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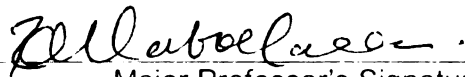
Do We Belong Here?
An Exploration of Foreign-Born Faculty's Organizational
Attachment at a U.S. Research University

presented by

Na Wei

has been accepted towards fulfillment
of the requirements for the

Ph.D. degree in Educational Administration



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**DO WE BELONG HERE?
AN EXPLORATION OF FOREIGN-BORN FACULTY'S ORGANIZATIONAL
ATTACHMENT AT A U.S. RESEARCH UNIVERSITY**

By

Na Wei

A DISSERTATION

Submitted to

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ABSTRACT

DO WE BELONG HERE? AN EXPLORATION OF FOREIGN-BORN FACULTY'S ORGANIZATIONAL ATTACHMENT AT A U.S. RESEARCH UNIVERSITY

By

Na Wei

Given the increasing number of foreign-born faculty in U.S. colleges and universities and a general acknowledgement of the role of a diversified faculty in promoting students' learning, many institutions are exploring effective organizational strategies to recruit, retain, and develop faculty from other cultural backgrounds. This study, emerging from limited existing literature on experiences of foreign-born faculty in the United States and relevant theories of organizational behaviors, investigates foreign-born faculty's organizational attachment to their employing institution and explores institutional and individual factors that affect their attachment by looking into how foreign-born faculty made meaning of their work experiences at a U.S. research university. This study employs qualitative interviews and document analysis as the primary research methods. The findings revealed that (1) foreign-born faculty generally feel alienated from the majority and demonstrate passive organizational attachment; (2) institutional factors are identified to impact foreign-born faculty's organizational attachment, including organizational culture, unit demographic composition, perceived organizational support, perceived external prestige, and perceived effectiveness of institutional initiatives; (3) personal factors are identified to impact foreign-born faculty's organizational attachment, including organizational tenure/career stage, national culture, gender, foreign-born faculty's attitude toward diversity, and acculturation. The results of

the study provide insight into the experiences of foreign-born faculty and shed light on institutional policy making and implementation concerning the recruitment, retention, and development of foreign-born faculty at higher educational institutions in the United States.

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Na Wei

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This dissertation is dedicated to my family.

I hope I deserve your love and pride.

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Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION

Background of the Problem

The alarming scarcity of research on foreign-born faculty against the background of an increased number of foreign-born faculty and prosperity of literature in diversity issues has aroused my interest to explore the experiences of foreign-born faculty in U.S. higher education where diversity is, or at least claimed to be, highly valued in mission statements and promoted in practices at institutions of higher education. The higher education sector in the United States enjoys a reputation as the leader in attracting culturally diversified intellectuals. According to the Institute of International Education, there were 514,000 international students enrolled in U.S. higher education institutions during the academic year 1999-2000 (Davis, 2000). National Science Board (2006) reported enrollment of and degrees awarded to foreign students in the year of 2003. More than half (55%) of engineering doctorates were awarded to students on temporary visas. Students on temporary visas earned 43%–44% of U.S. doctorates in mathematics, computer sciences, and agricultural sciences. Noncitizens accounted for 58% of Science and Engineering (S&E) postdocs in 2003 (NSB, 2006). Finkelstein, Seal and Schuster (1999), when studying radical changes in the academic profession, asserted that more women, foreign-born, and minority scholars are becoming college professors. Faculty who are not native-born U.S. citizens constituted 17% of the new cohort (25% in the natural sciences), 12% of the senior cohort (14% in the natural sciences), and 13% of the full-time faculty overall (U.S. Department of Education, 1993). In the period from 1992 to 1995, 68% of foreign S&E doctoral degree recipients stated they planned to remain in

the United States after receiving their degrees and 74% intended to stay in the United States by 2000-03 (NSB, 2006). Therefore, it is safe for us to predict an even sharper increase in the number of foreign-born faculty in the U.S. higher education in the very near future. According to the National Center for Education Statistics (1999), when taking institutional type into consideration, most foreign-born faculty (including naturalized U.S. citizens, permanent residents, and temporary residents) work at research universities. The sharp increase in the diversification of the faculty and student population has been highlighted in the sector of higher education. When addressing a 1998 campus climate for diversity survey of a major research university in the southern U.S., Brown (2004) concluded that the diversification of the faculty and student population can no longer be “a peripheral activity, but must be reflective of the institution’s commitment to diversity” (p.21).

The benefits of having an ethnically diverse faculty in higher education institutions have been well explored and documented by many researchers. This diversification would indicate an end of long-standing discrimination against the historically marginalized faculty (Cole & Barber, 2003) who serve as role models and sympathetic mentors for diversified college students (Cole & Barber, 2003; Irvine, 1992; Louque, 1994), educate organizational members to be more tolerant of differences, and promote innovations in their organizations.

Cox (2001) argued that the prevalent growth of a diversified workforce does not by itself guarantee organizational excellence nor does it guarantee qualitative social and creative improvements. Describing diversity as “a double-edged sword” that poses not only opportunities but also challenges, Cox (2001) admitted that diversity may potentially

reduce the effectiveness of communication, increase conflicts among workers, lower levels of social attraction and levels of commitment to the group, and increase organizational costs with identity harassment and discrimination behaviors.

The increasing diversity of the faculty in the U.S. and the mixed effects of diversity on organizational life have resulted in an emerging literature that addresses diversity issues in academic settings. A large proportion of the literature on diversity in higher education focuses on underrepresented faculty groups such as minorities and women. Brown (1988) claimed that “both women and minorities in professorial roles characterize their experiences in terms like hardship and victimization. These faculty members are often made to feel overworked and inefficient, incompetent, invisible, and unwelcome” (p. 291). In studying working experience and the environment, the literature detected inequities and structural barriers that have negative effects on the underrepresented faculty’s job satisfaction and productivity. For example, Turner, Myers, and Creswell (1999) found a pattern of under-representation and exclusion of faculty of color despite their elite status in the Midwestern institutions, civil rights legislation, and programs developed at higher education institutions. In their investigation of successful stories of faculty of color, Turner et al. (1999) pointed out that the predominant barrier is a pervasive racial and ethnic bias that contributes to unwelcoming and unsupportive work environments for faculty of color that discouraged them from becoming productive and satisfied members of the professoriate. In general, research relays a dismal picture for minority and women faculty in the U.S. universities and colleges. The Minority Equity Committee of University of Pennsylvania (2005) reported that even though statistics regarding the sheer number, participation, and salaries were optimistic for the Asian

Pacific American faculty, they reported exclusion as a reality of their working lives. Besides occupational stress, devaluation of “minority” research, the “token hire” misconception, inequities in recruiting and promotion process, and lack of advancement opportunities, it is widely reported that minorities and women faculty share the reality that they are in greater need of support networks, such as mentoring, etc. (Alger, 1998; Blackwell, 1989; Boice, 1993; Tierney, Minor, & Venegas, 2004; Olsen, Maple, & Stage, 1995; Sax, Astin, Arredondo, & Korn, 1996; Spann, 1990; Turner and Myers, 2000). For example, Alger (1998) reported that the traditional criteria applied in evaluations for promotion and tenure often appearing to be neutral, they may have a disparate effect on minority scholars in practice. In evaluation processes, “collegiality” denotes the fact that higher education institutions favor “candidates with backgrounds, interests, and political and social perspectives similar to one’s own” (Alger, 1998, p. 71). Ards, Brintnall, and Woodard (1997) argued that race and gender are independent variables that determine whether or not a faculty member receives tenure.

Despite the growing literature examining the diversity issues in higher education, these extant studies either focus on U.S.-born racial and ethnic minorities (Jones, 2000) or fail to differentiate the native-born from the foreign-born (Kossek & Zonia, 1994). In studying racial and ethnic heterogeneity at an American public research university, Kossek and Zonia (1994) suggested the attitudes of people of color who were foreign-born may systematically differ from the attitudes of minorities who have grown up in this country. Even though foreign-born faculty comprise a significant percentage of the diverse workforce, they have been ignored as a whole in the literature.

Very few studies systematically examine experiences of foreign-born faculty in U.S. universities. Except for those describing the demographics of foreign-born faculty (e.g. Finkelstein, Seal & Schuster, 1998), only a couple of unpublished doctoral dissertations (Basti, 1996; Liu, 2001) explicitly categorize foreign-born faculty as a distinct group from their peers and systematically explore their unique experience in U.S. colleges and universities. Moreover, these studies have produced conflicting results.

In studying the adaptation and experience of foreign-born faculty members in the United States, Liu (2001) used acculturation theories and found a general pattern of satisfaction among foreign-born faculty members working in the United States. The faculty in her study agreed that American higher education institutions have been receptive and have treated them fairly. This study claimed but failed to demonstrate the factors that may have contributed to their job satisfaction. In addition, the findings of this study contradict the prior findings about the experience of ethnic and racial minority faculty. Almost unanimously, studies on faculty of color presented evidence that ethnic and racial minority group members experience severe marginalization on campuses (Aguirre, Hernandez, & Martinez, 1994; Boice, 1993; Nakanishi, 1993; Olivas, 1988). The research participants in these studies cited everyday interactions, both social and professional, that make them feel unwelcome, unappreciated, and unwanted. They perceived a prevalent assumption among their colleagues that they were hired for affirmative action purposes and felt pressured to work hard to prove continually that they deserve their positions (Menges & Exum, 1983; Reyes & Halcon, 1988). Basti (1996) studied key factors that foreign-born faculty members perceive as having an impact on their professional job satisfaction and found differences in the ways foreign-born faculty

experienced their academic life. However, this qualitative study only interviewed two foreign-born professors at one university to examine the perceptions that foreign-born faculty formed about themselves, their profession and the culture of the university. The small sample size greatly impairs the validity of this study.

Due to the scarcity of research on the issues of foreign-born faculty, it is hard to assume that there are some parallels between the experiences of minorities and women faculty and foreign-born faculty. However, members of these underrepresented groups are frequently termed together as “minorities” as opposed to their “majority” members like their white colleagues in the organization. Sometimes foreign-born faculty may also qualify as a “minority” or “women” faculty member. The literature on faculty of color, minorities, and women faculty may shed some light on studies of the experiences of foreign-born faculty.

My passion for this dissertation study came from a series of questions concerning foreign-born faculty: How is the institutional climate for foreign-born faculty in the U.S. higher education? Are their experiences different from their colleagues who were born and brought up in the U.S. culture? Do they really enjoy their life and work in the U.S.? Do they have a sense of belonging in the U.S. academia? What can be done to help them?

The scope of the study is limited to examination of organizational attachment of foreign-born faculty. Organizational attachment is defined as an individual’s psychological and behavioral involvement in a social group or unit of which he or she is a member (Tsui, Egan & O’Reilly, 1992). Clair (2000) developed the concept of organizational attachment and suggested that organizational attachment styles can be used to predict how employees will perceive and respond to situations that may threaten

their relationship to their employing organization. These different attachment styles reflect individual's beliefs and expectations about themselves in relation to the broader social system (Clair, 2000). Empirical studies have consistently shown that employees who feel attached to their organizations exhibit higher rates of productivity (Barker & Tompkins, 1994; Bullis & Bach, 1989; Cheney, 1983; Tompkins & Cheney, 1985), lower rates of turnover (Barker & Tompkins, 1994; Bullis & Bach, 1989; Cheney, 1983; Tompkins & Cheney, 1985; Scott, 1999), and absenteeism (Mowday, Porter, & Steers, 1982; for a review, see Meyer & Allen, 1997). Employees with increased organizational attachment also uphold organizational interest as their foremost priority (Cheney, 1983), enjoy higher job satisfaction (Russo, 1998), and display work autonomy (Russo, 1998).

Based on existing literature, the conceptualization of organizational attachment in this dissertation study covers four major dimensions: job satisfaction, organizational commitment, organizational identification, and intent to quit the organization. By exploring how and why foreign-born faculty express their attachment to the institution of higher education under investigation, I hope to improve studies on institutional diversity initiatives for better recruitment, retention, and development of foreign-born faculty.

Purpose Statement

The purpose of this dissertation study was two-fold. The first was to better understand foreign-born faculty's professional experiences by investigating their attachment to their organization (in this case the university where they are employed). The second was to explore individual and institutional factors that impact foreign-born faculty's organizational attachment. The findings from this study will enrich theories of organizational attachment of foreign-born faculty. This study also discusses implications

for future research on foreign-born faculty's organizational behavior and for institutional administrative practices regarding foreign-born faculty recruitment, retention, and development.

Problem Statement

Green (1989) pointed out that "faculty are the core of the institution...A diverse faculty is essential to a pluralistic campus...Faculty create the curriculum [they also create and legitimize knowledge] and determine the quality of experience in every classroom and in every department" (p.81). This study explored foreign-born faculty's experiences in their working environment through lens of their organizational attachment and examined personal and institutional factors at a research university in the United States.

The population under investigation in this study is defined as faculty members who were born in foreign countries and hold immigration status as naturalized U.S. citizens, permanent residents, or temporary residents in the United States. In particular, this study looks at those who pursued their bachelor's degree in their home countries and came to U.S. for more advanced degrees. I assumed people with such experience have a good amount of exposure to their home culture and educational system and their background may possibly influence their adjustment process and psychological and behavioral attachment to the educational institutions in a foreign culture such as the United States.

A review of prior literature on organizational behavior suggests that a cluster of variables may influence organizational attachment of employees in general. Based on limited literature on foreign-born faculty, it is assumed these variables may have different

impacts on foreign-born faculty than on domestic-born faculty. Through this study, I strived to investigate foreign-born faculty's unique professional experience as reflected in their psychological and behavioral attachment to their employing institution in a foreign culture. In addition, by identifying variables that may contribute to foreign-born faculty's organizational attachment, I offer recommendations to improve institutional practice. I also hope to advise future research investigating recruitment, retention, and development of foreign-born faculty as a unique workforce in the academia.

Research Questions

Three fundamental questions that guided this study were:

1. How do foreign-born faculty express attachment to their employing institution?
2. What personal factors may promote/impair foreign-born faculty's organizational attachment?
3. What institutional factors may promote/impair foreign-born faculty's organizational attachment?

This study was conducted with selected foreign-born faculty at a research university in the Midwest. To answer the research questions, I primarily employed various qualitative research methods, such as open-ended, semi-structured interviews with foreign-born participants and review of relevant institutional and personal archival documents.

Significance of the Study

Foreign-born faculty have contributed immensely to the success of higher education in the United States. These foreign-born faculty facilitate the offering of various academic programs, serve as mentors for students, and produce "hot papers" that

have higher than average citation rate (Gwynne, 1999). This study contributes to the following:

1. It provides a better understanding of the professional experiences of foreign-born faculty in U.S. higher education, which is surprisingly neglected in research. The findings of this study contribute to a significant gap in the literature by specifically addressing foreign-born faculty with their unique cultural background and organizational behavior;
2. At the institutional level, the present study provides important insights into human resource management issues concerning foreign-born faculty. The findings of this study may inform the institutional administration about the significance of a culturally responsive organizational culture and effectiveness of institutional diversity initiative. Such findings may lead to institutions' providing a more supportive work environment for foreign-born faculty.
3. At the individual level, this study hopes to invite foreign-born faculty to reflect more on their work environment and the quality of their experiences. Knowing that they share some of the structural and cultural barriers as other marginalized populations on campus, they may learn to cope with these barriers in a collective manner, and with a stronger voice.
4. Through this study, I wish that the colleagues of foreign-born faculty could learn about how foreign-born faculty strive and yearn to find a place of belonging in this foreign culture. Their understanding is a prerequisite for any diversity initiatives to be effective in every fiber of organizational life and ensures a better working place for foreign-born faculty.

Organization of the Study

The rest of the dissertation is organized as follows. Chapter 2 reviews the existing theories on adjustment and acculturation process, the construct of “organizational attachment”, and potentially influential factors on organizational attachment of employees in general. Chapter 3 discusses the research design and rationale for specific research methods employed in this study. Chapter 4 reports the thematic findings that emerged from the data collected for this dissertation study. Chapter 5 proposes an emerging model for promoting organizational attachment of foreign-born faculty. In addition, the implications of this study for future research and practice are discussed in Chapter 5.

Chapter 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

This study explored the professional experiences of foreign-born faculty at a U.S. research university through an investigation of their organizational attachment. This study also sought to identify factors that might impact foreign-born faculty's psychological and behavioral attachment to the organization they worked for at both institutional and individual levels. Given the scarcity of literature addressing organizational behaviors of foreign-born faculty, this study is exploratory by nature and primarily draws on two bodies of literature. The first body of literature focuses on the development of theories of acculturation, which is assumed to be an influential individual factor that impacts how foreign-born faculty feel attached to their employing institution. The second body of literature investigates existing theories on the construct of organizational attachment and related factors that impact organizational attachment of employees in general.

Theories of Acculturation

Blomstedt, Hylander, & Sundquist (2007) asserted that it is essential to account for acculturation in any research conducted in multicultural populations. The concept of "acculturation" has been well explored since the beginning of the last century. Acculturation has been defined as end points of a cultural confrontation, a process of adaptation, or adaptive strategies, describing how diverse individuals react to a new, dominant culture. This study assumed foreign-born faculty in the U.S. academia, at different stages of acculturation, and/or demonstrated different degrees of organizational attachment. This section first reviews the development of acculturation theories and then

discusses how foreign-born faculty's acculturation was investigated in the present study based on these existing theories.

