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The Impact Of International Students On American Students And Faculty At An Appalachian University

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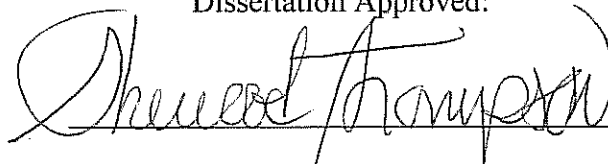
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THE IMPACT OF INTERNATIONAL STUDENTS ON AMERICAN
STUDENTS AND FACULTY AT AN APPALACHIAN UNIVERSITY

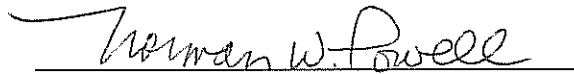
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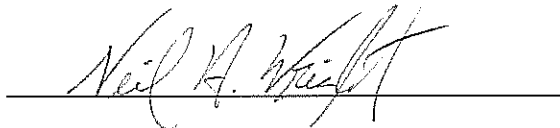
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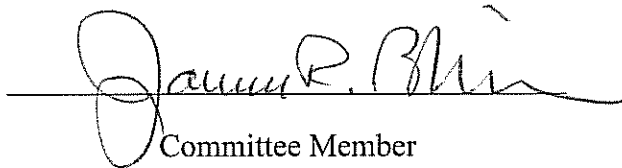
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STUDENTS AND FACULTY AT AN APPALACHIAN UNIVERSITY

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DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to my beloved mother, Fatima El-Khattabi, whose love, kindness, and altruism continue to inspire me.

Thanks beloved mother for sacrificing everything, including your education and health, so your children can have a better life. May The Almighty always bless you in this life and in the Hereafter.

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ABSTRACT

This study examined the effects of exposure to international students on American student and faculty perceptions at a regional Appalachian University. A revised and improved version of Jaleh Shabahang's (1993) *International Education Opinionnaire* was used to survey American students and faculty regarding their perceptions of the educational and cultural impact of international students. The revised instrument also measured American student and faculty perceptions of five ethnic groups of international students. Three independent samples t-tests were administered to compare the views between two American groups: students or faculty in international-related academic departments (IRs) and non-international-related academic departments (NIRs). The first test examined the average difference in perceived educational impact of international students. The second test examined the difference in perceived cultural impact of international students. The third test examined the relative standing of five ethnic groups of international students between White, Non-Hispanic and Non-White participants.

Data analysis revealed that there were no significant differences between American students or faculty from IRs and NIRs on the first and second tests. The data analysis also revealed no significant differences between White, Non-Hispanic and Non-White American students or faculty regarding their attitudes toward the five ethnic groups of international students. American students and faculty from both kinds of academic departments at the Appalachian University mostly agreed or strongly agreed on the positive educational and cultural contributions of international students. In terms of perceptions, the third

independent samples t-test showed that Middle Eastern and Hispanic students ranked the lowest.

Keywords: educational impact, cultural impact, ethnicity, diversity, international students, American students, American faculty, and learning.

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Chapter One

Introduction

Since well before the 18th century, the United States (U.S.) has been a preferred destination on a large scale for people of different backgrounds, cultures, languages, and belief systems. A rich and diverse tapestry of thoughts and human experience is reflected in America's highly regarded and inclusive constitution and the Statue of Liberty. The U.S. continues to be considered the land of promise for people around the world, as it annually grants fifty thousand permanent residency cards to winners of the diversity green card lottery. Although immigrants have arrived on U.S. shores through U.S. history, it was not until the mid-twentieth century that organizations such as the Institute of International Education (IIE) started to accurately record the arrival of sojourners who immigrated to the U.S. solely for the purpose of attaining a higher education. According to the *Open Doors* (2009) report, there were about 25,464 international students in 1948/1949. The most recent annual *Open Doors* report by the Institute of International Education (IIE) confirms that record numbers of international students are enrolling in postsecondary schools in the United States. About 672, 000 international students enrolled in American institutions in the academic year 2008-2009, a 7.7 percent increase from the year before and a record high (National On-Campus Report, 2009).

Indeed, American (U.S.) higher education is deemed valuable but not easily accessible to all international students. Despite the student visa restrictions, especially on groups from Middle Eastern countries, international students continue to believe in the benefits and high quality of U.S education. In the immediate aftermath of the tragedy of September 11, 2001, hundreds of students, mostly of Muslim backgrounds were detained

and fingerprinted for being suspected of connections to some terrorist group or for breaking minor immigration regulations. Furthermore, in trying to curb any potential terrorist attacks, U.S. embassies overseas denied F-1 student visas, which led to loss of thousands of international students from the Middle East, North Africa, and South Asia. Often, these students were welcomed in countries serving the next highest percentages of international students, the United Kingdom, Australia, and Canada (NAFSA, 2009).

Although the United States has played important global roles in technological and scientific advances, “its citizens remain dangerously ignorant of the new global dynamics driving the events of the twenty-first century” (Heyl & McCarthy, 2003, p. 97). Heyl and McCarthy (2003) lamented the somewhat inward focus of Americans and lack of interest in foreign countries. The U.S. is no longer the sole economic superpower in the world, and it will increasingly depend on other countries for economic growth and political cooperation. Therefore, state governments and institutions of higher education may play a growing role in educating the American public about international issues. If so, American students and faculty can benefit tremendously from the presence of international students on college campuses. Interacting with these cultural ambassadors, in return, may require maintaining an open mind and a positive attitude toward people from different countries.

Rationale for the Study

The growing participation of international students in American institutions of higher education has potentially caused dramatic changes. On many campuses, administrators who understand the value of a diverse student body to their institutions have responded with the creation of new international programs and improved student

services. With these trends and developments in mind, several rhetorical questions emerged, included here to prepare the reader for more specific information. What have been the benefits and challenges of admitting international students to American regional university campuses? How do international students once admitted contribute to their academic programs and campus communities? Do most international students contribute to the curricular programs outside the classroom?

A plethora of research has revealed that international students contribute to the social milieu and economy of the region where they pursue their higher education (Peterson et al., 1999; Biddle, 2002; Marino, 2007; Pandit, 2007; Labi et al., 2008). Furthermore, much research has been devoted to the cultural adjustment, (Constantine et al., 2005; Dorozhkin, 2008; Brown & Holloway, 2008) health and legal problems (Mori, 2000; Pew, 2006; Koehl, 2007), and academic and financial issues of international students (Godwin, 2009; Gillete, 2010; NAFSA, 2010). There is, however, minimal research conducted on the educational and cultural impacts international students may have on American campus communities.

Social scientists have conducted many studies on the impact of host cultures on international students (Saidla & Parodi, 1991; Winkelman, 1994; Alreshoud & Koeske, 2001; Rajapaksa & Dundes, 2003; Wilton & Constantine, 2003; Obst & Forster, 2005; Constantine et al., 2005; Wang & Mallinckrodt, 2006; Myburgh et al., 2006; Ye, 2006; Poyrazli & Grahame, 2007; Poyrazli & Lopez, 2007; Dorozhkin & Mazitova, 2008; Brown & Holloway, 2008; Townsend & Poh, 2008; Zhou et al., 2008; Gonzalez-Castro et al., 2009; Keller, 2009; Charles-Toussaint, 2010; Gillete, 2010). There has been, however, minimal research on how international students may affect host cultures.

The researcher located only a few unpublished studies of international-student effects on American students, faculty, and administrators in mostly metropolitan community colleges (Heydari, 1988; Shabahang, 1993; O'brien, 1999). To see beyond the economic benefits that will be discussed in chapter two, one should focus attention on the role that international students might play in shaping the social and psychological aspects of American campus communities (Pandit, 2007). This research explored how international students positively or negatively impact central Appalachian regional campuses.

Shabahang (1993) examined the perceptions of American students, faculty, and administrators regarding the educational and cultural impact of international students in three community colleges in the Washington D.C. Metropolitan area. Shabahang's study focused on the effects of international students on academe. Then, it examined the cultural impact by focusing on the effects resulting from the presence of and interaction with international students at three community colleges. This dissertation is similar in that the investigator examined the educational and cultural impact of international students on a central Appalachian regional campus and how students and faculty perceive of five ethnic groups of international students.

Theoretical Framework

Bogardus (1938) developed a social-distance construct to explain the nature of human interactions and problems. He defined the concept of social distance as the degree of sympathetic understanding that exists between two individuals, between an individual and a group, and between two social groups. The author labeled the first type of sympathetic understanding as person-to-person distance. The second and third kinds of

sympathetic understanding are described as within-group or between-group distances. In other words, the more distant an individual or a group is from another individual or social group, the less sympathetic this individual or group is to the other member or members of the group. The premise of this study is that the less interest and thus interaction there is between two individuals or two groups, the less learning takes place and the more prejudice prevails (Megan du & Michael, 2011).

The Bogardus framework and accompanying research were not specifically designed for higher education, but to measure the level of acceptance that Americans feel towards different racial and ethnic minorities in the United States (Parrillo & Donoghue, 2005). The relevance of this dissertation rests on the assumption that the level of acceptance of the other increases and thus social distance decreases “as one moves through the social categories of family member, friend, neighbor, coworker, citizen, and [foreigner]” (Weinfurt & Moghaddam, 2001, p. 101). This study sought to gauge the level of exposure American students and faculty members have with international students and how that affected their overall attitudes and learning experiences.

Purpose of Study

The purpose of this dissertation is to measure the educational and cultural impacts of international students on American students and faculty on a central Appalachian regional college campus. The study will replicate some of Shabahang’s (1993) survey questions on the educational and cultural impact of international students. It will specifically examine whether having international sojourners as classmates, students, class participants, or partners on a class project positively or negatively impacts the

learning experience, teaching style, world views, and overall student and faculty perspectives and attitudes about people of different cultural backgrounds.

Research Questions

This study assesses the following questions:

1. Are there differences between American students or faculty from international-related academic departments (IRs) and non-international-related academic departments (NIRs) regarding their views on the educational impact of international students?
2. Are there differences between American students or faculty from international-related academic departments (IRs) and non-international-related academic departments (NIRs) regarding their views on the cultural impact of international students?
3. Are there differences between White, Non-Hispanic and Non-White American students or faculty regarding their views about five ethnic groups of international students?

Research Hypotheses

Using Bogardus' social distance theory and results from studies conducted on diversity and prejudice, the researcher hypothesizes that opportunities for longer periods of social interaction between international students and American students and faculty are likely to:

- 1) Enrich the learning experiences of students and faculty;
- 2) Improve understanding of cultural differences and similarities;
- 3) Help American students and faculty gain a better appreciation of diversity; and

- 4) Mitigate prejudice and promote tolerance between international students, American students, and American faculty.

Regarding research questions 1-3, the following hypotheses have been formulated for testing:

Hypothesis 1. There will be differences between American students or faculty from international-related academic departments (IRs) and non-international-related academic departments (NIRs) regarding their views on the educational impact of international students.

Hypothesis 2. There will be differences between American students or faculty from international-related academic departments (IRs) and non-international-related academic departments (NIRs) regarding their views on the cultural impact of international students.

Hypothesis 3. There will be differences between White, Non-Hispanic and Non-White American students or faculty regarding their views about five ethnic groups of international students.

Definition of Terms

1. Culture: The customs, habits, skills, technology, arts, values, ideology, science, and religious and political behavior of a group of people in a specific time period (Barker, 2003).
2. Diversity: Variety or the opposite of homogeneity. It usually refers to the range of personnel who more accurately represent minority populations and people from varied backgrounds, cultures, ethnicities, and viewpoints (Barker, 2003).
3. Education: A process of fostering cognitive, physical, social, emotional, or moral growth and development in individuals or groups (Collins & O'Brien, 2003).

4. Ethnicity: A socially constructed category, based on identification of a person within a social group. The latter can be formed based on many factors, including religious beliefs, a common language, history, geographic location, and even common physical appearances (Collins & O'Brien, 2003).
5. IRs: Participants from academic departments where five or more international students declare a major (researcher).
6. NIRs: Participants from academic departments where less than five international students declare a major (researcher).
7. Multicultural: Relating to a social or educational theory that encourages interests in many cultures within a society rather than in only a mainstream culture (Houghton, 2002).
8. Pluralistic: A condition in which numerous distinct ethnic, religious, or cultural groups are present and tolerated within a society (Houghton, 2002).

Study Limitations

This study has three limitations. First, the international student population, whose role is being assessed, is small. International students represent only about 1.5 % of the entire student population at the university selected for this study. Second, the study focused on one regional Appalachian university. Including other similar universities with larger international student population might have yielded different results. That's not to say that the results obtained in this research can't be generalizable for higher education practice. Finally, the method of dividing participants into two groups was primarily based on the academic departments, where international students declare their majors. Therefore, developing prescreening criteria for participation in the study would ascertain who can be categorized as international-related or non-international-related.

Summary

This chapter discussed the prominent role the U.S. plays in educating international students. It also touched on the negative impact the new regulations of F-1 student visa have had on international students interested in pursuing their education in the U.S. In addition, the chapter pointed out that while there is so much research devoted to the economic benefits of international students and how they adjust to host cultures, very little research has been conducted on the educational and cultural impact of international students on those host cultures. Moreover, there is even much less research on international students in rural and Appalachian universities. This study attempts to remedy this situation. In order to accomplish this task, we will need to review studies conducted on international students. Chapter two will examine the benefits and challenges of international students, the concept of internationalization of American universities, and the internationalization of the Appalachian University selected for the study. Finally, chapter two will provide a summary of Emory Bogardus' social distance theory.

Chapter Two

Literature Review

The overwhelming majority of international students who attend American (U.S.) schools give U.S. institutions of higher education a competitive edge in scientific research, engineering, and technology. This is especially true in graduate studies. According to a survey of 505 U.S.-based graduate schools that are members of the Council of Graduate Schools (CGS), applications from prospective international students to U.S. graduate schools have increased yearly by about 7-9 % from 2005 to 2012, seeing the largest increase in fall 2010. The report, *Findings from the 2010 CGS International Graduate Admissions Survey*, state that applications increased in public and private institutions but were notably larger in those with a larger number of international students. There was an 11% growth in international students studying in social sciences and psychology, 13% increase in engineering, and 15% increase in business. The report also indicates that the key sending countries with the highest number of students were: China (19%), Turkey and the Middle East (17%), and India (12%) (*International Educator*, 2010). These high numbers further illustrate the confidence that international students have in American institutions of higher education.

Studies on International Education

An enormous body of research has been conducted on international education from mid-twentieth century onward. These studies on international education have coincided with the increase of international students in the last three decades. Most recent studies, however, focus on the research and economic benefits of international students in the U.S (Biddle, 2002; Burreli, 2010; Labi, Birchard, & Overland, 2008; Marino, 2007;

Pandit, 2007; NAFSA, 2010; Trice, 2003). Similarly, research conducted on international students examines their cultural adaptation, academic and financial hardships, and their legal, mental, and psychological challenges (Cohen, 2006; Fischer et al., 2009; Gerstenfeld, 2002; Godwin, 2009; Koehl, 2007; Mori, 2000; Obst & Forster, 2005; Paige, 1990; Sandhu, 1995; Sandhu & Asrabadi, 1994, Surdam & Collins, 1984).

Benefits of International Students

Research Benefits

In her important report, *Internationalization: Rhetoric or Reality*, Sheila Biddle (2002) explained how American colleges and universities benefit from international students. She argued that “Universities must internationalize in order to educate their students for global citizenship, to keep pace with other peers, to better serve the national and international community, and to remain great universities” (p.7). Pandit (2007) added that international students have been recognized to have historically played an important role in advancing America’s research competitiveness in the STEM (science, technology, engineering, and mathematics) disciplines. In “Perceptions of European Higher Education: Country Report USA,” Obst and Forster (2005) argued that “many academic programs rely on [international students] to conduct research and serve as teaching assistants in key fields of science and technology” (p. 2). For example, in 2009-2010, foreign enrollment in science and engineering programs accounted for a steady 44 % of total foreign enrollment in the United States (Science Resources Statistics, 2010). At least half of these international students are in advanced graduate programs and work side by side with their professors and colleagues as teaching assistants or designing the next cutting-edge programs. Furthermore, it is estimated that 25 % of the nation’s

physician workforce are international medical graduates (IMGs), who “contribute significantly to the U.S. health care system” (Cohen, 2006, p. 17). Cohen’s article provides a list of breakthroughs that IMGs have made in infectious diseases, pharmaceutical research, cellular and molecular biology, psychiatry, surgical education, endocrinology, innovative teaching approaches in immunology, and radiology, to mention but a few examples.

