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Internationalizing the Teacher Education Curriculum Toward Global Competency: Academic Leaders' Perceptions

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INTERNATIONALIZING THE TEACHER EDUCATION CURRICULUM TOWARD
GLOBAL COMPETENCY: ACADEMIC LEADERS' PERCEPTIONS

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DISSERTATION
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A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment of the
requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in the
College of Education at the University of Kentucky

By
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2023

ABSTRACT OF DISSERTATION

INTERNATIONALIZING THE TEACHER EDUCATION CURRICULUM TOWARD
GLOBAL COMPETENCY: ACADEMIC LEADERS' PERCEPTIONS

To prepare students for an increasingly interconnected world, P-12 teachers must be trained to infuse intercultural and global perspectives into their teaching practice. However, teacher education programs (TEPs) have been criticized for their lack of global perspectives in the curriculum and have been found to be the least internationalized programs at United States (U.S.) universities. Though university senior international officers (SIOs) play a large role in developing a strategic approach toward curriculum internationalization, there is a paucity of research on their perspectives on this process.

In this explanatory sequential mixed methods study, TEP leaders and SIOs at universities in the U.S. were surveyed on their knowledge of research-backed frameworks to internationalize teacher education toward global competency for teacher candidates as well as whether these strategies are included in their TEPs' strategic plans. Most TEP leaders were somewhat familiar with these strategies and more than half of the SIOs were somewhat or very familiar with them. Most TEP leaders reported that the strategies were included in their program's strategic plan while nearly half of SIOs did not know whether they were included. Selected leaders then participated in semi-structured interviews to elaborate on their perspectives of the strategic planning and internationalization processes.

The data was examined through the theoretical framework of loose coupling, which illuminated the degree to which the separate university, internationalization, and TEP strategic planning processes at U.S. universities are responsive to each other while maintaining some autonomy. SIOs and TEP leaders both acknowledged that external factors other than strategic planning such as accreditation and teacher licensing standards most affected their internationalization strategies. These factors also sometimes served as barriers to internationalizing. Additionally, SIOs see university strategic plans as vague on internationalization, and they are unconcerned with directly addressing every component of the plan in their own internationalization strategic planning process. These findings indicate that the university and internationalization strategic planning processes

appear to be loosely coupled while the internationalization and TEP strategic planning processes are largely decoupled. Insights regarding how SIOs can better support internationalization within teacher education programs are provided.

Ellie F. G. Holliday
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INTERNATIONALIZING THE TEACHER EDUCATION CURRICULUM TOWARD
GLOBAL COMPETENCY: ACADEMIC LEADERS' PERCEPTIONS

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CHAPTER 1. INTRODUCTION

Academic leaders at universities create and implement strategies to internationalize the curriculum in higher education. This dissertation presents a mixed methods study examining the perspectives of Senior International Officers (SIOs) and the academic leaders of their teacher education programs (TEPs) at universities in the United States (U.S.). The purpose of this study was to understand the process and strategies academic leaders use to internationalize the teacher education curriculum toward global competency for teacher candidates (university students preparing to become licensed classroom teachers, often used interchangeably with "preservice teachers").

Though university leaders play a large role in contextualizing and developing a strategic approach toward curriculum internationalization (Jones, 2013; Leask & Charles, 2018), little research has been done on the perspectives of SIOs (Tran & Nghia, 2020). Additionally, research-backed strategies to internationalize the TEP curriculum toward global competency for teacher candidates exist (see Boix Mansilla & Jackson, 2011; Longview Foundation, 2008; OECD, 2018; Schneider, 2003, 2007), but TEPs remain some of the least internationalized of all higher education programs (Goodwin, 2019). Infusing existing frameworks for global competency into the TEP curriculum can help teacher candidates "embrace teaching for global competence" for their own future students (Ramos et al., 2021, p. 311). Through analysis and integration of data from surveys, interviews, and documents, I illuminate the perspectives of these key academic leaders at U.S. universities and advance knowledge and awareness of strategies to internationalize TEPs.

Statement of the Problem

If P-12 teachers are to prepare their students for an increasingly connected 21st century world, they must be trained to infuse intercultural and global perspectives into their teaching practice. Unfortunately, many P-12 teachers today are ill equipped to prepare students to work with their peers from culturally and linguistically diverse backgrounds (Longview Foundation, 2008). TEPs have long been criticized for their lack of global perspectives in the teacher preparation curricula, which has often been blamed on education reform efforts that have focused on increasing standardization as well as accreditation requirements that lack an international focus (Gilliom & Farley, 1990; Goodwin, 2019; Tucker & Cistone, 1991). Some TEPs have attempted to provide international opportunities to teacher candidates through the form of overseas student teaching placements, which can help participants develop global competency and intercultural sensitivity (Cushner, 2007; Cushner & Brennan, 2007; Roberts, 2007). However, few TEPs offer these opportunities (Mahon, 2010), and for those that do, a large portion of teacher candidates may be unable to participate due to financial barriers, among other concerns. For this reason, TEPs should ensure that intercultural and global perspectives are infused throughout the full curriculum so that all teacher candidates can develop global competency (Mestenhauser, 1998).

Unfortunately, few examples of successful internationalization of the curriculum in higher education exist in the literature (Jones & Killick, 2013). In fact, TEPs have been described as some of the least internationalized of all higher education programs (Goodwin, 2019). Additionally, although Jones (2013) found that university-level leadership is responsible for providing the "context for curriculum internationalization,"

(p. 170), Tran and Nghia (2020) found that one gap in the literature on international education is the perspective of leaders (SIOs) in this field. Through this study, I address this gap in the research as well as the challenges that TEPs face in internationalizing their curricula toward global competency.