Redfield, Lenton and Herskovits' (1936) defined acculturation as a process which occurs as the result of first-hand contact between autonomous groups leading to changes either or both of the cultures. Redfield, Lenton and Herskovits' (1936) pointed out that attention should be focused on the conditions of intercultural contact and its results as acculturation results "when groups of individuals having different cultures come into continuous firsthand contact ..." (p. 149). Marden and Meyer (1968) considered individual-level acculturation as "the change in individuals whose primary learning has been in one culture and who take over traits from another culture" (p.36). Spindler (1977) argued that acculturation is not a process leading to assimilation, but should be defined as "adaptive strategies used by people who have to cope with the economic, social and political disadvantages of their positions as minorities . . . including reaffirmation of seemingly traditional values and behavior patterns, biculturalism , cultural synthesis of conflicting cultural elements, and managed identities" (p. 33). Cox (2001) defined the term acculturation as the way "cultural differences are handled when parties from different cultural traditions are merged into one group" (p. 66).

The outcomes of acculturation have been summarized into different categories. Some major theories are mentioned below.

Dohrenwend and Smith (1962) proposed that four kinds of changes are possible when an individual is in contact with a different culture: (a) alienation, change on the part of members of one culture away from the rules governing their traditional structured activities without internalization of the rules of the other culture; (b) reorientation, a

process of abandoning rules of the old culture and change towards the rules governing the structured activities of the other culture; (c) reaffirmation, conscious, organized attempt to preserve, revive, or perpetuate the rules of the cultural heritage; and (d) reconstitution, “the creation, by one group, of rules which existed in neither culture prior to contact” (Dohrenwend & Smith, 1962, p. 35). Dohrenwend and Smith (1962) also pointed out that assimilation and fusion are two different end-points of acculturative contact. In assimilation, the contact situation is marked by recruitment of members of culture A into the structured activities of culture B in positions of equal status. The pervasive mode of change resulting from contact is the reorientation of members of culture A accompanying this recruitment. In fusion, the members of culture A are admitted into the structured activities of culture B at positions of high and/or equal status and, conceivably, vice versa. The pervasive mode of change accompanying this contact in both cultures is that of reconstitution (p.35). Based on such a theoretical framework, Dohrenwend and Smith (1962) concluded that individual’s degree and kind of acculturation must be assessed relative to the pattern of strength-parity-weakness shown by his culture when in the contact situation.

Marden and Meyer (1968) proposed a typology of acculturation, which indicated that (a) external acculturation entails adopting the material culture, language, and secular roles necessary for participation in the public spheres of life in the dominant society, while keeping first-culture norms for private spheres of life; (b) internal acculturation entails adopting the values and attitudes of the dominant society; and (c) nativism consists of ethnocentrism by either the dominant group or the minority, in reaction against acculturative changes (as cited in Rudmin, 2003). Marden and Meyer (1968)

suggested stabilized acculturation requires external acculturation, enhanced minority group “respectability” by public recognition of their achievements, and adaptation by minority institutions to become coherent with dominant norms, such that “within this frame of acculturation there persists a preference for intimate associations with people whose cultural and/or religious and racial heritage is like one's own” (p. 49, as cited in Rudmin, 2003). Marginality occurs when an individual has abandoned first-culture norms and behaviors but is not accepted by the dominant society, which “usually makes him to a greater or lesser degree, an ‘outsider’ to both groups” (p. 45, as cited in Rudmin, 2003).

Berry (1976) defined four acculturation constructs by whether the traditional culture was valued and to be retained, and whether positive relations with the larger society were to be sought. In further investigation of these four constructs, Berry (1980) introduced the concept of "adaptation" as a useful concept for these four varieties of adaptation: assimilation, integration, rejection, and deculturation. Assimilation entails no preference for maintenance of traditional culture, but positive relations with the larger society. Integration entailed preference and positive attitudes for both cultures. Rejection entailed preference for maintenance of traditional culture but rejection of the larger society. In a later study, Berry (1983) elaborated and refined his fourfold acculturation construct and the concepts of deculturation and marginality were adjusted from previous formulations:

Finally, there is an option which is difficult to define precisely, possibly because it is accompanied by a good deal of collective and individual confusion and anxiety. It is characterized by striking out against the larger society and by

feelings of alienation, loss of identity, and what has been termed acculturative stress. This option is deculturation, in which groups are out of cultural and psychological contact with either their traditional culture or the larger society. . . When stabilized in a non-dominant group, it constitutes the classical situation of 'marginality'. (p. 69)

Robert Schumann (1976) studied acculturation model of second-language learners. He used the term "integration" for "acculturation". Based on whether the second language learner gives up his own life style and values and adopts those of the target language group, Schumann (1976) suggested three acculturation strategies: assimilation, preservation, and adaptation. The first strategy, assimilation maximizes contact between the two groups and enhances acquisition of the target language as the learners' own life style. Moreover, their values are abandoned and substituted with those in the new culture. Preservation represents a strategy at the other extreme. Adaptation refers to a strategy that adapts to the life style and values of the target language group, but maintains its own life style and values for intra-group use.

Cox (2001) posited that possible outcomes of acculturation include separation, assimilations and pluralism. Separation occurred when each party or group retained its own identity and made little movement toward the work norms, values, and beliefs of the other group. Assimilation refers to cases where the norms, values, and beliefs of the stronger, more dominant party or group are imposed on the other, less powerful party. Pluralism was defined as each party being open to movement toward the culture of the other. In pluralism the best traditions of each culture are carefully considered for adoption

by the total enterprise, and each party retains some of their identity with the pre-merger culture (Cox, 2001, p.66).

The theories reviewed suggest that when coming into contact with a new culture, individuals exhibit different attitudes, employ different strategies, and experience different outcomes when managing cultural conflicts. These theories shed light on the study of experiences of foreign-born faculty in the U.S., who may be struck with anxiety and disorientation when encountering a foreign culture (Schumann, 1986). For foreign-born faculty, as behaviors and coping mechanisms from the first-culture often do not work well in the new context, this situation “can cause disorientation, stress, anxiety and fear [and] the learner, in attempting to find a cause for his disorientation, may reject himself, his own culture, the organization for which he is working and the people of the host country” (Schumann, 1986, p. 383). Cox (1994) asserted that the quality of employees’ experience highly depends on the organization’s tolerance for ambiguity, the value placed on cultural diversity, the demand for conformity, cultural fit, and any targeted acculturation.

Based on the above theories, it is assumed that individual foreign-born faculty, when working and socializing in a non-native, dominant culture may have different acculturation experiences. That is, they may have varied experiences interacting with people of the dominant culture and employ different strategies to adapt to and thus be found at different stages of acculturation. Therefore, in this study, foreign-born faculty’s acculturation was explored through their own reflections and descriptions to find out about its effect on organizational attachment of the participants, whose home cultural values were well established before they came to study and work in U.S. higher education.

Self-reported integration has been found to be a proxy for exploring acculturation (Blomstedt, Hylander, & Sundquist, 2007). In this study, the participants' acculturation experiences were explored with regards to how foreign-born faculty preserved their original culture and how they were assimilated into U.S. culture in terms of their attitudes and behaviors in the work place. I decided to use qualitative self-reports instead of quantitative measurement when studying acculturation for the following reasons: (a) acculturation is a dynamic, continuous, and complex process that sheer numbers could hardly provide a full picture of foreign-born faculty's professional experience in adjusting to the U.S. culture; and (b) acculturation involves adopting different strategies to deal with varied situations that deserve a more detailed description and deeper exploration. Based on the theories of dimensions of acculturation, I studied the participants' acculturation from the following aspects: language use, information resources, years of residence, ties to country of origin, cultural identity, psychological well-being, and social relations.

Theories of Organizational Attachment

Although organizational attachment has been well explored in existing literature, the research participants in these studies rarely have any cross-national backgrounds. This mitigates the generalizability of research findings. In addition, little research has been conducted on organizational attachment of faculty whose job and workplace characteristics vary. This section, therefore, drawing on existing literature on organizational attachment of employees in general, explains the construct of organizational attachment and reviews factors that impact organizational attachment.

Construct of Organizational Attachment

Organizational attachment is defined as an individual's psychological and behavioral involvement in a social group or unit of which he or she is a member (Tsui, Egan & O'Reilly, 1992). It reflects a worker's interest in continuing to work for his or her organization rather than leaving to take another job with another employer (Kashefi, 2004). When understood through the theoretical framework of social-exchange theory, organizational attachment indicates that people enter into relationships to acquire valuable resources. These resources consist not only of material goods, such as pay and fringe benefits, but also social goods, such as approval, trust, esteem, and prestige (Blau, 1964). Prior research has conceptualized and studied organizational attachment through organizational commitment (e.g., Mowday, Porter, & Steers, 1982), job satisfaction (e.g., Ashforth & Saks, 1996), absenteeism (e.g., Rhodes & Steers, 1990), organizational identification (Ashforth & Mael, 1989) and intent to leave (e.g., Rusbult, Farrell, Rogers, & Mainouss, 1988) as behavioral and psychological responses to the reduced attractiveness of a particular social category as a psychological group (Tsui, Egan, & O'Reilly, 1992). Given this study primarily relied on self-reports by foreign-born faculty through semi-structured interviews, the expected difficulty of reporting absenteeism by the participants has justified the focus of this research on four indicators of organizational attachment: job satisfaction, organizational commitment, organizational identification, and intent to quit the organization.

Job Satisfaction

Spector (1997) defined job satisfaction as "the extent to which people like [satisfaction] or dislike [dissatisfaction] their jobs" (p. 2), which "can be considered as a global feeling about the job or as a related constellation of attitudes about various aspects

or facets of the job” (p.2). Locke (1976) suggested that job satisfaction is the “pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences” (p. 1300). The construct of job satisfaction has multiple dimensions, which may include attributes of work environment, supervision, coworkers, and pay (Griffeth, Hom, & Gaertner, 2000). Prior research indicated that job satisfaction is related to organizational commitment (Porter, Steers, & Mowday, 1974), reduced intent to leave the organization (Mowday, Koberg, & McArthur, 1984), and rates of absenteeism (Porter & Steers, 1973).

Antony and Valadez (2000) suggested that measures of satisfaction should capture the multi-dimensionality of this psychological construct. As job satisfaction was used to investigate foreign-born faculty's experiences as one of the dimensions of organizational attachment in the present study, job satisfaction was explored using open-ended interview questions adapted from Spector's (1985) Job Satisfaction Survey. The interview questions began with a general inquiry about the participants' overall satisfaction with his or her current job and invited participant to self-report their satisfaction in the work place. Additional specific questions were also pursued afterwards. The specific questions covered multiple aspects, including pay, promotion, supervision, benefits, contingent rewards, operating procedures, colleagues, nature of work, development, and communication.

Organizational Commitment

Generally, organizational commitment has been described as a “multidimensional construct” (Morrow, 1993). Meyer and Allen (1991) described organizational commitment as a psychological state that “characterizes the employee's relationships with the organization”, and “has implications for the decision to continue membership in the

organization” (p. 67). Becker (1960) considered commitment as the tendency to engage in “consistent lines of activity” (p. 33) in the organization because of the perceived cost of doing otherwise. Organizational commitment indicates the strength of individuals’ identification with and involvement in a particular organization (Mowday, Porter, & Steers, 1982).

Three constructs have been used to classify types of organizational commitment: affective, continuous, and normative (Meyer & Allen, 1991):

Affective commitment refers to the employee’s emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement with the organization. Employees with a strong affective commitment continue employment with the organization because they want to do so. Continuance commitment refers to an awareness of the costs associated with leaving the organization. Employees whose primary link to the organization is based on continuance commitment remain because they need to do so. Finally, normative commitment reflects a feeling of obligation to continue employment. Employees with a high level of normative commitment feel that they ought to remain with the organization. (p. 67)

According to O’Reilly and Caldwell (1981), affective commitment is highly related with intrinsic interest in the job, one’s own feelings about a job, job responsibility, opportunity for advancement, family pressure, job location, and salary. Meyer and Herscovitch (2001) suggested personal characteristics, work experience, along with value congruence or personal-culture fit are the antecedents of affective organizational commitment. Perceptions of the costs of leaving the organization and lack of alternatives have impacts on continuance commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Weiner (1982) posited

that normative commitment is the result of a combination of internalized experiences resulting from cultural and early organizational socialization experiences,

The core of the relationships can be summarized as follows: beliefs and instrumental beliefs concerning organization-related behaviors lead to organizational commitment and instrumental motivation, respectively.

Instrumental motivation and commitment, in turn, simultaneously determine organization-related intentions and behaviors. (p. 420)

Organizational commitment has been found to relate positively to a variety of desirable work attitudes and behaviors such as job satisfaction, motivation, performance, turnover, absenteeism, and tenure. (see Mathieu & Zajac, 1990, for a review; Meyer & Allen, 1997).

As compared to job satisfaction, organization commitment is a more global response to the employing organization as opposed to specific tasks, environmental factors, and the location where the duties are performed (Mowday et al., 1982; Porter et al., 1974). Therefore, commitment should be more consistent than job satisfaction over time. In some literature, organizational commitment is referred to as the employee's psychological attachment to their employing organization, which can be used interchangeably with organizational attachment. However, based on Meyer and Allen's assertions (1991), affective commitment denotes a sense of belonging and emotional attachment to the organization, whereas continuance commitment and normative commitment emphasize behavioral attachment due to either the perceived costs of leaving the organization or the perceived obligation to remain with the organization.

In the present study of foreign-born faculty's organizational attachment, organizational commitment was investigated with open-ended interview questions adapted from Mowday, Porter, and Steers' (1982) Organizational Commitment Questionnaire and Meyer and Allen's (1997) scales of measuring three components of organizational commitment. The questions covered such topics as work values, socialization at the workplace, work experience, performance, investment, expressed loyalty to the organization, willingness to exert effort on behalf of the organization, and availability of alternatives.

Organizational Identification

Organizational identification is one form of psychological attachment that occurs when members adopt the defining characteristics of the organization as defining characteristics for themselves (Dutton, Dukerich, & Harquail, 1994). Pratt (1998) presented identification as a process of either affinity (believing that the organization has values similar to one's own) or emulation (adjusting your own values to match those of the organization). Through organizational identification, organization members fulfill such psychological needs as safety, affiliation, self-enhancement, and self-actualization, while the organization gets members who are more likely to act in ways congruent with organizational goals and needs. Ashforth and Mael (1989) described organizational identification as a process of self-categorization. They proposed that organizational identification strengthens when members categorize themselves into a social group (e.g., an organization that has distinctive, central, and enduring attributes). Hatch and Schultz (1997) viewed organizational identity as "grounded in local meanings and organizational symbols and thus embedded in organizational culture, which we see as the internal

symbolic context for the development and maintenance of organizational identity” (p. 358).

As part of the commitment process, the level of organizational identification indicates the degree to which people come to see the organization as part of themselves (Dutton et al., 1994). Organizational identification is different from organizational commitment in that it involves a cognitive connection with the organization and describes the relationship between the individual and the organization in terms of the individual’s self-concept (Pratt, 1998). Mael and Ashforth (1995) distinguished organizational identification from organizational commitment as follows:

Although identification is necessarily organization-specific, commitment may not be. The focal organization’s goals and values may be shared by other organizations, such that one could score high on commitment without perceiving a shared destiny with that particular organization. With proper incentives, the individual could readily transfer his or her commitment to a different, even competing organization with similar goals and values. However, if one identified with the organization, then he or she would necessarily experience some psychic loss upon leaving the organization. (p. 312)

Organizations benefit from fostering identification among employees because it provides “greater assurance that employees will decide with organizational interests uppermost in mind” (Cheney, 1983, p. 158). Therefore, organizational identification increases behaviors that are congruent with organizational identity and values (Cheney, 1983). Research has shown that organizational identification is linked with extra-role prosocial behaviors, job satisfaction, motivation, performance, loyalty, and intentions to

quit (Mael & Ashforth, 1992; O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986; Pratt, 1998; Shamir, 1990; Wan Huggins, Riordan, & Griffeth, 1998).

Drawing on the above review of relevant theories and Mael and Ashforth's (1992) scale, I designed semi-structured interviews to explore foreign-born faculty's organizational identification. The interview questions explored how participants identified themselves with the institution they worked for.

Intent to Quit

Research has identified voluntary turnover as one of the outcomes and indicators of low organizational attachment (e.g., Whitley & Cooper, 1989). Wagner, Pfeffer, and O'Reilly (1984) suggested groups are less likely to turn over when members are "tightly linked and integrated" (p.77). There are other behavioral and psychological forms of decreased attachment where external factors, such as external labor market conditions and personal constraints (Mobley, Horner, & Hollingsworth, 1978), prevent individuals from leaving the organization. Individuals may exhibit increased absence or withdrawal (Rhodes and Steers, 1990), reduced psychological commitment (Mowday et al., 1982), and cognitions or thoughts of leaving the social unit (Rusbult et al., 1988).

To improve the validity and reliability of the interview questions, I am using intent to leave rather than voluntary turnover to invite participants' self report of decreased organizational attachment. The intent to leave refers to more of an individual's perception rather than behavior. It is seen as a contemplative stage, linking the attitudinal component of job satisfaction with the behavioral component of turnover (Alexander, Lichtenstein, Oh, & Ulman, 1998; Parasuman, 1981).

The intent to leave the institution was explored in the present study using different interview questions depending on the rapport during the interview. If a trust was felt to have been established between the participant and myself, I asked if he or she ever considered exploring other career opportunities. Otherwise, the investigative question was like “How would you like to refer your best friend to work for this institution”.