Economic Benefits

In addition to breakthroughs they make in various research disciplines, international students continue to make much-needed economic contributions. In its 2009-2010 *Annual Economic Impact Statements*, the National Association for Foreign Student Advisors (NAFSA) estimated that foreign students and their dependents contributed approximately \$ 18.2 billion to the U.S. economy. This is considered a conservative figure because NAFSA’s report does not rely on a “multiplier effect.” Since this dissertation focuses on a central Appalachian regional institution of higher education in the state of Kentucky, it is worth noting that the 4760 international students attending Kentucky colleges and universities contributed \$ 92.5 million to the state’s economy (NAFSA, 2010). The university the researcher surveys boasts about sixteen 16, 000 students, 391 of whom are international students; that is 1.5 % of the entire student population, a low but nonetheless vibrant presence. Approximately 40 % of these international students are originally from the Middle East, 35 % from Asia, 12% from Africa, 11 % from Europe, 1% from Australia, and 1% from South America (Office of International Education, 2011).

Other Benefits

There are, however, equally important if not more important non-monetary contributions that international students make to U.S. colleges and universities and by extension to American society. These come as subtle educational and cultural influences that international students have on American students and faculty. Peterson, Briggs, Dreasher, Horner and Nelson (1999) contended that international students who are satisfied with the academic and general living conditions on American campuses will likely “educate Americans about intercultural issues” (p. 70). Such issues are shared via international students’ music, dance, singing, food, writing, and theatrical performances (Marino, 2007). Peterson et al. (1999) and other researchers conclude that the mere presence of international students on American campuses increases awareness of diversity issues. In her description of and commentary on internationals, Marino (2007) wrote that “We are blessed to have our lives enriched by other cultures and our minds broadened by insightful students” (p. 20). Non-monetary contributions have included raising standards and broadening the horizons of others, among the other benefits mentioned above.

Challenges Facing International Students

To maximize these international benefits, U.S. host colleges and universities should be aware of and be prepared to respond to some of the challenges that international students encounter as they adjust to the contemporary U.S. culture. The challenges that international students grapple with while they are on American campuses include legal, financial, cultural, academic, psychological, and mental concerns. Unless these American institutions of higher education are prepared to tackle such issues,

international students not only will fail to learn and contribute to the learning process, but they may become at worst a heavy burden on American society.

In “A Time to Hate: Situational Antecedents of Intergroup Bias”, Phyllis Gerstenfeld (2002) explored hate crimes against Americans of Middle Eastern and South Asian descent within the early hours after the World Trade Center collapsed. When citizens of a nation are not well informed about global issues and cultural differences, historical events such as the terrorist attacks of September 11, 2001 may lead them to expressions of hatred against certain groups. During the post 9/11 tragedy, stigmatization and bias were directed against foreigners or Americans who have been perceived as Muslim or Arab. To recognize such subtle cultural biases one needed only walk down any neighborhood to see American flags waving, read the letters to the Editor’s section in virtually any U. S. newspaper, listen to local and national news coverage of demonstrations against the building of Islamic places of worship, or go through a security check at any of the U.S. airports. Nowhere could these high feelings of nationalism and intimidation be more revealing than in the very words of President George W. Bush, “Every nation in every region now has a decision to make. Either you are with us or you are with the terrorists” (Bush, 2001). President Bush’s reductive remarks sounded harsh and threatening. News from the Arab and Muslim countries reveals their hope that Americans would work hard to reverse President Bush’s legacy of rhetorical arrogance and exclusion.

Legal Challenges

Most countries have specific immigration laws for international students. Obtaining an F-1 student visa from an American embassy abroad may feel like winning a

game of chance for many international students. Every year, hundreds of thousands of students plan to study in the U.S., but only a few thousands of them are granted a student visa. In other words, tens of thousands of international students get their dreams of studying in the U.S. shattered. As for those lucky ones who make it to American campuses, they soon encounter many more tangled legal challenges. For example, those who seek work have to deal with rigid work restrictions imposed on international students. Furthermore, much like their U.S. counterparts, most international students cannot always depend entirely on their families to pay for their education. In fact, in many states, Kentucky included, international students pay almost triple the school tuition of residents. Hence, these foreign students often need employment to help offset the high cost of their living and education. Risking deportation, many international students end up working illegally in low skill and low-wage jobs. Students too often resort to such illegal work situations even though their student visa bans them from working off campus. The student visa restricts international students to twenty-hours per week of institutional work on campus. Also, immigration law requires international students to maintain full-time status or else risk being deported. Paige (1990) described these regulations as “undeniably discriminatory” (p. 166). Paige criticized the discrepancy that international students do not have “the same flexibility as host country students do to drop in and out of school, reduce their course load, or work to help themselves” (p.166). He concluded that such restrictions “can cause great stress” (p. 166), especially among international students having unforeseen academic and financial hardships. Some critics, however, contend that if international students were not held to full-time study and were given the same work privileges as domestic students, many of

them would drop out of school and just work full-time or they may disappear in the illegal pool of immigrants. Either way, international students, much like domestic students, require labor-market work or academic scholarships to cover the rising cost of their U.S. higher education.

Another aspect of legal and ethical issues international students face has to do with access to social services. Paige wrote that “In the United States, it is a violation of the terms of the student visa to become a “ward of the state;” he argued that “applying for a service or subsidy reserved for citizens...could endanger the applicant’s visa status” (p. 166). He also pointed out that international students do not have the same legal protections reserved for citizens, and even if they do, they may not always know how the legal system operates. Other studies (Birchard & Overland, 2008; Koehl, 2007) and Paige’s few examples reveal that the legal web that foreign students have to learn to navigate is the main instigator of much fear and depression with which many students have been diagnosed.

Financial Challenges

In addition to legal issues, many international students experience financial hardships. Although they are expected to prove that they can afford to pay for their expensive American higher education, a great number of international students are often unable to pay their school bills. Sometimes, the length of a particular program turns out to be greater than expected, which makes it harder to afford completion of one’s degree. Other times, students lose their scholarship or their sponsors overseas lose their businesses due to war or some change in the political system in the country of origin. As for graduate international students who come on academic scholarships, they, too, are

threatened. Fischer, Birchard, Hvistendahl, Labi, and Neelakantan (2009) explained that the U.S. weakened economy, dwindling work opportunities, and “shrinking [departmental] budgets could reduce the amount of money for graduate-student stipends and that depleted savings could leave overseas families unable to afford American college tuition” (p. 1). It is particularly these financial hardships that make many international students choose to study in other foreign countries where they can be offered academic scholarships, even if they would rather study in the U.S. (Fischer et al., 2009).

Cultural Challenges

International students have their own unique cultural mores, values, mannerisms, and languages. These can be totally different from those of their host country. Such contrasts can cause a great deal of anxiety. Alexander et al. (1976) asserted that matters such as differences in food, climate, language, mannerism, and communication may also cause a severe cultural shock for the foreign students (as cited in Sandhu, 1994).

International students pursuing a major at the university level are often comfortable enough to speak in English, yet they still experience culture shock, fear to lose one’s cultural identity, guilt over leaving loved ones behind, a sense of inferiority complex in the new culture, and the fear of discrimination and hatred (Sandhu & Asrabadi, 1994). Furthermore, unlike Eastern cultures which tend to be collectivist and where almost everything, including meals, is shared by a group of individuals, Western cultures thrive on individualism and personal accountability. Roland (1994) contended, “Contemporary culture in the United States imposes on the individual an enormous degree of autonomy in the adolescent and young adult years. Young people [actually] choose who they will be

their mate or love partner... [and] what kind of work to do” (p. 15). Conversely, many international students, especially those from the Middle East, North Africa or India, who combined make a majority of students in the U.S., are accustomed to having their parents, relatives, and adult members of society direct their choices; an example of such differences is the concept of arranged marriages. Likewise, many parents of international students make education and career decisions for their children. Neither the Eastern nor the Western cultural perspectives are necessarily superior to the other. Nonetheless, when people from either side find themselves for various reasons in the new host culture, they are likely to experience cultural shock.

Academic Challenges

As for the academic challenges, many international students are used to the passive lecture style, where the revered teacher does what a traditional priest would do, delivering a sermon at a place of worship. In other words, there is little to no interaction in the classroom except that of the instructors reading out loud from their lecture pamphlets and the students passively taking down notes. In some cultures, it is considered rude to interrupt the instructor to inquire about an ambiguous idea. Furthermore, courses or degree programs are often chosen for students. In contrast, in most U.S. schools, students are strongly encouraged if not expected to participate in class and to raise questions about unclear concepts. Godwin (2010) explained that American students are “encouraged and even rewarded for challenging authority. Americans expect informal student-teacher relationships, a broad choice of courses, group work and a myriad of campus support services and activities”(p. 30). Godwin contended that the impact of these different teaching and learning approaches can hamper international

students' academic success. As a result of such differences in teaching and learning styles, some international students who fail to adjust to the new academic culture leave the U.S. a few weeks after classes begin (Godwin, 2010).

Mental and Psychological Challenges

As the center of information, research, and advanced technology, the U.S. has been attracting hundreds of thousands of twenty first century world leaders. Except for a marked decrease in the immediate aftermath of September 11, 2001, the international student population has been steadily growing since World War II (Sandhu, 1995). As discussed previously, most international students come from diverse and sometimes quite different cultural environments than that of the host country. For instance, students from Japan, China, India, Africa, and the Middle East have social norms that are different from American social norms. The concepts of time, responsibility, competition, friendship, and male-female relationships in the Middle East stand in stark contrast to American views on these concepts. These cultural differences and their nuances can cause many mental and psychological problems. According to Mori (2000), "Difficulties with linguistic, academic, interpersonal, financial, and intrapersonal problems constitute unique sources of stress for international students" (p. 137). Mori pointed out that American superficial pleasantries such as, "Come on over sometime," "Let's get together soon," and "I'll call you" are interpreted as sincere expressions of affection and interest in international students (p. 138). The latter group feels disappointed, rejected, and maybe even betrayed when such kind but empty promises are not fulfilled. As a result, international students quickly learn to search for warmth, comfort, and affection with their fellow compatriots.

Regrettably, this phenomenon often leads to the creation of isolated cultural ghettos and thus defeats the very purpose of having international students on American campuses.

The adjustment stress in the new culture manifests itself in many ways. Some of the symptoms that international students have been diagnosed with are, “dysfunction in pituitary-adrenal activities, mass discharges of the sympathetic nervous system, impairment of immune systems, and heightened susceptibility to all illnesses” (Mori, 2000, p. 139). Isolation, loneliness, and depression are other symptoms from which international students suffer. Sandhu (1994) described international students as “the *silent minority* who cannot articulate their difficulties because of lack of language and social skills” (p. 232). American colleges and universities must develop programs which assist in the adjustment of international students. Surdam and Collins’ (1984) study on the adaptation of international students suggests that there is a significant relationship between foreign students’ adaptation and a number of variables, such as the length of stay in the U.S., language proficiency, perceived discrimination, parental education, origin, religiosity, and the level of contact with Americans.

Internationalization of Education

The internationalization of education is not a new phenomenon and has no specific definition. It is, however, generally understood as the international activities carried out by an institution of higher education. These activities include but are not limited to the admission of international students, offering of foreign languages, creation of exchange programs of international faculty and students between two or more institutions from two different countries, and the establishment of international curricula (Pickert, 2001). As far back in time as the Middle Ages, students from Europe traveled to

Arab and Muslim countries, where Greek philosophy was translated and preserved, to learn the Arabic language and sciences, such as agriculture, architecture, astronomy, chemistry, mathematics, medicine, optometry, pharmacology, and philosophy. Ironically, after the Enlightenment era, the Arab and Muslim worlds have seen periods of intellectual stagnation caused invariably by internal corruption, political and religious strife, and ongoing European colonization of large parts of Africa and Asia that continued to the mid-twentieth century.

The fading out of the Muslim Golden Ages and previous civilizations, the emergence of Enlightened Europe, the discovery of the New World, and the adoption of “English as the lingua franca for scientific communication” (Altbach & Knight, 2007, p. 291) have reversed the roles of education providers. Increasing numbers of international students from Africa and Asia travel to Europe and North America to pursue their higher education. The other change caused by this shift in world civilizations is the commercialization of international education. Once believed to provide educational and cultural benefits to sojourners and citizens of host countries, internationalization has become not only an important economic force, but also an instrument for global hegemony. Critics of globalization contend that Western economic superpowers are the primary beneficiaries of globalization. For a distinction between the terms internationalization and globalization, see Altbach and Knight (2007).

Internationalization of American Institutions of Higher Education

U.S. colleges and universities are probably the most active and innovative schools in delivering cross-border education programs. Many U.S. public and private colleges and universities have developed partnerships with foreign institutions, and some of these

American schools have even opened campuses overseas in countries like South Korea, Egypt, Ireland, Qatar, U.A.E, India, Thailand, Vietnam, Saudi Arabia, Kuwait, and China (Altbach & Knight, 2007). The American University in Cairo, Egypt, is considered the oldest American school to open overseas almost nine decades ago. Schools like NYU, Syracuse University, Brown University, Duke University, Purdue University, and Missouri State University are leading these entrepreneurial educational programs. Likewise, many American universities have developed partnership agreements with universities in France, Spain, Netherlands, Germany, Belgium, Italy, and other countries from the European Union.

Again, these U.S colleges and universities not only have created outside venues to increase their tuition revenues, but, more importantly, these educational partnerships benefit American students and faculty tremendously. Under most institutional agreements, American students can choose to travel to any of these overseas campuses to pursue their education. Likewise, faculty members have opportunities to teach in the overseas campuses. One can only imagine the rich educational and cultural experiences American students and faculty would gain from being immersed in a new culture. Furthermore, the necessity to overcome what has been perceived as the American ethnocentrism is revealed in two surveys conducted by the American Council on Education to gauge the public's attitudes toward international issues. Eighty percent of respondents "believe that the United States should be involved in world affairs" and half of the respondents think that knowledge of international issues is somewhat or very important to their professional future careers in the next ten years (Hayward & Siaya, 2001, p. 9). Finally, a recent report by the Committee for Economic Development (2006)

has made it clear that knowledge of foreign languages and cultures has become a necessity for the American economy, security, and global leadership role.

Internationalization of an Appalachian University

The university where the researcher is conducting this study is located in a central Appalachian area. It is a regional university with one main and four branch campuses. It offers a wide array of bachelor's degrees, master's degrees, and two doctoral programs in the Education Leadership and Policy Studies and Nursing departments. Two of the university's guiding mission principles are regional stewardship and graduation of students who can think critically and communicate effectively. The university boasts a little over 16,000 students; 394 of these are international students. One hundred and seven of these international students are still in the English as a Second Language (ESL) Program. Once they complete seven levels of ESL, these students become eligible to be admitted to the institution to pursue two or four year degrees. The international students come from about forty seven countries, representing all five continents. The largest international student population comes from the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. Also, international students at this university represent about 1.5 per cent of the entire student population, far below the widely received best ratio of 5 to 10 %. In fact, this central Appalachian school has the second lowest international student population in the state of Kentucky.

Campus International Programs

In addition to the ESL program, which is a self-sustained language program, this central Appalachian university has an International Education Office, with a full-time

coordinator and a half-time director. In addition to secretarial duties, the International Education Coordinator:

- Is a Designated School Official (DSO) for Student & Exchange Visitor Information System (SEVIS), Bureau of Citizenship and Immigration Services (BCIS);
 - Reports each international student's academic status at the beginning of each semester;
 - Processes school transfers of international students and issues I-20 forms to all incoming international students;
 - Stays abreast of current BCIS regulations and assures that students are in compliance;
 - Assesses students' eligibility for various immigration benefits; prepares and processes paperwork for these applications; enters related information in SEVIS; and
 - Intercedes on students' behalf for various problems with SEVIS or BCIS.
- (Wright, 2006).