Purpose and Significance of the Study

The purpose of this study was to understand the process of internationalization in TEPs as well as the perceptions of the academic leaders involved in that process. I examined whether SIOs and deans/directors of TEPs know about research-backed strategies to internationalize and infuse global competency into the TEP curriculum. I explored how SIOs craft institutional curriculum internationalization plans that allow for diffusion into the TEP and, in turn, how academic leaders of TEPs interpret and implement their university's curriculum internationalization strategy.

SIOs represent a relatively new position in higher education academic leadership, and they typically lead the institution's internationalization strategy (Association of International Education Administrators [AIEA], 2020; Heyl, 2007; Nolan, 2018). University faculty members struggle with the process to internationalize the curriculum when that process is not clearly defined and integrated into a campus-wide initiative or when institutional leaders do not provide support (Bromfield, 2016; Friesen, 2013; Jones, 2013; Jones & Killick, 2013; Longview Foundation, 2017; Niehaus & Williams, 2016). Given the lack of internationalization in teacher education, it is crucial to consider the perspectives of both TEP leaders and SIOs in determining what factors may present a challenge in this process. I contend that the challenge to internationalize the TEP curriculum may lie within the connection (or lack thereof) between the SIO, whose job is

to formulate and communicate the institution's internationalization strategy, and the TEP leader, who must interpret and translate this strategy into the curriculum for teacher candidates. This connection may be described as the degree and process of *coupling*, and educational organizations have been described as loosely coupled systems in which units are both responsive and distinct from each other (Weick, 1976). This theoretical framework provided a lens for my study and allowed me to better contextualize elements of the internationalization process within the larger body of literature related to coupling.

Findings from this study contribute to the extant literature on the internationalization of teacher preparation by illuminating an area that is currently under-researched but crucial for success in the implementation of internationalization: diffusion of institutional internationalization strategy into the teacher education unit. Findings and interpretations also contribute to the literature on loose coupling in educational organizations and, more specifically, the process of strategic planning and internationalization. The study also contributes to knowledge and practice in educational leadership by elucidating the under-researched perspectives of academic leaders in international education while also advancing knowledge and awareness of strategies to internationalize TEPs.

Research Questions and Design

My research questions were as follows:

1. To what extent are academic leaders at universities with teacher education programs familiar with research-backed strategies to internationalize the curriculum in teacher education toward global competency for teacher candidates?

a. What is the relationship between a Senior International Officer's (SIO) familiarity with the strategies and whether these elements are included in a teacher education program's (TEP) unit-level strategic plan?

2. How do SIOs at universities with TEPs craft institutional curriculum internationalization plans that allow for diffusion into the TEP?

3. How do academic leaders of TEPs interpret and implement their university's curriculum internationalization strategy?

4. In what ways do the academic leaders' perceptions of the curriculum internationalization process in TEPs help to explain the quantitative results regarding the relationship between an SIO's familiarity with the research-backed strategies and whether these strategies are included in a TEP's unit-level strategic plan?

Question 1 and 1a are quantitative in nature while questions 2, 3, and 4 are qualitative in nature. My hypotheses for questions 1 and 1a were as follows:

1. Generally, SIOs at U.S. universities with a TEP are unfamiliar with strategies to internationalize the TEP curriculum toward global competency.

2. Generally, academic leaders in the TEP at U.S. universities with SIOs are somewhat familiar with strategies to internationalize the TEP curriculum toward global competency.

3. There is a statistically significant relationship between an SIO's self-reported level of familiarity with TEP internationalization strategies and whether those strategies are included in the TEP strategic plan.

To conduct the study, I utilized an explanatory sequential mixed methods research design (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018), which enabled me to distribute a quantitative survey instrument to a large sample of participants (n=277), analyze the data, and make a purposive smaller sample selection to interview academic leaders from various institutions as well as analyze their TEP strategic plans. Given that not all TEPs may develop what they call a "strategic plan," I included the phrase "relevant planning documents" on the survey instrument to represent any documents produced by a TEP that indicate their future plans or goals for improving or sustaining the academic functions and curriculum of the TEP. Hereafter, these plans are referred to simply as "strategic plan(s)". The study participants included SIOs and TEP academic leaders with deep familiarity of programs and strategic plans. The purposive sample for the survey included SIOs and TEP leaders for whom email addresses were publicly available at U.S. universities with membership in both the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education (AACTE) and the Association of International Education Administrators (AIEA). Both represent two of the most popular professional organizations for TEP leaders and SIOs, respectively. Analyzing the survey data allowed me to then utilize quota purposive sampling (Tashakkori et al., 2021) to select participants for interviews at institutions for which I also analyzed the TEP's strategic plan.

Interviewing leaders from universities with diverse perspectives on the curriculum internationalization process provided qualitative data that helped me build upon the findings of the quantitative research question: whether a relationship exists between the SIO's familiarity with TEP internationalization strategies and the inclusion of those

strategies in the TEP strategic plan. I then drew themes from the interviews that addressed the questions of internationalization process at these universities.

One limitation of this study is that I was unable to employ effective quota purposive sampling to secure interviews with both the TEP leader and SIO from the same institution. Each interview participant represented a separate university, so while I could not examine institutional-level processes through the participants' viewpoint, I was instead able to represent academic leader perspectives across a wide range of U.S. universities. Additionally, purposive sampling, which I utilized in both the quantitative and qualitative phase, limits the generalizability of the findings from this study. Because only U.S. universities were included in the study, findings may not be generalizable to all higher education institutions, and especially those not represented in the study (e.g., community colleges, universities outside of the U.S., etc.). However, the findings and implications for academic leaders may help illuminate challenges that TEPs face in internationalizing the curriculum as well as ways SIOs at similar institutions can assist their TEP leaders in considering research-backed strategies to do so.

Another limitation of this study is that of response bias and, more specifically, social desirability bias. Because the participants reflected on aspects related to their jobs and fields in the survey and interviews, they may have felt more inclined to indicate that they, for example, are familiar with research-backed strategies to internationalize the TEP curriculum, even when they were not, simply because they feel that they should be as academic leaders. To address this, I asked for their honesty with assurances that all identifying information would be anonymized in the final published reports.