Identified Factors that may Impact Organizational Attachment

Factors that may impact organizational attachment have been extensively examined in literature on organizational behavior and social psychology. In summary, studies have identified that organizational attachment is related to some organizational characteristics, such as demography and culture (e.g., Kossek & Zonia, 1994; Marsden et al., 1993). It has also been argued that perceived organizational support and perceived external prestige can be used as predictors of organizational attachment for university faculty, staff, and administrators (Fuller, Hester, Barnett, Frey, & Relyea, 2006). Evans (2000) identified national culture as a key factor in explaining organizational performance. Therefore, national culture is presumed in this particular study as a factor that may affect organizational attachment of foreign-born faculty. Organizational tenure is also identified to be related to employees’ emotional and cognitive attachment to their employing organization (e.g., Harrison, Price, & Bell, 1998; Stern, 1988). These factors that have been identified in prior literature are categorized in the present study at two levels: institutional and individual. The institutional factors include organizational culture, unit demographic composition, perceived organizational support, and perceived external prestige. The individual factors include organizational tenure/career stage and national culture.

Institutional Factors

Organizational culture. The concept of culture may refer to collectively shared forms of ideas and cognition, symbols and meanings, values and ideologies, rules and norms, emotions and expressiveness, the collective unconscious, behavior patterns, and structures and practices (Alvesson, 2002). Hatch (2000) explained that it is the interrelationship of individual experiences across organizational space and time that defines what we label as culture.

Taking organizational culture as a contextual factor, Smircich (1985) suggested that organizational culture is central to organizational functioning because of the profound importance of shared meanings, taken for granted ideas, beliefs and meanings for any coordinated action and for continuing organized activity. Shared values, ideas, understandings, and expressiveness embody and explain the nature of interpersonal connection at work. It also accommodates the development of the way people interact and through that interaction gives meaning to their social reality. In that sense, culture plays an important role in the construction and maintenance of high-quality relationships in organizations, and thus in terms of social performance.

Since cultural meaning is socially constructed and it guides thinking, feeling and acting in the organization, organizational culture affects the way people organize their attachment to the organization and to their work. Understanding, experiencing and feeling in an organizational context allows people to develop multiple forms of attachment. Collaboration, coordination, learning, adaptation, commitment, trust and loyalty take place in organizational daily activities based on these multiple attachments.

Organizations depend on these processes to perform in an innovative and coordinated way. Performance is the consequence of the meaning that these social attachments take.

Participants' perceptions of organizational culture in the current study was investigated mainly through how participants made sense of importance of institutional symbolism (e.g. rituals, myths, stories and legends), how they viewed institutional responses to their needs, and how they interpreted critical events, ideas, and experiences that were influenced and shaped by the groups within which they worked. Specific topics include leadership, prioritization of institutional goals, rewards, shared norms and expectations that guide thinking and behavior, inter-group relations, congruence between espoused and enacted culture, teamwork, critical events regarding diversity, accessibility to resources and information, and involvement.

Unit demographic composition. Organizational demography has been treated as an important variable in the research on the effects of diversity (e.g. O'Reilly, Caldwell, & Barnett, 1989; Schreiber, 1979). Demographic characteristics have been identified to relate to work outcomes and processes (Chatman, Polzer, Barsade, & Neale, 1998; Waldman & Avolio, 1986), attitudes (Kossek & Zonia, 1994), interpersonal relations (Tsui & O'Reilly, 1989), hiring and promotion decisions (McIntire, Moberg, & Posner, 1980), and voluntary turnover (Mobley, Horner, & Hollingsworth, 1978).

Many researchers have supported the idea that demographic heterogeneity benefits organizations by increasing the variance in perspectives and approaches to work that members of different identity groups can bring (e.g., Blau, 1977; Hoffman & Maier, 1961; Thomas and Ely, 1996). However, empirical research on how diversity affects performance has generated little consensus (Watson, Kumar, & Michaelson, 1993). Some

researchers have found evidence that heterogeneous groups are less socially integrated and experience more communication problems, more conflict, and higher turnover rates than homogeneous groups (O'Reilly, Caldwell, & Barnett, 1989; Zenger & Lawrence, 1989). Additionally, demographic minorities have reported negative experiences and less organizational attachment (Tsui, Egan, & O'Reilly, 1992). Most of the above research used the similarity-attraction approach in analyzing the effects of organizational demography (Byrne, 1971), which hypothesized that similarity is a major source of attraction between individuals. High interpersonal attraction may result in high social integration and a desire to maintain group affiliation, and thus low turnover (Tsui et al., 1992). Also based on this theory, Kanter (1977) argued that the ratio of majority group members to minority group members negatively affects the behavior of those in the minority. Kanter (1977) hypothesized that race relations will improve as the proportion of minorities increases, as "organizations with a better balance of people would be more tolerant of the differences among them" (p. 283).

Although there is a consensus in the existing research that numbers alone, without altering power relations within the organization, are unlikely to alter the position of traditionally underrepresented groups substantially (Konrad, Winter, & Gutek, 1992), some scholars asserted that a critical number is also necessary to alter power relations and improve the underrepresented groups' experience (Harlan & Weiss, 1981; Deaux & Ullman, 1983; Toren & Kraus, 1987). Research has consistently shown that numerical representativeness affects social relations (Stephan, 1978), satisfaction and turnover (e.g., O'Reilly, Caldwell, & Barnett, 1989; Pettigrew, 1980; Tsui et al., 1992), and attitudes towards diversity (Kossek & Zonia, 1994) on both the parts of the majority and the

minority. It is suggested that the majority are tolerant of difference when minorities only account for a small fraction of the group (Pettigrew, 1980). However, Tsui et al. (1992) suggested that the majority may begin to show psychological discomfort, as expressed in lower attachment, even when the minority proportion is very small. Tsui et al. (1992) argued that for minorities, research found that discrimination by the majority will increase as the proportion of the minority increases (Blalock, 1957), as contact between unequal groups inevitably results in conflict, with increased numbers of minorities leading to stronger reactions from the majority (Messick & Mackie, 1989; Pettigrew, 1980). This may also be a result of a tendency toward decreased frequency in interpersonal communication as minority composition increased (Hoffman, 1985, as cited in Tsui et al., 1992). In summary, the race composition of an organization affects workers' cross-group contact and relationship and thus has impacts on employees' attitudes as indicated by stress, and satisfaction (Reskin, McBrier, & Kmec, 1999).

The concept of relational demography has been adopted in the literature studying its impact on social process at the workplace (Tsui & O'Reilly, 1989). Relational demography refers to the degree to which individuals are similar in their demographic attributes, such as gender, race, and age (Tsui & O'Reilly, 1989). Tsui et al. (1992) proposed that, beyond the effect of simple demographics, psychological commitment may be influenced further by the extent to which an individual is different from others in a social unit on demographic attributes. Such a concept builds on a premise that differences among group members have a negative impact on group functioning. The reasoning is that a common background will be more likely to result in parallel language patterns, more communication and less misunderstanding (Zenger & Lawrence, 1989).

Perceived organizational support. Perceived organizational support (POS) refers to employees' belief that the organization values their contributions and cares about their well-being (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison, and Sowa, 1986). POS has important implications for employee behavior and attitudes.

Theories of POS draw heavily on social-exchange theory (Blau, 1964) and theory of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960). Social-exchange theory posits that people enter into relationships to acquire valuable resources. These resources include not only material goods, such as pay and fringe benefits, but also social goods, such as approval, trust, esteem, and prestige (Blau, 1964). The norm of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960) requires recipients of valued resources to repay the party who provided those benefits. Therefore, if individuals believe an organization is committed to them, they will have a feeling of obligation to care about the organization's well-being and put forth effort that helps the organization achieve its goals (Eisenberger et al., 1986).

Management behaviors, organizational policies and practices have been identified to impact employees' interpretation of organizational support (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Research indicated that POS is related to organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and job performance withdrawal, absenteeism, and voluntary turnover (Allen, Shore, & Griffeth, 2003; Eisenberger et al., 1986; Fuller, Hester, Barnett, Frey, & Relyea, 2006; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002).

Drawing on Eisenberger et al.'s (1986) Survey of Perceived Organizational Support (SPOS), I explored participants' perceptions of organizational support with interview questions related to how the institution valued their well-being and contributions with their distinct cultural resources.

Perceived external prestige. March and Simon (1958) proposed that individuals tend to become attached to organizations that they believe are held in high esteem by people outside the organization. The perceived status of the organization by organizational outsiders has been defined as the perceived external prestige (Smidts, Pruyn, & Van Riel, 2001). Fuller et al. (2006) suggested that individuals may indirectly form their exchange relationship with their employing organization from the organizational outsiders' evaluation of their employing organization. Perceived external prestige is a status-related evaluation that is thought to fulfill socio-emotional needs, such as the need for esteem (Fuller et al., 2006).

Research has shown that perceived external prestige is related to organizational attachment. Prestige reflects the categorical self and is related to the motivation to achieve and maintain a positive social identity (Tyler & Blader, 2003). According to the group engagement model, the perceived prestige of the organization contributes to the degree to which the individual cognitively merges his or her self-identity and self-worth with the organization's characteristics and status, or organizational identification (Tyler & Blader, 2003). According to Ashforth and Mael (1989), perceived external prestige positively influences an individual's attachment to the organization because it influences their self-esteem, and individuals tend to become attached to organizations that enhance the individuals' self-image.

Perceived external prestige was investigated in this study through interview questions. The questions explored how evaluations of the institution under investigation by the participants' community would affect their attitude.

Individual Factors

Organizational tenure/career stages. In differentiating diversity as surface-level (visible or physical, such as gender and race) and deep-level (invisible, such as cognition and values), Harrison, Price, & Bell (1998) pointed out the length of time group members worked together weakened the effects of surface-level diversity and strengthened the effects of deep-level diversity as group members had the opportunity to engage in meaningful interactions. Theoretical perspectives from organizational behavior, sociology, and social psychology suggested that group members base an initial superficial categorization of other group members on stereotypes and subsequently modify or replace those stereotypes with deeper-level knowledge of the psychological features of the other individuals as time passes. Such knowledge forms the basis for continued attraction and affiliation. Over time, as people acquire more information, their perceptions are based more on observed behavior and less on stereotypes prompted by overt characteristics. Stern (1988) proposed that organizational members are exposed more and more to artifacts that may remind them of their union with the organization over their stay in the organization. As they interact with other members, the minorities may change their level of inclusion in an organization, moving from the periphery of the organization to the center of things (Van Maanen & Schein, 1979). As members experience increasing inclusion and contact with the organization, the attractiveness of the perceived organizational identity increases, strengthening organizational identification (Dutton et al., 1994). A study conducted by O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) provided indirect support for this logic. They found a positive relationship between tenure in a university and the degree of pride and ownership that people felt with respect to their employing organization.

Faculty members go through several career stages as their organizational tenure progresses. The career stages are characterized with different roles, responsibilities, demands, enthusiasm for the profession, different learning styles, priorities, and dilemmas (Baldwin, 1990). Based on adult development theories, Baldwin (1990) divided faculty career into four different stages: career entry, early career, midcareer, and late career. He further explained that for novice professors, their major concern is competence. The entry period is a time of “intense pressure and considerable growth” to build a solid base for a successful career in the academic world, with multiple responsibilities and demands to master professional skills and many other competing demands. Baldwin (1990) characterized early academic career as settling down and making a name, a stage between career entry and full membership in the academic ranks. Even with accumulated professional experiences, early-career faculty members feel more pressured as they need to seek more confirmation from external professional networks, associations, editorial boards, and other service roles. Midcareer stages, according to Baldwin (1990), is a very productive and rewarding phase when professors enjoy maximum professional influence and begin to seek more balance among life’s competing roles. It is also pointed out that midcareer frequently parallels the onset of a career plateau as they may lack the concrete goals and clear sense of direction that characterized their early career. At the last phase of an academic career, late career, professors enjoy a respected position but they may also feel isolated, neglected and underappreciated. Baldwin (1990) also mentioned in his study of career stages that career stage patterns may vary for professors from different fields, institutions, genders, and ethnic groups.

National culture. Hofstede (1991) maintained that national culture influences behavior. He defined culture as the set of “collective programming of the mind which distinguishes the members of one human group from another... the interactive aggregate of common characteristics that influence a human group's response to its environment” (1980, p. 25). Hofstede’s cultural model (1984) has been considered as “a watershed conceptual foundation for many subsequent cross-national research endeavors” (Fernandez et al., 1997, pp. 43-44). Hofstede’s definitions and descriptions of these dimensions of national cultures have been widely used to measure culture, as these dimensions captured general aspects of a country’s values and attitudes with a focus on work-related values.

I used Hofstede’s (1984) cultural model to find out how different national cultures affect organizational attachment of foreign-born faculty in this study. Hofstede conceptualized culture in his cultural model (1984) as embodying four dimensions: power distance, uncertainty avoidance, individualism, and masculinity-femininity. These four dimensions are suggested to vary by culture. In this framework, Hofstede (1984) proposed that: (a) power distance refers to the extent to which the less powerful members of institutions and organizations within a country expect and accept that power is distributed unequally; (b) uncertainty avoidance refers to the degree to which the members of a culture feel threatened by uncertain or unknown situations, which can be determined with three indicators: rule orientation, employment stability, and stress; (c) individualism, as opposed to collectivism, characterizes societies in which the ties between individuals are loose, which can be measured with responses to questions positively related to personal time, freedom, and challenge, and negatively related to use

of skills, physical conditions, and training opportunities; and (d) masculinity, as opposed to femininity, indicates the degree to which achievement and assertiveness were valued. Hofstede ranked nations with scores in each of these four dimensions.

Hofstede's (1984, 1991) proposition with respects to the effects of national culture has been consistently confirmed by other researchers in the sense that differences in cultures may influence work-related attitudes, behaviors, values (see the reviews by Barrett & Bass, 1976; Price-Williams, 1986), group processes, and outcomes (Ely & Thomas, 2001; Gibson and Zellmer-Bruhn, 2001). For example, Markus and Kitayama (1991) suggested that in different cultures people develop construals of themselves as connected to others as opposed to distinct from others. In a society where there is an emphasis on individualism (Triandis, 1989; Markus and Kitayama, 1991) relationships are viewed as mutable. In cultures fostering interdependent self-construals, Markus and Kitayama (1991) suggested that people focus on the fundamental connectedness of human beings to each other. An important implication of the distinction between people with interdependent versus independent self-construals is that the former assign greater significance to their social exchanges (Markus & Kitayama, 1991).

Foreign-born faculty, with much of their shaping period spent in different home cultures, which foster in them varying beliefs and values, may accordingly possess varying cognitions, emotions, and behaviors as results of different cultural impacts (e.g., Hofstede, 1980). In this study, national culture was taken into account when investigating faculty member's organizational attachment.

Theoretical Framework

Based on the above review of relevant theories, the prior literature has identified institutional and individual factors that may contribute or impair employees' organizational attachment. The institutional factors are organizational culture, demographic composition, perceived organizational support, and perceived external prestige. The individual factors are organizational tenure/career stage and national culture. These factors are used in the present study as a theoretical framework to approach research questions concerning foreign-born faculty. The research questions are:

1. How do foreign-born faculty express attachment to their employing institution?
2. What personal factors may promote/impair foreign-born faculty's organizational attachment?
3. What institutional factors may promote/impair foreign-born faculty's organizational attachment?

The theoretical framework is indicated in Figure 1.

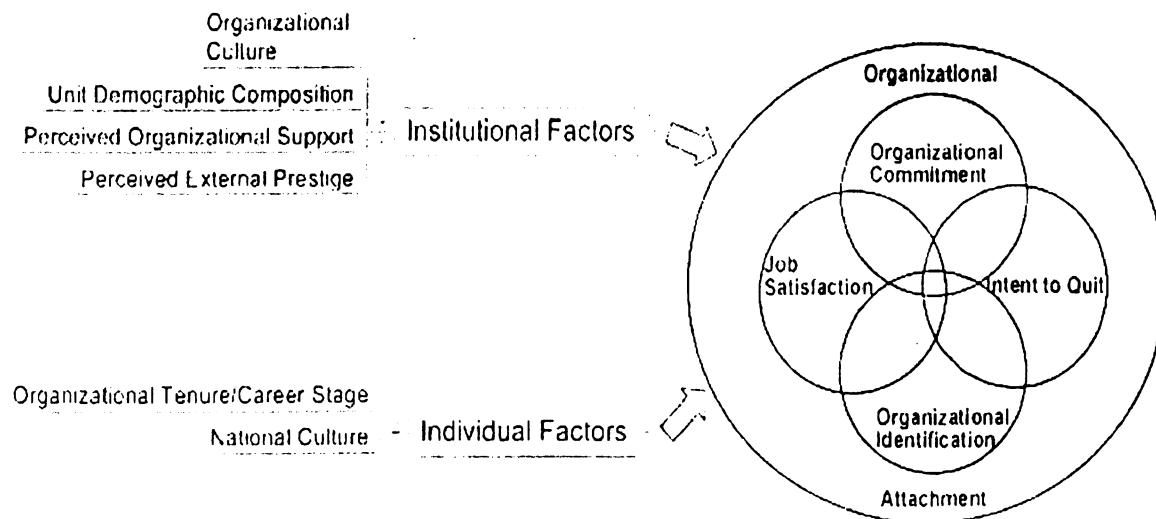


Figure 1 A theoretical framework of foreign-born faculty's organizational attachment

Chapter 3

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

This study explored how foreign-born faculty at a Midwestern research university feel attached to their employing institution. In this chapter I discuss the research design and methods employed in this study. Regarding research design, I present the rationales for adopting qualitative approaches to answer the research questions and to achieve the purposes of this study. As for the research methods, I talk about description of the institution, study participants, data collection procedures, data analysis procedures, triangulation of the research, and limitations of the study. Specifically, two techniques were employed for data collection: semi-structured interviews of individual participants and analysis of relevant organizational documents and archival data about participants' professional experiences.