The duties of the half-time Director of International Education include the following:

- Reports as the Primary Designated School Official (PDSO) and Responsible Officer (RO) for the University to the BCIS and to the State Department;
- Acts as primary University advocate for foreign students in administrative, academic, and personal matters;

- Develops, maintains, and administers exchange programs with foreign universities and advises both outgoing and incoming exchange students and visitors;
- Plans and supports international cultural and academic events on campus;
- Evaluates foreign transcripts from applicants to the graduate school;
- Maintains membership in the National Association of Foreign Students Advisors;
- Cooperates with the Directors of Study Abroad and the ESL Program to provide necessary support and advocacy of these programs;
- Meets with the International Education Committee to gather information and ideas;
- Works with deans and department chairs across the University to initiate, support, and maintain international academic programs; and
- Administers the International Studies Minor (Wright, 2006).

In addition to the Office of International Education and the ESL Program, the university has a Study Abroad Program. The latter includes a half-time director and a half-time assistant. Among the many duties of the Director of Study Abroad Office, she:

- Meets with every student who studies abroad and with many others who consider the option but do not apply or who are not accepted initially;
- Makes presentations to classes and groups to promote the study abroad programs;
- Helps students with the application process;
- Ensures that students going on full-semester programs enroll in IES 300;
- Assists departments in creating courses for the classes students take through Cooperative Center for Study Abroad (CCSA);

- Submits memos for tuition waivers for students participating in CCSA programs;
- Sees that grades are properly submitted for students in CCSA classes;
- Keeps records of participants (students and faculty); and
- Evaluates programs and writes annual reports (Wright, 2006).

International Studies Minor at the University

The Director of International Education oversees the International Studies Minor. The minor is not taken by a large number of students. It is, however, a valuable addition for many majors, especially for students who are interested in pursuing careers overseas and those interested in the exchange programs with sister universities in South Korea, Japan, China, The Netherlands, Mexico, France, Finland, and Spain. Additionally, the minor consists of 21 credit hours across a number of disciplines, providing a broad-based, general exposure to international issues through a solid set of three core courses. A commitment to foreign language and/or international experience is an integral part of the minor.

Foreign Languages at the University

The Department of Foreign Languages & Humanities (DFLH) is a multi-disciplinary unit which offers a variety of programs through which students gain new insights into other cultures and develop the language skills necessary for participation and leadership in the global community (DFLH, 2010). Likewise, the department helps students to fulfill General Education requirements through course offerings in French, German, Japanese, Spanish, and occasionally other languages such as Arabic and Latin. Through foreign languages, culture and civilization courses, and the basic sequence of humanities courses, the Department of Foreign Languages and Humanities seeks to

provide students with opportunities to enjoy learning and develop a deeper understanding and appreciation of diversity.

The existence of these different international entities may lead one to conclude that despite the paucity of institutional resources, international students do have some impact on the campus community. It is true that in terms of internationalization, the institution lags behind at the state and national levels, yet it is important to note that most of the international students attending the institution are relatively active on campus, as they participate in class discussions, visit other classes to present on various international issues, organize the annual international banquet, and visit K-12 schools to share their cultures. Finally, it is important to note that about 25% of international students at the selected school for the study receive targeted tuition, a reduction of 45% of the out of state rate. Also, all international students are eligible for an additional reduction of \$ 1000 to \$ 1500 per semester, based on their grade point average, as of their sophomore year (Wright, personal communication, 2011).

Social Distance Theory

The concept of “social distance” was first defined by Robert E. Park (1924) as the degrees of understanding and closeness that characterize personal and social relations. Many social scientists were preoccupied by the racial and ethnic problems that plagued America in the early to mid-twentieth century. Prejudice and racial attitudes toward the “American Negro” and various immigrant populations led to several studies on these issues. Most notable of these studies on social distance are the ones conducted by Emory Bogardus that spanned almost half a century.

As a regional director of the Pacific Coast Race Survey, Bogardus (1938) used social distance as a research tool to interpret social life and the causes of social problems. He developed the Social Distance Scale to measure the “degrees of sympathetic understanding that operate between any two persons,” (p. 462). He called this a personal distance. The second type of sympathetic understanding between a person and a social group is called personal-group distance. The third type of sympathetic understanding is found between two different groups and it is labeled group distance (p. 462). Bogardus further explained that the degrees of sympathetic understanding between persons or groups will result in either “social closeness or nearness” or “social remoteness or farness” (p. 462). Bogardus used the parents-children relationships and friendships as illustrative examples of the greatest degree of nearness.

More importantly, Bogardus established four main factors that normally explain the social distance between two people. First, differences in temperament and biological make-up are factors that contributed to social distance. He contended that “these differences are very difficult to bridge when they are expressed emotionally and become fixed in deep-seated sentiments” (p. 467). Second, strong “sensory reactions having physiological origins” are manifest in how something may appear appealing to someone and yet repulsive to someone else. Third, he posited that cultural differences prevent people from understanding each other. Fourth, Bogardus lists lack of acquaintance and knowledge as causing social distance. He concluded that “you cannot hope to understand the person who is a stranger to you” (p. 467). The author further argued that you cannot hope to learn anything from the person who is a stranger to you because “the maintenance of a wholesome degree of personal nearness requires constant, careful

attention to the central elements of character, such as sincerity, reliability,” open-mindedness, and genuine interest in the other (p. 468).

To assess the importance of open-mindedness and genuine interest in people of other cultures, Weinfurt and Moghadam (2001) administered a revised version of Bogardus’ Social Distance Scale to 608 residents from six ethnic groups of the greater Montreal area to measure the ethnic biases in multicultural contexts. The researchers found that “the English Canadians and the French Canadians were the groups with whom all other groups were most willing to have closer social relations; the Indians (immigrants from India) and the Algerians were the groups with whom all other groups were least willing to have closer social relations” (p. 109). Generally, critical mass theory will not shed light on anything unusual about the results of Weinfurt and Moghadam’s research because the English and French Canadians make up the majority of the Canadian population. The results, however, reveal deeply-seated prejudice against minority ethnic groups, such as the Algerian and Indian residents.

Prejudice is the “more or less instinctive and spontaneous disposition to maintain social distance” from other groups (as cited in Wark & Galliher, 2007, p. 390). As pointed out earlier, prejudice increases social distance between two individuals or groups. Given the slew of often one-sided news reports on international terrorism and illegal immigration, many American citizens harbor negative feelings toward Arabs, Muslims, and Hispanics. Hate crimes against these groups have increased dramatically since the post-9-11 tragedy. Polls have shown that more than 43% of Americans continue to believe that Muslims are the main source of terrorism in the world (GALLUP, 2010). Other polls show that one of the main reasons the Bush administration failed to pass an

immigration law to legalize the twelve-plus millions of undocumented immigrants is the negative public perception of immigrants in general. Many Americans believe that immigrants in the U.S. steal jobs from Americans and abuse the American social services (Pew, 2006).

Social identity theory emphasizes that the sheer use of the “us” and “they” “categorization could elicit intergroup bias and in-group favoritism, paving the way for conflicts and prejudice” (as cited in Gonzalez-Castro et al., 2009, p. 1690). Prejudice against ethnic or racial groups can be seen in the different forms of discrimination members of these groups encounter at work, school, housing, restaurants, hotels, and airports. The results of the study conducted by Gonzalez-Castro et al. (2009) show that the main factors that predicted blatant prejudice are the belief that immigration will have dire effects on culture and values, on racial relations, and “on the labor market; the belief that restrictions for immigrants should be tougher; a more right-wing ideological position; and having completed less formal education” (p. 1707).

There is evidence that Bogardus is correct when he pointed out that social distance and thus misunderstanding increase when cultural differences are emphasized and when accurate knowledge of the “other” is missing. This human dilemma prompts the following question: what are the best methods of increasing one’s knowledge and developing a better understanding and appreciation of people of different ethnic and racial backgrounds in a pluralistic and multi-cultural society such as the United States? The researcher proposes that the internationalization of college and university curricula and the regular exposure to international students who are attending these colleges and universities are effective ways to build sound cross-cultural relations. American

institutions would gain so much if they were to take advantage of the presence of international students on their campuses to educate their fellow American students and professors.

Indeed, social presence theory stresses that effective communication occurs when the entities involved are physically present. Social presence is defined as “the degree of salience of the other person in the interaction and the consequent salience of the interpersonal relationships” (as cited in Kreijns et al., 2004, p. 157). This dissertation seeks to measure the levels of interaction between international students and American students and faculty at different venues and how these interactions educationally and culturally impact American students and faculty. The author postulates that the social presence of international students is rewarding. Their “social presence is required to enhance and foster social...interaction, which is the major vehicle of social learning” (as cited in Kreijns et al., 2004, p. 157). This hypothesis is congruent with Bogardus’ fourth factor of social distance; lack of acquaintance and knowledge of the “stranger.”

Summary

This chapter reviewed literature on international students in the United States. It first addressed the research and economic benefits of international students. The main argument of this section is that international students contribute significantly to the U.S. economy. Second, it addressed the legal, financial, cultural, academic, and mental and psychological challenges. Even though international students have willingly sought opportunities in U.S. colleges and universities, they face multi-faceted hardships in having done so. Third, this chapter examined internationalization of American institutions of higher education in general and the internationalization of the university

selected for this study in particular. The selected site like other U.S. colleges and universities has a few international departments, which contribute to the internationalization of U.S. higher education. Finally, the chapter examined the social distance theory as an overarching framework for the present research. The researcher contends that in order for international students to have positive educational and cultural impact on American students and faculty, the latter group must feel sympathetic, understanding, and comfortable to interact with international students at the classroom and campus settings.

Next chapter will explain the methodological procedures used to gather and analyze data.

Chapter Three

Methodology

The literature review revealed that the U.S. leads the world in attracting international students. According to the National Association for Foreign Student Advisors, there were approximately 675, 000 international students in the U.S. in 2010 (NAFSA, 2010). The NAFSA Open Doors annual report also indicated that these students contribute approximately \$19 billion dollars to the U.S economy. Despite the myriad of hurdles these sojourners encounter when they settle down at an American college or university, their numbers continue to increase, especially at the graduate level. There was, for instance, a 7% increase in graduate applications in 2010 (*International Educator*, 2010). Other studies suggested that international students who graduate from American medical programs make 25% of the nation's physician workforce (Cohen, 2006). International students also play an important role in advancing the STEM disciplines (Biddle, 2002) and they may have educational and cultural benefits.

This chapter will detail the research methods, including the sample, instrumentation, data collection procedures, statistical methodology, and data analysis procedures. First, however, the chapter will review the purpose of the study and research questions.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to measure the educational and cultural impact of international students on American students and faculty at a regional Appalachian university. A revised version of Shabahang's (1993) survey questions on the educational and cultural impact of international students is used. The research investigates whether

having these international sojourners as classmates, class participants, multi-lingual students, or world cultural representatives positively or negatively impact the learning experience, the teaching style, and overall student and faculty perspectives and attitudes about the impact of people from different cultural backgrounds.

Research Questions

This study examines and assesses the following questions:

1. Are there differences between American students or faculty in international-related majors and non-international-related majors regarding their views on the educational impact of international students?
2. Are there differences between American students or faculty in international-related majors and non-international-related majors regarding their views on the cultural impact of international students?
3. Are there differences between White, Non-Hispanic and Non-White American students or faculty regarding their views about five ethnic groups of international students?

Sample

The Appalachian university selected for this study is located in central Kentucky. It is regionally distinguished for its forensic science, nursing, occupational science, fire and safety engineering, education, homeland security majors, and ROTC and Honors programs. Also, the university serves the following 22 counties: Bell, Boyle, Casey, Clay, Estill, Garrard, Harlan, Jackson, Knox, Laurel, Lee, Leslie, Lincoln, McCreary, Madison, Owsley, Perry, Powell, Pulaski, Rockcastle, Wayne, and Whitley.

This student-centered, comprehensive public university offers 186 degree programs and attracts many students from 40 states and 47 foreign countries (Office of Institutional Research, 2011). Furthermore, the majority of out-of-state students come from Indiana, Ohio, Tennessee, Virginia, and West Virginia, taking advantage of the geographic proximity to their homes and the special targeted tuition rates, much less than out-of-state tuition, the Appalachian university grants to students from neighboring states.

Regarding its mission, the university is to prepare students to lead productive, responsible, and enriched lives. To accomplish this mission, the university emphasizes:

1. Student Success,
2. Regional Stewardship, and
3. Critical and Creative Thinking and Effective Communication.

Also, the vision of this Appalachian university is to be an accessible, nurturing, and academically rigorous center of learning and scholarship that transforms lives and communities and enables them to adapt and succeed in a dynamic, global society. Finally, one of the values of the university is diversity, which is characterized by equitable opportunities and treatment, mutual respect, and the inclusion and celebration of diverse peoples and ideas.

The Appalachian university boasts five campuses at five different locations with a student population of 16, 567 (Office of Institutional Research, 2011). Although one campus has the largest international student representation, to have broader and more diverse perspectives, the researcher selected a random sample of students and faculty from all five campuses. The ethnic backgrounds for the student population are as follows:

Black, Non-Hispanic (5.6%), Asian, Non-Hispanic (0.9%), Hispanic or Latino (1.7%), Non-Resident Alien (1.1%), Amer. Indian/Alaskan Native (0.5%), White, Non-Hispanic (86.6%), Two or More Races (2.1%), Nat. Hawaiian or Pac. Islander (0.1%), and Unknown (1.5%). Finally, the genders of the student population are 56.9% female and 43.1 % male (Office of Institutional Research, 2011).

In fall 2011, the university selected for this study employed 667 full-time and 447 part-time faculty members. The instrument developed was emailed to a random sample from both groups. Regarding the faculty ethnic backgrounds, the university had: Black, Non-Hispanic (4%), Asian, Non-Hispanic (0 %), Hispanic or Latino (1%), Amer. Indian/Alaskan Native (0%), White, Non-Hispanic (93%), Two or More Races (1%), Nat. Hawaiian or Pac. Islander (0%), and Unknown (1.5%). In relation to gender classification of faculty members at the institution, 53.4 % were female and 46.6 % were male (Office of Institutional Research, 2011).

Additionally, there were three hundred and ninety-four international students, which is a one point five percent of the total student population. This small population comprised two hundred and eighty seven regular university students and one hundred and seven English as Second Language (ESL) students. It is estimated that 40 % of international students come from the Middle East, 35 % from Asia, 12 % from Africa, 11% from Europe, 1 % from Australia, and 1% from South America. There are other international students who are either permanent residents or naturalized citizens, but the International Education Office does not record their immigration status. Moreover, the international student population represented forty seven different countries at the time of this study (International Education Office, 2011).

The student and faculty random sample consisted of representatives from academic departments where international students did not take classes, took classes as part of their major, or took one or more classes to fulfill their university general education requirements. Furthermore, the academic departments selected for participation in the study are: Accounting, Anthropology, Art, Aviation, Biology, Broadcasting, Business, Chemistry, Computer Science, Education, Eastern English Language Instruction (EELI), Emergency Medical Care, English, Fashion/Interior Design, Fire and Safety Engineering, Foreign Languages & Humanities, Forensic Science, Government, History, Industrial Technology, Journalism, Mathematics, Music, Nursing, Occupational Science, Philosophy, Physical Education, Physical Therapy, Physics, Political Science, Pre-Law, Psychology, Sign Language, Sports Management, and Statistics. It is important to note that with the exception of the Business, Education, English, Mathematics, and Nursing departments, the number of faculty members in other academic departments is small. Hence, the random sample of faculty and student participants should reflect such disproportion in faculty and student departmental distribution.

Additionally, the researcher identified two separate groups to survey. First, the quasi-experimental group consisted of American-born students and faculty from specific academic departments, where international students declare their majors. These American students and faculty members had many opportunities to interact with and observe international students. Therefore, for purposes of the first two research questions, the quasi-experimental group will be called “international-related majors.” Second, the control- or comparison- group consisted of American-born students and faculty from academic departments, where international students seldom declare their majors.

American students and faculty members from the latter sample group have very few to no opportunities to interact with and observe international students. Thus, the control group will be referred to as “non-international-related majors.” The researcher identified these two separate groups based on the number of international students participating in the listed academic departments. For instance, academic departments with five or more international students will be used in the experimental group and academic departments with less than five international students will be used in the control group. Appendix A shows the participating departments in the experimental and control groups.