The following chapters present a review of the relevant literature related to internationalization in higher education, teacher education, and loose coupling (in chapter two); a more detailed description of the research methods used in this study (in chapter three); a presentation of the quantitative results (in chapter four); a presentation of the qualitative findings (in chapter five); and a conclusion, summary of the study, and discussion of the findings (in chapter six).

CHAPTER 2. LITERATURE REVIEW

This study focused on the perceptions of academic leaders regarding the process and strategies to internationalize teacher education curricula toward global competency for teacher candidates. This chapter explores relevant literature related to internationalization of higher education and, more specifically of teacher education, as well as the theory of loosely coupled systems, which constitutes the theoretical framework for this study. The review begins with an overview of the evolution of internationalization of higher education, leadership in that field, strategic planning, and the specific subcategory of internationalization of the curriculum. Next, the review focuses on internationalizing teacher education, including the notion of global competency, rationales for and barriers to internationalizing this field, and efforts described in the literature to do so. The review concludes with an overview of the concept of loosely coupled systems and its application in my study as a theoretical framework. I also present the conceptual framework for my study.

Much of the literature reviewed in this chapter has been collected over many years of work in this field through regular searches of relevant scholarly journals such as *Teaching Education*, *Teacher Education Quarterly*, *Journal of Studies in International Education*, *International Higher Education*, *Higher Education*, and more. Other seminal works were discovered through references in other works, via professional newsletters and other communications, and by recommendations from colleagues in the field. Additional empirical literature was found through databases such as the Educational Resources Information Center (ERIC), ProQuest, and Academic Search Complete. Given the evolution of the field of internationalization over the past few decades, some sources

included in this review are more than 10 years old. These mostly comprise seminal works that are continually referenced in the current literature.

Internationalization of Higher Education

The concept of internationalization of higher education (hereafter referred to as internationalization) has evolved over time with many scholars offering different definitions, which has created some confusion (Childress, 2010; Knight, 2003; Knight & de Wit, 2018; Rumbley et al., 2012). Additionally, research on internationalization was sporadic and only became a more concentrated field of its own in recent decades (Bedenlier et al., 2018). Significant research by Knight (1999, 2003, 2004, 2013) has helped the field coalesce around a widely accepted definition of internationalization: "the process of integrating an international, intercultural, or global dimension into the purpose, functions, or delivery of postsecondary education" (Knight, 2003, p. 2). Going further to emphasize the role of coordination and strategy in internationalization, others have conceptualized *comprehensive* internationalization (American Council on Education [ACE], n.d.; Hudzik, 2011). Since the early 2000s, ACE (n.d.) has conducted surveys every five years to assess the state of comprehensive internationalization at U.S. universities, which they define as "a strategic, coordinated framework that integrates policies, programs, initiatives, and individuals to make colleges and universities more globally oriented and internationally connected" (p. 1). Similarly, Hudzik (2011) emphasized that comprehensive internationalization is "a commitment, confirmed through action, to infuse international and comparative perspectives throughout the teaching, research, and service missions of higher education" (p. 6).

Hudzik (2011) and ACE (n.d.) both identified similar elements of comprehensive internationalization, such as: committing to and strategizing institutional internationalization at the leadership level, developing faculty and staff support to implement and sustain the initiatives, considering how to internationalize the curriculum and co-curriculum, mobility (i.e., faculty and student international travel, both outgoing and incoming), and international partnerships. The first and a crucial step to internationalization is a strategic commitment to the process on the part of institutional leaders.

Leading Internationalization in Higher Education

Though there is scant empirical literature on leading internationalization initiatives in higher education, a plethora of guidance and descriptive documents published in recent decades have attempted to set forth best practices, competencies, and expectations for those that lead these efforts, generally referred to as the Senior International Officer (SIO) (AIEA, 2020; Charles & Pennywell, 2018; Deardorff et al., 2018; Di Maria, 2019; Heyl, 2007, 2018; Merkx, 2018; Nolan, 2018). The SIO is often a faculty member selected from within the ranks of the institution but may come from any discipline for which they have demonstrated a commitment to or focus on international or intercultural perspectives (AIEA, 2016, Heyl, 2007). They are generally seen as the individual in charge of leading the internationalization strategy and efforts at the university but often do not start in this position with existing knowledge about leadership, organizational theories, or large-scale change for institutions (Heyl, 2007). To be successful in their role, SIOs must not only have "internationalization expertise," "leadership and management" skills, "advocacy" skills, and "personal effectiveness"

(AIEA, 2016, p. 2), but also knowledge of leadership frameworks (Deardorff et al., 2018; Heyl, 2007, 2018), and strategic planning (Brewer et al., 2015; Nolan, 2018). Recent research has discovered that these skills and knowledge may not be translating to effective change toward internationalization within the teacher education unit of universities (Longview Foundation, 2017).

Longview Foundation (2017) conducted a survey of deans/directors of TEPs in 2017 and found that, while many reported that their programs offered study or student teaching abroad options, fewer reported having required courses that included a global perspective or incorporation of "global learning outcomes, accompanying content, and assessments" (p. 9). Additionally, 69.23% of respondents knew that internationalization "was included in their institution's strategic plan," but only 52.94% acknowledged that they had also included internationalization within their TEP's strategic plan (p. 4). This indicates that there may exist a disconnect between universities' strategic plans for internationalization and TEPs' strategic plans and processes for internationalizing the teacher education curriculum toward global competency for teacher candidates.