Research Design

This study addressed the expressed need for research on workplace experiences of foreign-born faculty. Three fundamental questions that guided this study were:

1. How do foreign-born faculty express attachment to their employing institution?
2. What personal factors may promote/impair foreign-born faculty's organizational attachment?
3. What institutional factors may promote/impair foreign-born faculty's organizational attachment?

The available literature on faculty work experience rarely addresses a population of academics who were born into and have grown up in a culture different from the U.S., a factor assumed to be significantly influential in foreign-born faculty's work attitudes

and experiences. Given the limited literature examining the experiences of foreign-born in U.S. universities and the exploratory nature of this study, the research questions were approached through the use of qualitative inquiry. This exploratory research is qualitative first because it is a topic where exact variables and a theory base are unknown for this specific population. Morse (1991) indicated that characteristics of a qualitative research problem are:

(a) the concept is “immature” due to a conspicuous lack of theory and previous research; (b) a notion that the available theory may be inaccurate, inappropriate, incorrect, or biased; (c) a need exists to explore and describe the phenomena and to develop theory; (d) the nature of the phenomenon may not be suited to quantitative measures. (p. 120)

Second, in studying experiences, I believe that knowledge is socially constructed and individuals seek understanding of the world in which they live and work. Qualitative methodology is characterized by an emphasis on describing in detail the context in which people’s perspectives are being shaped and shared. Third, participants develop subjective meanings of their experiences. The topic being addressed in this study, as well as the multiple meanings participants attach to their daily behavior and socialization deserve detailed description and deep exploration. Qualitative research, as explained by Van Maanen (1979), covers “an array of interpretive techniques which seek to describe, decode, translate, and otherwise come to terms with the meaning of naturally occurring phenomena in the social world” (p. 520). Therefore, to address the research questions concerning foreign-born faculty’s experiences at their workplace, a qualitative approach

was utilized as it allowed me to work with particulars and be open to continual refinement of questions based on knowledge gained as the study proceeded.

Methods

The two main components of data collection for this research were semi-structured interviews of individual participants, and analysis of relevant organizational documents and archival data about participants' professional experiences. Guba and Lincoln (1981) suggested that a researcher should choose methods by determining which techniques might provide more and better data at lower cost and which techniques could provide clues as to the nature of the context. For this study, based on the nature of the research questions, the use of semi-structured interviews was adopted as the primary data collection method. Most of the research data came from open-ended intensive interviews at a Midwestern research university with participating foreign-born faculty members, who varied in gender, disciplinary background, home culture, career stage, and organizational tenure. As suggested by Patton (1990), documents, interviews, and observations should be used to supplement, complement, and reinforce one another in order to obtain as complete a picture of the setting or phenomena being studied as possible. Therefore, document analysis was also employed as a way to subsidize the interview data. Document analysis provided this study with rich information regarding organizational culture and other environmental factors that influence the quality of foreign-born faculty's professional attitudes and experiences. Observation was also used during the process of interviews to help understand and interpret the participants' expressions and responses.

The process of data collection and analysis were conducted concurrently. By conducting data collection and analysis simultaneously, the initial results of data analysis were used to adjust data collection strategies in order to provide a focus for future data collection so that needless repetition and overwhelming quantities of data were minimized (Merriam, 1988). Collecting and analyzing data at the same time also allowed me to fill gaps in my knowledge and understanding as they emerged (Lincoln, & Guba, 1985).

General Description of the Institution

Hardy (1996) emphasized the significance of understanding institutional context when a researcher attempts to draw coherent patterns of meaning from information obtained during a qualitative organizational investigation. This study explored how foreign-born faculty felt attached to their employing institution—a large, public, land-grant research university in the Midwest of the United States. As a land-grant institution, it claims to be “an internationally esteemed university, offering a comprehensive spectrum of programs and attracting gifted professors, staff members, and students from diverse backgrounds.” As envisioned by most presidents of this institution since the middle of last century, this university aspires to become a leader in incorporating global perspectives into the traditional land-grant philosophy. The institution publicly acknowledges that “an excellent and diverse faculty insures the superior quality of academic programs, and contributes to the expansion of knowledge and its application in the public interest by bringing in new and different perspectives and experiences from their respective countries which expand the walls of the academe.” Therefore, it is articulated by the management that “recruitment, retention, and development of an

excellent faculty with richly diverse talents, interests, and backgrounds are essential to the University's present and future success.”

In recent years, the central administration has supported a number of institution-wide initiatives as well as customized self-studies to promote diversity among campus communities. In light of the stated goal of being a university with a global reach in a time of global change, these initiatives comprehensively cover many aspects of the organization, such as mission, research, curriculum, and student and faculty issues. These efforts, as the central administration wishes, will promote a climate favorable to a diverse workforce at this institution.

When data was collected for this study, many documents were published by the institutional administration, articulating the prioritization of internationalizing the university from the managerial perspective. The role of international faculty and staff in achieving the articulated institutional mission of internationalizing the university is positively acknowledged at different levels of administration. Documents detailed how international faculty could contribute to the institution with their distinct perspectives and experiences from their respective home countries. Numerous recommendations were made and communicated to the public. However, no statistical data was available regarding which recommendations were adopted and implemented by specific units or which departments were held accountable. A number of workshops and small grants designed for promoting diversity were also visible. Based on this evidence, it could be reasonably concluded that the administration had been actively engaged in bringing forward institutional strategies to foster organizational change in diversity. However,

actual changes or the effectiveness of the university's commitment to diversity were not well tracked or documented.

Study Participants

As this is an exploratory study of an under-investigated population, I was seeking a heterogeneous sample of participants. Therefore, a purposeful, theoretical two-stage snowball sampling strategy was employed for this research to collect as much rich data as possible. The initial sampling was done through personal connections and based on relevant theories in existing literature regarding organizational attachment in general. At the first stage of data collection, I used personal connections to identify five Chinese-born faculty. These Chinese professors referred me to other foreign-born faculty in their departments. I then selected the referred faculty members based on the theoretical framework presented in Chapter 2, which indicates institutional and individual factors that have been identified to impact organizational attachment. The institutional factors are organizational culture, demographic composition, perceived organizational support, and perceived external prestige. The individual factors are organizational tenure/career stage and national culture. According to these criteria, I selected participants from different colleges/departments with varied proportions of foreign-born faculty, with different years of work at the investigated institution, with different academic ranks, and from different countries. Secondary sampling was based on emerging themes from data collected from initial participants to strengthen the emerging themes by defining the properties of the categories. Gender was identified as a potential influential factor based on findings from the interviews at the first stage of data collection. I then enlarged the sample size by using an additional criterion for secondary sampling, gender.

For the purpose of gaining a whole picture of foreign-born faculty's psychological and behavioral attachment to the university, a maximum variation sample was selected to include diverse experiences of the participants during the qualitative interviews (Merriam, 1998, p. 62). To investigate the research questions, I used two criteria for determining interview sample size (Seidman, 1998):

1. Sufficient number to reflect the variation of the group to be investigated.
2. Saturation of information, that is, hearing the same comments from different participants.

Of the 32 interviews conducted, only 25 were used for analysis in this research. Seven of the interviews were not used due to uncooperative responses, too much silence, and/or resistance from the respondents. The composition of the study participants can be described in Tables 1-5.

Number of Participants	Proportion of Foreign-Born Faculty in the Department (%)
4	0-15
7	15-35
14	35-60

Table 1 Participants by Unit Demographic Composition

Number of Participants	Organizational Tenure (Years)
9	0 - 6
9	7 - 10
3	11 - 20
2	20 - 30
2	30 +

Table 2 Participants by Organizational Tenure

Number of Participants	Academic Rank
8	Assistant Professor
9	Associate Professor
8	Full Professor

Table 3 Participants by Academic Rank

Number of Participants	Gender
16	Male
9	Female

Table 4 Participants by Gender

Number of Participants	Country of Origin
6	China
4	India
2	Korea
1	Iran
1	Turkey
1	Argentina
2	Russia
2	Canada
1	Columbia
2	U.K
1	France
1	Greece
1	Mexico

Table 5 Participants by Country of Origin

Data Collection

Two strategies for data collection were employed for this study. They were semi-structured interviews, and analysis of archival documents regarding the individual study participants and the organizational environment in general.

Semi-Structured Interviews

Semi-structured interviews were employed as the primary data collection method in this dissertation study. The nature of the research problem and a lack of relevant literature together legitimized a qualitative research method to investigate the experiences of the participants and the meaning they make of their experiences. Strategically, interviews were conducted with purposefully selected participants to gain insights into how individuals attend to, perceive, or otherwise deal with incidents relevant to organizational attachment at their work place.

A semi-structured interview protocol was used to provide a general framework for the interviews to (a) engage the subjects in critical reflection concerning institutional and personal factors that facilitate or inhibit their organizational attachment, and (b) elicit unanticipated but relevant issues that might be brought up by the interviewees. All interview participants were informed of the purpose of this study as well as the methodology employed beforehand. Also, to enhance the openness in their responses, I assured the participants that the data will be collected without disclosing their name and private concerns and will not be used in any other fashion without their consent. In response to some participants' request, some interviews were not audio-taped in order to encourage the participants to talk more freely and openly. In such cases, field notes were taken in a detailed fashion during the interviews and were typed following the interview.

The interview transcripts and typed notes were then sent to the participants for their review to ensure accuracy. As I am a native Chinese speaker, some Chinese interviewees requested to respond to the interview questions in Chinese. I accommodated this request, translated the transcripts into English, and then sent them to the interviewees to ensure accuracy of the translation.

The face-to-face interview method also allowed me to work with different levels of communication, including verbal and nonverbal, as some of the participants were not very talkative and others were suspicious or mistrustful. Constant observations, clarifications and explanations, and adjustment of lines of questioning were made to achieve the highest level of understanding and openness as possible during the interviews. I acknowledge my limited knowledge about the experiences of foreign-born faculty in the U.S. academe. Having this in mind, I employed a strategy of making the questions broad enough to stimulate participants' thinking. The funnel technique (Bouchard, 1976) was used to elicit valid and uncontaminated impressions from participants in the interviews. The funnel technique is characterized with a loosely structured line of inquiry beginning with general questions and unspecified response options. After establishing rapport, initial understanding, and familiarity with conceptualizations, the interviewer then moves to more specific questions, modifying them so as to be appropriate in language and direction. The interview questions are open-ended. Many of them began with "Could you describe..." or "Could you say something about..." I also made efforts to avoid questions with implications for a preferred answer, such as "Do you think..." or "do you agree?" In most interviews, the inquiries were directed to address the research questions: (a) How do foreign-born faculty express

attachment to their employing institution? (b) What personal factors may promote/impair foreign-born faculty's organizational attachment? (c) What institutional factors may promote/impair foreign-born faculty's organizational attachment? As suggested in the literature review and explained in the theoretical framework in Chapter 2, the interview questions covered different dimensions of the construct of organizational attachment and a variety of possible influencing factors at both institutional and individual levels. The construct of organizational attachment was investigated through four dimensions: job satisfaction, organizational commitment, organizational identification, and intent to leave. Such sensitive topics as a person's intent to leave were adjusted in language depending on the flow and the rapport during the interviews. For example, the intent to leave may be identified with a question like "How would you like to refer foreign-born candidates/your best friend to this organization?" Besides asking about the factors that have been identified in prior literature regarding how they impact the participants' feeling of attachment to the employing institution, I invited free narratives, talks, and comments with respect to their sense of belonging as a general topic. That is to say, the newly identified factors in this study all originated from the natural flow of interview conversations with the participants.

Great caution was taken to protect the human subjects involved in this study. In accordance with the institution's Human Research Protection (HRP), data collection only commenced upon the approval from the University Committee on Research Involving Human Subjects (UCRIHS). Anonymity of the subjects was secured throughout this study, including the confidentiality of any personal information about the subjects. Confidentiality was a high priority, given that the foreign-born faculty constituted a small

portion of faculty in their work unit. The names and other details that might be used to identify them were concealed.

Document Analysis

This qualitative study attempted to derive a holistic general picture of the institutional context as it relates to diversity from a historical perspective. Specifically, relevant policies and programs announced and implemented in the organization under study since 1990 were identified and mapped through document analysis with regards to its history, mission, vision, values, implementation, and desired outcomes. In addition, to gain a better understanding of the participants, I collected their professional curricula vitae on the website and asked for personal written accounts of critical events with respects to diversity issues at the institution.

Document analysis was employed in this research as it enabled the researcher to discover information, insights, and meanings, relevant to my research purposes (Merriam, 1988; Whitt & Kuh, 1991). It fits this study with the following advantages:

1. It is “unobtrusive” (Fetterman, 1989, p. 68). Document analysis is relatively invisible to and requires minimal cooperation from persons within the setting being studied (Whitt, 1992).

2. Documents are primary data sources that provide direct information about events, decisions, activities, and processes (Patton, 1990). Data, such as institution’s mission, academic policies, programs, and staff, can provide insights into institutional processes, values, and participants (Goetz & LeCompete, 1984). Institutional histories often identify traditions that the researcher ought to observe firsthand in order to understand campus life.

3. Information from document analysis can also be used to identify key participants, to generate survey items and interview questions during the investigation (Whitt & Kuh, 1991).

4. Even though less active or interactive when compared with other forms of qualitative (or verbal) data collection such as interviews, Merriam (1988) considered documents as a useful and “ready-made source of data, easily accessible to the imaginative and resourceful investigator” (p. 104).

Documents are defined as “any written or recorded material” (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, p. 27) not prepared for the purposes of the research or at the request of the inquirer, including written records or communications, physical evidence, and audio and video recordings (Merriam, 1988). Documents may be either public records or personal accounts (Guba & Lincoln, 1981). Public records are materials created and kept for the purpose of “attesting to an event or providing an accounting” (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, p. 277). Personal documents are first-person accounts of events and experiences (Merriam, 1988).

In this study, both public records and personal documents were collected and analyzed. Public documents included any written, published information relevant to diversity on the campus, such as mission statements, newsletters, and meeting minutes. Personal documents included professional curricula vitae and some participants’ descriptions of critical events.

I examined these documents for information concerning the administration’s commitment to promote diversity at the institution, how these efforts were perceived as reported in the public media and as reflected by the participating foreign-born faculty,

and how the participants accounted for their psychological and emotional responses to certain events concerning diversity issues on campus. A number of aspects were noted when analyzing the documents (Fetterman, 1989; Goetz & LeCompte 1984; Whitt & Kuh, 1991; Whitt, 1992). These included the titles of the documents, the targeted readers, the documents' purposes, nature of the information, emerging themes or patterns relevant to the research questions, significance and desired outcomes of the document, implications, and consistency with other sources of information.

With the availability, accessibility, stability, and potential richness of documents, I hoped to obtain information regarding how the administration's commitment to diversity on the campus, including the content of relevant policies and educational programs designed to promote diversity, foreign-born faculty's participation and involvement in these initiatives, feedbacks from foreign-born faculty, organizational structures to promote diversity, and historical human resource data. In addition, the documents were examined for information concerning institutional characteristics, values, plans, processes, priorities and concerns.

Data Analysis

The interpretive framework for this study used content analysis (Patton, 1980) and the constant comparative method (Glaser & Strauss, 1967) to achieve the purposes of the study. The process of data analysis was overlapped with data collection. The sample pool was identified and enlarged through theoretical sampling and analysis results. Such a strategy not only enhanced the diversity of my sample with different properties but also reconfirmed the themes that were emerging from previously collected data.

This study used a data coding scheme to categorize data. Coding was done with qualitative software, NVivo. Emerging themes were identified to make sense of the data. Data were continuously interpreted in the light of the situation, additional interviews, relevant literature, and the emerging theories. I used a coding system involving codes and subcodes (Bogdan & Biklen, 2003). First, I did open coding of the interview transcripts and field notes to identify initial themes and patterns. The transcripts and field notes captured words, phrases, sentences, and non-verbal languages that revealed the personal experiences of the participants. Based on the existing organizational attachment theory, I had anticipated that the identified factors would be found to be relevant to foreign-born faculty's organizational attachment as well as they do on employees in general. In addition, I also looked for new factors emerging from the data. During the coding process, I attended to the use of metaphors (Lakoff, 1987; Lakoff & Johnson, 1980) and narrative (Haraway, 1989, 1997). I also considered the ways in which speech acts themselves constitute power relations, especially in institutional sites, paying attention to the ways in which one discourse comes to prevail over another and how routine activities shape identity, ethics, and values (Fairclough, 1995).

Triangulation

Methods triangulation involves the use of multiple research methods in a single study so that one type of data verifies or supplements another, providing a more accurate interpretation. The reliability and validity of this study was addressed with techniques of triangulation (Creswell, 2001): member check, audit trail (Lincoln & Guba, 1985), and thick description of contexts and personal accounts of experiences (Lincoln & Denzin, 1994). I also collected documents for content analysis to triangulate the findings of the

study. The documents included organizational records (directories, websites, CVs of the participants, handbooks, pamphlets and flyers, policies, newsletters, newspapers), which were related to foreign-born faculty's professional experiences or institutional diversity initiatives. Initial themes were continuously identified while data was being collected. Theory triangulation was also used in this study, which relied on research in the fields of psychology, sociology, organizational behavior, and higher education to triangulate the data. During the process of data analysis, I was concerned about how my own identity as a future foreign-born faculty might have influenced my data collection and coding. I therefore enlisted two PhD students in education, one white and the other minority, both U.S-born, to code two transcripts. They independently agreed with my major code categories, and each also made suggestions for slightly modifying subcodes. I also conducted member checks by selecting two study participants to review and analyze working themes to see if they resonated with their individual experiences, and then incorporated the feedback into the final narrative (Janesick, 2000; Guba & Lincoln, 1981). I maintained an audit trail by keeping detailed records at all stages of data collection and analysis.