The Office of Institutional Research provided the researcher with a random sample of two thousand students from all the relevant academic departments listed, and five hundred students responded, for a 25 % return rate. Also, the questionnaire was sent to two hundred faculty members and one hundred and twenty responded, for a 60 % return rate.

Furthermore, the sample of students and faculty selected for this study were Americans. The researcher requested that only American-born students and faculty are allowed to take the survey because immigrants tend to sympathize with and have lower social distance from other minority groups and hence the gathered views might be inherently biased. In other words, to ensure objectivity of perspectives, the study excluded students and faculty that are naturalized citizens or permanent residents. Naturalized citizens are green card immigrants who lived in the United States legally for a period of time and then petitioned and passed a citizenship test. Permanent residents, on the other hand, are green card holders, who became permanent residents as a result of marriage to an American citizen, special skills and talents they have, or simply by

winning the annual green card lottery. Permanent residents have almost the same privileges as American citizens, but they cannot vote.

The third research question required a different sample. That is, the third question required a sample of White, Non-Hispanic students or faculty and a sample of Non-White students or faculty. Demographic information drawn from the same survey instrument included the participants' ethnicity, comprising White, non-Hispanic, Black, non-Hispanic, Hispanic /Latino, Asian, American Indian or Alaskan Native, Hawaiian or Pacific-Islander, and Two or More Races. These categories were used as independent variables to address the third research question. The participants' ethnicity was then transformed into White versus Non-White. Furthermore, for question three, the dependent variable was a set of five ethnicities: European, African, Asian, Hispanic, and Middle Eastern. The question was addressed by comparing the ranks assigned by two groups of participants to each of these five ethnicities. Separate t-tests were used to determine White versus Non-White differences in average scores for each ethnicity. For example, if the average rank for the European ethnicity were 2.5 for White participants and 1.5 for Non-White participants, the test would determine the significance of this difference.

Instrumentation

To measure the educational and cultural impact of international students on American students and faculty at this Appalachian University, the researcher used Shabahang's revised version of an *International Education Opinionnaire* (See Appendix B). For this particular study, the researcher has introduced some changes to Shabahang's version of the survey. The changes and additions the researcher made are as follows: the

original survey was developed for students, faculty, and administrators at metropolitan community colleges, where international student population fluctuated between 5% and 17%. Also, Shabahang surveyed three community colleges in the Washington D.C. area. The researcher's instrument, however, focused on American students and faculty only, because the selected university for the study has a small international student population, 1.5 % of the entire student population, and administrators have little to no contact with international students. In addition, the original survey consisted of two untitled sections. The first section consisted of nine questions and was primarily biographical and asked about American students, faculty, and administrator's participation in international events. Furthermore, the second section consisted of twenty one questions about American students, faculty, and administrator's perceptions of the educational and cultural impact of international students.

The revised instrument is divided into three sections entitled respectively as: International Educational Impact, International Cultural Impact, and Personal Inventory (See Appendices C&D). Also, the researcher developed a separate instrument for each group surveyed, because the first section, International Educational Influence, consists of two different questions on the educational impact international students have on American students and faculty.

In the faculty survey, questions 5 (participation of international students positively affects the teaching styles of faculty members) and 6 (participation of international students negatively affects the teaching styles of faculty members) ask American faculty to record whether class participation of international students positively or negatively affected the teaching style of faculty members. Questions 5 and 6 are

antithetical to make sure that participants understand the questions and hence provide consistent answers.

Conversely, in the student survey, questions 5 (Participation of international students positively affects the learning experience of American students) and 6 (Participation of international students negatively affects the learning experience of American students) ask American students to verify whether class participation of international students positively or negatively affected their learning experience. Many American students are likely to find that class participation of international students enhances their learning experiences as they become aware of new and different perspectives. Other American students may not, on the other hand, find that class participation of international students improves their learning experience. In fact, some American students may feel that their classroom learning experiences are shortchanged by a professor who adopts different teaching styles to accommodate international students. Additionally, questions 1 (Multilingual international students motivate American students to study foreign languages) and 2 (International students raise the level of achievement of American students) were added to measure motivation and achievement levels created by international students. Also, questions 7 (When I socially interact with international students, my first feeling is: Alienation and contempt, avoidance and skeptical distrust, fair and equitable consideration only, limited trust and friendship, or absolute and unconditional trust), 14 (My relationship with international students has made me more tolerant of people of other racial and ethnic backgrounds), and 15 (Please rate whether you have a negative, positive, or neutral view of each of the following ethnic groups: Middle Eastern, African, Asian, European, and Hispanic Latino) were added to

specifically measure trust of international students, tolerance inspired by international students, and preference of a particular ethnic group of international students. Likewise, questions 7, 14, and 15 were added to the survey to test the level of acceptance or sympathy with an individual or a group as pointed out by Emory Bogardus' social distance theory.

Furthermore, the new instrument consisted of twenty six items and three sections. Section I, International Educational Impact, consisted of questions 1 through 6 and measured the educational impact of international students using a likert rating scale (1 = Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Agree, 4 = Strongly Agree, and 5 = Don't Know). For example, question 1 posits that multilingual international students make American students more motivated to study foreign languages. Likewise, question 4 speculates that international students, prepared in English skills, tend to bring a better attitude towards learning than American students and therefore may improve the quality of education. For a complete list of questions from section I of the survey, see Appendix C.

Section II, International Cultural Impact, consisted of questions 7 through 15 and measured the cultural impact of international students using a likert rating scale. Question 7 measured the comfort level of American students and faculty when interacting with international students, whereas question 9 suggests that international students help promote cultural diversity on college campus. Question 14 posits that American students and faculty who interact with international students become more tolerant of people of other racial and ethnic backgrounds. Also, question 15 tested American students and faculty preferences regarding an ethnically diverse group of international students using a

likert scale (1 = Negative, 2 = Neutral, 3 = Positive). For a complete list of questions from section II of the survey, see Appendix C.

Finally, Section III, Personal Inventory, was descriptive and consisted of questions 16 through 26. Questions 16 through 19 addressed demographic data and questions 20 through 26 addressed the frequency of interaction with international people, friendship with international people, and interest in international issues, including news, language, movies, events, and travel.

As a result of committee feedback and input from the University Office of Institutional Research, the researcher made a few changes in the original language of the survey. The instrument was also submitted to three other doctoral committee members before it was finally submitted to a panel of experts from The Institutional Review Board (IRB) for approval at the Appalachian University selected for this study. After incorporating suggestions made by the IRB, the researcher administered the instrument to the randomly selected student and faculty population in fall 2011. The Cronbach Alpha reliability coefficient was employed to determine the internal consistency of the survey questions. As a result, the reliability from the faculty survey was found to be $\alpha = .90$ for the educational impact and $\alpha = .84$ for the cultural impact. The reliability from the student's survey was $\alpha = .86$ for the educational impact and $\alpha = .92$ for the cultural impact.

Procedures

The online survey was administered to a random sample population from the five university campuses on September 15, 2011. The researcher had developed cover letters to send to all participants to inform them about the researcher, the research advisor, and

the purpose of the study (Appendices E&F). Also, to maximize participation and efficiency, the researcher did not use the traditional method of sending letters, but instead distributed the instrument using the online version of “survey monkey.” Each online survey emailed to the random sample of students or faculty participants was accompanied with a letter explaining the nature and purpose of the survey, and clarifying issues of confidentiality (Appendices E & F). Professional staff from Information Technology (IT) assisted in creating the online survey and the Office of Institutional Research provided the random sample of student and faculty participants.

In addition to using the survey monkey, the researcher wrote department chairs of health sciences, fire and safety engineering, English, foreign languages and humanities, EELI, and philosophy to solicit their help promoting the study among faculty and students in their respective academic department (See Appendix G). The director of the Office of International Education also wrote a letter to promote the study in the five university colleges. Finally, after obtaining the random sample from the Office of Institutional Research, the researcher sent the instrument to the selected students and faculty via their university email addresses.

After approximately one month, responses to the survey on the impact of international students were received. Out of the total 2200 surveys emailed to students and faculty, 591 (27 %) were received and used for data analysis. Out of the total 2000 surveys emailed to students, 471 (25 %) were received and out of the total 200 surveys emailed to faculty, 120 (60 %) were received. It is important to note that some emails bounced back and that a number of selected students and faculty members could not take

the survey when they discovered they had to be born in the U.S., a criterion that the researcher set to ensure objectivity.

Explanation

It was hypothesized that American students and faculty in the international-related departments will have lower social distance from international students and hence they will have more positive perceptions of the international educational and cultural impact, because of some level of contact with international students. American students and faculty in non-international-related departments, however, will have a higher level of social distance from international students and thus they will experience less positive international educational and cultural impact, because of the paucity of opportunities to interact with international students. Furthermore, to control for the influence of other independent variables from section three (Personal Inventory) on the test results, the researcher created a scoring index for questions 18 through 25 to identify individuals and groups with low or high social distance. Each answer of the eight questions is awarded one point if the survey taker gives an expected answer. See Appendix H for expected answers to questions 18 through 25. Therefore, using the scoring sheet, the researcher hypothesized that American students and faculty who score five or higher points from eight possible points are considered to have low social distance from international students; whereas, American students and faculty who score less than five points are considered to have high social distance from international students.

Statistical Methodology

The data collected were entered numerically into the Appalachian University's computer system. Also, the researcher used the 19th version of the Statistical Package for

the Social Sciences (SPSS) to run and analyze data. SPSS is widely used for statistical and data analysis purposes in the social sciences and other disciplines and it does most statistical tests and procedures (IBM.com, 2011).

To analyze the data, the researcher used both descriptive and inferential statistics. Descriptive statistics were used to obtain frequencies, percentages, means, and standard deviations to report the demographics of the research participants. Furthermore, inferential statistics were used to run three independent samples t-tests to analyze the three research hypotheses. The .05 level of significance was used as a criterion for testing the three hypotheses.

The research hypotheses used in this study include, hypothesis 1 which stems from the first research question: There will be significant differences between American students or faculty in international-related departments and non-international-related departments regarding their views on the educational impact of international students. An independent sample t-test was administered to compare the means and standard deviations of both groups (students and faculty).

Hypothesis 2 is linked to the second research question and speculates that there will be significant differences between American students or faculty in international-related departments and non-international-related departments regarding their views on the cultural impact of international students. An independent sample t-test was administered to compare the means and standard deviations of both groups (students and faculty).

Hypothesis 3 stems from the third research question and it posits that White, Non-Hispanic and Non-White American students or faculty have different views of five ethnic

groups of international students. In order to test this hypothesis, an independent samples t-test was administered to compare the means and standard deviations of both groups (White, Non-Hispanic and Non-White).

Summary

An Appalachian University was selected to measure the impact international students had on its American-born students and faculty. A total of 2200 students and faculty were randomly selected to participate in this research and 591 responded, a response rate of 27 %. The researcher's revised version of the *International Education Opinionnaire* was used to measure the views of the selected sample of American students and faculty regarding the educational and cultural impact of international students. Respondents were also asked to rank five ethnic groups of international students. The instrument consisted of 26 questions and three sections. Section I, International Educational Impact, was developed to measure the educational impact of international students on campus. Section II, International Cultural Impact, consisted of questions that addressed the perceived cultural impact of international students on American students and faculty. Section III, Personal Inventory, was developed to gather biographical information and venues for participants to interact with international people and participate in international activities. After approximately a month of data collection, a total response rate of 27 % was obtained. The collected data were processed in a computer using SPSS. Descriptive statistics was used to obtain frequencies, percentages, means, and standard deviations and inferential statistics was used to run independent sample t-tests to analyze data.

Chapter Three presented the methodological procedures employed for this study. The chapter described the purpose of the study and research questions, sample population, instrumentation, data collection procedures, and statistical tests administered for analysis purposes. Chapter Four will present the findings of the tests run and will discuss and interpret the findings in relation to the study's research questions and hypotheses presented in the first chapter.

Chapter Four

Data Analysis

This study was designed to assess the educational and cultural impact of international students on American students and faculty at an Appalachian university in the Central Kentucky area. American students (N = 471) and faculty (N = 120) from “international-related departments,” (IRs) and “non-international-related departments” (NIRs) responded to the instrument.

The results of the study were determined by analysis of the data obtained from Shabahang’s (1992) revised survey, the *International Education Opinionnaire*. The researcher employed the 19th version of the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS, 2011) to analyze data. Both descriptive and inferential statistics were utilized in this study. This chapter addresses the Appalachian university, the demographics of the participants, and the results of the three research questions and hypotheses.

The Appalachian University

The Appalachian University, located in central Kentucky, offers 186 degree programs, attracts students from 40 states and 47 foreign countries, and it has a main campus and four regional campuses. Although international students attend only the main campus, a random sample of participants included students and faculty from all five campuses to solicit broader perspectives on the impact of these foreign sojourners.

Demographics of Participants

After one month of data collection, the sample included American-born students (N = 471 or 24%) and faculty members (N = 120 or 60%). The overall return rate of participation in this study was 27 % (See Table 1). The majority of respondents from

student and faculty groups were female (See Table 2). This finding is very close to the actual gender division of students and faculty at the university community (Institutional Research, 2011).

Table 1
Response Rate of Participants

Appalachian University	Surveys Emailed	Survey Received	% Response Rate
Students	2000	503	22%
Faculty	200	120	60%
Total	2200	623	35%

Table 2
Gender of Respondents

Gender	Students		Faculty	
	N	%	N	%
Male	164	34.8	61	53
Female	307	65.2	54	47

From the student data, the largest portion of respondents (N = 386 or 82.3%) was in the age range of 18-29 years (See Table 3), the second largest group of respondents (N = 50 or 10.7%) was in the age range of 30-39, and the third group of respondents (N = 20

or 4.3%) was in the age range of 40-49. These age ranges are representative of the overall student population on campus (Institutional Research, 2001).

Whereas from the faculty data, the largest portion of respondents (N = 33 or 29.2%) was in the age range of 60 years and above (See Table 3). The second largest portion of respondents (N = 30 or 26.5%) was in the age range of 40-49, and the third group of respondents (N = 26 or 23 %) was in the age range of 50-59. Faculty age ranges are not published on the university website, and as such the researcher could not verify if participants' age ranges are reflective of the actual age ranges of all faculty members working at the university. They do, however, consist of three distinct age groups, which have bearing on American faculty attitudes and beliefs toward international students.

Table 3

Age of Respondents

Age	Students		Faculty	
	N	%	N	%
18-29	386	82.3	2	1.8
30-39	50	10.7	22	19.5
40-49	20	4.3	30	26.5
50-59	11	2.3	26	23
60 and above	2	.4	33	29.2

Furthermore, the majority of respondents from student data (N = 418 or 83.1%) were White, Non-Hispanic (See Table 4), followed by Black, Non-Hispanic (N = 15 or

3%). The third ethnic group of student participants described itself as having Two or More Races (N = 12 or 2.4%). The percentages of representative ethnic groups here are similar to those of the university (Institutional Research, 2011).

From faculty data, the majority of participants were White, Non-Hispanic (N = 99 or 87.6%). The second largest faculty group (N = 7 or 6.2%) preferred not to identify their ethnic or racial background, and the third faculty participants (N = 4 or 3.5%) identified themselves as having Two or More Races (See Table 4). These percentages of faculty participants' ethnic groups closely reflect the university's faculty ethnic divisions (Institutional Research, 2011).

Table 4

Ethnic Background of Respondents

Ethnic Background	Students		Faculty	
	N	%	N	%
White, Non-Hispanic	418	83.1	99	87.6
Black, Non-Hispanic	15	3	3	2.7
Asian	6	1.2	0	0
Amer Indian/ AlaskaNative	2	.4	0	0
Two or More Races	12	2.4	4	3.5
Prefer not to say	10	2.0	7	6.2

In addition to gender, age, and ethnic backgrounds of student respondents, there were 142 (30.1%) seniors, 118 (25.1%) freshmen, and 110 (23.4%) juniors (See Table 5). These statistics, too, are closely reflective of the university's overall division of student classification (Institutional Research, 2011).