Strategic Planning in Higher Education Internationalization

Strategic planning was not a widely practiced model for long term planning in institutions of higher education until around the 1970s and 1980s when universities faced growing financial problems while, at the same time, were serving a growing and diversifying student body (Hinton, 2012; Keller, 1983). Previously used mostly in corporate and military settings, strategic planning has benefits for higher education by helping to "better align the organization with its environment," which can include both "internal and external forces" (Rowley & Sherman, 2001). The strategic planning process

at most universities generally follows a consecutive set of procedures: scanning the external environment (i.e., the realms of politics and legislation, technology, economic, etc.) to consider changes, opportunities, and threats relevant for the institution (Morrison et al., 1984; Rowley & Sherman, 2001; Zechlin, 2010); considering and crafting strategies and goals that address the changing environment; developing action plans to achieve these strategies and goals (Zechlin, 2010); and assessing the institution after a pre-determined amount of time to measure growth and progress toward those goals (Brewer et al., 2015). Institutional philosophy and the mission and vision of the institution are also crucial in the strategic planning process because they help establish context for the plan and provide guidance (Hinton, 2012; Rowley & Sherman, 2001). Leaders of the strategic planning process must also consider the resources of the university, both capital assets and noncapital resources, because these determine the extent to which the university may be able to make sufficient changes and fund new strategic goals (Rowley & Sherman, 2001).

Strategic planning plays an important role in the internationalization of higher education, and the internationalization strategy is often spearheaded by the SIO (Brewer et al., 2015; Nolan, 2018). While the steps of this process follow the basic procedures of strategic planning as outlined previously, SIOs also have additional important considerations: helping campus constituents understand both the importance of internationalization and what it might look like at the institution; inviting input and feedback from faculty and staff members as well as students; and facilitating a smooth process to build a feasible, modest plan (Brewer et al., 2015; Nolan, 2018). Brewer et al. (2015) also emphasized that the SIO should "focus on the curriculum and student

learning" as an integral part of strategic planning for internationalization (p. 8). The following section will further examine the literature on internationalizing the higher education curriculum.

Internationalizing the Higher Education Curriculum

One important role of the SIO is to support the faculty of the institution in internationalizing the curriculum (Leask & Charles, 2018), though SIOs generally cannot dictate specific changes to the curriculum since this is within the purview of the faculty (Heyl, 2007; Leask & Charles, 2018). As mentioned previously, internationalizing the curriculum in higher education is one important component of comprehensive internationalization (ACE, n.d.; Hudzik, 2011). The focus of this study was on internationalization of the curriculum of TEPs. Internationalization of the curriculum is commonly defined as "the incorporation of international, intercultural, and/or global dimensions into the content of the curriculum as well as the learning outcomes, tasks, teaching methods, and support services of a program of study" (Leask, 2015, p. 9; see also Leask, 2009). It has been noted that the incorporation of these dimensions particularly into learning outcomes and assessments can be challenging (Beelen & Jones, 2015). Leask (2015) indicated that the curriculum can include the "formal," or the planned learning and tasks as set forth in a syllabus, the "informal," or the supplementary learning activities that may not take place in a classroom, and the "hidden," or the implicit and hidden messages that are sometimes sent to students via textbooks or cultural trainings that are often only required for international students but not domestic students, sending the message that only certain groups need intercultural training (p. 8).

Importantly, internationalization of the curriculum must be distinguished from internationalization *at home,* which specifies a focus on internationalizing the existing domestic curriculum rather than development of education abroad programs (Beelen & Jones, 2015). Beelen and Jones (2015) specified that internationalization at home should be defined as "the purposeful integration of international and intercultural dimensions into the formal and informal curriculum for all students *within domestic learning environments* [emphasis added]" (p. 12).

University faculty members struggle with the process to internationalize the curriculum when that process is not clearly defined and integrated into a campus-wide initiative or when institutional leaders do not provide support (Bromfield, 2016; Friesen, 2013; Jones, 2013; Jones & Killick, 2013; Longview Foundation, 2017; Niehaus & Williams, 2016). In fact, according to Jones and Killick (2013), few examples of successful internationalization of the curriculum exist in the literature, and those that do present cases in which the initiatives "tend to be 'bottom up' in nature, instigated by academics within their own discipline rather than 'top down' with an institution-wide focus" (p. 166). Jones' (2013) framework for internationalizing the curriculum within a university indicates that the university-level leadership is responsible for providing the "context for curriculum internationalization" (p. 170). Leask and Charles (2018) similarly specified that SIOs should advocate for curricular internationalization and provide professional development opportunities for faculty so they can consider internationalizing the curriculum within their own discipline. The following section will examine efforts to internationalize curriculum within the discipline of teacher education.

Internationalizing Teacher Education

The call to internationalize teacher education programs (TEPs) has existed for many decades (Apple, 1951; Gilliom & Farley, 1990; Longview Foundation, 2008; Tucker & Cistone, 1991). In 1951, Apple proclaimed that the preparation of teachers to "teach for international understanding" was the "greatest of all moral challenges" and described the efforts that San Diego State College was taking to meet this challenge (p. 193). Gilliom and Farley (1990) argued that reform efforts in teacher education had "virtually ignored the international, cross-cultural aspects of teacher education" (p. 69) and presented a picture of an ineffective hypothetical teacher who narrowly focused only on American nationalistic interests, which they implied would remain the status quo for teachers unless "we systematically build into teacher education international/cross-cultural themes, globally oriented instructional strategies, and opportunities for international experiences" (p. 73). Tucker and Cistone (1991) cited the global social movements of the 1960s and 1970s as a driving force for infusing global perspectives into teacher education. During this time period, the concept of the world as a "global village" became more prominent, which focused on the interdependence of nations (Tucker & Cistone, 1991, p. 4). The authors stated that, despite professional organizations such as the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education (AACTE), the American Association of State Colleges and Universities (AASCU), and the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) as well as political groups calling for this change, "national progress in developing a global perspective in teacher education programs has been slow" (Tucker & Cistone, 1991, p. 3).