Limitations

There are several inherent methodological limitations of this dissertation study due to the nature of the research questions, scope of the study, and the role of the researcher. The first limitation is that the research questions proposed in this study were laden with emotion, as this research examined personal experiences with prejudice and discrimination. Some interview questions concerned deeply personal topics that the some

of the participants were not very willing to share. The interviews were likely subject to mood and subjective comparison or even individual reactions to me as an interviewer.

A second limitation of the study was that this research was conducted at a single institution. Even though this is a research university with a well-articulated mission of an international orientation and a fair number of foreign-born faculty working to achieve that mission, this institution may not be representative of other institutions in the United States. Some more institutional factors may also come into play in foreign-born faculty's organizational attachment, such as type, location, community relations of the university. Most interviews and observations were limited to single meetings with participants and limited availability of archival documents, which could also have brought about prejudiced findings and interpretations. In addition, this study was concerned only with selected faculty members, which might be subject to sampling errors. It is very likely that there are foreign-born faculty in the investigated institution who may have quite different experiences and perceptions regarding the research questions in this study.

Third, as a former faculty member in a foreign country and a current PhD student in the United States, I have a deep-rooted passion for studies in organizational behavior of foreign-born faculty at U.S. institutions of higher education. In addition, I have a strong empathy for those foreign-born faculty members who are searching for a place of belonging in the U.S. academia. My interpretations of the data may be subject to my personal and professional background. Besides, participants have varied national and cultural backgrounds. This also posed challenges to me as a researcher and an individual who was brought up in a different culture. Some cultural hints might not have been properly received and interpreted.

Fourth, the participants only included foreign-born faculty. Their accounts of personal experiences and impressions of events and people may be perceived differently by their colleagues.

Chapter 4

THEMATIC FINDINGS

This chapter details the thematic findings that emerged from the data regarding organizational attachment of foreign-born faculty at a U.S. research university in the Midwest. The identified themes addressed the following research questions proposed for this study:

1. How do foreign-born faculty express attachment to their employing institution?
2. What personal factors may promote/impair foreign-born faculty's organizational attachment?
3. What institutional factors may promote/impair foreign-born faculty's organizational attachment?

The findings of this study are subject to the characteristics of the organization in which this research was conducted. Each of the themes discussed represents the perspectives of the participants along certain dimensions of how they feel attached to their employing organization. The themes are organized into three sections. The first section articulates how foreign-born faculty express attachment to their organization; the second section identifies personal factors that impact the participants' organizational attachment; and the third section reports institutional factors found to have influence over participants' organizational attachment. The thematic findings are: (a) low and passive organizational attachment: fish in a pond; (b) acculturation: no signpost in the sea; (c) gender: a matter that matters; (d) organizational tenure/career stage: a difference that makes a difference; (e) foreign-born faculty's attitude toward diversity: indifference for the different; (f) national culture: something that keeps them away; (g) unit demographic

composition: the more the better; (h) organizational culture: subtle perceptions; (i) perceived organizational support: cultural diversity undervalued; (j) perceived external prestige: a pride in membership; and (k) perceived effectiveness of institutional initiatives: mixed feelings.

Low and Passive Organizational Attachment: Fish in a Pond

One of the primary purposes of this dissertation is to examine how the participants demonstrated attachment to their current employing organization.

Organizational attachment was first explored with the participants in a general manner and then further examined with specific interview questions regarding four dimensions of the construct: job satisfaction, organizational commitment, organizational identification, and intent to leave. Based on the interview data collected, I conclude that the participants demonstrate low and passive organizational attachment to the university.

When asked in a general manner, almost every participant interviewed was positive that they felt emotionally attached to the university they worked for to a high degree. However, when presented with specific questions regarding each dimension of organizational attachment, participants provided conflicting answers.

In terms of job satisfaction, many participants expressed general job satisfaction. However, they did not think the work environment was supportive and some participants reported occasional attritions and biases when interacting with their supervisors and colleagues. When asked whether he felt accepted by his colleagues, one participant (an assistant professor) was very positive and then confessed that he often kept to himself given the nature and priority of his job was to research heavily on his own. Such a pattern

was found in many of the participants, especially those at the entry stage of their careers.

A junior faculty member reported,

[I am] . . . basically satisfied with my peer relations. . . . Well, [I do] not really [think I am perceived different than others], as we have so many foreign-born faculty in our department. I never participated in any activities outside of my department. But here foreign-born is no longer a term for minority. . . . I don't know if I am integrated... I never think about this. I don't socialize a lot with them [colleagues]. At least, I never feel I am isolated, but of course, I never feel I am part of them. It is very simple. You work on your own, you meet and say "hello", and that's it!

Most participants indicated that they did not perceive salary inequity for foreign-born faculty. "So long as you do your job [salary will not be an issue]!" as was summarized by a participant. Of the 25 participants, 19 stated they never perceived any bias against foreign-born faculty in terms of advancement in academic rank. However, a fair number of the participants claimed they never thought about getting into administrative ranks due to their inadequate knowledge about institutional operations and lack of channels to establish good "connections" with the administrative leaders. One participant said,

We may be disadvantaged [in the review process], but I don't think we are biased due to our international background. . . . In some respects, we are just not as good as they [U.S.-born colleagues] are. But we are good at research. Research expertise is what they are looking for. So I don't think we are biased.

However, another participant reported otherwise,

It is a political game. It is absolutely not a fair game. If you play it [the game] well . . . I mean you should know who always has the power and you'd better always behave . . . I don't think international faculty could easily win the game. You make extra efforts. Sometimes, you don't know what is going on behind [the scenes] . . . You should be very close to them [people with power]. Otherwise, you'll be out. It looks like you are enjoying the same thing as they [U.S. colleagues] do. But that's the case when you don't compete [with them].

Most participants in this study, tenured or on the tenure track throughout the interviews, reiterated how hard they worked to gain acceptance and recognition from their colleagues. They were proud of their academic accomplishments. They, very frequently, referred to their publications and labs during conversations. In sharp contrast, few of the participants mentioned their interactions with the students or how the students rated their teaching. One of the participants was promoted to a center directorship because of his excellence in research and grant generation. He took great pride in what he had achieved:

I think our university provides me with very good work environment. . . . Well, I can concentrate on my own work and I get rewarded because of my performance. There is plenty of academic freedom; it is good for those who love research. Look, we have three foreign-born faculty in my unit and all of them excel in research. I can't recall any foreign-born faculty here who don't get tenured. They work extremely hard. I read an article the other day saying that Asian-born faculty earn the highest salaries in research universities. . . . Salary is related to performance, but not necessarily advancement. Management is a big weakness for those who

were brought up in a foreign culture. Take me as an example. I am much better at research instead of management. I am learning to manage; but communication is always the problem. . . . I mean you [foreign-born] grew up [in] and were shaped by another culture. For example, in XX [his home culture], we were taught in school and university that we need to be highly specialized to compete in research. And we have different pedagogy in our classroom where listening instead of talking is greatly valued. I always feel incompetent when giving public speeches. I can feel the ... [glass ceiling]. Yes, that is the word I am seeking. But I am still trying. But I know I am much better at research, so I will keep focused on [research] work. It is good that it does not take too much of my time to manage such a small center. Even so, sometimes I feel it is a headache when I have to allocate some time to interacting with people. That is why I rely so much on my secretary [laughs, pointing to the white female secretary in the other room]. She does a lot for me.

Participants spoke highly of their commitment to the organization, as indicated by their productivity. They emphasized how hard they worked towards achieving the organizational goals even though many of them didn't care about operations and administrative activities at the institution. Some participants claimed that they always identified themselves with their institution and valued their membership. Only a small number, five, of the participants, told me that they cared about the well-being of the organization. I noticed that all the five participants were tenured professors who had been with the organization for over ten years. Two of them said they gave suggestions to

their department chair but they did not think they would do the same thing for institutional leaders. A junior faculty member said,

This university is not different from any others. . . . You see the ladder there. All you need to do is climb up. It is same everywhere. I choose to work here because it offered me a job with a good pay. I mean I choose the job, not THE university. I don't see anything special about it. . . . No, I don't feel it's like a family. . . . I don't think much about that [institutional operations and prospects]. I am just an employee here, working for a living.

His feeling was shared by another participant,

I talk about this university with others, on different occasions, as this is my work place. I don't care if they [others] criticize or praise the university. I don't use either "we" or "they". I say "the university" or XX [the name of the university]. I say "it" [laughs].

One participant, who had been working at the university for over 30 years, said, "That [institutional operations and prospects] is beyond my knowledge and responsibility." In addition, based on their professional curricular vitae and self-reports of their work load, I found most foreign-born faculty in the junior ranks and some of those tenured exhibited very low involvement in non-academic activities.

Discussing the intent to leave was a very sensitive interview topic. Many participants laughed to avoid an answer. Many hesitated when asked about their intent to quit the organization if given more extrinsic incentives (e.g. more research funding and higher salaries). When I persisted, most of them came up with affirmative answers attributed to reasons such as their family and tenure period. However, none of the

participants indicated they would stay because the institution valued cultural diversity. A female participant gave a metaphor: “We are like fish in a pond. We make a living in the water, clear or not. There is no escape. So long as there is enough supply to survive, we stay . . . until we see a better place to make a living.”

Based on the theoretical framework in Chapter Two, I designed the interview protocol with questions concerning factors that have been identified as having an impact on employees’ organizational attachment and explored new factors that may impact foreign-born faculty from another culture. Those identified factors were found to affect foreign-born faculty just as they do for organizational members in general. Meanwhile, several new influential factors emerged from the data of this study of foreign-born faculty’s organizational attachment. These factors are presented at two different levels, individual and institutional.

Individual Factors

This section addresses individual factors that emerged from the interview data. These factors were found to impact foreign-born faculty’s organizational attachment at the investigated institution. As suggested in prior literature, organizational tenure/career stage and national culture exhibited an influence on the participants’ attachment to their employing institution. In addition, this study found that foreign-born faculty’s organizational attachment was affected by their acculturation experiences, gender, and their attitude towards diversity.

Acculturation: No Signpost in the Sea

In studying the impact of participants’ acculturation in the new culture they chose to work in, I first inquired about participants’ general perceptions of their acculturation

process, strategies, and outcomes. This topic was further investigated through specific questions concerning their usage of English as a second language, information resources, personal ties to their country of origin, length of U.S. residency, cultural identity, psychological well-being, and social relations. The self-report data were gained from open-ended interview questions.

Overall, participants in this study held that acculturation is a long journey full of cultural clashes, stresses, and even sacrifices. One of them reflected with a nostalgic metaphor,

It is like a journey across the sea. It is foggy and you know you need to survive, as there is no way back. You are in the middle of nowhere. You are expected to succeed, with no way to turn back. You ask me how I feel about this? I tell you I feel lost. Am I assimilated? I might be, when I retire. I mean that takes too much time and you never know what else it takes. Or it may take forever. It is like the horizon. You see it, but it is an illusion, a fantasy. How can you remove your history? It is IN you. . . . If it is gone, you are gone with it. . . . No, you'll never know how you are acculturated. When they give you smiles, you'll think, "Look, I am so well accepted." They can also make you feel insignificant, you are always something that can be replaced at any time, you don't know what your value to the department is, and you don't work well.

Eight of the participants in this study were born in countries where English is used either as a first or official language. They were from the U.K., Canada, and India. Participants from the U.K. and Canada were excluded from interview questions about speaking English. Among those for whom English is a second language and was acquired

through their school education instead of daily interactions, a very good number of participants claimed they felt more comfortable using their native language, especially on informal occasions. Some Chinese-born faculty members even asked to have the interviews conducted in Chinese, as they thought they could more be at ease and speak better for themselves in their native language. I also observed that some participants used their home language for emotional expressions, sometimes even without knowing it. A Chinese scholar, who has resided in the U.S. for about 20 years, exclaimed,

Of course I feel more comfortable using Chinese. I speak Chinese in dreams [laughs]. My wife and I quarreled in Chinese [laughs]. There were times that I got really tired of using English. I was thinking: when is there an end to this? You see, it is not that you can't use it [English]. You have to watch your tongue [when using it]. Grammar, the right words, etc. And you have to think what is proper to say. This is not a fair game [laughs]. You can never speak as well as they [domestic faculty] do. They were born with this [English].

Another participant, a junior faculty member said,

So I worked hard on my research. This is the only, or the quickest way to achieve excellence. You don't have to say much when you do research. Yes, you have to present research, but that is something you are so familiar with. It's not like daily conversations. I don't fear formal occasions, as people say the same thing over and over again. But on informal occasions, you have to make people interested in what you are talking about. Every time I come across colleagues in the corridor or in the elevator, I feel that I am like in a trap. You have to say something, don't you? I guess my colleagues would take me as a cold face, as I seldom chat with

them. I pretend to be busy with work when someone passes by my door, but it is not that I don't like them. I just don't know how to begin a conversation and keep it going. It is easier for me to communicate with Chinese people. Lucky me, I have many Chinese colleagues around. Yes, I wish for more!

Another junior faculty member shared an incident that he regretted for a long time,

I once received an email, saying a professor in our department had just lost his parents in a car accident. I felt so sad for him. I felt I needed to send him something to comfort him. I tried to compose an email but I just did not know what to say. In XXX [his home country], we would just say: "Don't be sad!" I was figuring this might sound weird to them [colleagues]. How could you not be sad when losing parents? I did not try to find out. I feared they would laugh at me. I just ended up not sending the email. I went to the supermarket and bought a card, and I just signed my name to it.

It was noticeable that proficiency in English as a language did not equal a high degree of acculturation, as indicated by one Indian-born faculty,

Yes, I feel comfortable using English at any time. I began speaking English since my secondary school days. I don't have any trouble speaking English. But if you really want me to choose between English and XXX [his home language], I prefer the latter. I feel safe. Maybe it is not about the language, it is about who you are speaking to.

Twelve of the participants reported their English proficiency was a major barrier when socializing with their colleagues. "Sometimes you are not saying what you really want to say." An associate professor laughed with bitterness, "but thank God you don't

have to do it [talking to colleagues] every day... It hurts when you have to have them repeat until you understand.” Such a social barrier was reported by the participants to be something that impaired their job satisfaction.

Most participants indicated that they had gotten into a habit of reading local and national newspapers to obtain information. Many of them paid close attention to what was happening worldwide, especially in their home countries. A junior faculty member confessed,

I am well exposed to media here. I mean it is an important part of my life.

Everyone is connected to one another. Thanks to information technology today, the world is getting smaller. I also read on the internet about news in XXX [his home country], not only out of interest, but it’s something emotional. And of course I read faster in XXX [his home language]. . . . [I don’t watch TV] for entertainment, but only for news. For entertainment, I turn to those programs in XXX [his home language]. I watch TV mostly to keep myself updated with what is happening around here and partly to learn English.

However, many participants admitted that they lack informal channels of information,

I rarely chat with my colleagues. I don’t feel comfortable chatting a lot to know a little. If something happens, it will just appear in the newsletter. I might always be the last one to know, but anyway, the important things will arrive eventually.

This associate professor received tenure five years ago. He also admitted that the lack of informal channels of information had negative impacts on his relations with his colleagues, “They have no interest talking to you, as they know you have nothing to tell. But that is no problem for my job.”

Open-ended questions were also asked to find out how participants felt about their private and professional ties to their home country. The data suggested mixed findings on the impact of this factor on participants' organizational attachment. A junior faculty member felt caught between his home culture and the U.S. culture. He said cultural difference between his home country and the United States had made it impossible to match the two,

You choose to work here, then you should forget about there. It is too hard for you to manage this [two cultures]. I mean, especially [when] it has something to do with your life, and career, especially [that] it is always the case that people think differently here and there. Oh, I have a handful of experiences. I bet every one, who wants to ride between, has numerous lessons. It is just mission impossible. You can never please both [cultures].

Another interviewee, who was a distinguished professor famous for conducting cross-national work and research, held opposite views. He asserted that it was due to his strong ties to his home country that he could earn his prestige in the institution,

It helps with your career, as you can do better than others [by working internationally]. I have very good relations with professionals and officials in XXX [his home country]. They fund some of my projects. ... Of course the university values that: you bring in . . . a lot [of money] with those [international efforts]. That counts a lot here! You won't be neglected if you are internationally well-known. There is a saying in my home country, to the effect: flowers inside the wall have their scent outside the wall.

When I read this professor's vita, I found a long list of collaborative projects oriented towards the interests of his home country. A good proportion of his grants also came from that area. However, this professor did not only focus on issues in his home country but also issues set in the context of the United States. He admitted that his connections with his home country were greatly valued by the institution and this promoted his emotional attachment to his work place.

