teaching experiences.
 - *“That class was a big mismatch because my expectations and what students came to get were different. I came from a very intense research*

environment and my idea was that everybody in the lab was enjoying the class...I cannot say that it was completely bad evaluations but I think that it was a clear mismatch because I had no idea what the students were going to be doing in life.”

- To adapt to the new type of students, some of the faculty members described making changes in their courses to fit the students’ needs.
 - *“I didn't have to lower the level but I just made it more approachable for these new students.”*
- For those faculty members who had previous experience teaching abroad, cultural differences were manifested in the dissimilarity between countries.
 - *“My American students are afraid of everything that has to do with math, which is weird, very strange to me. This is not the way students are in my home country.”*
- Understanding cultural differences between countries and adapting to the new student culture of the institution added extra pressure to the participants but having previous studies in the country helped.
 - *“It took me a little time to get used to this culture, but I think it was an advantage that I was here as a student and saw it as a student. If I had come here [for the first time] as a faculty member I would have been in much more trouble.”*
- Some participants mentioned the transition from a public to a private institution was challenging in regard to their teaching experience. For example, students at PRU were treated differently by faculty members than at public institutions.

- *“The kind of work is just very different...like academically, it’s different here. It is more like taking care of the students. I would have never have done this in other places.”*
- Cultural differences were also reflected in the way faculty members were evaluated.
 - *“I came from a public, very high research school...if you do a good job teaching or if you don't do a good job, it’s not a big deal at all in your tenure. Here, your evaluations and how the students perceive you are very important.”*
- Cultural background was considered a challenge in meeting new colleagues because of the lack of common background they shared with their US peers.
- Some of the women described differences in relationships between faculty members and students compared to their home countries
 - *“In my home country a professor can say anything you want about students. Here, you have to be very politically correct and not let your emotions out.”*
- Some participants shared that it was important to know the culture and how to behave; learning the cultural context was crucial for not getting “in trouble.”
 - *“I am always thinking about how to be politically correct with what I am saying...you have to read between lines with what people are saying, what they mean. If you actually do it differently you are in big trouble.”*

- For those participants who came from cultures that were more similar to that in the US, having this similarity was considered a plus for their socialization process.
 - *“I would say that because I have come from a very culturally close country that is very similar to the United States that I haven't faced any challenges particularly because I am international and born in another country, particularly born and raised there for the first three decades of my life.”*
- The participants had a double socialization experience in that they first had to be socialized to the profession while simultaneously being socialized to the culture of the country.

Mentorship

- Having good mentorship throughout their academic careers was a constant for the participants.
 - *“I got mentorship from a different faculty member than my supervisor, outside faculty, and other faculty members who had just taken a position at this institution. We were co-teaching together so he was also a mentor and prepared me that last year when I was graduating on how to do well at job interviews, what a faculty position is like in the kind of funding, and how to fill out the teaching portfolio and write my research statement.”*
- Most of the participants in this study talked about the importance of mentorship during their academic life.

- *“It seems that people are recognizing that it is really important to get used to the system so mentors can help with that a lot.”*
- The role of mentorship from their advisors varied greatly, from giving the participants the opportunity to find their own research to providing them with advice about the negotiation process.
 - *“My advisor gave me the freedom so that I was able to do what was interesting to me and I think that makes a difference because you are the one making the questions.”*
- For the faculty members who had a woman as an advisor, the advisor served as a role model for pursuing an academic career.
 - *“My advisor – she is also a woman – she was a very good model to me. I looked at her career and then I thought it was a good future for me as well so I decided to continue on the academic path.”*
- The participants talked about the role of their mentors while looking for an academic position.
 - *“When I went on the job market my dissertation chair was highly supportive as well as my committee members at my university. My dissertation chair sent out letters about me introducing me to colleagues at top-ranked universities around the United States, and I got a number of interviews.”*
- The role of their advisor was also expressed as helping them navigate the negotiation process after accepting a faculty position.

- *“I talked to my advisor. I have this advisor and also another that is a generation older, so I have these two generations of international males as my mentors. They were very generous and they both told me how to negotiate.”*
- For the most part, participants agreed that either formal or informal mentors were instrumental to their careers.
 - *“I think it is good to have both because it is very personality driven. If you are not the kind of person who is not going to look for an informal mentor, at least having one assigned to you is very good.”*

International Status

- Some of the difficulties experienced at the beginning of their position were related to the amount of paperwork they faced, whether in order to be able to stay in the country, or to apply for certain grants.
 - *“Being international has been a challenge because it prevents you from being able to apply to different grants. It is hard because you can have your good research to win that award but, without that paperwork, you can't apply for them. So, for my career, I have missed quite a few opportunities because of that status.”*
- For those faculty members coming from non-English speaking countries, language was a matter of concern.
 - *“When you have an accent people can give you a hard time and that can be very detrimental.”*

- For some women faculty members, however, being from another country was considered positive for their careers.
 - *“I think that being international is helpful because you have different systems and you can compare things and you can draw strengths from different ways of doing things so I think I have benefited from that as well. So, I see my international [status] as being a plus.”*