In the early 2000s, Schneider (2004), then a Title VI program officer for the U.S. Department of Education, conducted a study focused on internationalization in educator preparation programs for secondary school teachers in more than 20 institutions of higher education in the U.S. Because Schneider (2003, 2004) was interested in the linkages between educator preparation programs and colleges of arts and sciences and their international studies programs, many of the recommendations from this exploratory study centered around increasing campus collaborations to expose teacher candidates to international concepts in their general curriculum coursework. Additionally, Schneider suggested that campuses could require additional foreign language training for teacher candidates, increase opportunities for both student and faculty international travel, and improve the quality of advising to guide education students toward international opportunities and students interested in international studies toward a teaching career. At the university level, Schneider found that leaders of international offices could be doing more to promote international programs to education majors. With regards to funding efforts to internationalize, Schneider found that many programs utilized only internal funding, and recommended that they explore external funding options while also noting that those external agencies should better promote their opportunities to education units.

Expanding on this work, Schneider (2007) later focused on internationalization of TEPs for future elementary teachers and found that the data largely confirmed the data that was collected in the first phase of the study. Much like the previous findings, interviews from this project yielded recommendations related to advising (faculty and staff lack the knowledge to help teacher candidates understand what international opportunities may be available to them), curriculum (aside from study abroad

opportunities, international dimensions should be infused into new and existing courses),

and faculty and student travel (additional opportunities are needed for both, but especially

for faculty for curriculum development). Of particular focus in Schneider's (2007)

findings were feelings from teachers that certification requirements, academic standards,

and graduation requirements for teacher candidates "do not reflect increasing

globalization" (p. 4). Despite this, many TEPs were, in fact, taking on some initiatives to

internationalize. Schneider's (2003, 2007) reports seemed to spawn a new era of

advocacy, guidance, and research in internationalizing teacher education as evidenced in

the following section.

In 2008, the Longview Foundation, a funding and advocacy organization for

building intercultural understanding, published a report discussing the need to prepare

future teachers to help foster global competency in their P-12 students. In the report, they

stated that "the critical role of teachers in internationalizing P-12 education has never

been clearer, yet today's educators rarely begin their careers with the deep knowledge

and robust skills necessary to bring the world into their classrooms" (Longview

Foundation, 2008, p. 3). The report was published to provide guidance for TEPs in

internationalizing their curricula. They endorsed the following initiatives, most of which

are derived from Schneider's (2007) study: (a) develop goals for internationalizing the

TEP with faculty and academic leaders; (b) work with faculty colleagues across the

campus to develop a general education curriculum that is globally oriented; (c) encourage

teacher candidates to study a foreign language; (d) connect with advisors and the

university international office to recruit students with international interests into the TEP;

(e) provide professional development and incentives for teacher educators to become

more globally competent; (f) infuse global perspectives into education coursework; (g) provide opportunities for international experiences abroad, at home, or online (i.e. through virtual exchange or partnerships with the on-campus international student office); (h) create a certificate program that can endorse teacher candidates' global competency; and (i) recruit and train more world language teachers.

Following the Longview Foundation (2008) report, organizations and researchers have attempted to define and contextualize the call to increase global competency in teacher education (Boix Mansilla & Jackson, 2011; Cain et al., 2017; Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development [OECD], 2018), as described in the following section.

Internationalizing the Teacher Education Curriculum Toward Global Competency

Global competency has garnered many definitions in the literature (Hunter et al., 2006). Reimers (2009) offered the following, which appears to be the one of the most comprehensive:

> the knowledge and skills to help people understand the flat world in which they live, integrate across disciplinary domains to comprehend global affairs and events, and create possibilities to address them. Global competencies are also the attitudinal and ethical dispositions that make it possible to interact peacefully, respectfully and productively with fellow human beings from diverse geographies. (p. 184)

Globally competent teaching (for P-12 teachers) is characterized by teacher dispositions, knowledge, and skills that focus on intercultural sensitivity, understanding of multiple cultures and world issues, and the ability to foster a welcoming environment

in the classroom for students from diverse backgrounds along with a curriculum that emphasizes global competence for students as well (Cain et al., 2017; Longview Foundation, 2008). Globally competent P-12 students have interest in and knowledge of global patterns and issues, foreign language and cross-cultural communication skills, and "a commitment to ethical citizenship" (Longview Foundation, 2008, p. 7). It is also worth noting that, in the literature, similar concepts to global competency are often used interchangeably including global education, global awareness, global citizenship, and cross-cultural or intercultural awareness or competency.

However, global citizenship and global citizenship education are terms that have spawned their own body of literature and unique structure and definitions, which mostly focus on the ideas of cosmopolitanism and/or advocacy (Oxley & Morris, 2013; Shultz, 2007; Yemini et al., 2019). The notion of global citizenship has also been compared critically to the notion of global competency due to the former term's roots in the Western world and implications of equality for all when the privilege of global citizenship may only be available to some (Jooste & Heleta, 2017). Jooste and Heleta (2017) argued that global competency better captures the need for critical thinking skills, understanding of the global implications of local issues, and the necessity to recognize and act on issues of inequality and social justice.

These components are adequately captured in the succinct definition of global competency for individuals crafted by educational scholars and leaders and offered by Boix Mansilla and Jackson (2011): "the capacity and disposition to understand and act on issues of global significance" (p. xiii). This definition accompanies a comprehensive framework for helping students develop global competency, which involves four specific

competencies: "investigate the world beyond their immediate environment;" "recognize perspectives, others' and their own; "communicate ideas effectively with diverse audiences;" and "take action to improve conditions" (Boix Mansilla & Jackson, 2011, p. 11). This framework was adopted by the OECD (2018) for the purposes of the Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA), and they similarly defined globally competent individuals as those who "can examine local, global and intercultural issues, understand and appreciate different perspectives and world views, interact successfully and respectfully with others, and take responsible action toward sustainability and collective well-being" (p. 4). For the purposes of this study, global competency will be conceptualized using this framework. Based on these sources, an all-encompassing definition of internationalization of the teacher education curriculum toward global competency for teacher candidates could read as follows: the intentional incorporation into the formal and informal curricula of TEPs of learning objectives and activities designed to build teacher candidates' capacity and disposition to understand and act on issues of global significance.