As I selected participants purposefully by their organizational tenure and career stage, the participants had varied years of U.S. residency. Many of the participants, though, indicated their lack of knowledge of American culture despite the length of their residency. Such a deficit of cultural knowledge impaired their relationship with colleagues. A male associate professor said,

I came to this country 15 years ago. I still feel that I am an outsider here. I mean I am very talkative when it is about my research areas. It is on informal occasions that I feel nervous and awkward. I am not one who always approaches others. I'd rather wait till someone comes to me and talks. You know, there may be one or two who just greet me and ask some superficial questions, and sometimes some minor talks about food... but then they will get together [and] talk about something I don't know a lot about. For example, football. You know how passionate they are about sports. But me, I don't have time for this, and of course, I can't say anything. They laugh; when they laugh, I just stand there, holding a glass, smiling, no idea what they are laughing about. That is not a rare case. I was determined that I should participate and learn about what they [Americans] are

interested in. But it takes too much time and I don't know if this is worthwhile. I just got tenure. Maybe it is time now.

Most foreign-born faculty came to the United States for advanced degrees and they spent much of their time in labs and libraries. They either show no interest or have no access to resources in local community lives and other cultural values. Such cultural knowledge deficits exhibited negative impact on their teaching and socializing experiences of participants. A junior faculty said,

I don't like teaching at all, especially undergraduate courses. You have to deal with the young guys who show no manners in class. In XX [his home country], students dare not. They have to be obedient. Otherwise, they fail the class [laughs]. I am not good at teaching. I prefer research, where you don't have to deal with real people. You don't have to figure out why they laugh at you while you do nothing. Sometimes, they say something in class, and I don't know what they talk about.

This study found that participants' acculturation should not be indicated by length of residency in the U.S., but with their acceptance and knowledge of their new culture in the U.S.

I asked participants to identify themselves in terms of cultural orientations. Many of the participants expressed that their home culture had a profound influence on their attitude and behaviors. As it was explained by a Muslim woman professor who had resided in the U.S. for almost 20 years,

It is there, even you don't think about it. It is deeply rooted. You let it go when it makes no trouble. Once there is a clash between the two [home cultural values

and U.S. cultural values], you know where you stand. I wear *hijab* [veil] on campus. I know some of my colleagues are curious about this. They may think, 'Look, you are a professor now. Do you still want to show your subservience to men?' This may have resulted in some distance between me and my colleagues. They think by appearance I am already different from them. [They assume] I am very conservative, a difficult one to deal with. But I am proud of this, of my Islamic identity, even after 9-11 [laughs].

An Indian faculty mentioned an unhappy event due to his preference for Indian food, I think it is too hard for me to be Americanized. I can't live on American food. I cook Indian food every day and bring it over for lunch and dinner. But once there was a time when my lunch was still in the microwave, I overheard someone in the lunch room say, "This stinks!" I mean that hurts a lot. Sometimes their food smells too.

A Chinese woman professor reported, People have to learn each other, culturally. I remember in my second year here, my dean came to my office room and said a lot of good things about my work. I listened with a smile until he finished. I SAID 'thank you'. And I thought that was the end of the conversation. He just stood there, [seemingly] waiting for me to say something else. But I don't know what else to say. In China, we would definitely say, 'Oh, you over-praised me. I should work harder. I don't deserve it...' But I knew it was not good to say this at that time. We just remained silent for a long, long time, until he took off. After that, he never praised me again! [laughs] . . . In China, people would know that I appreciated his encouragement and recognition.

No need to say it out loud. If you say it out loud, [it] seems that you are polishing an apple.

Such incidents of cultural clashes were reported by many participants. Meanwhile, these participants also expressed a preference to their home culture and their confusions and anxiety when there was a confrontation with the U.S. culture at their work place.

Participants were asked about their interpersonal network composition to find out proportions of their friends from different cultural backgrounds. I found that friends with similar cultural background constituted a major proportion of the participants' social relations. A junior faculty member reported,

I go to a XXX [of his home culture] Church, where we meet and worship together. Most of my friends are from that church. We care about each other. It is a home away from home [smiles]. Yes, it gives me a sense of home. I feel very comfortable and safe there. ... I also have American friends, but most of them are just colleagues and our connections are loose. ... [Because] it is easy to understand [people with similar background]. You know what is right, what is wrong. You don't have to explain too much when you are with your own people.

A female faculty married to a U.S.-born white man reported that her social relations mostly consisted of white people. She also perceived herself as well assimilated into American culture,

It was not a happy process, though. I should thank my husband for this [assimilation]. I feel at home here. I don't have home anywhere else. But they [colleagues] still take me as international, because of my accent, maybe, and my names. I didn't change my name after marriage. ... I think I am more assimilated

than other foreign-borns. I am not suffering as they are, such as identities, those sorts of things. But you can't expect yourself to be totally acculturated. You can't shake off everything. They [home cultural traces] have been part of you.

Difficulties in the process of acculturation were reported by the participants in this study. Their emotional and behavioral responses to these difficulties greatly interrupted their social process at their work place and thus impaired their organizational attachment.

Gender: A Matter that Matters

The interview data revealed female foreign-born faculty members were even more disadvantaged due to gender biases at their work place. The participants indicated that gender sometimes put much more pressure on their work as compared to their international background.

There were altogether eight female professors in this study of foreign-born faculty's organizational attachment. Of the eight women interviewees, all of them indicated that their gender further disadvantaged their work experience. Passive attachment is demonstrated through one woman professor's account of her experience:

You are international, AND a WOMAN. So you are not playing with them. Do you ever hear about the "Old White Boy's Club"? No matter where you are from, you are out. I have been here for almost 30 years, I've seen too much of this. . . . I've been staying here even though it is not so good. It is not that it is so bad that I want to leave it. This institution is not alone. Quitting does not solve the problem. People just don't care [about women]. There is no ideal place. I do feel I belong to this institution. I value my membership. This does not cover problems however.

Even women leaders prejudice against women. Why? They think you are not as competent as men.

The theme is obvious, based on the interview data, that gender emerged as a more salient role than the participants' international background in affecting their organizational attachment in this study.

Organizational Tenure/Career Stage: A Difference that Makes a Difference

In this study, I found organizational tenure and career stage have a great impact on organizational attachment of foreign-born faculty. Many senior participants said they would choose to stay regardless of extrinsic factors. These participants mentioned they felt likely to stay with the institution as their family had settled down here and they had been used to the life here,

I would stay. Family is a major reason. But I don't feel like I would love to move to another city. I know this city so well. I know this university so well. It is part of my life: this is the 23rd year that I've been working here. . . . Well, sometimes [I feel I am part of the university]. But definitely it is part of me [laughs]. I grew OLD here... Oh, yeah, sure [I feel obligated to stay]!

However, younger professors, on their tenure track, indicated a hesitation to leaving when thinking about the costs of leaving and alternative employment opportunities, as stated by an assistant professor in mathematics who graduated from an Ivy League institution,

No, I will think about leaving only when I am assured of a better prospect at another institution. I don't want to spend time adjusting to a new job [institution]. It takes too long. And I don't think I could get a better job. . . . If I could? If I

were in finance or business, I might probably think about this. Yes, salary is what I am concerned about. And tenure, too. After that, I can't say. That depends on whether I could get better offers.

Affective commitment and normative commitment were only found in tenured faculty who have been working for the institution for over ten years, whereas continuance commitment were more reported by junior faculty members.

Foreign-Born Faculty's Attitude toward Diversity: Indifference for the Different

Unexpectedly, most participants expressed a strong wish not to be regarded or treated in a different manner than their U.S-born colleagues, as they believed they could do as well as their colleagues. Special accommodations targeted at foreign-born faculty, as some participants held firmly, would attract even more biases and other negative feelings from their colleagues.

Despite the participants' nationality, a theme of attempting to minimize their foreign identity at their work place was expressed. A distinguished professor claimed, "I don't think they view us differently. We are producing [just as well] as they do [are]; sometimes even better." The participants all stressed it was their diligence and excellent work that won them recognitions. An associate professor detailed,

It is a fair play. The rules are simple. You take it or leave it. Once you are here, it is a race. The winner takes everything. Don't think about where you were born, whether you are different, how they look at you. . . . That's nothing. All you need to do is survive! It is not that whether others accept you. You make them accept, with your achievement. They will never reject a person with one-million-dollar

research fund. They never reject someone who developed a famous model. Just do your job. That is all about it. This is the case everywhere. No exceptions.

Even though some foreign-born faculty members confirmed that they were not regarded as different from their colleagues, these faculty members also expressed a wish not to be regarded as being different. They emphasized that they could do as well as others, though they were brought up in another culture and had gone through difficulties in adjusting to life in the U.S. They reiterated that they did not need institutional accommodations especially those targeting at foreign-born faculty.

Everything is good enough. Recalling my work experience in XX [his home country], I had to spend so much time dealing with people. It is so good that research alone speaks well for your performance here. Special accommodations will harm their recognitions of our abilities. They will say, 'Look, we invested so much for them; it is not a fair game.' Or they may look down upon us, even exclude us if resource supplies are not equal. We don't need that at all. Look how well the foreign-born faculty members in my unit are doing right now. They know what they have to and they can do it. We are just doing as well as they are doing.

As faculty members, the participants did not think there had been any differentiated policies or rules for recruitment and evaluation. They were fully aware that such differentiation was against the law. However, they did not agree that this meant equal opportunities for them to advance to a managerial position. When it came to advancement and managerial roles, they complained about lack of opportunities and training. Among the participants, two were distinguished professors who had their own lab/center. Both of them admitted that they needed further development in management

skills. They also noticed that the institution was providing development programs like workshops, in leadership, but these programs were oriented for all employees. “You never start from the same line,” one of them commented, “But if you were put ahead of others, you’ll be the target of everyone.”

National Culture: Something that Keeps them Away

Before collecting data for this study, I had expected that faculty born in countries that were very close to the United States in terms of cultural distance, such as the U.K. and Canada, would express higher levels of organizational attachment, as they were assumed to share some common cultural traits with their U.S.-born colleagues. Interviews with the two participants from Canada revealed that they rarely had any negative social or professional experiences at the investigated institution and they were very positive that their international background would not reduce their feeling of belonging to the institution. As explained by one of them,

I don’t feel any difference, I mean, [between] here and Canada, especially in terms of working at universities. I was an instructor and I taught at two universities in Canada. Institutional cultures might be somewhat different, but I don’t think it is because of my international identity. ... I feel very satisfied with how I am treated here. ... Yes, I feel I belong. I have very good relationship with my colleagues. We get along.

When I was interviewing the two foreign-born faculty members from the U.K., however, I heard stories different from their Canadian counterparts. A senior, British male professor in social sciences who came to the United States about 20 years ago.

I came here when green cards were really green. It was not easy for me to feel at home here. . . . I know they feel funny when I speak with accent. Anything different, they feel it. . . . I have our national character . . . I would say acculturation is very important. You have to be like them. . . . I don't think I am assimilated. It is not easy. I changed in some way, but I know I value my old stuff. I don't care how they look at me. . . . I had some unhappy experience when dealing with them, but not much. Why do I choose to stay? Because it is not bad enough [laughs].

Among the other participants, they all reported that their different national cultures had been a barrier to feeling as attached to the institution as their colleagues did. A Colombian professor said in a sad tone,

I am sure I am in the normal line. I always feel that I should get away from them; otherwise, I will be used. . . . I am used, this is how I feel. I work and they earn. . . . collaboration is the name they give to it. At least you survive because you can still produce. They come to you as they know you will keep silent when you see something unfair. . . . I choose to . . . or I have to . . . I bet you don't want to step into it because politically you are not able to handle that. You have to hang on with them . . . they have resources.

It was noticeable that a full professor looked at this issue from a different angle,

It makes sense if you were treated differently. It is the rule of the game. The fittest survive. But you should believe you need something different. Being different can be good. But you should not compete with them. You can be good at something

else. If it makes them feel safe; then you are safe and sound. They will give you your share.

It was suggested by most participants that the distance between cultures had been a separating line between them and their U.S.-born colleagues. Many foreign-born faculty members considered such distance between cultures was unconquerable as their home culture was “deeply engraved.”

Institutional Factors

Existing literature has identified that organizational demography, organizational culture, perceived organizational support, and perceived external prestige impact employees’ organizational attachment. This study found that these factors also influenced foreign-born faculty’s organizational attachment. Perceived effectiveness of institutional initiatives was also identified as affecting how foreign-born faculty feel attached to their employing institution.

Unit Demographic Composition: The More, the Better

The samples were selected across colleges/departments with different representation of foreign-born faculty. The foreign-born faculty participants were concentrated in science, technologies, engineering, and mathematics (STEM) disciplines and accounted for a relatively small percentage in the social sciences and humanities. Taking into account the number of foreign-born faculty members, this study found the demographic composition in the working unit affects organizational attachment of the investigated foreign-born faculty. As it is claimed by a junior faculty in a STEM field,

I am NO different. If I am, so many are. Over half . . . or at least half of the faculty are from foreign countries. Our dean is a foreign-born, too. I don’t even

feel I am working in the U.S. except that most of your students are white... [laughs]. My international background won't affect anything at my work. My accent might [laughs]. I don't have any pressure. So many of my foreign-born colleagues, they don't speak as well as I do... [laughs].

The response was different when I interviewed an associate professor in social sciences. She said emotionally,

I am one of the only two foreign-born [faculty members] in our department. I have to be very careful. I try to get away from anything political. Yes, sometimes I feel tired from this. You certainly feel you are excluded from some things. I try to be sociable, but it is only on a superficial level. The distance is always there.

They are polite because they know you are not a threat to their interest . . .

because you are marginal. It makes them feel safe, and it makes me feel safe, too.

As it was reported by these two participants, different representations of foreign-born faculty at their work places accounted for the difference in their social experiences. Unit demographic composition plays a role in how participants are satisfied with their work environment and peer relations.

Organizational Culture: Subtle Perceptions

Organizational culture was reported to affect the participants' organizational attachment in this study. Many participants said they perceived their international background as a disadvantage in their professional experiences, even though in terms of formal structure and policy they were just treated equally and fairly. However, a chilly climate could be felt by the participating foreign-born faculty as shown in their fear of receiving favorable policies. They insisted that "it [favorable policy] may attract hostility

from others.” “We don’t want to be different!” This was a strong statement from the participants in this study.

Most foreign-born faculty members in this study were research-oriented. Given the type of the institution in this study is classified as a research I university, the reward structure is very favorable for the faculty members who are productive in terms of research. This provided a sense of security for the foreign-born faculty in this study. An associate professor expressed his concern about receiving favorable policies,

We don’t want to be treated with preferable policies. We don’t need that. You know why? Because we know we have to work hard to earn respect. And this is what we do. If you don’t work hard enough, you’ll be out, and you’d better be out. They [colleagues] fear us about this. You are from outside. How can you get my stuff? They will rise to defend their own interest. Foreign-born will be the target, not the minorities, because you [foreign-born] faculty lack voice, lack power, lack connections, lack confidence. The only thing you are good at is to be productive. We just want a peaceful life. So please forget that we are different.

This concern was echoed in a woman professor, who exclaimed emotionally,

It is not stated, but you always feel it. You’d better behave to make yourself safe. Everywhere is a minefield. Don’t touch it. It explodes. No one will stand out to protect you. They will say, “Hey, you! What are you doing here?” No, they won’t be saying this. They will . . . [be] very defensive. I know where I am and who I am. I am smart enough to keep away. I am not expecting the good things. But anything bad won’t never come to me. . . . Because I am INVISIBLE!

The prevalent sense of insecurity among foreign-born faculty was a direct reflection of their perceptions of the organizational culture. The participants stated that being productive, but not assertive or aggressive at their work place, would provide a peaceful work environment for themselves.

Perceived Organizational Support: Cultural Diversity Undervalued

Some participants in the current study reported sporadic organizational support to promote the value of their diverse cultural resources at the institution. These participants were mostly from departments of social sciences. A participant who worked at an area studies center described,

I think this institution values foreign-born faculty's contribution of bringing in different cultures onto the campus. I participated in some seminars last semester. I talked about . . . issues in my home country. They [the seminar organizers] got some small grants for these activities, but I believe not much. . . . The participation was unsatisfactory. We prepared food and beverage 'cause it was lunch time, but only five or six graduate students were there. No, I didn't see any faculty members or staff. . . . I mean it was good to have these seminars . . . with funding from the university, but we should do more than that. Low participation is always discouraging.

Participants were convinced that their academic achievement was valued by the institution, but not their distinct cultural backgrounds. A junior faculty in social sciences said,

. . . I thought about weaving something of XX [her home culture] into my teaching and research. But you know, that is not in the mainstream. Students may

show some interest, but they will get bored if you keep telling about your culture. They will think you are from another planet. Who will read this? Who is interested? People will say, 'See, she can't do what WE can. Do you think I can still get this job at this big institution by doing that?' Sometimes I feel my heart is calling me to do something, but I'd rather put it off 'til I get tenured.

An associate professor, also in social sciences expressed dissatisfaction with the enrollment when she taught an elective course where she cited issues and cases in her home country. She was known for her research in her home country. But she admitted that she had to do some U.S.-based research to be visible to her colleagues. "You've got to have something in common with them [U.S. colleagues]," she added. This was also echoed by a center director,

[a deep sigh] . . . Of course we [foreign-born faculty] are disadvantaged. You always have too much to learn. You have to work harder. But I don't think we should focus on this. We should turn this into something favorable. As we always say, pressure makes progress. We XX [people from his culture] are reluctant to change. We always accept [the situation] as it is. Don't mention you like it or dislike it. You need to survive. No negotiation. You have to move along.

Most foreign-born faculty members in STEM disciplines said they did not perceive any institutional support on campus to celebrate their cultural diversity, except for some international academic exchanges. A senior professor said,

The institution encourages international activities. Top leaders welcome those. They [the administration] understand the importance of interacting with the world.