Table 5

Student Classification

Classification	Students	
	N	%
Freshman	118	25.1
Sophomore	97	20.6
Junior	110	23.4
Senior	142	30.1
Graduate	4	.8
Total	471	100

Regarding the social interactions and friendships of participants with international students, American students and faculty indicated that they interacted with international students. For example, 175 (37.3%) American students stated that they interacted weekly, 134 (28.6%) interacted monthly, and 84 (17.9%) never interacted with international students (See Table 6). Moreover, 288 (61.5%) American students indicated that they had 1-5 international acquaintances and 140 (29.9%) had 1-5 international friends. Whereas, only 1 (.2%) American student had 6-10 international friends.

On the other hand, 43 (37.4%) American faculty indicated they socially interacted weekly, 23 (20%) interacted monthly, and 7 (6.1%) never interacted with international students (See Table 6). Furthermore, 50 (44.2%) American faculty members had 1-5 international acquaintances, 61 (53%) had 1-5 international friends, and only 7 (6.1%) faculty members had 6-10 international friends.

Table 6

Interaction and Friendship with International Students

Interaction/Acquaintance/ Friendship	American Students		American Faculty	
	N	%	N	%
Weekly	175	37.3	43	37.4
Monthly	134	28.6	23	20
Never	84	17.9	7	6.1
1-5 Int. acquaintances	288	61.5	50	44.2
1-5 Int. friends	140	29.9	61	53
6-10 Int. friends	1	.2	7	6.1

In relation to respondents participation in international activities, 248 (53.1%) American students indicated that they read or listened to international news and internet and television were their primary sources of information (See Table 7). Furthermore, 219 (47.7%) American students ascertained that they watched foreign movies at least once a semester. Also, 200 (42.7%) American students indicated that they visited a foreign country in their life time. Additionally, 29 (6.3%) American students had international

roommates at some point in their life. Finally, over 90% of student respondents confirmed they had studied a foreign language.

However, 95 (82.6%) American faculty members indicated that they read or listened to international news (See Table 7). Similarly, 71 (64%) American faculty members reported that they watched foreign movies at least once a semester and 99 (87.6%) indicated that they visited a foreign country in their life time. Moreover, 30 (26.1%) American faculty members had international roommates sometime in the past. Finally, 90% of faculty respondents confirmed they had studied a foreign language.

Table 7

Participation in International Activities

International Activities	American Students		American Faculty	
	N	%	N	%
Read/Listen to News	248	53.1	95	82.6
Watch Foreign Movies	219	47.7	71	64
Visit Foreign Country	200	42.7	99	87.6
Learn Foreign Language	426	91.4	107	94.7
Have International Roommate	29	6.3	30	26.1

Data Results

Research Question 1

Are there differences between American students or faculty in international-related majors (IRs) and non-international-related majors (NIRs) regarding their views on the educational impact of international students?

Research Hypothesis 1

There are differences between American students or faculty in international-related major (IRs) and non-international-related majors (NIRs) regarding their views on the educational impact of international students.

Student Findings

This section presents the null hypothesis, which posits that there are no statistical differences between students in international-related departments and students in non-international-related departments. The alternative hypothesis, on the other hand, posits that there are differences between the two student groups (See Table 8 for test results).

H_0 : \bar{x}_s (student mean) in international-related departments = \bar{x}_s in non-international-related departments.

H_a : \bar{x}_s in international-related departments \neq \bar{x}_s in non-international-related departments.

Table 8

Student Survey Results of Educational Variables

T						
Educational Impact Questions	International Related Departments	\bar{x}	SD	t	df	p
	No	2.72	.746			
2. International students raise the level of achievement of American students.	Yes	2.46	.743	-.525	270	.600
	No	2.51	.738			
3. International students stimulate the learning environment by providing different perspectives.	Yes	3.09	.631	-1.541	373	.124
	No	3.19	.675			
4. International students prepared in English skills tend to bring a better attitude towards learning than American students and therefore improve the quality of education.	Yes	2.69	.808	-.730	312	.466
	No	2.76	.837			
5. Participation of international students positively affects the learning experience of American students.	Yes	2.96	.659	-1.830	306	.068
	No	3.09	.627			
6. Participation of international students negatively affects the learning experience of American students.	Yes	3.25	.587	.529	338	.597
	No	3.21	.713			

Independent samples t-tests from Table 8 revealed that there were no significant differences in the educational impact of international students between American students in international-related academic departments (IRs) and American students in Non-international-related academic departments (NIRs). The following are the t-test results for the six dependent variables:

Survey question 1: IRs (M= 2.58, SD = .710) and NIRs (M= 2.72, SD = .746), $t(345) = -1.71$, $p > .05$. Survey question 2: IRs (M= 2.46, SD = .743) and NIRs (M= 2.51, SD = .738), $t(270) = -.53$, $p > .05$. Survey question 3: IRs (M= 3.09, SD = .631) and NIRs (M= 3.19, SD = .675), $t(373) = -1.55$, $p > .05$. Survey question 4: IRs (M= 3.64, SD = .808) and NIRs (M= 2.76, SD = .837), $t(312) = -.74$, $p > .05$. Survey question 5: IRs (M= 2.96, SD = .659) and NIRs (M= 3.09, SD = .627), $t(306) = -1.84$, $p > .05$. Survey question 6: IRs (M= 3.25, SD = .587) and NIRs (M= 3.21, SD = .713), $t(338) = .53$, $p > .05$.

Assuming equal variances, the p value in all six dependent variables is greater than .05.

Therefore, we fail to reject the null hypothesis and conclude that there were no significant statistical differences between the two student groups.

Faculty Findings

The next section about faculty data results introduces the null hypothesis, which speculates that there are no statistical differences between the two faculty groups. The alternative hypothesis, on the other hand, posits that there are differences between the two groups (See Table 9 for test results).

H_0 : \bar{x}_f (faculty mean) in international-related departments = \bar{x}_f in non-international-related departments.

H_a : \bar{x}_f international-related departments \neq \bar{x}_f non-international-related departments.

Table 9

Faculty Survey Results of Educational Variables

Educational Impact Questions	International Related Departments	\bar{x}	SD	t	df	p
1. Multilingual international students motivate American students to study foreign languages.	Yes	2.46	.833	-1.283	57	.205
	No	2.69	.530			
2. International students raise the level of achievement of American students.	Yes	2.37	.809	-1.382	60	.172
	No	2.63	.660			
3. International students stimulate the learning environment by providing different perspectives.	Yes	3.23	.777	-2.537	94	.013*
	No	3.56	.501			
4. International students prepared in English skills tend to bring a better attitude towards learning than American students and therefore improve the quality of education.	Yes	2.66	.902	-1.446	71	.153
	No	2.95	.835			
5. Participation of international students positively affects the teaching styles of American faculty.	Yes	3.00	.625	-.557	72	.579
	No	3.09	.627			
6. Participation of international students negatively affects the teaching styles of American faculty.	Yes	3.36	.683	.016	73	.988
	No	3.36	.486			

*significant difference

The independent samples t-tests from Table 9 showed that except for survey question 3, there were no significant differences in the educational impact of international students between American faculty in international-related academic departments (IRs)

and American faculty in Non-international-related academic departments (NIRs). The faculty t-test results for the six questions on the educational impact are as follows: Survey question 1: IRs (M= 2.46, SD = .833) and NIRs (M= 2.69, SD = .530), $t(57) = -1.29$, $p > .05$. Survey question 2: IRs (M= 2.37, SD = .809) and NIRs (M= 2.63, SD = .660), $t(60) = -1.39$, $p > .05$. Survey question 3: IRs (M= 3.23, SD = .777) and NIRs (M= 3.56, SD = .501), $t(94) = -2.54$, $p < .05$. Survey question 4: IRs (M= 2.66, SD = .902) and NIRs (M= 2.95, SD = .835), $t(71) = -1.45$, $p > .05$. Survey question 5: IRs (M= 3.00, SD = .659) and NIRs (M= 3.09, SD = .627), $t(72) = -.56$, $p > .05$. Survey question 6: IR (M= 3.36, SD = .683) and NIR (M= 3.36, SD = .486), $t(73) = .02$, $p > .05$.

The p value in survey questions 1, 2, 4, 5, and 6 is greater than .05. Therefore, we fail to reject the null hypotheses in all five dependent variables and conclude that there was no significant statistical difference between the international-related (low social distance) and non-international-related (high social distance) faculty groups. Nonetheless, the independent samples t-test of survey question 3 (International students stimulate the learning environment by providing different perspectives) showed that there was a significant difference between the two faculty groups. Studying the mean scores of international-related academic departments (M = 3.23, SD = .777) and non-international-related academic departments (M = 3.56, SD = .501), where $p < .05$, we therefore reject the null hypothesis.

Research Question 2

Are there differences between American students or faculty in international-related majors and non-international-related majors regarding their views on the cultural impact of international students?

Research Hypothesis 2

There are differences between American students and faculty in international-related departments and non-international-related departments regarding the cultural impact of international students.

Student Findings

This section about student data results introduces the null hypothesis, which contends that there are no statistical differences between the two student groups and the alternative hypothesis, which speculates that there are differences between the two groups (See Table 10 for test results).

H_o : $\bar{x}s$ (student mean) in international-related departments = $\bar{x}s$ in non-international-related departments.

H_a : $\bar{x}s$ in international-related departments \neq $\bar{x}s$ in non-international-related departments.

Table 10

Student Survey Results of Cultural Variables

Cultural Impact Questions	International	\bar{x}	SD	t	df	P
	Related Departments					
9. Int. students improve the ability of this campus community to accept others.	Yes	3.18	.526	.889	346	.374
	No	3.12	.631			
10. Int. students increase the campus community's appreciation of cultural differences and similarities	Yes	3.12	.515	-1.207	319	.228
	No	3.19	.593			
11. It is easy to learn about another culture through personal contact with int. students on this campus.	Yes	3.16	.547	-1.400	310	.162
	No	3.25	.613			
12. By learning about other cultures from int. students, Am. students are able to develop a greater awareness of their own culture.	Yes	2.99	.627	-2.120	354	.035*
	No	3.13	.586			
13. It is important for our university to provide students and faculty with intercultural knowledge, skills, and experiences.	Yes	3.14	.614	-2.958	296	.003*
	No	3.33	.608			
14. My relationship with int. students has made me more tolerant of people of other racial and ethnic groups.	Yes	3.10	.694	-.160	328	.873
	No	3.12	.738			

*Significant statistical difference

Results of the independent samples t-tests from Table 11 indicated that except for questions 12 and 13, there were no significant statistical differences between American students in international-related (IR) academic departments and American students in non-international-related (NIR) academic departments regarding the cultural impact of international students. The following are the t-test results for the six dependent variables: Survey question 9: IRs (M= 3.18, SD = .526) and NIRs (M= 3.12, SD = .631), $t(346) = .89$, $p > .05$. Survey question 10: IRs (M= 3.12, SD = .515) and NIRs (M= 3.19, SD = .593), $t(319) = -1.21$, $p > .05$. Survey question 11: IRs (M= 3.16, SD = .547) and NIRs (M= 3.25, SD = .613), $t(310) = 1.40$, $p > .05$. Survey question 12: IRs (M= 2.99, SD = .627) and NIRs (M= 3.13, SD = .586), $t(354) = -2.12$, $p < .05$. Survey question 13: IRs (M= 3.14, SD = .614) and NIRs (M= 3.33, SD = .608), $t(296) = -2.96$, $p < .05$. Survey question 14: IRs (M= 3.10, SD = .694) and NIRs (M= 3.12, SD = .738), $t(328) = -.17$, $p > .05$.

The p value in dependent variables 9, 10, 11, and 14 is greater than .05. Therefore, we fail to reject the null hypotheses and conclude that there were no significant differences in the cultural impact of international students between the international-related (low social distance) and non-international-related (high social distance) student groups. Conversely, the p value of questions 12 and 13 is $< .05$. We conclude that there were differences in these two questions and thus we reject their null hypotheses.

Faculty Findings

The following section about faculty data results presents the null and alternative hypotheses (See Table 11 for test results).

H_o : $\bar{x}f$ (student mean) in international-related departments = $\bar{x}f$ in non-international-related departments.

H_a : $\bar{x}f$ in international-related departments \neq $\bar{x}f$ in non-international-related departments

Table 11

Faculty Survey Results of Cultural Variables

Cultural Impact Questions	International Related Departments	\bar{x}	SD	t	df	P
9. Int. students improve the ability of this campus community to accept others.	Yes	3.35	.633	-1.294	84	.199
	No	3.51	.505			
10. Int. students increase the campus community's appreciation of cultural differences and similarities	Yes	3.35	.633	-1.633	88	.106
	No	3.55	.503			
11. It is easy to learn about another culture through personal contact with int. students on this campus.	Yes	3.18	.790	1.006	86	.317
	No	3.02	.692			

Table 11 (continued)

Cultural Impact Questions	International Related Departments	\bar{x}	SD	t	df	P
	12. By learning about other cultures from int. students, Am. students are able to develop a greater awareness of their own culture.	Yes	2.94	.639	-2.785	87
	No	3.28	.492			
13. It is important for our university to provide students and faculty with intercultural knowledge, skills, and experiences.	Yes	3.46	.636	-.601	97	.550
	No	3.53	.537			
14. My relationship with int. students has made me more tolerant of people of other racial and ethnic groups.	Yes	3.14	.976	-.453	76	.652
	No	3.22	.652			

*Significant statistical difference

Results of the independent samples t-tests from Table 11 revealed that except for survey question 12, there were no significant statistical differences between American faculty in international-related academic departments (IRs) and faculty in non-international-related academic departments (NIRs) in survey questions 9, 10, 11, 13, and 14. The independent samples t-test results are as follows:

Survey question 9: IRs (M= 3.35, SD = .633) and NIRs (M= 3.51, SD = .505), $t(84) = -1.30$, $p > .05$. Survey question 10: IRs (M= 3.35, SD = .633) and NIRs (M= 3.55, SD = .503), $t(88) = -1.64$, $p > .05$. Survey question 11: IRs (M= 3.18, SD = .790) and NIRs (M= 3.02, SD = .692), $t(86) = 1.01$, $p > .05$. Survey question 12: IRs (M= 2.94, SD = .639) and NIRs (M= 3.28, SD = .492), $t(87) = -2.79$, $p < .05$. Survey question 13: IRs

($M= 3.46$, $SD = .636$) and NIRs ($M= 3.53$, $SD = .537$), $t(97) = -.61$, $p > .05$. Survey question 14: IRs ($M= 3.14$, $SD = .976$) and NIRs ($M= 3.22$, $SD = .652$), $t(76) = -.46$, $p > .05$.

The p value in dependent variables 9, 10, 11, 13, and 14 is greater than .05. Therefore, we fail to reject the null hypotheses and conclude that there were no significant differences in the cultural impact of international students between the international-related (low social distance) and non-international-related (high social distance) faculty groups. There was, however, a significant difference in survey question 12 (By learning about other cultures from international students, American students are able to develop a greater awareness of their own culture) between the two groups of faculty members, where p value is smaller than .05. Hence, we reject the null hypothesis.

Research Question 3

Are there differences between White, Non-Hispanic and Non-White American students or faculty regarding their views of the five listed ethnic groups of international students?

Research Hypothesis 3

There are differences between White/Non-Hispanic and Non-White American students or faculty regarding their views of the five listed ethnic groups of international students.

Student Findings

This section introduces the null and alternative hypotheses of the five ethnic groups tested (See Table 12 for test results).

H_0 : \bar{x}_s (student mean) White, Non-Hispanic student = \bar{x}_s Non-White students.

H_a : \bar{x} s White, Non-Hispanic student \bar{x} s \neq Non-White students.