Rationales for Internationalizing Teacher Education

To describe how and why TEPs internationalize (or do not), it is important to understand the common rationales given for internationalization. Knight (2004) described several rationales related to sociocultural reasons (developing citizens, fostering intercultural understanding, etc.), political reasons (peacebuilding, national security and foreign policy, etc.), economic reasons (competitiveness in the economy, financial incentives), and academic reasons (enhancing the quality, reach, and profile of the institution) (p. 23). Knight also identified "emerging" rationales such as the development

of human resources, "strategic alliances," "nation building," "income generation," and "knowledge production" (p. 23).

Much of the impetus to internationalize teacher education has come from increasing globalization, and researchers have explored the effects that globalization has had on teaching, teacher education, and international education (Goodwin, 2010, 2019; Shultz, 2007; Zhao, 2010, 2015). Globalization has meant that people around the world are more interconnected than ever before due to advances in telecommunications, "the intertwining of economies and cultures, and the trade in ideas (and ideologies), practices, technologies, and people" (Goodwin, 2019, p. 3). Specifically, Shultz (2007) and Goodwin (2019) described the neoliberal influence of globalization related to marketization and economic competitiveness. According to Shultz (2007), the neoliberal perspective "celebrates the dominance of a single global market and the principles of liberal transnational trade" (p. 249). Shultz noted that typical international education policies tend to assume that "we should be able to move throughout the world freely, enjoying the rewards regardless of national or other boundaries," and may never acknowledge this "position of privilege" or feel a need to enact major global change to "mitigate the suffering of those who are not successful" (p. 252). Goodwin (2019) argued that neoliberal policies resulting from globalization have "fueled the Global Education Reform Movement," (p. 3) which has reduced teacher education programs to focus purely on standardized curricula and rankings and subjected them to an overbearing policy environment that has "diminish[ed] the value of teacher preparation" (p. 4). Similarly, Zhao (2015) discussed and criticized the move by educators to implement "activities that aim to comply with and compete against a global standard, just like their business

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counterparts," such as the PISA, which is a standardized assessment created in 2000 by the OECD and deemed the "*de facto* gold standard for both educational quality and global competitiveness (p. 247).

Goodwin (2010) suggested that high-quality teacher education programs must shift away from the economic and neoliberal drivers of globalization and focus more on the sociocultural, political, and academic rationales for internationalizing education through five "knowledge domains for teaching" that include "personal knowledge," "contextual knowledge," "pedagogical knowledge," "sociological knowledge," and "social knowledge" (p. 22). Researchers have argued that educating for global competence must include a moral component focused on humanistic values of equity, justice, and an understanding of the interconnectedness of humans around the world (Goodwin, 2010, 2019; Shultz, 2007). It is within this context of competing rationales for internationalizing education that we can examine barriers to internationalizing teacher education.

Barriers to Internationalizing Teacher Education

Scholars have attempted to identify the potential barriers to internationalizing teacher education, which tend to include perceived issues related to accreditation and licensing/certification requirements lacking an international/global dimension and a crowded TEP curriculum (Mahon, 2010; Roberts, 2007; Schneider, 2007). Although, at a more general level, even finding broad agreement amongst teacher educators for what might constitute *international* can be a challenge (Buczynski et al., 2010). Roberts (2007) synthesized studies from the 1990s that indicated that teacher candidates generally did not receive international content either in regular university courses or through education

abroad programming, and many teacher educators generally saw this as the domain of other units on campus. Similarly, Schneider (2007) found that very few teacher education programs were exposing their teacher candidates to international perspectives or foreign language study through either the general education or teacher education curriculum and noted that advisors and faculty members were typically unaware of these options. In terms of international study and student teaching abroad opportunities, though most institutions indicated that these options could be available to teacher candidates, very few took advantage of these opportunities due to perceived barriers related to the crowded curriculum of the education major and possible issues with state and local governments specifically not allowing any part of the student teaching experience to take place overseas (Schneider, 2007).

Mahon (2010) further explored this issue by examining institutional barriers to advancing internationalization in teacher education. In a study focusing on overseas student teaching program offerings at U.S. institutions, Mahon found that only three states' teacher licensing offices expressly prohibited student teaching outside of the U.S. (Texas, New Mexico, and Kansas), which does not account for the relatively low number of teacher education programs offering overseas student teaching (only approximately 18% of those included in the study). Mahon posited that the low number of overseas student teaching programs is better explained by a lack of institutional resources and a lack of will and advocacy from teacher educators. In a survey of Deans/Directors of teacher education programs in the United States, Longview Foundation (2017) found that these leaders acknowledged some support at their university level for internationalization,

"but few tangible supports or rewards in funding, professional development, or recognition" (p. 1).

Aside from barriers to implementing internationalization, whether they are real or perceived, it must be noted that some policy makers and institutional leaders may disagree entirely with the call to internalize teacher education. Roberts (2007) noted that internationalization of teacher education could be seen "as a threat to national unity;" as indoctrination of students "in a new world order advocating pacifism, moral relativism, opposition to nationalism via free-market economics, and redistribution of wealth to Third World nations;" or simply as useless because our modern conditions of interconnectedness "contribute to an apathy and consumerism that numbs the general United States population and induce[s] a sense of helplessness for world and national issues" (p. 10). Reimers (2009) suggested that a simpler answer for why internationalization is not happening in teacher education is because there are too many competing policy goals in the arena of education reform. "Policy entrepreneurs" must make the case for why global competency is a key skill necessary for success in the 21st century (Reimers, 2009, p. 194). Mahon (2010) and Zhao (2010) agreed that policy advocacy in favor of internationalization of teacher education is crucial and can and should begin with individual teacher educators. In fact, research shows that many individual teacher educators are creating and implementing internationalization strategies in their courses and programs, as explored in the following section.