Gender

- Several participants did not consider being a woman advantageous for their careers.
- The issue of balancing life and work was apparent across disciplines, country of origin, and even rank.
 - *“So, because you are a woman, you have to take care of, or care about, your family more than male colleagues. As a graduate student, there was not a huge difference. I could do that...now I have kids and then I have to split my time in two parts.”*
- Some participants who were coming from male-dominated fields felt that the lack of role models and feeling like they were the only woman was sometimes uncomfortable.
 - *“I had never had any female role models so I was not sure what to expect in my first job.”*
- Some participants were concerned that because of the affirmative action programs, or the aim to increase women faculty in male-dominated fields, had influenced their hiring.

- *“I guess that there is a kind of wondering of all the people who applied for this job. I am sure that there were not many women, so I wonder how much of me being interviewed was because I am woman and how much is because my research is really interesting. That nagging is kind of awful.”*
- Some faculty explained how women faculty members sometimes do not choose to have children during this period because of the messages they receive – implicitly or explicitly – about the difficulties they will face if they decide to start a family before tenure.
- The issue of their biological clock ticking as they worked toward tenure affected not only their careers but their lives.
 - *“I think the whole biology-culture [thing] is a killer because you are just here for five years [to earn tenure] for your career, and I only have one child because I am too old now to have more.”*
- Several participants shared that because of their gender they were assigned to do more service than men colleagues.
 - *“Everybody has to do a lot of service in my department because we are very small. So, when you want to get stuff done, you give it to the female faculty member. I mean, the guys will do it...but the females are the one who do all the nitty-gritty.”*
- Not only was gender considered an issue during their experiences, but the intersection with age was also considered challenging, specifically for the younger women faculty members in male-dominated fields.

- *“I'm aware of the fact that I'm one of the few women teaching in my department and the majority of my students are males...I do feel like I have to dress up more than what a male colleague would do, and probably part of the thing is because I am young. And it's frustrating to me because my male colleagues don't need to do it.”*
- *“Being a woman and younger is challenging, just really building relationships with senior faculty members, and part of it is the age. Most of the senior faculty members are in their late 50s or early 60s and I am [younger age], so, you know, I'm kind of the age of their children but I'm also their colleague and that has been difficult.”*

Work-Life Balance

- Balancing work and life outside academia was a recurring topic for these international women faculty members.
 - *“The balance between the different kinds of responsibilities – between teaching, research, and service. The personal challenge is to find this balance including life outside those responsibilities.”*
- Participants described how having babies while going through the tenure process was a hard decision to make and they also shared that some women decide to leave academia because of the perceived incompatibility of family and career.
 - *“Women in the tenure process do better than all, but I think you can lose a lot of people who might be really good because they leave academia to have children.”*

- The policies in place at PRU were not always perceived as “family-friendly,” which made it even more difficult to balance their family and work.
 - *“I think we don’t even have a maternity leave policy. I mean you can take leave obviously for 12 weeks [through FMLA], but it is unpaid.”*
 - *“I’m not thinking to have a child now but in a couple of years maybe...I wouldn’t be able to work late, I wouldn’t be able to work through dinner. I will have the flexible schedule that I have but it would not be flexible in my life. And, then I will have these other responsibilities. I’ve been trying to think how I could make that work and I struggle with it sometimes. I’m not really sure if I can do it.”*

Shifting Roles

- All the participants in this study reported to have similar workloads than their women and men colleagues, which included research, teaching, and service.
- Several participants shared how service responsibilities were assigned more often to women faculty and how they have to be careful not to take too much on since service did not carry the same weight as research or teaching in tenure deliberations.
 - *“Women tend to pick up more of the work and do it.”*
 - *“The female faculty members are the ones who do all the organization in the department, for example, recruiting students.”*
- Some of the participants were offered administrative positions as part of their career advancement; however, this new role was sometimes seen by others as service.

- *“I think women faculty get pulled into this service. In my case, I think I was seen as doing more service than scholarship.”*
- All the participants who have served in these administrative positions agreed that, even though they have enjoyed the experience, being in those positions has taken a considerable amount of time from their research with some real consequences for their academic careers.
 - *“I was asked to work in this administrative position...when it came to my promotion to full professor it turned out to be a problem because I didn’t have enough publications in the peer-reviewed kind of journals.”*
- Some participants who held administrative positions described feeling discriminated against for being women and/or foreigners.
 - *“I don't think I ever have a problem as a woman faculty member but I encountered some problems when I was serving in an administrative capacity. Like when I was entering chair in my department, with all the other chairs in the new college, the interaction was hard. They were very prejudiced.”*

Striving Institutional Culture

- PRU has changed from being a teaching-focused institution at one time to one that is more focused on research in the present day. Due to this shift, some of the participants talked about the polarization between the older and newer faculty members.