They sponsor faculty to reach out, which is good. But I think we [foreign-born faculty] can do more over here.

Participants agreed that their different cultural background should not only be taken as a disadvantage at their work place. Their cultural diversity should be fully appreciated and supported, which would contribute to their psychological attachment to the institution that values diversity in a true sense.

Perceived External Prestige: A Pride in Membership

Participants in this study were asked to indicate how the institution was evaluated in their professional communities. I also examined how the status of the institution would affect their organizational attachment. Foreign-born faculty in different disciplines rated the perceived external prestige of the organization differently. However, it was agreed that the visibility and success of the organization contribute, to a great extent, employees' organizational attachment. A junior professor's statement was typical among the participants,

It [the prestige this institution enjoys] confirms my decision in choosing this job and this organization. If the organization is valued by the peer professionals, I take pride in this and I feel glorified. I feel myself valued and respected because I belong to this organization. The more important your organization is, the more prestigious your organization is, the more opportunities you will have. They believe in your competence even without knowing you. You don't reject something like this.

Perceived Effectiveness of Institutional Initiatives: Mixed Feelings

The research university in this study, in the last 20 years, has been communicating efforts to promote values of diversity on campus. Administrative departments and offices have been established and focused on services for international communities. Diversity initiatives (i.e., policies and training programs) designed for international scholars, are great in numbers. However, despite the presence of these institutional efforts, the participants were not well aware of and/or had mixed feelings for such initiatives.

Participants claimed that they received emails and read posts about workshops and policies that aimed to support minority and international students and scholars. However, they showed negligence as they believed in futility of these institutional efforts. Such negligence was found in most junior faculty members, who were on the tenure track, had great pressure on their academic productivity. Many assistant professors did not answer any interview questions regarding institutional initiatives for international faculty. "I don't know and I don't care." A response given by one assistant professor was typical in this group.

I don't care at all; ...no one ever talked to me about that. How could I know? ...

No, I might have read some [flyers on the corridor wall] but they don't impress me much. I have no interest...and of course I don't have time. Well, maybe [there are emails]. But I just deleted them [emails] if there were any...if the topics were not related to my work. You see the papers in the room? Why do they do that [diversity initiatives]? I have no clue. I never thought about this. I am on tenure track. I can't be distracted too much.

A full professor perceived some changes on the campus in terms of institutional commitment to support faculty from diverse cultural background. However, he was not positive about the impact on individual faculty member's feelings and professional life.

Every year, there are welcome parties at the President's house. I am not sure if they are for foreign-born faculty, it might be [for] all minorities. There are some other activities; I think they are institution-wide. We have Asian-Pacific Graduate Student Association, I am not quite sure about the name, but we call it XXX [program name]. We have some offices on campus too. The one that I just read about is an advisory office giving minorities help when in trouble. They also provide counseling services. But I don't know how well they work. I don't know if anyone was there for help. I mean we know the office is there, but I don't think people [minorities] will go for help. I don't know; I am speaking for myself. I think we are pretty much treated same as them [majority]. I don't see anything different, especially in our department.

Some senior professors claimed that they were aware of the institutional initiatives and they showed cynical attitudes towards these initiatives. A professor criticized,

Those [initiatives] were just talk shows. They [administrative departments] need to do that to show they are working, but God knows how. Empty...no, they [initiatives] never come down to us. They will say, look, this is what we have. We value this and that. But nothing real shows up. They keep talking. No one listens. . . . They just want to look good.

It was suggested in the interviews that the proclaimed institutional diversity initiatives did not successfully improve the workplace climate for foreign-born faculty and they instead impaired foreign-born faculty's sense of belonging.

The thematic findings of research reveal foreign-born faculty's low and passive psychological and behavioral attachment to their employing institution. Individual and institutional factors were identified to have impact on foreign-born faculty's organizational attachment. The individual factors were acculturation, gender, organizational tenure/career stage, foreign-born faculty's attitude toward diversity, and national culture. The institutional factors included organizational culture, unit demographic compositions, perceived organizational support, perceived external prestige, and perceived effectiveness of institutional initiatives.

The findings of this study revealed professional experiences of foreign-born faculty at a research university with respect to their attachment to the organization. When referring to existing literature addressing faculty experience, we may find that some of the themes identified in this research may be shared beyond the group of foreign-born faculty. Junior faculty members faced cultural challenges in their socialization processes (e.g., Reynolds, 1992). Native-born women and minority faculty also reported subtle institutional discriminations inherent in their organizational life, mixed feelings for diversity initiatives, and perceived insufficiency of institutional support (e.g., Clark & Corcoran, 1996; Cole, 1979; Exum, 1983; Finkelstein, 1988; Mickelson & Oliver, 1996). In addition to the challenges posed for their peer colleagues, foreign-born faculty members have to address problems and expectations during their acculturation process

and make extra efforts to search for their place and manage their cultural and social identities in their organization.

Chapter 5

DISCUSSION

There were two major objectives of this study. The first was to increase the understanding of foreign-born faculty's professional experiences through their expression of attachment to their working place and the second was to identify influencing factors that could either increase or impair their organizational attachment. Based on the key findings discussed in the previous chapter, I concluded that foreign-born faculty members interviewed for this study generally demonstrated low and passive attachment to their employing institution. The influencing factors are presented in this last chapter in an emerging model of foreign-born faculty's organizational attachment. This model shows how factors at both institutional and individual levels were found to affect foreign-born faculty's organizational attachment. When describing the key findings of this study, I offer recommendations for institutional practices regarding recruitment, development and retention of foreign-born faculty, as well as implications for future research addressing organizational behavior of foreign-born faculty.

An Emerging Model of Foreign-Born Faculty's Organizational Attachment

The themes that emerged from the data collected address the proposed research questions with regards to influencing factors on foreign-born faculty's organizational attachment. This research confirmed factors identified in prior literature as impacting American employees also affected foreign-born faculty's organizational attachment. More importantly, this study also identified additional variables that need to be taken into consideration when examining this topic in the future. The newly identified factors in this

study (flagged), along with those suggested in prior literature, appeared to influence foreign-born faculty's organizational attachment as illustrated in Figure 2:

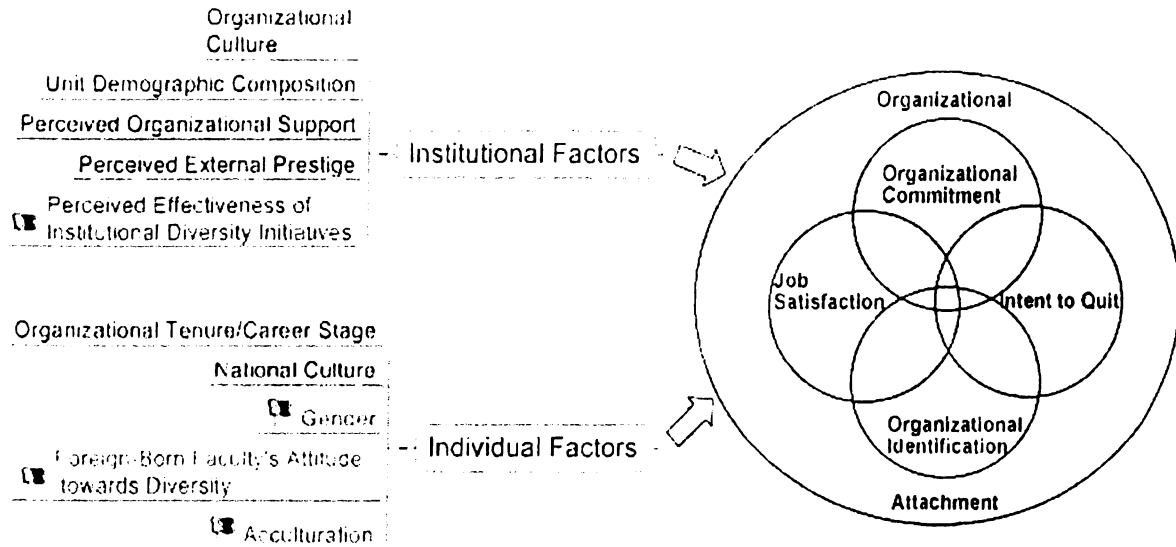


Figure 2 A new model of foreign-born faculty's organizational attachment

Institutional Factors

This study identified five institutional factors impacting foreign-born faculty's organizational attachment. They are organizational culture, unit demographic composition, perceived organizational support, perceived external prestige, and perceived effectiveness of institutional diversity initiatives.

It is important to identify and define the connection between faculty and institutional culture to better understand the role of diversity in higher education (Lee, 2002). In this present study of foreign-born faculty's organizational attachment, participants reported their perceptions of the organizational culture as being intolerant and unsupportive of cultural diversity. Subtle hostility was manifested through foreign-born faculty's accounts of their socialization process, experiences of cultural clashes, and attitudes toward diversity policies and programs at the investigated institution. As a

contextual variable, such an intolerant, unsupportive organizational culture inhibited foreign-born faculty's organizational attachment. This finding supports prior literature which demonstrated that a hostile culture and climate impair successful recruitment, tenure and promotion of faculty of color (de la Luz Reyes & Halcon, 1988; Johnsrud & Des Jarlais, 1994; Johnsrud & Sadao, 1998; Menges & Exum, 1983).

It was noted in both collected institutional documents and from participants' statements that there had been some structural changes in promoting diversity at the institution in recent years. Such changes were reflected with an increase in the representation of foreign-born faculty on campus. At the time of this study, some STEM colleges/departments had a percentage of foreign-born faculty exceeding 50 percent. I found that participants, who worked in units where foreign-born faculty accounted for over 35% of the whole faculty team, exhibited a higher level of organizational attachment, as compared to those working in colleges/departments with less representation of foreign-born faculty. Participants reported they perceived themselves "no different than others" in their immediate work environment where there was a higher percentage (over 35%) of people from various cultural backgrounds. This finding confirms prior research in the sense that increasing the structural diversity of an institution is an important initial step toward improving the climate for a diverse faculty team (Hurtado, Milem, Clayton-Pederson, & Allen, 1998; Ibarra, 2001; Pike & Kuh, 2006). This finding also agrees with Kanter's (1977) theory of tokenism. Kanter argued that increases in the number of diverse individuals would transform into better experiences for minorities in an organization, because the representation of minorities shapes the dynamics of social interaction and a high proportion of White employees

provides limited opportunities for interactions and learning experiences across race/ethnicity.

Participants in this study reported that foreign-born faculty's diverse cultural resources were undervalued at the institution. Seeing that their research productivity was highly prioritized and supported, participants believed that organizational support was essential to ensure diversity was embraced across campus populations. Institutional support and appreciation of foreign-born faculty's contribution to the cultural diversity on campus will greatly increase foreign-born faculty's organizational commitment by boosting their job satisfaction and organizational commitment. This finding agrees with Maertz, Griffeth, Campbell, and Allen's (2007) argument that perceived organizational support had significant effects on turnover mediated through normative commitment, as well as affective organizational commitment.

Participating foreign-born faculty reported how they would take into account the external prestige of the institution when making decisions about job choices and retention. Participants were convinced that an awareness of the status of the institution and their association with the institution would have an impact on their own personal social identity by conferring institutional qualities upon their professional life. This supports the prior literature in that the external image and reputation of an organization affected organizational identity (Maertz et al., 2007).

Perceived effectiveness of institutional initiatives was identified in this study as a new factor having a profound effect on how foreign-born faculty view the climate in their work environment. The participants' institution had designed and implemented a series of initiatives to promote diversity among campus communities over the last twenty years.

Participants in this study, however, did not show any appreciation for these initiatives as they failed to perceive any impacts on their campus life. Such a negative impression impaired their trust in the administration's values and commitment to diversity. This mistrust reduced their involvement in these initiatives and impaired their organizational commitment.

Individual Factors

This study identified five individual factors having impact on foreign-born faculty's organizational attachment. They are organizational tenure/career stage, national culture, gender, foreign-born faculty's attitude toward diversity, and acculturation.

It was found in this study that junior foreign-born faculty members reported the least organizational attachment as they perceived themselves as the most unwelcomed and vulnerable in the organization due primarily to cultural barriers and professional stressors. A sense of belonging could only be found in a few senior participants. The more senior faculty also expressed an increased normative organizational commitment. This could be partly explained by Becker's (1960) rationale for his theory of "side-bets." Side bets refer to an employees' investment of time, effort, or money into a particular job, which would be lost or devalued if the employee were to quit the job or organization (Becker, 1960). As employees accumulate side bets by remaining with an organization, they gain more benefits, which discourages them from seeking employment alternatives. The finding also supports the argument that an individual will have a feeling of increased inclusion with more information channels and more inter-personal interactions over the time of their employment with the organization (Stern, 1988; Van Maanen & Schein, 1979).

The findings suggested that national culture provided foreign-born faculty with deeply-rooted values and such values affected the participants' interpretations of their professional experiences and then affected their relationships with their colleagues and their employing institutions as well. The impact of one's home culture, however, as indicated by the participants, changed with their acculturation process and outcomes. Participants reported that if they felt reluctant or failed to give up their home culture, they would experience alienation or detachment at the work place. Many foreign-born faculty members in this study expressed appreciation for their home culture. They also reported uneasiness when juggling two different cultures and felt a clash between their own values and enacted institution values. Such uneasiness resulted in reduced organizational commitment and less job satisfaction. This theme suggests that there is a relationship between specific cultural values and certain aspects of attitude and behavior (Cateora & Graham, 1999).

Gender was identified in this study as a new factor that affected organizational attachment of foreign-born faculty. Women participants reported an intensified sense of alienation and more limited access to promotion and power than their male colleagues. This contradicted Marsden, Kalleberg, and Cook's (1993) finding that the correlates of organizational commitment were not appreciably different for men and women. Marsden et al. (1993) explained that if men displayed higher organizational commitment that was because men are more likely than women to hold jobs with commitment-enhancing features. Marsden et al. (1993) concluded that when job attributes, career variables, and family ties were simultaneously controlled, women tended to exhibit slightly greater organizational commitment.

Foreign-born faculty's attitude towards diversity is another new factor identified in this study that impacted their organizational attachment. Foreign-born faculty members at the investigated institution were found to hold an indifferent and cynical attitude towards diversity. The participants reported that this resulted from a psychological anxiety over their colleagues' fear of reverse discrimination and even hostility due to limited resources. In a sense, they did not believe that diversity was truly valued through their perceptions of their social interactions, the investigated institution's reward structures, and other management practices. Such a negative attitude directly impaired their organizational commitment and organizational identity due to incongruence of values. Organizational members' attitudes towards diversity are considered as one of the major components of organizational culture. Prior research indicated that race/ethnicity significantly explained differences in attitudes toward human resource policies fostering diversity held by faculty at a large public university in the U.S. (Kossek & Zonia, 1994). Koseek and Zonia (1994) indicated that whites' attitude were less positive regarding diversity programs than minorities. The minorities' attitudes toward diversity are neglected in relevant literature. As a reflection of perceived organizational culture, foreign-born faculty's attitude toward diversity is a good indicator to predict their psychological and behavioral attachment to their employing organization.

Acculturation of the participants was investigated through their language usage, information resources, ties to country of origin, length of U.S. residency, cultural identity, psychological well-being, and social relations. Except for length of U.S. residency, these different aspects of acculturation were reported by the participants to have impacted their organizational attachment. The participants' acculturation was reported to be a long and

difficult process. They expressed views of depression and anxiety as they felt the necessity and difficulties of being assimilated into American culture.

Research asserted that the relationship between language and culture is important in determining the degree of acculturation (e.g., Schumann, 1986). Participants' preference for using their native language in this study indicated their reluctance to adjust to the values of the majority group and a wish to maintain their own. According to Fishman (1989), choice and use of language for communication represents a code of identity. Fasold (1984) argued that choice of language and its use solidifies group identity by establishing and maintaining social networks. Milroy (1987) explained that this sense of social networks enables a group to resist linguistic and social pressure.

Participants of this study showed their resistance and anxiety of being assimilated into the dominant culture at the cost of abandoning their own. This theme supported the argument that the concept of "melting pot" is becoming a problematic ideology (Cox, 1994; Brislin, 1990; Pedersen, 1991). Pedersen (1991) pointed out that the "melting pot" metaphor made the mistake of overemphasizing universal common ground generalizations that are shared across cultures to the neglect of culturally unique perspectives" (p. 6). As a result of demographic shifts, racial and ethnic minorities are increasingly vocal in their demands for respect of their cultures and cultural identities (Thomas, 1996).

Implications

This study provides rich data to convey foreign-born faculty's experiences at a U.S. research university in terms of their attachment to their employing institution. The results have implications for administrative practices geared toward improving foreign-

born faculty's professional experiences. The findings also serve as the groundwork for future inquiry on this topic.

Implications for Practice

Based on the findings regarding foreign-born faculty's organizational attachment at a U.S. public research university, it is imperative for the administration to pay attention to the professional experiences of the neglected group and initiate organizational change to create a more inclusive environment. To achieve the goal of better recruitment, retention, and development of foreign-born faculty at U.S. research universities, several recommendations for administrative practices have emerged from the present study. The institution is recommended to: (a) create a critical mass, (b) embed an inclusive organizational culture, (c) have a change-oriented leadership, (d) identify and build cultural capital for foreign-born faculty, (e) take tailored diversity initiatives, and (f) make on-going measurement plans.