Efforts to Internationalize Teacher Education Programs in the U.S.

Many TEPs in the U.S. are making efforts to internationalize their curricula, which tends to involve collaboration with outside entities, international travel, and some

infusion of global perspectives into existing courses or programs (Longview Foundation, 2008). The Ohio State University's TEP partnered with Title VI area studies programs to help develop online global education coursework, which they have offered to teacher candidates and practicing teachers since 1997. Professor Emeritus Merryfield (2003) reflected on her experiences teaching these courses and noted that "online technologies are important tools for teacher educators who value cross-cultural experiences, skills, and knowledge in local, national, and global contexts" (p. 147). They have also placed teacher candidates in local districts with globally oriented schools and in schools overseas. Indiana University's TEP has also collaborated with Title VI centers on workshops for teachers, and they provide international and domestic intercultural placements for student teachers (Stachowski, 2007). Their "Global Gateway" program has had over 3000 teacher candidates participate, and they provide structured pre-departure and on-site reflections to ensure that participants are able to incorporate what they have learned into their future teaching (Stachowski et al., 2015, p. 35).

Michigan State University's TEP embarked on a journey to comprehensively internationalize their "research, teaching, service, and outreach" (Longview Foundation, 2008, p. 9). They offer a "Global Cohort Program" with a dedicated advisor that guides them through two years of globally focused education coursework (Longview Foundation, 2008, p. 12; see also Michigan State University College of Education, n.d.). The University of San Diego's School of Leadership and Education Sciences went through a strategic planning process to identify goals related to internationalization including increased international opportunities for faculty and students and curriculum internationalization across all their TEPs (Longview Foundation, 2008, p. 9). Dean of the

college Paula Cordeiro (2007) noted that "colleges must commit themselves to providing students with powerful, deep-rooted understanding of diverse cultures, other languages, basic human rights, discrimination and other global issues" (p. 153). The University of Kentucky College of Education has been a member of the Consortium for Overseas Student Teaching (COST) for several decades and promotes consistent reflection during the student teaching experience through journal writing (Brennan & Cleary, 2007). In fact, as of 2021, sixteen U.S. TEPs were members of COST (COST, 2021). Mahon (2010) found that, as of 2010, at least 74 TEPs at four-year public institutions in the United States offered overseas student teaching programs either through COST, another consortium, or other forms of international school partnerships.

Many have argued that advocacy for and implementation of internationalization in teacher education is crucial and can and should begin with individual teacher educators (Kissock & Richardson, 2010; Mahon, 2010; Reimers, 2009; Zhao, 2010). Though the literature on internationalizing teacher education has been criticized for largely lacking an empirical quality (Cordeiro, 2007), many teacher educators have published both empirical research and reflective pieces regarding courses and programs they have developed that help foster global competency for teacher candidates (Crawford et al., 2020; DeCuir, 2017; Guo, 2014; Myers & Rivero, 2019; Seeberg & Minick, 2012). In general, these teacher educators used research-backed frameworks to implement and assess global competency in their courses (e.g., Boix Mansilla & Jackson, 2011; Cain et al., 2017). The process of development for these strategies, having originally emerged from large-scale interviews with academic leaders and educators completed by Schneider (2003, 2004, 2007), then having been refined and promoted by organizations such as

OECD and Asia Society (Boix Mansilla & Jackson, 2011), then having been implemented and evaluated through on-the-ground research by teacher educators, is why I refer to these strategies as "research-backed" throughout this study.

Crawford et al. (2020) implemented globally focused strategies in an instructional design course including developing a curriculum unit with standards- and content-aligned activities with a local-global focus. Findings indicate that front-ending these activities in an instructional design course for teacher candidates helps foster their global competency and set them on a path toward further development. DeCuir (2017) also integrated globally focused activities in a course for teacher candidates and found that 80% scored well on a summative assessment showcasing their ability to adequately address the needs of diverse learners in their future classrooms. Myers and Rivero (2019) also saw gains in teaching skills with teacher candidates engaged in discipline-based simulations with a global focus. Seeberg and Minick (2012) designed virtual learning experiences through a framework of experiential cross-cultural competence in several teacher education courses and found that teacher candidates developed both affective and cognitive cross-cultural competence. Guo (2014) discussed the process and outcomes of developing a new course for teacher candidates focusing on educating for global citizenship. At the conclusion of the course, teacher candidates also showed growth in both affective and cognitive aspects of global competency including critical thinking skills and a commitment to take action on issues of local and global significance. Guo concluded that it is critical for "all teacher education programs [to] infuse global perspectives and strategies" and that a more systematic approach must be taken to internationalize teacher education to reach all teacher candidates (p. 17). The main limitation of these studies is that, given the nature of

their examination of strategies in individual courses and by individual faculty members, they may not be generalizable or replicable to larger programs or other institutions.

Study Abroad and Overseas Student Teaching

In considering program- or institution-level strategies infusing global competency into the teacher education curriculum, it is important to discuss study abroad for teacher candidates as well as overseas student teaching because they represent strategies that have existed for many decades and have been frequently researched (Cushner, 2007, 2018; Cushner & Brennan, 2007; Mahon, 2007, 2010; Major, 2020; Marx & Moss, 2011; Newton et al., 2020; Roberts, 2007; Sharma, 2020; Shiveley & Misco, 2015; Stachowski et al., 2015). Significant research has shown that completing part or all of their student teaching requirements in an international school placement can help teacher candidates develop global competency and intercultural sensitivity (Cushner, 2007; Cushner & Brennan, 2007; Roberts, 2007). As previously mentioned, some overseas student teaching programs have existed at TEPs in the U.S. for several decades (Brennan & Cleary, 2007; Stachowski et al., 2015). However, international travel can involve significant costs, which is likely the reason that very few teacher candidates actually participate in a program if it is offered at their institution (Roberts, 2007). As discussed in Mahon's (2010) examination of TEPs in the U.S. offering overseas student teaching as an option, very few do so despite few legal or licensing requirement barriers. It is also not necessary for teacher candidates to participate in an international experience in order to improve their global competency, which is likely a life-long process of transformative learning experiences (Parkhouse et al., 2016).