Table 12

Student Survey Results for Ethnic Variables

Ethnic Groups	White* vs. Non-White	\bar{x}	SD	t	df	p
European	White*	2.61	.512	.899	457	.369
	Non-White	2.54	.552			
Asian	White*	2.54	.545	-.213	456	.831
	Non-White	2.56	.550			
African	White*	2.50	.581	-.678	456	.498
	Non-White	2.56	.594			
Hispanic/Latino	White*	2.32	.640	-.693	457	.489
	Non-White	2.39	.586			
Middle Eastern	White*	2.22	.640	-1.573	457	.116
	Non-White	2.39	.666			

*White, Non-Hispanic

Although the majority of mean scores are consistently higher among Non-White than White, Non-Hispanic student groups, the statistical results from the independent samples t-tests revealed no significant differences between White, Non-Hispanic and Non-White student groups. The following are the independent samples t-test results from American student data about their views of five ethnic international student groups: European students: White, Non-Hispanic (M = 2.61, SD = .512) and Non-White (M = 2.54, SD = .552), $t(457) = .90$, $p > .05$; Asian students: White, Non-Hispanic (M = 2.54, SD = .545) and Non-White (M = 2.56, SD = .550), $t(456) = -.22$, $p > .05$; African student: White, Non-Hispanic (M = 2.50, SD = .581) and Non-White (M = 2.56, SD = .594), $t(456) = -.68$, $p > .05$; Hispanic/Latino students: White, Non-Hispanic (M = 2.32, SD = .640) and Non-White (M = 2.39, SD = .586), $t(457) = -.70$, $p > .05$; and Middle

Eastern students: White, Non-Hispanic (M = 2.22, SD = .640) and Non-White (M = 2.39, SD = .666), $t(457) = -1.58, p > .05$.

Assuming equal variances, the p value in all dependent variables is greater than .05. Therefore, we fail to reject the null hypotheses and conclude that there were no significant differences in ethnic ranking between the international-related (low social distance) and non-international-related (high social distance) student groups.

Faculty Findings

The next section from faculty data introduces the null and alternative hypotheses for the five international ethnic groups (See Table 13 for test results).

H_0 : \bar{x}_f (faculty mean) White, Non-Hispanic faculty = \bar{x}_f Non-White faculty.

H_a : \bar{x}_f White, Non-Hispanic faculty \neq \bar{x}_f Non-White faculty.

Table 13

Faculty Survey Results for Ethnic Variables

Ethnic Groups	White* vs. Non-White	\bar{x}	SD	t	df	p
European	White*	2.65	.501	-1.073	102	.286
	Non-White	2.86	.378			
Asian	White*	2.65	.500	-1.057	100	.293
	Non-White	2.86	.378			
African	White*	2.65	.501	-.331	102	.741
	Non-White	2.71	.488			

Table 13 (continued)

Ethnic Groups	White* vs. Non-White	\bar{x}	SD	t	df	P
Hispanic	White*	2.57	.537	-1.380	103	.171
/Latino	Non-White	2.86	.378			
Middle	White*	2.45	.594	-1.152	103	.252
Eastern	Non-White	2.71	.488			

*White, Non-Hispanic

Independent samples t-tests measuring ethnic ranking revealed that there were no significant statistical differences between White, Non-Hispanic ($M = 2.65$, $SD = .501$) and Non-White ($M = 2.86$, $SD = .378$) American faculty regarding their views about European students, $t(102) = -1.08$, $p > .05$; no significant statistical differences between White, Non-Hispanic ($M = 2.65$, $SD = .500$) and Non-White ($M = 2.86$, $SD = .378$) American faculty regarding their views about Asian students, $t(100) = -1.06$, $p > .05$; no significant statistical differences between White, Non-Hispanic ($M = 2.65$, $SD = .501$) and Non-White ($M = 2.71$, $SD = .488$) American faculty regarding their views about African students, $t(102) = -.34$, $p > .05$; no significant statistical differences between White, Non-Hispanic ($M = 2.57$, $SD = .537$) and Non-White ($M = 2.86$, $SD = .378$) American faculty regarding their views about Hispanic/Latino students, $t(103) = -1.39$, $p > .05$; and no significant statistical differences between White, Non-Hispanic ($M = 2.45$, $SD = .594$) and Non-White ($M = 2.71$, $SD = .488$) American faculty regarding their views about Middle Eastern students, $t(103) = -1.16$, $p > .05$.

The p value in all dependent variables is greater than .05. Therefore, we fail to reject the null hypotheses and conclude that there were no significant differences in ethnic

preference between the international-related (low social distance) and non-international-related (high social distance) faculty groups.

Summary

The researcher used a revised version of Shabahang's (1992) the *International Education Opinionnaire* to collect responses from American students and faculty regarding their views about the educational and cultural impact of international students at an Appalachian university. The sample consisted of American students (N = 471) and American faculty members (N = 120). The majority of respondents from students (65.2%) and faculty (53%) groups were females. Furthermore, the largest portion of respondents (N = 386 or 82.3%) from the student sample was in the age range of 18-29 years; whereas from the faculty group, the largest portion of respondents (N = 33 or 29.2%) was in the age range of 60 years and above. The majority of respondents from both students (N = 418 or 83.1%) and faculty (N = 99 or 87.6%) were White, Non-Hispanic. Likewise, American students (N = 175 or 37.3%) and faculty (N = 43 or 37.4%) indicated they interacted weekly with international students. Finally, 140 (29.9%) American students and 61 (53%) American faculty had 1-5 international friends.

American student and faculty responses to the educational and cultural impact of international students were mostly positive. There were no significant differences between American students and faculty from international-related departments (IRs) and non-international-related departments (NIRs) except in survey question 3 (International students stimulate the learning environment by providing different perspectives), where faculty from NIRs (M =3.56, SD = .501) agreed more with this statement than faculty from IRs (M =3.23, SD = .777). There was a significant difference on survey question 12

(By learning about other cultures from International students, American students are able to develop a greater awareness of their own culture), where American students from NIRs ($M= 3.13$, $SD = .586$) agreed more with this statement than did American students from IRs ($M= 2.99$, $SD = .627$). There was also a significant difference on survey question 13 (It is important for our university to provide students and faculty with intercultural knowledge, skills, and experiences), where American students from NIRs ($M= 3.33$, $SD = .608$) agreed more with this question than did American students from IRs ($M= 3.14$, $SD = .614$).

Regarding their views about the five ethnic groups of international students, there were no significant differences between White, Non-Hispanic and Non-White American students or faculty members from international-related academic departments and non-international-related academic departments. It is important to note, however, that 11% of American students and 6% of American faculty viewed students from the Middle East negatively.

Chapter IV presented the data results and findings drawn from data analysis. This chapter discussed the participating university, demographics of the respondents, and data findings and analyses based on the three research questions and hypotheses formulated for this research. Chapter V will present a summary and discussion of data results, implications for research and higher education practice, and recommendations for further study.

Chapter Five

Findings and Implications

This research addressed the educational and cultural effects of international students on their U.S. counterparts, and how five ethnic international student groups are perceived by White, Non-Hispanic and Non-White students and faculty. Therefore, this study investigated whether there was a significant statistical difference between IRs and NIRs. Research question 3 tested racial differences in perceptions of European, Asian, African, Hispanic/Latino, and Middle Eastern students. Chapter 5 presents a research summary, discussion of results, implications for research and higher education practice, and suggestions for further research.

Research Summary

To answer the three research questions, the researcher emailed an instrument to a random sample, which included American students (N = 471) and faculty (N=120) from eleven international-related departments (experimental group) and twenty two non-international-related departments (control group).

The researcher used a revised and improved version of Shabahang's (1993) *International Education Opinionnaire* to collect the views of the random sample regarding the educational and cultural impact of international students. Also, the researcher added a section to measure ethnic preferences among the participants. The survey consisted of 27 questions and three sections. Section I, International Educational Impact, consisted of six questions addressing issues pertaining to education. Section II, International Cultural Impact, consisted of nine questions addressing cultural issues. The researcher developed two questions (7 and 14) to measure the comfort level of American

students and faculty when interacting with international students, and their views about five different international ethnic groups. Section III, Personal Inventory, was descriptive and it consisted of four questions (16-19) addressing demographic data, and eight questions (20-27) addressing the frequency of interaction with international students, having international acquaintances and friends, listening to foreign news and watching foreign movies, learning a foreign language, living with a foreign student, and visiting a foreign country.

After securing approval from the Institutional Research Board and the research advisor, the researcher emailed the instrument to a random sample of American students (N =2000) and faculty (N =200) from all five university campuses. After one month and three reminders, out of the total 2200 surveys emailed to students and faculty, 591 (27 %) were received and used for data analysis. Out of 2000 surveys emailed to students, 471 (23 %) returned the survey; whereas out of 200 surveys emailed to faculty, 120 (60 %) returned the survey.

The collected data was processed in a university computer using the 19th version of SPSS. Descriptive as well as inferential statistics were used in this study. Descriptive statistics which included frequencies, percentages, means, and standard deviations were used to gather information about the characteristics of the respondents and to answer questions 20 through 27. Inferential statistics, on the other hand, employed three independent samples t-tests to analyze the three research hypotheses developed from the research questions.

The demographic data from the survey indicated that the majority of respondents were females, White, Non-Hispanic, interacted weekly with international students, had 1-

5 international acquaintances, and whose age range was 18-28 years for students and 60 years and above for faculty. Furthermore, the majority of participants studied a foreign language and listened to or read foreign news. However, 6.3% of American students and 26.1% of American faculty members had an international roommate at some point in their lives.

Discussion

The results of the independent samples t-tests about the educational and cultural impact of international students revealed that except for survey questions 3, 12, and 13, there were no significant statistical differences between student or faculty groups (See Tables 8 through 11). Study respondents agreed with four variables and moderately disagreed with two of the six educational impact variables.

Hypothesis 1

There are differences between American students or faculty in international-related major (IRs) and non-international-related majors (NIRs) regarding their views on the educational impact of international students.

American students. Considering the mean scores of data results from international-related departments and non-international-related departments, the educational impact items upon which American students agreed are:

Survey question 3: “International students stimulate the learning environment by providing different perspectives,” resulted in IRs ($M= 3.09$, $SD = .631$) and NIRs ($M= 3.19$, $SD = .675$); survey question 4: “International students prepared in English skills tend to bring a better attitude towards learning than American students and therefore improve the quality of education” resulted in IRs ($M= 3.64$, $SD = .808$) and NIRs ($M=$

2.76, SD = .837); survey question 5: “Participation of international students positively affects the learning experience of American students,” resulted in IRs (M= 2.96, SD = .659) and NIRs (M= 3.09, SD = .627)); and survey question 6: “Participation of international students negatively affects the learning experience of American students,” which resulted in IRs (M= 3.25, SD = .587) and NIRs (M= 3.21, SD = .713).

The items that American students moderately disagreed upon are:

Survey question 1: “Multilingual international students motivate American students to study foreign languages,” resulted in IRs (M= 2.58, SD = .710) and NIRs (M= 2.72, SD = .746); and survey question 2: “International students raise the level of achievement of American students,” which resulted in IRs (M= 2.46, SD = .743) and NIRs (M= 2.51, SD = .738).

American faculty. The educational impact items that generated agreement among American faculty members are:

Survey question 3: “International students stimulate the learning environment by providing different perspectives,” resulted in IRs (M= 3.23, SD = .777) and NIRs (M= 3.56, SD = .501); survey question 4: “International students prepared in English skills tend to bring a better attitude towards learning than American students and therefore improve the quality of education,” resulted in IRs (M= 2.66, SD = .902) and NIRs (M= 2.95, SD = .835); survey question 5: ““Participation of international students positively affects the teaching styles of American faculty,” resulted in IRs (M= 3.00, SD = .659) and NIRs (M= 3.09, SD = .627); and survey question 6: “Participation of international students negatively affects the teaching styles of faculty members,” which resulted in IRs (M= 3.36, SD = .683) and NIRs (M= 3.36, SD = .486).

Regarding the remaining two survey questions measuring the educational impact of international students, American faculty moderately disagreed with survey question 1: “Multilingual international students motivate American students to study foreign languages,” which resulted in IRs (M= 2.46, SD = .833) and NIRs (M= 2.69, SD = .530) and survey question 2, “International students raise the level of achievement of American students,” which resulted in IR (M= 2.37, SD = .809) and NIR (M= 2.63, SD = .660).

It is important to note, however, that overall 20% to 45% of respondents simply answered with “I don’t know.” Lack of knowledge is a very important variable to consider when analyzing the results of the educational impact of international students on American students and faculty.

Respondents’ moderate disagreement about the issues of motivation to study foreign languages (survey question 1), and raising the level of achievement of American students (survey question 2) can be explained in several ways. First, this is the first study at this university to examine the place and relevance of international students to the campus community. Second, the university is isolated from big metropolitan areas where students and faculty would have more exposure to international events. Third, the international student population at the university selected for this study is very small; only about 1.5 % of the total student population. Fourth, learning a foreign language is not a requirement at this university. In fact, even in the two major foreign languages taught at the university, only 23 American students major in Spanish teaching, 23 major in Spanish language, and 6 in French teaching. Also, 14 American students major in Global and International Affairs Studies (Institutional Research, 2011). Therefore, the

modest internationalization of the selected university might be a major factor affecting survey responses.

Hypothesis 2

Are there differences between American students or faculty in international-related majors and non-international-related majors regarding their views on the cultural impact of international students?

Student and faculty participants agreed or strongly agreed with the six tested cultural variables.

American students. Based on mean scores, American students agreed with the following cultural variables:

Survey question 9: “International Students help promote cultural diversity on college campus” resulted in IRs (M= 3.18, SD = .526) and NIRs (M= 3.12, SD = .631); survey question 10: “International students increase the campus community’s appreciation of cultural differences and similarities” resulted in IRs (M= 3.12, SD = .515) and NIRs (M= 3.19, SD = .593); survey question 11: “It is easy to learn about another culture through personal contact with international students on this campus,” resulted in IRs (M= 3.16, SD = .547) and NIRs (M= 3.25, SD = .613); survey question 12: “By learning about other cultures from international students, American students are able to develop a greater awareness of their own culture” resulted in IRs (M= 2.99, SD = .627) and NIRs (M= 3.13, SD = .586); survey question 13, “It is important for our university to provide students and faculty with intercultural knowledge, skills, and experiences,” resulted in American student participants scoring IRs (M= 2.99, SD = .627) and NIRs (M= 3.13, SD = .586); and survey question 14: “My relationship with international students has made

me more tolerant of people of other racial and ethnic groups” resulted in IRs ($M= 3.10$, $SD = .694$) and NIRs ($M= 3.12$, $SD = .738$).

American faculty. American faculty members at the Appalachian university agreed with the following cultural items:

Survey question 9: “International Students help promote cultural diversity on college campus,” resulted in IRs ($M= 3.35$, $SD = .633$) and NIRs ($M= 3.51$, $SD = .505$); survey question 10, “International students increase the campus community’s appreciation of cultural differences and similarities,” resulted in IRs ($M= 3.35$, $SD = .633$) and NIRs ($M= 3.55$, $SD = .503$). Furthermore, faculty members from IRs ($M= 3.18$, $SD = .790$) and NIRs ($M= 3.02$, $SD = .692$) moderately agreed with survey question 11, “It is easy to learn about another culture through personal contact with international students on this campus,” and participants moderately agreed (moderately disagreed) with survey question 12, “By learning about other cultures from international students, American students are able to develop a greater awareness of their own culture” resulted in IRs ($M= 2.94$, $SD = .639$) and NIRs ($M= 3.28$, $SD = .492$). Also, faculty members from IRs ($M= 3.46$, $SD = .636$) and NIRs ($M= 3.53$, $SD = .537$) agreed with survey question 13, “It is important for our university to provide students and faculty with intercultural knowledge, skills, and experiences.” Finally, faculty members from IRs ($M= 3.14$, $SD = .976$) and NIRs ($M= 3.22$, $SD = .652$) moderately agreed with survey question 14, “My relationship with international students has made me more tolerant of people of other racial and ethnic groups.”

Student and faculty agreement with most cultural variables can be attributed to an increasing interest in foreign cultures. The tragedy of September 11, 2001 and the recent

global economic crises have made Americans more aware of international issues that affect their daily lives. At the institutional level, the International Student Association organizes an annual international banquet, which showcases cuisine, art, and fashion from several foreign countries. Furthermore, the Office of International Education sponsors the international education week. Most American students and faculty, however, agreed with survey question 13, “It is important for our university to provide students and faculty with intercultural knowledge, skills, and experiences,” revealing the need for the institution to create more venues to increase intercultural skills and experiences for all stakeholders.

Hypothesis 3

There are differences between White, Non-Hispanic and Non-White American students or faculty regarding their views of five ethnic groups of international students.