A Critical Mass

This study found participants from units with different percentages of foreign-born faculty had different perceptions of the climate of their immediate work place. According to Allport's (1954) theory of social contact, more opportunities for interaction with members of other social groups will reduce stereotypes. Kanter's (1977) work on tokenism and tipping points within groups argued that minor demographic shifts may not improve group climate and that negative social psychological processes, such as subtle discrimination, are minimized only when minority presentation reaches a critical mass. Kanter (1977) also suggested that tokenism occurs when minorities represent less than 15 percent of the group and only when the representation of minorities reaches 35 percent

could the social climate for diversity be improved. Different levels of administration, therefore, should pursue more representation of foreign-born faculty to improve the quality of their professional experiences and increase their organizational attachment at the institution.

An Inclusive Organizational Culture

The findings of this study suggested that increasing the number alone was not a guarantee of overall satisfaction or increased organizational attachment among foreign-born faculty. Participants indicated that preferable institutional policies could even trigger fears of reverse discrimination, group conflict, and resistance among the majority. Kossek, Markel, and McHugh (2003) suggested that even with a significant increase in the overall representation of white women and minorities, work group members in units with the greatest change did not necessarily agree nor hold positive perceptions regarding human resource changes.

In this study, the administration at the investigated institution had fully documented the mission, vision, organizational philosophy for promoting diversity. Language was not an issue and structured training programs were in place. Small grants were prepared and rewards and promotion criteria had been recommended to include international dimensions. The institution's value of diversity was physically manifested with visible artifacts. However, participating foreign-born faculty perceived gaps between espoused and enacted values, which significantly influenced their attitudes and organizational attachment. According to Kreitner and Kinicki (2007), espoused value represents aspirations that are explicitly communicated to employees from the management, who wish that those values will directly influence employee behavior.

However, aspirations do not automatically produce the desired behavior unless employees ascribe to organizational values based on their observations of people, events and their daily social interactions. As suggested by Kossek et al. (2003), the institutional administration should go beyond structural diversity and initiate profound organizational change in basic assumptions embedded among employees to create a more inclusive and tolerant work environment for foreign-born faculty.

Change-Oriented Leadership

This study revealed that even though the institutional administration's vision for a diversified campus was well communicated, profound change was yet to be perceived at individual level. A vision is important as it provides a sense of direction for the members and it also provides frames of reference for measuring what has been achieved. However, organizational goals are less likely to be achieved when employees perceive an inconsistency between the articulated values and practiced norms.

Cox (2001) suggested that leadership is the most essential element in the context of organizational change, as it is "behavior that establishes a direction or goal for change [a vision], provides a sense of urgency and importance for the vision, facilitates the motivation of others, and cultivates necessary conditions for achievement of the vision" (p.18). It was suggested by Dovidio, Gaetner, and Bachman (2001) that inherent in the leader's expectation is the notion that minority workers will assimilate into the organization's dominant culture. Participants in this study demonstrated resistance and anxiety over assimilation. They expressed their wish for a full appreciation of their own cultures. Therefore, to be change-oriented leaders, the administrators should examine their own basic assumptions about foreign-born faculty.

Madsen and Mabokela (2005) proposed that leaders need to understand cultural differences among groups and their implications for interpersonal and organizational outcomes and processes. Madsen and Mabokela (2003) suggested that leadership skills should include not only interpersonal skills in responding to issues of diversity but also a competent understanding and the importance of culture and group identities. When working with members of different ethnic backgrounds, leaders need to recognize cultural differences in their followers and understand how these differences may affect the ways in which relationships among followers are developed and negotiated (Madsen & Mabokela, 2005). Madsen and Mabokela (2005) further proposed four leadership skills to address intergroup differences:

1. A leader's capacity to understand his or her own cultural identity and its influence on interactions with others who are racially and ethnically different from him or her;
2. A leader's capacity to create an organizational direction that responds to how the school is perceived by its diverse constituency;
3. A leader's ability to implement a relational identity orientation in order to promote interpersonal cooperation and create dense and integrated networks among and between school participants; and
4. A leader's ability to establish an organizational structure that adapts to the changing needs of diverse students and teacher participants.

Cultural Capital for Foreign-Born Faculty

This study revealed that foreign-born faculty experienced nervousness and awkwardness when they perceived a lack of knowledge about the dominant culture. They

either chose to remain marginalized by focusing on professional activities (e.g. research) that demanded less cultural capital or make extra efforts to earn acceptability into areas controlled by the dominant group (for instance, a participant said he watched TV to be able to better communicate with colleagues but not for personal entertainment). The participants expressed anxiety and stress over their acculturation process. Meanwhile, they felt marginalized when their own cultural resources were undervalued at the institution. It is recommended that the administration should challenge their deep-embedded assumptions about diversity and help identify and build cultural capital for foreign-born faculty.

Ibarra (2001) identified several basic assumptions about diversity. Besides an overestimated significance of a critical mass of underrepresented populations, it is believed that underrepresented populations would eventually assimilate into the dominant culture and they were disadvantaged and in need of remediation as they lacked skills, experiences, and resources. The findings of this research challenged these assumptions. This research showed reluctance among foreign-born faculty to embrace assimilation as was evidenced by their refusal to receive institutional assistance even though they demonstrated a lack of access to the dominant group's cultural capital.

Cultural capital was first defined by Bourdieu (1979) as high cultural knowledge that ultimately redounds to the owner's financial and social advantage. Capital, as articulated by Bourdieu (1986), acts as a social relation within a system of exchange that includes the accumulated cultural knowledge, skill, education that could be converted to success, privileges, power, and status. Bourdieu's (1979) narrow definition of cultural capital of a society's elite class has been expanded by more recent research which argued

that cultural capital is not marked with a single exclusive standard any longer and refers to an accumulation of different forms of knowledge, skills and abilities that are valued in society (Bryson, 1996; Franklin, 2002; Peterson and Kern, 1996). For example, Franklin (2002) defined cultural capital as “the sense of group consciousness and collective identity” that serves as a resource “aimed at the advancement of an entire group” (p. 177).

In an inclusive and supportive work environment, the administration should not only facilitate foreign-born faculty in getting access to cultural capital of the dominant group by designing both structured and informal activities (e. g. mentor programs and social events with local communities), but also help foreign-born faculty identify and build up their own cultural capital by promoting foreign-born faculty’s pride in their home cultures and celebrate multiculturalism. Specifically, this can be achieved by recognizing, valuing, and rewarding integration of diversity into every fiber of organizational life in the academe, such as development of course content with multicultural knowledge. This would not only build up foreign-born faculty’s self-confidence but also communicate the value system of the institution. Meanwhile, it provides the majority group with more exposure to multiculturalism. The institution will benefit from making full use of rich and diverse cultures on campus and an increased organizational attachment among its foreign-born faculty.

Tailored Diversity Initiatives

To address the lack of participation and involvement of foreign-born faculty in institutional diversity initiatives as identified in this study, the institution should conduct systematic research to identify the reasons for the prevalent indifference toward diversity

among its members. Based on research findings, the administration should design and implement tailored diversity initiatives to attract and motivate foreign-born faculty by addressing their specific needs. The training team should be more culturally responsive and incorporate people of different cultural knowledge and backgrounds. The content of training should address concerns and problems in foreign-born faculty's professional lives. It is also recommended that the institution establish an easily accessible repository of culturally-appropriate resource materials and experiential programs. Benefits of knowing more about another culture should be communicated to every member of the campus community to identify and confront the stereotypes and myths that people have about those who are different from themselves.

On-Going Measurement Plans

Participants in this study reported they failed to realize how that institutional diversity initiatives had impacted their campus lives. This finding should serve as a reminder to the administration that on-going measurement plans should be made and implemented at different levels. The measurement plans may include tracking of the implementation process of diversity initiatives, collecting feedback from diverse populations, and updating impact data over time. Cox (2001) asserted that change must be data-driven. Accurate data are essential for understanding the experiences of diverse populations, diagnosing organization's climate for diversity, adjusting implementations of diversity initiatives, and encouraging faculty's enthusiasm in building a more inclusive campus. It is also suggested that when measuring progress it is vitally important to have a consistently effective communication plan that keeps people informed of action steps and the results achieved (Cox, 2001).

Implications for Research

The current study provides empirical evidence on foreign-born faculty's perceptions of their professional experiences at a U.S. research university through their expressions of attachment to the employing institution. In addition, the investigation helps identify institutional and individual factors that impact organizational attachment of the participants. Built on these, I propose four areas of opportunities for future research and inquiry. These areas are:

1. It is suggested to include U.S.-born faculty members and administrators in future studies of foreign-born faculty's organizational attachment.

By including U.S.-born faculty members, we could examine whether they perceive organizational culture and attachment differently than foreign-born faculty. This could provide us a better picture of the work environment and social process in higher education institutions.

2. Longitudinal studies are needed to further examine the impacts of diversity initiatives on foreign-born faculty.

This study only presents self-reports of the participants on how effectively they perceive the institutional diversity policies and programs are helping them with the quality of their experiences in the U.S. Due to the short time frame under investigation and the nature of the research methods, there may be some unidentified benefits of the diversity initiatives that were either neglected or misunderstood by the participants. The impact of such a huge institutional investment should be better studied. It may take longer for the effectiveness of policies and programs to be perceived and felt by targeted individual faculty

members. A longitudinal design that employs repeated measures over a length of time may come up with contradictory results as social and psychological research shows that as membership changes, interpersonal interactions, and performance over time can yield entirely new insights about work groups.

3. Future research may examine the experiences of foreign-born faculty in different institutional settings.

This research was set in a single research university with its own unique historic and institutional characteristics. The type of academic institution and traditions may play a significant role in shaping foreign-born faculty's organizational attachment, which could contribute more to the development of theories on foreign-born faculty's organizational behavior.

4. Large-scale quantitative studies of foreign-born faculty's organizational attachment are desired to test the proposed model that emerged from the findings of this study.

The exploratory nature and the scope of this study only allowed a small sample size. Cross-sectional, quantitative investigations with a larger sample size are necessary for the following purposes: (1) to measure the direction and strengths of the relationship between identified factors and foreign-born faculty's organizational attachment; and (2) to test the external validity of this study and produce more generalizable research results with implications for policy making.

Conclusion

This study is an initial step toward understanding foreign-born faculty's experiences in the U.S. higher education system through expressions of attachment to

their employing institution. The model proposed in this study may be incomplete and biased due to the small sample size and subjective interpretations. However, given the early stages of research on this topic, the findings that emerged provide a preliminary foundation for a better understanding of this long-neglected population in U.S. higher education institutions and a launching point for further inquiry into the psychological conditions and organizational behavior of foreign-born faculty. Organizational attachment, as a psychological and behavioral construct, is a result of interpersonal processes and group dynamics. This empirical foundation for future research suggests, in the context of diversity, that foreign-born faculty's organizational attachment is worthy of a closer examination as it relates to foreign-born faculty's work attitudes, behaviors, as well as performance. This research also reminds us of the importance of creating a tolerant, collegial, and inclusive organizational culture where foreign-born faculty may utilize their distinct cultural experiences as a form of capital to succeed in the U.S. academia. To achieve this, university administrations should be more culturally responsive and pay more attention to the impacts of diversity initiatives on campus.

APPENDIX A

Interview Protocol for Foreign-Born Faculty

Demographic Data:

Gender:

Years of Residence in the United States:

Years of Service with the Institution:

Home Country:

Unit Demography Composition:

Title:

In general, how do you feel attached to this institution?

Job Satisfaction:

1. How do you perceive the amount and fairness or equity of salary for foreign-born faculty at this institution?
2. How do you think about opportunities and fairness of promotions for foreign-born faculty at this institution?
3. Could you say something about your relationship with your supervisor?
4. Are you satisfied with your insurance, vacation, and other fringe benefits?
5. Could you describe how you are accommodated by the organization?
6. As a foreign-born faculty, how do you feel being respected, recognized, and appreciated?
7. How do you perceive policies, procedures, rules, or some other operating procedures regarding diversity at this institution?
8. Could you describe your relations with your colleagues?
9. How do you enjoy your work here? Do you feel stressed with your workload?
10. How do you feel the institution is providing opportunities for your professional development?
11. How do you think about you are communicated with information at this institution, both verbally and in writing? How do you learn about events on campus? Are you always aware of what is going on with the institution?

Organizational Commitment:

1. Do you feel hard to quit your job right now? Please explain.
2. Do you feel you are obligated to remain here? If so, why?
3. Do you feel enjoying your career and life here?
4. If you were given better pay and resources, do you consider leaving this institution?
5. Do you feel a strong sense of belonging to this institution?
6. Do you feel like "part of the family" here? Are you proud to be a member of this institution?
7. How do you feel this institution deserves your loyalty?

8. Could you say something about what this job at this institution means to you?
9. How are you concerned with the current operations of the organization to manage diversity?
10. How are you concerned with the prospects of this institution? Would you make extra efforts to help the institution to succeed?
11. Do you find that your values and the organization's values are very similar?
12. How do you find this institution may inspire the best in you in the way of job performance?
13. Could you say something about how this institution's policies on important matters are related to the employees and foreign-born faculty?

Organizational Identification:

1. Could you describe your feelings when hearing negative statements of this institution?
2. Do you feel complimented when you hear praises of the institution?
3. Do you feel interested talking about this institution with others? Why and why not?
4. Do you always speak well of the organizational you work for on public/private occasions?
5. When you are referring to the institution, do you say "we" or "they"?

Intent to Leave:

1. Have you ever considered exploring other career opportunities?
2. How much would you prefer another job than the one you currently work in?
3. How would you like to refer your best friend to work for this institution?

Organizational Culture:

1. How do you feel you are encouraged to provide comments and feedback to the administration?
2. Do you know where to find and ask for help when you are in trouble with your work? Do you feel comfortable asking for help?
3. How do you think your colleagues embrace difference in terms of culture?
4. Are you being perceived as "different" in your working environment?
5. How are you being accepted by your colleagues?
6. Could you describe how cultural identity is valued at this institution?
7. How do you think diversity is valued and promoted at this institution? How can you tell?
8. Have you participated in any diversity initiatives (workshops, meetings, activities, policy-making, etc.) on campus? Could you say something about these initiatives?
9. Which administrator at this institution do you think deserves your respect and appreciation most? Or which administrator is most contributive to this institution?
10. What is mostly valued in this institution? How do you orient your plans and efforts accordingly?

Perceived Organizational Support:

1. How do you think the institution (your supervisor) value your contribution to its well-being?
2. Do you think the institution (your supervisor) pays attention to your feelings or your well-being?
3. Do you think this institution (your supervisor) takes pride in my accomplishments at work?

Perceived External Prestige:

1. How do you take pride in the reputation of your institution?
2. Do people in your community think highly of graduates of this university?

Acculturation:

1. Do you perceive your competence of using English in communication with your colleagues? Do you feel comfortable using English on different occasions?
2. Which media do you rely most on to obtain information?
3. How do you think about your ties to your home country?
4. Which culture do you feel you belong to? Do you consider yourself as bi-cultural? Or do you feel caught between the two cultures? Why? Why not?
5. How do you feel like working in the United States? What are your problems, if any?
6. Do your closest friends share the same cultural background with you? How do you describe the people who you have interacted with most?

APPENDIX B

Consent Form for Foreign-Born Interviewees

Project Title: Do We Belong Here? An exploration of foreign-born faculty's organizational attachment at a U.S. research university

Study Description: You are invited to participate in a dissertation project to study the experiences of foreign-born faculty through perspectives on their organizational attachment to your institution. This study explores factors that influence organizational attachment of foreign-born faculty at both institutional and individual levels. The purpose of this explorative study is to shed light to institutional policymaking and implementation by contributing to literature regarding experiences of foreign-born faculty in research universities in the United States.

Procedures: I am requesting that you participate in a 90-minute interview. I will ask about your personal adjustment process and how you feel you are attached to the organization. With your permission, I will audiotape the interview to assist me with data analysis. Tapes will be stored at my property and will be destroyed at the end of the study. Only the project investigators will be interacting with the subjects, accessing and abstracting data from your records. The study will take place at your institution. Individuals not associated with the research study will not be present during the consent process and the conduct of the study. The results will help me assess the working environment for foreign-born faculty at the institution.

Potential Risks and Benefits: The risks that may be incurred by participating in this study are minimal. Your confidentiality will be maintained by the investigators. Your private information will not be shared with others outside of the research team, and you will not be identifiable in any reports or findings unless you have provided your prior written permission to the investigator. This study may provide you with an idea of how the institution is accommodating foreign-born faculty and giving full play to their cultural diversity.

Subject's Rights: Your participation in this study is voluntary and you have the right to withdraw your consent or discontinue participation at any time without penalty. You have the right to refuse to answer particular questions. Your privacy will be protected to the maximum extent allowable by law. I will contact you directly to gain your consent, however, before attributing any quotations to you in any reports resulting from this study. Your comments will not be shared with your colleagues. Subjects are not identifiable in the final findings and report of the study. If you have any questions about this study, please contact the responsible project investigator:

Reitumetse Mabokela
Room 425 Erickson Hall
Michigan State University
East Lansing, MI 48824
Phone: 517-353-6676
Email: mabokela@msu.edu

Or the project investigator:

Na Wei
401F Erickson Hall
Michigan State University
East Lansing, MI 48824
Phone: 517-256-9500
Email: weina@msu.edu

If you have any questions or concerns regarding your rights as a study participant, or are dissatisfied at any time with any aspect of this study, you may anonymously contact:

Peter Vasilenko
Ph.D., Director of the Human Subject Protection Programs
202 Olds Hall
Michigan State University
East Lansing, MI 48824
Phone: (517) 355-2180
Fax: (517) 432-4503
Email: irb@msu.edu

I voluntarily agree to participate in this study:

Signature

The extra copy is for you to keep.

Date

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