- *“There is a polarization in terms of the type of people that work here; some who are very interested in doing research and there are people who have no experience with research.”*
- The polarization between faculty members and the lack of understanding that “older” faculty members had in regard to the changes in the profession.
 - *“It [the expectation to gain tenure] was completely unrealistic and what has happened is that I was the first person to come up for tenure from this group and the person who had gone up for tenure before me was 20 years ago. So, there was really not a very good understanding of how the profession has changed...so that is difficult.”*
- The participants described that the mission drift of PRU has been positive in some regards. For example, an incremental growth of new faculty members coming to campus with interesting new research, or the promotion of interdisciplinary work within the institutions.
- The mission drift experienced by PRU has not always been supported by the infrastructure of the institution, according to the women, such as through laboratories or doctoral students who can work on them.
 - *“I know that many programs in this university are not established in the same way as in other places.”*

Recommendations

International Background

- When hiring international faculty PRU should differentiate between international faculty who graduate from US universities and those who completed their degrees abroad and provide information about the American academic system (e.g., the tenure process). In addition, offering individual mentoring about the American educational system to those international faculty members who are coming directly from abroad may be helpful, since they may not be as familiar with the American academic system.
- To facilitate the entry period of employment, PRU could also provide information during the orientation process to explain the student culture as well differences between and within other types of institutions. Explaining the student culture to new international faculty members more explicitly could help new faculty in this adjustment period.

Policies

- Even though PRU is currently working with an NSF ADVANCE grant the participants expressed the need for more family-friendly policies.
- PRU should also continue to examine their policies and explore different options than could work toward a better balance between work and family.
- PRU should not only encourage family-friendly policies they should also constantly educate administrators and faculty members about the policies and how to use them (Sullivan, Hollenshead, & Smith, 2004).

- PRU should be careful to address some of the limitations of timing of tenure and biology for women and revise policies such as stop the tenure clock to support women faculty in these circumstances.
- PRU should be mindful of the family-friendly policies and how they are being used by the community. In other words, if the policy is written but women do not feel safe or supported to use it then this could be problematic (Wolf-Wendel & Ward, 2006).
- PRU should consider the importance the double socialization experienced by international faculty members. Perhaps providing workshops for international faculty members to explain the culture of the country through their own cultural traditions, including Thanksgiving, American football, or the like, could be helpful.
- PRU should also offer courses to improve language and services to proofread papers. These additional services could also be extended to international graduate students who might be future faculty members.
- PRU ADVANCE should continue to have diversity in their workshops and panels.
- PRU could also develop a check-point throughout the years to see how international faculty members are culturally adjusting to their positions.

Mentoring

- Advisors and mentors of international graduate students at PRU should continue to expose these students to the many facets of the faculty role as many of them may not be entirely familiar with the American educational system.

- Graduate programs and faculty should continue to expose international and domestic graduate students alike to the different aspects of the faculty role, thereby contributing to their socialization as future faculty members.
- PRU might consider providing workshops to faculty members on how to better advise international graduate students, emphasizing the crucial role they play in these students' future success.
- Faculty members should be mindful of guiding international graduate women students in the negotiation process, as this process has been found to be challenging for women in regard to the social norms imposed on women who are asked to negotiate salaries and the like (Babcock & Laschever, 2009).
- PRU should continue to foster individual mentoring programs to support women faculty.
- PRU should be careful to foster a campus climate that encourages diversity in all their forms to promote and retain women faculty.

Striving Environment and Administrative Roles

- Departments chairs and more senior faculty at PRU should consider how to best mentor pre-tenure faculty in this kind of striving environment as newer faculty may be evaluated by different standards than senior colleagues (Gardner & Veliz, in press).
- Although a goal of ADVANCE and at PRU is to promote the advancement of women faculty to positions of power, there should be clarity provided about the amount of time required and the impact on one's potential for promotion (Misra, Lundquist, Holmes, & Agiomavritis, 2011).

- PRU should continue to emphasize the importance of having a diverse pool of faculty and staff and the corresponding benefits this brings not only for the faculty but also for the student body (Gurin, Dey, Hurtado, & Gurin, 2002).

BIOGRAPHY OF THE AUTHOR

Daniela Véliz Calderón was born in Santiago de Chile on December 1st, 1976. She was raised in Santiago de Chile and graduated from Redland School in 1995. She attended Universidad Finis Terrae in Santiago de Chile and graduated from Commercial Engineering in 2001. She worked in human resources at two private companies in Chile: LanChile and Enjoy until 2005 when she moved with her family to Kingston, Rhode Island. Her career in education began in the US, at Office of International Education at University of Rhode Island where she developed study abroad programs. She then moved to Maine and attended University of Maine where she earned a Master's degree in Student Development in Higher Education in 2010. While she was at the University of Maine, Daniela worked in Students Affairs, at the Counseling Center, and the Career Center. She worked at the Graduate School promoting international students. Daniela also worked as a research assistant at the Rising Tide Project at the University of Maine. Daniela is a candidate for the Doctor of Philosophy degree in Education with a concentration in Higher Education from the University of Maine in May 2014.