The results of the independent samples t-test of survey question 15 assessing how White and Non-White American students or faculty rank international students from five different ethnic backgrounds revealed that there were no significant differences.

American students. There were no significant differences between White, Non-Hispanic ($M = 2.61$, $SD = .512$) and Non-White ($M = 2.54$, $SD = .552$) American students regarding their views about European students, $t(457) = .90$, $p > .05$; no significant statistical differences between White, Non-Hispanic ($M = 2.54$, $SD = .545$) and Non-White ($M = 2.56$, $SD = .550$) American students regarding their views about Asian students, $t(456) = -.22$, $p > .05$; no significant statistical differences between White, Non-Hispanic ($M = 2.50$, $SD = .581$) and Non-White ($M = 2.56$, $SD = .594$) American students regarding their views about African students, $t(456) = -.68$, $p > .05$;

no significant statistical differences between White, Non-Hispanic ($M = 2.32$, $SD = .640$) and Non-White ($M = 2.39$, $SD = .586$) American students regarding their views about Hispanic/Latino students, $t(457) = -.70$, $p > .05$; and no significant statistical differences between White, Non-Hispanic ($M = 2.22$, $SD = .640$) and Non-White ($M = 2.39$, $SD = .666$) American students regarding their views about Middle Eastern students, $t(457) = -1.58$, $p > .05$.

American faculty. Additionally, independent samples t-tests measuring ethnic preferences revealed that there were no significant statistical differences between White, Non-Hispanic ($M = 2.65$, $SD = .501$) and Non-White ($M = 2.86$, $SD = .378$) American faculty regarding their views about European students, $t(102) = -1.08$, $p > .05$; no significant statistical differences between White, Non-Hispanic ($M = 2.65$, $SD = .500$) and Non-White ($M = 2.86$, $SD = .378$) American faculty regarding their views about Asian students, $t(100) = -1.06$, $p > .05$; no significant statistical differences between White, Non-Hispanic ($M = 2.65$, $SD = .501$) and Non-White ($M = 2.71$, $SD = .488$) American faculty regarding their views about African students, $t(102) = -.34$, $p > .05$; no significant statistical differences between White, Non-Hispanic ($M = 2.57$, $SD = .537$) and Non-White ($M = 2.86$, $SD = .378$) American faculty regarding their views about Hispanic/Latino students, $t(103) = -1.39$, $p > .05$; and no significant statistical differences between White, Non-Hispanic ($M = 2.45$, $SD = .594$) and Non-White ($M = 2.71$, $SD = .488$) American faculty regarding their views about Middle Eastern students, $t(103) = -1.16$, $p > .05$.

Nonetheless, the majority of American students and faculty think positively about European and Asian students. African students ranked third with 54% of American

students and 65.2 % of American faculty expressed positive feelings about them.

Hispanic Latino students ranked fourth with 41.5% of American students and 61.2% of American faculty holding positive views about them. Students from the Middle East, however, ranked fifth and last in this study with only 35.5% of student participants and 50.9% of faculty respondents thinking positively about them.

Furthermore, out of 479 American students, 57 (11.9%) expressed negative feelings and 252 (52.6%) remained neutral about Middle Eastern students. Likewise, out of 115 American faculty members, 7 (6%) expressed negative feelings and 50 (43.4%) remained neutral about students from the Middle East. On the other hand, 2 (1.7) faculty participants revealed negative perceptions of Hispanic/Latino students and 43 (37.1%) expressed neutral feelings about them.

The marginal preference of Europeans and Asians can be attributed to Caucasian Americans' affinity to European ancestors and to the positive stereotypes about Asian intelligence and work ethics. Hispanic Latinos were viewed mostly negatively by student and faculty respondents due to the negative portrayal of Hispanics in the media as living illegally and exploiting the American social welfare system. Finally, consistent with the literature reviewed in chapter two, Middle Easterners are the least favorite ethnic group living in the U.S. due to their negative association with terrorism, oppression of women, and supposed hatred of anything Western.

It is important to note, nonetheless, that over 40 % of students and over 30% of faculty respondents chose to remain neutral about expressing their feelings about all five ethnic groups selected for this study. American student and faculty respondents were neutral the most about Hispanic/Latino and Middle Eastern students. Such attitudes may

be attributed in part to the small international student population represented at the Appalachian university. Lack of knowledge about Hispanic/Latino and Middle Eastern cultures and personal reservations might be other reasons respondents expressed neutrality about these two ethnic groups.

Lack of accurate information is often associated with prejudice and stereotypes. Highly prejudiced people are not motivated to form accurate impressions; rather they “are more motivated to uphold stereotypes, and more likely to feel threatened” by out-groups, especially when the prejudiced group carry different beliefs and cultural mores (Sherman et. al., 2005, 608). Ditto contended that people tend to accept the validity of information that is consistent with desired beliefs with little scrutiny (paraphrased by Sherman et. al., 2005). In the aftermath of the terrorist attacks of 9-11-2001, the media images of peoples of Islamic faith and Middle Eastern backgrounds were cast negatively. Today, looking or dressing like someone from the Middle East can lead some people to harbor prejudiced feelings against the perceived subject. Even some politicians took advantage of the terrorist attacks to split the world into a modern civilized Christian camp, and an old barbaric Muslim one. As a result, many Americans readily accepted military retaliation in Iraq and Afghanistan under the influence of a general distrust of Islamic and Middle Eastern cultures. Also, U.S. Secretary of State Colin Powell's speech to the United Nations on Iraq's possession of weapons of mass destruction made it easy for the American leadership to channel the Congress toward invading Iraq with lies and exaggerations, given the predisposition to believe that all Middle Easterners are anti-American and terroristic (Powell, 2003). This political hysteria has affected even American civil rights, which have been curbed by the creation of the Patriot Act in 2001.

Finally, the independent samples t-test results regarding the educational and cultural variables indicated that there were no significant differences between low social distance (IRs) and high social distance (NIRs) groups. As explained earlier, both group of participants agreed that international students do stimulate the learning environment by bringing new perspectives to the classroom. High (NIRs) and low (IRs) social distance groups also moderately agreed that international students help promote cultural diversity on college campus, increase the campus community's appreciation of cultural differences and similarities, and enable American students to develop a greater awareness of their own culture. Hence, as per social distance theory, the results of this study conclude that both groups seem to have a certain level of understanding of the "other." A closer look at non-international-related academic departments, however, revealed that many of its members would be categorized as "low social distance," because they had international friends, listened to foreign news and watched foreign movies regularly, attended international events, studied a foreign language, lived and interacted with foreign people weekly, and they visited foreign lands. In other words, on a university campus, an American student or faculty does not have to have international students in class to be more understanding of them and thus see them positively. Another way to interpret the lack of differences between faculty and student results is that faculty members tend to be more cautious about revealing their true feelings about international students. They may not want to be seen as prejudicial. Perhaps American students and faculty participants had concerns about the confidentiality of the research despite the assurances the researcher provided about such concerns. At any rate, even though the results of this study somewhat confirmed the positive contributions international students make to

college campuses, a need for further research is necessary. The researcher recommends a list of research topics in the recommendations section.

Implications for Research and Higher Education Practice

Educational and cultural effects are not the same phenomena. The first research question measures the extent to which international students affect increased motivation, quality of thought, diversity of perspectives, teaching quality among other educational benefits. The second research question measures cultural effects on acceptance, tolerance, awareness of self and culture, cultural competence, and diversity among other benefits. Although these two research questions and effects are related, they are not synonymous. It may be unsurprising that familiarity with international students in the higher education context might operate similarly for both educational and cultural effects. Conceptually, international students could and may affect educational benefits differently from cultural benefits, though in this case the results suggested otherwise.

The impact of international students on U.S. students might be complicated and subtle, beyond the economics of international student participation. Educationally, it is unclear why international students might affect the learning environment. One explanation could be that international students bring different perspectives on the content examined in every classroom setting because international students were raised and educated through different basic educational systems compared with U.S. public education systems. The different perspectives international students bring to class enrich the overall learning experience of U.S. students and faculty.

Culturally, international students influence U.S. students and faculty in a subtle manner. For instance, international students may cause a blossoming of U.S. student

self-awareness, particularly in the post-9/11 era. We do not normally reflect upon and consider one's own advantages and disadvantages until faced with the foreigner. To know the other is to better understand the self, which can promote confidence and a desire to be more competent, especially in a globally competitive world market. Intellectual challenges and threats are instigators of positive personal and scholarly growth at times, leading eventually to greater tolerance and appreciation of the other.

Keeping these educational and cultural impacts in mind, White, Non-Hispanic and Non-White U.S. students and faculty do not seem to treat the five selected ethnicities differently. Higher education participants appeared to be open and accepting of other ethnicities regardless of their own ethnic or racial identity. U.S. higher education itself appeared to be a zone of high tolerance, which encourages or appreciates diversity of peoples and opinions. It is a melting pot, which may stand in distinction to other aspects of U.S. culture or American life. One implication for additional research practice is that U.S. higher education might be profoundly transformative in this subtle and unexpected manner. Education works even in a setting replete with negative stereotypes attached to peoples from Appalachia.

Finally, after administering a one-way ANOVA, Shabahang's (1993) study revealed that all three tested groups agreed that international students make positive educational and cultural contributions. In her study, faculty members in all three community colleges agreed more with the tested variables than did administrators and administrators agreed more with these variables than did student participants. Moreover, her study concluded that international students do indeed enrich the curriculum, stimulate the learning environment, and positively affect the teaching style of faculty members.

Shabahang's study further revealed that international students increase understanding of cultural differences and similarities, promote interaction among different people, provide cultural diversity and international experience on college campuses, and increase awareness and respect for foreign cultures.

Although the research setting is different and the number of international students at the university selected for research is relatively small, this study confirmed Shabahang's research findings. American-born faculty and student participants agreed that international students stimulate the learning environment by bringing new perspectives to class and positively affect the learning experiences of students and teaching styles of faculty. This study also confirmed that international students promote issues of diversity, improve the ability of the campus community to be more accepting, appreciative, and tolerant of others, and increase American students' awareness of one's culture. This study, however, revealed that participants moderately disagreed with statements about international students motivating American students to learn foreign languages and international students raising academic achievements. Most notable about this study is that 20%-40% of participants expressed lack of knowledge on tested variables.

Shabahang's and this study ascertained the crucial role internationalization plays in bringing about positive changes in people's perceptions and attitudes toward foreign students. Participants in both studies agreed that it is important for U.S. colleges and universities to provide students, faculty, and staff with intercultural knowledge, skills, and experience. We can speculate, hence, that the more international students can be recruited to American college campuses, the more educational and cultural benefits

will be reaped. Most importantly, it is a moral imperative that American colleges and universities develop curricular and co-curricular programs that benefit international students educationally and culturally.

Although there were no statistically significant differences between American students or faculty in all three research questions, some of the conclusions that can be drawn are:

1. International students have a positive educational impact on an Appalachian university campus; evidence can be found in tables 8 and 9.
2. International students have a positive cultural impact on an Appalachian university campus; evidence can be found in tables 10 and 11.
3. American students and faculty views of international students from different ethnic backgrounds are almost the same; evidence can be found in tables 12 and 13.
4. A bigger investment in international education would have a more positive impact on the Appalachian university; evidence can be found in answers to survey question 13 in tables 10 and 11.

Recommendations for Further Research

This research assessed the impact of international students on American students and faculty at a regional Appalachian University. The research results revealed a need for further research addressing the following issues:

- a. A replication of this study in more than one regional Appalachian University comparing and contrasting the research results to see whether the number of international students and the location of the university affect the results;

- b. A replication of this study in research universities, where there tends to be a large and more diverse student and faculty population;
- c. A replication of this study using mixed methods to have a much closer look at American students and faculty views of international students;
- d. Use of this study applying Emory Bogardus Social Distance Scale;
- e. A Replication of the study with American university administrators and staff;
- f. A study to determine the reasons faculty and students strongly agreed on some educational variables and moderately agreed with others.
- g. A study to determine the reasons there were significant statistical differences between American students in non-international-related departments and American students in international-related departments on questions 12 (By learning about other cultures from international students, American students are able to develop a greater awareness of their own culture,” and question 13(It is important for our university to provide students and faculty with intercultural knowledge, skills, and experiences),
- h. A study to determine the reasons there were significant statistical differences between American faculty in non-international-related departments and American faculty in international-related departments on question 12 (By learning about other cultures from international students, American students are able to develop a greater awareness of their own culture).
- i. A study measuring the educational and cultural impacts of American students on international students at Appalachian universities.

- j. A study focusing on the perceptions of American students, faculty, and administrators of students from the Middle East.
- k. A research on the educational impact of international students, focusing on specific aspects, such as student participation, attendance, work in groups, grades, GPA, etc.
- l. A research exploring how international students negatively affect the learning experiences of American students and the teaching styles of American faculty.
- m. A replication of this study using a different screening method of participants (IRs and NIRs)

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APPENDIX A

International-Related and Non-International-Related Departments

Table 14 International-Related and Non-International-Related Departments

International-related Departments	# of Int. Students	# of Am. Students	Non-International-related Departments	# of Int. Students	# of Am. Students
Accounting & Finance	14	387	Anthropology	0	71
Business (general, management, etc.)	42	822	Art	1	102
Computer Science	32	131	Aviation	1	129
Fire & Safety Engineering	25	1386	Biology	5	562
Foreign Language & Humanities	10				
Chemistry	7	376	Broadcasting	1	121
Emergency Medical Care	23	112	Education (teaching, etc.)	3	2414
Public Health (environment, clinical lab, etc.)	9	255	English	6	290
			History	1	287
			Philosophy	0	30
Nursing	13	1685	Forensic Science	3	158
Sports Administration	7	162	Fashion/Interior design	2	50
Physical Education	5	134	Industrial Technology	3	6
			Journalism	1	46
			Mathematics & Statistics	1	82

Table 14 (continued)

International-related Departments	# of Int. Students	# of Am. Students	Non-International-related Departments	# of Int. Students	# of Am. Students
			Music	1	187
			Occupational Science	1	441
			Physics	1	62
			Physical Education	1	134
			Political Science	1	108
			Pre-Law	1	1
			Psychology	4	562
			Statistics	1	9

APPENDIX B
Shabahang's Survey

Shabahang's Survey

Circle the appropriate response on the Opinionnaire for the following items.

Section I.

1. What is your primary association with the community college?

1. administrator
2. program coordinator/chairperson
3. faculty member
4. student
5. counselor/advisor
6. other (specify)

2. Indicate your gender: 1. Female

2. Male

3. Indicate your age group:

1. 18-24
2. 25-30
3. 31-35
4. 36-40
5. 41-45
6. 46-50
7. 51- or older

4. Indicate your ethnic background:

1. Asian or Pacific Islander
2. Hispanic
3. White, non-Hispanic (specify) _____
4. Black, non-Hispanic (specify) _____
5. Other (specify) _____

5. Are you a U.S. Citizen?

1. Yes
2. No

6. If the answer to the above question is "no", please circle the appropriate status:

1. Permanent Resident
2. Other (specify) _____

7. In your association with the community college, have you had any interaction with the international students, ie., advising students, teaching students, or taking classes with international students?

1. Yes

2. No
8. Have you participated or do you presently participate in any activities with international students in the college setting, ie., in class, outside of class?

1. Yes
2. No

If your response is yes, please specify _____

9. Have you participated or do your presently participate in any activities with international students outside of the college setting?

1. Yes
2. No

If your response is yes, please specify _____

Section II.

Please respond to the following statements by circling your levels of agreement/disagreement.

10. It is important for a community college to have international students enrolled.

1- Strongly Agree 2- Agree 3- Strongly Disagree 4- Disagree 5- No
Opinion

11. International students, prepared in English skills, bring a better attitude towards learning and therefore may improve the quality of education.

1- Strongly Agree 2- Agree 3- Strongly Disagree 4- Disagree 5- No
Opinion

12. Some classes (e.g., social science, world history, or literature) that include international students tend to be more interesting.

1- Strongly Agree 2- Agree 3- Strongly Disagree 4- Disagree 5- No
Opinion

13. In some classes (social science, world history, or literature) international students can provide different perspectives and points of view, which result in a stimulating learning environment.

1- Strongly Agree 2- Agree 3- Strongly Disagree 4- Disagree 5- No
Opinion

14. It is better to have a few international students from a variety of countries rather than many from just a few countries.

1- Strongly Agree 2- Agree 3- Strongly Disagree 4- Disagree 5- No
Opinion

15. International students at a community college enrich the curriculum through participation in classes in co-curricular activities.

- 1- Strongly Agree 2- Agree 3- Strongly Disagree 4- Disagree 5- No Opinion
16. Participation by international students in classes can have a positive effect on the teaching styles of faculty members.
1- Strongly Agree 2- Agree 3- Strongly Disagree 4- Disagree 5- No Opinion
17. Participation by international students in classes can have a negative effect on the teaching styles of faculty members.
1- Strongly Agree 2- Agree 3- Strongly Disagree 4- Disagree 5- No Opinion
18. International students improve the ability of the college community to accept and listen to others.
1- Strongly Agree 2- Agree 3- Strongly Disagree 4- Disagree 5- No Opinion
19. International students increase the college communities' understanding of cultural differences and similarities.
1- Strongly Agree 2- Agree 3- Strongly Disagree 4- Disagree 5- No Opinion
20. International students help promote cultural activities at a college.
1- Strongly Agree 2- Agree 3- Strongly Disagree 4- Disagree 5- No Opinion
21. Social activities at a community college are more interesting when students from different cultures are included.
1- Strongly Agree 2- Agree 3- Strongly Disagree 4- Disagree 5- No Opinion
22. It is easy to learn about another culture through personal contact with international students at a community college.
1- Strongly Agree 2- Agree 3- Strongly Disagree 4- Disagree 5- No Opinion
23. The cultural differences of international students improve the quality of extra-curricular activities.
1- Strongly Agree 2- Agree 3- Strongly Disagree 4- Disagree 5- No Opinion
24. International students provide cultural diversity and international experience for the academic community.
1- Strongly Agree 2- Agree 3- Strongly Disagree 4- Disagree 5- No Opinion
25. By learning about other cultures from international students, Americans are able to develop a greater awareness of their own culture.

- 1- Strongly Agree 2- Agree 3- Strongly Disagree 4- Disagree 5- No Opinion
26. It is important for a community college to provide faculty members with intercultural knowledge, skills and experience.
1- Strongly Agree 2- Agree 3- Strongly Disagree 4- Disagree 5- No Opinion
27. Without compromising standards, it is important for a community college to provide program flexibility (e.g., longer time to complete assignments) for international students.
1- Strongly Agree 2- Agree 3- Strongly Disagree 4- Disagree 5- No Opinion
28. It is important for a community college to provide instruction in English as a foreign language by teachers trained in for this specialized work.
1- Strongly Agree 2- Agree 3- Strongly Disagree 4- Disagree 5- No Opinion
29. International students can be considered a drain on limited institutional resources.
1- Strongly Agree 2- Agree 3- Strongly Disagree 4- Disagree 5- No Opinion
30. Since many international students experience inadequate English proficiency, they can indirectly lower the classroom achievement rate.
1- Strongly Agree 2- Agree 3- Strongly Disagree 4- Disagree 5- No Opinion

APPENDIX C

Researcher New Student Survey

Researcher New Student Survey

This survey is intended for American-born students only, age 18 and older.

Section I: International Educational Impact

Please answer the following questions on the educational impact of international students by selecting your level of agreement or disagreement.

1. Multilingual international students motivate American students to study foreign languages.
1) Strongly disagree 2) Disagree 3) Agree 4) Strongly Agree 5) Don't Know
2. International students raise the level of achievement of American students.
1) Strongly disagree 2) Disagree 3) Agree 4) Strongly Agree 5) Don't Know
3. International students stimulate the learning environment by providing different perspectives.
1) Strongly disagree 2) Disagree 3) Agree 4) Strongly Agree 5) Don't Know
4. International students, prepared in English skills, tend to bring a better attitude towards learning than American students and therefore improve the quality of education.
1) Strongly disagree 2) Disagree 3) Agree 4) Strongly Agree 5) Don't Know
5. Participation of international students positively affects the learning experience of American students.
1) Strongly disagree 2) Disagree 3) Agree 4) Strongly Agree 5) Don't Know
6. Participation of international students negatively affects the learning experience of American students.
1) Strongly disagree 2) Disagree 3) Agree 4) Strongly Agree 5) Don't Know

Section II: International Cultural Impact

Please answer the following questions on the cultural impact of international students by selecting your level of agreement or disagreement.

7. When I socially interact with international students, my first feeling is:
 - a) Alienation and Contempt
 - b) Avoidance and skeptical distrust
 - c) Fair and equitable consideration only
 - d) Limited trust and friendship
 - e) Absolute and unconditional trust
8. International Students help promote cultural diversity on college campus.
1) Strongly disagree 2) Disagree 3) Agree 4) Strongly Agree 5) Don't Know

9. International students improve the ability of this campus community to accept others.
1) Strongly disagree 2) Disagree 3) Agree 4) Strongly Agree 5) Don't Know
10. International students increase the campus community's appreciation of cultural differences and similarities.
1) Strongly disagree 2) Disagree 3) Agree 4) Strongly Agree 5) Don't Know
11. It is easy to learn about another culture through personal contact with international students on this campus.
1) Strongly disagree 2) Disagree 3) Agree 4) Strongly Agree 5) Don't Know
12. By learning about other cultures from international students, American students are able to develop a greater awareness of their own culture.
1) Strongly disagree 2) Disagree 3) Agree 4) Strongly Agree 5) Don't Know
13. It is important for our university to provide students and faculty with intercultural knowledge, skills, and experience.
1) Strongly disagree 2) Disagree 3) Agree 4) Strongly Agree 5) Don't Know
14. My relationship with international students has made me more tolerant of people of other racial and ethnic groups:
1) Strongly disagree 2) Disagree 3) Agree 4) Strongly Agree 5) Don't Know
15. By placing an X in the appropriate column, please rate whether you have a positive, negative, or neutral view of each of the ethnic groups below.

#	Ethnic group	Negative	Neutral	Positive
a)	Middle Eastern			
b)	African			
c)	Asian			
d)	European			
e)	Hispanic/Latino			

Section III: Personal Inventory

Please answer the following questions by clicking on the appropriate category

16. What is your classification?
a) Freshman b) Sophomore c) Junior d) Senior e) Graduate student
17. Please select your major: drop list of majors selected for study
What is your gender? a) Female b) Male

18. Please specify your age group:
 a) 18-29 b) 30-39 c) 40-49 d) 50-59 e) 60 and above
19. Please specify your ethnic background:
 a) White, non-Hispanic
 b) Black, non-Hispanic
 c) Hispanic /Latino
 d) Asian
 e) American Indian or Alaskan Native
 f) Hawaiian or Pacific-Islander
 g) Two or More Races
20. How frequently do you interact with international students?
 a) Never b) Monthly c) Weekly d) Daily
21. How many international acquaintances do you have at the university?
 a) None b) 1-5 c) 6-10 d) More than 10
22. How many close international friends do you have at the university?
 a) None b) 1- c) 6-10 d) More than 10
23. Do you read/listen to international news?
 A) Yes b) No
 If yes, please specify by circling all that apply:
 a) Radio b) TV c) Newspaper d) Magazine e) Internet
24. Do you watch international movies?
 a) Yes b) No
 If yes, please specify how often by circling one:
 a) Once a year b) Once a semester c) Monthly d) weekly
25. Have you visited a foreign country?
 a) Yes b) No
26. Have you ever studied a foreign language?
 a) Yes b) No
27. Have you ever had an international roommate?
 a) Yes b) No

Thank you for taking time to complete this survey!

APPENDIX D

Researcher New Faculty Survey

Researcher New Faculty Survey

This survey is intended for American-born faculty only.

Section I: International Educational Impact

Please answer the following questions on the educational impact of international students by circling your level of agreement or disagreement.

1. Multilingual international students motivate American students to study foreign languages.
1) Strongly disagree 2) Disagree 3) Agree 4) Strongly Agree 5) Don't Know
2. International students raise the level of achievement of American students.
1) Strongly disagree 2) Disagree 3) Agree 4) Strongly Agree 5) Don't Know
3. International students stimulate the learning environment by providing different perspectives.
1) Strongly disagree 2) Disagree 3) Agree 4) Strongly Agree 5) Don't Know
4. International students, prepared in English skills, tend to bring a better attitude towards learning than American students and therefore improve the quality of education.
1) Strongly disagree 2) Disagree 3) Agree 4) Strongly Agree 5) Don't Know
5. Participation of international students positively affects the teaching styles of faculty members.
1) Strongly disagree 2) Disagree 3) Agree 4) Strongly Agree 5) Don't Know
6. Participation of international students negatively affects the teaching styles of faculty members.
1) Strongly disagree 2) Disagree 3) Agree 4) Strongly Agree 5) Don't Know

Section II: International Cultural Impact

7. When I socially interact with international students, my first feeling is:
 - a) Alienation and Contempt
 - b) Avoidance and skeptical distrust
 - c) Fair and equitable consideration only
 - d) Limited trust and friendship
 - e) Absolute and unconditional trust

8. International Students help promote cultural diversity on college campus.
1) Strongly disagree 2) Disagree 3) Agree 4) Strongly Agree 5) Don't Know
9. International students improve the ability of this campus community to accept others.
1) Strongly disagree 2) Disagree 3) Agree 4) Strongly Agree 5) Don't Know
10. International students increase the campus community's appreciation of cultural differences and similarities.
1) Strongly disagree 2) Disagree 3) Agree 4) Strongly Agree 5) Don't Know
11. It is easy to learn about another culture through personal contact with international students on this campus.
1) Strongly disagree 2) Disagree 3) Agree 4) Strongly Agree 5) Don't Know
12. By learning about other cultures from international students, American students are able to develop a greater awareness of their own culture.
1) Strongly disagree 2) Disagree 3) Agree 4) Strongly Agree 5) Don't Know
13. It is important for our university to provide students and faculty with intercultural knowledge, skills, and experiences.
1) Strongly disagree 2) Disagree 3) Agree 4) Strongly Agree 5) Don't Know
14. My relationship with international students has made me more tolerant of people of other racial and ethnic groups:
1) Strongly disagree 2) Disagree 3) Agree 4) Strongly Agree 5) Don't Know
15. By placing an X in the appropriate column, please rate whether you have a positive, negative, or neutral view of each of the ethnic groups below.

#	Ethnic group	Negative	Neutral	Positive
a)	Middle Eastern			
b)	African			
c)	Asian			
d)	European			
e)	Hispanic/Latino			

APPENDIX E

Letter to American Students

Letter to American Students

September 15, 2011

Dear Student,

I am a doctoral student in the Educational Leadership and Policy Studies Program in the College of Education at Eastern Kentucky University. For my dissertation, I am currently conducting a research on the educational and cultural impact international students have on American students and faculty at an Appalachian University.

To complete this research, I have developed a short survey (5-10 minutes) to gather data needed to fulfill the purpose of my study. Also, because the international student population at this university is small and may or may not take courses from your department, you have been randomly selected to take this short survey. Therefore, I kindly request your assistance with my research by taking the emailed “survey monkey,” which is used to gather data from American-born students and faculty. Your response will help with the success of this study, completion of my degree, and will provide invaluable information on international education at this university.

Please be informed that all information provided is kept strictly confidential. Participants are assigned random numbers and will not be identified in any manner and results will be reported in the aggregate. For any questions regarding this research, please feel free to contact my doctoral committee chair and supervisor of the research, Dr. James Rinehart, at 859-622-8634 or by email at james.rinehart@eku.edu

Thank you so very much in advance for your cooperation.

Sincerely,

Mustapha Jourdini

Participants will be entered to a drawing to win one of 60 gifts (\$ 10 card to Starbucks, t-shirt, or mug).

APPENDIX F

Letter to American Faculty

Letter to American Faculty

September 15, 2011

Dear Faculty,

I am a doctoral student in the Educational Leadership and Policy Studies Program in the College of Education at Eastern Kentucky University. For my dissertation, I am currently conducting a research on the educational and cultural impact international students have on American students and faculty at an Appalachian University.

To complete this research, I have developed a short survey (5-10 minutes) to gather data needed to fulfill the purpose of my study. Also, because the international student population at this university is small and may or may not take courses from your department, you have been randomly selected to take this short survey. Therefore, I kindly request your assistance with my research by taking the emailed “survey monkey,” which is used to gather data from American-born students and faculty. Your response will help with the success of this study, completion of my degree, and will provide invaluable information on international education at this university.

Please be informed that all information provided is kept strictly confidential. Participants are assigned random numbers and will not be identified in any manner and results will be reported in the aggregate. For any questions regarding this research, please feel free to contact my doctoral committee chair and supervisor of the research, Dr. James Rinehart, at 859-622-8634 or by email at james.rinehart@eku.edu

Thank you so very much in advance for your cooperation.

Sincerely,

Mustapha Jourdini

APPENDIX G

Letter to Department Chairs

Letter to Department Chairs

September 12, 2011

Dear Department Chair,

Tomorrow, Thursday, September 15, my survey on the impact of international students on American students and faculty will be sent to a random sample of faculty members from the different colleges/departments. The information provided will be kept strictly confidential and will be used only for the purpose of my dissertation. I should be grateful if my colleagues in your department can spare 7-10 minutes to take the survey tomorrow.

Thanks for sharing this email with faculty members at your department,

Mustapha Jourdini

APPENDIX H

Social Distance Scoring Sheet

Social Distance Scoring Sheet

Questions	Answers	Score
Q 18. How frequently do you interact with international students?	Weekly	1 point
Q 19. How many international acquaintances do you have at the university?	6-10	1 point
Q 20. How many close international friends do you have at the university?	6-10	1 point
Q 21. Do you read/listen to international news?	Yes, Weekly	1 point
Q 22. Do you watch international movies?	Yes, Monthly	1 point
Q 23. Have you visited a foreign country?	Yes	1 point
Q 24. Have you ever studied a foreign language?	Yes	1 point
Q 25. Have you ever had an international roommate?	Yes	1 point
Total Point Score		8 points

VITA

An international student from Morocco, My Mustapha Jourdini earned a Bachelor's and a Master's of Arts in English with emphases in American Literature and ESL from Eastern Kentucky University. As a transfer student to Eastern Kentucky University, Mustapha held several leadership positions, including serving as Senator with the Student Government Association, President of the International Student Association, and Member of the University Diversity Committee.

Professionally, Mustapha is an active member of several organizations, including National Association of Foreign Student Advisors (NAFSA), Association of International Education Administrators (AIEA), American Association of Arabic Teachers (AAAT), National Collegiate Honors Council (NCHC); (Diversity Board), ECU Multicultural Advisory Board, ECU Diversity Planning Council, and Diversity Recruitment Team. Mustapha is also certified by NAFSA in F-1 student visa, and J-1 student and scholar visa.

Mustapha presented many research papers at professional conferences, including ““Profiles in International Education Leadership” at the NAFSA regional conference in Louisville, KY, on Nov. 7, 2011; “The Many Hats of An International Education Director” at the NAFSA state conference in Richmond, KY, on June 21, 2011; “International Recruitment and Honors Program,” at the 41 NCHC conference in Phoenix, Arizona on Oct. 19-23, 2011; “The Nature and Causes of Global Terrorism,” at the 39th NCHC conference in Washington, D.C. on October 28, 2009; “Fifth Skill: Culture as A Language Learning Motivator,” at the 60th Annual Foreign Language

Conference, in Lexington, KY, on April 23, 2007; “Arabic Culture Beyond Stereotypes” at English as a Second Language (ESL) conference in Louisville, KY, on Nov 29-Dec 2007. Mustapha was also invited to give dozens of presentations on Arab and Muslim cultures and peoples in California, Florida, Kentucky, New Jersey, and New York. He has also acted as faculty advisor to several student organizations.

Mustapha has held many professional positions, including ESL Tutor Lab Manager from 2003 to 2004 and Lecturer with the English Department, Foreign Languages and Humanities, and Honors Program from 2004 to 2006. He also served as Director of Education at the Cultural Center of Somerset, KY, from 2006 to 2008. He has been a faculty member and the Academic Advisor for ECU Honors Program from 2008 to present.