Aside from the small percentage of teacher candidates able to participate in study abroad or overseas student teaching, more recent research has taken a critical stance on overseas student teaching (Major, 2020; Sharma, 2020). Major (2020) examined common discourses in the literature on overseas student teaching and found that they predominantly reinforce problematic notions of Western hegemony, the need to provide aid to so-called developing countries, White and colonial privilege, and a reinforcement of stereotypes related to "deficit thinking about diversity and difference" (p. 249). Similarly, in examining the discourses around study abroad for teacher candidates, Sharma (2020) called for TEPs to decenter Whiteness as the norm and focus on helping teacher candidates develop strong self-reflexivity through studying abroad. Major (2020) and Sharma (2020) both recommended that TEPs re-examine their international partnerships and programs in critical ways to consider how they may be replicating patterns of global inequity. Indeed, if TEPs are to help all teacher candidates become more globally competent, internationalization strategies must move beyond offering only international travel experiences to a select few teacher candidates. Therefore, TEPs should ensure that international perspectives are infused throughout the full curriculum (Mestenhauser, 1998).

The Process of Internationalizing Teacher Education Programs

Few studies exist that explore the process TEPs have gone through to internationalize their curriculum, though some interesting initiatives have taken place at institutions outside of the United States (e.g., Bégin-Caouette, 2012 in Canada; Lourenço, 2018 in Portugal). This may be related to the U.S. education system's (including higher education's) decentralized, fragmented, and loosely coupled nature as compared to other

education systems around the world that have central agencies with more authority over curriculum and policy implementation (Engel, 2019; Engel & Siczek, 2018; Weick, 1976). However, existing studies provide caution as well as suggestions and frameworks for how to systematically structure global competency within the curriculum (Buczynski et al., 2010; Byker, 2016).

In one case study of a graduate program for teacher education in the U.S., Buczynski et al. (2010) discussed the challenges of developing a program-level policy for an "international experience requirement" (p. 35). The authors explicitly stated that they did not present their case as a model for replication, but rather as an analysis of the difficult process to develop such a policy when teacher educators involved in the process have no expertise in internationalization frameworks and do not agree on what might constitute international experience. The authors suggested that, before crafting a policy, TEPs must "identify frames of reference of participating faculty" to ensure everyone has the same understanding of internationalization (p. 44).

By contrast, Byker (2016) laid out a specific framework for "Critical Cosmopolitan Theory" and examined the experiences of teacher candidates who had gone through coursework with this focus in TEPs in North Carolina and Texas (p. 264). Byker explicitly stated that this framework is situated within Schultz's (2007) description of "transformationalist" (p. 265) global citizenship, which incorporates elements of justice, equity, and social action. Byker (2016) saw "promising findings related to teacher candidates' understanding" of these concepts but noted that longitudinal studies would be needed to see if teacher candidates carry their global competencies into their classroom teaching (p. 46).

In an international context, Bégin-Caouette (2012) explored the strategic partnerships of Québec's "general and vocational colleges (cégeps)" with "educational institutions in developing countries" as a part of the overarching strategy to internationalize teacher education in cégeps in Québec (p. 91). Specifically, these partnerships "contribute to the development of human resources, infrastructures, and the sustainable growth of both institutions" (Bégin-Caouette, 2012, p. 104). In Portugal, Lourenço (2018) conducted participatory action research with 12 teacher educators from one TEP who came together for a professional development workshop aimed at fostering collaborative work for developing globally focused projects in the courses they taught. While the workshop seemed to provide beneficial collaboration between the teacher educators, the author noted that analysis on the outcomes of the project had not been completed, which may limit the utility of the results and implications. Both Lourenço (2018) and Bégin-Caouette's (2012) studies cannot necessarily be generalized to a U.S. context given the vast differences in the higher education and teacher preparation systems between different countries and states. However, they represent interesting internationalization strategies that could be adapted to local contexts in U.S. TEPs.

Reynolds et al. (2013) suggested that one way to build and implement strategies to internationalize TEPs could be through the development of an international consortium of TEPs. The authors presented a possible framework for doing so that would not require significant shifts in "current policies or fiscal and human resources" (p. 62). It would, however, bring together transcontinental programs to re-imagine a universal teacher education curriculum and instructional approaches that could systematically infuse international perspectives into participating TEPs. While the framework is admirable,

teacher educators and leaders must first overcome the barriers to internationalization before creating such a consortium including lack of will, advocacy, and institutional supports and incentives. Additionally, research-backed frameworks do exist that can help teacher educators infuse global competency into the curriculum, as discussed in the following section.

Globally Competent Teaching Methods

When developing the curriculum in TEPs to help teacher candidates become more globally competent, it is helpful to explore the frameworks that have shown success for practicing P-12 teachers (Asia Society, 2008; Boix Mansilla & Chua, 2016; Boix Mansilla & Jackson, 2011; Cain et al., 2017; Tichnor-Wagner et al., 2016). Boix Mansilla and Jackson (2011) presented expansive examples of P-12 teachers implementing lesson plans and units that incorporate each of the four domains: investigating the world, considering perspectives, communicating ideas, and taking action. In developing instructional units, they recommended that teachers use the following "Pandora questions" to provide effective instruction on global competence: (a) "What topics matter most to teach?" addresses "topics of local and global significance;" (b) "What will students take away?" addresses "global competence outcomes;" (c) "How will we know students are making progress?" addresses "global competence assessments;" and (d) "What will students do to learn?" addresses "performances of global competence" (Boix Mansilla & Jackson, 2011, p. 55). Asia Society (2008) has provided ways to transform the curriculum in nearly any discipline typically taught in schools as well as recommendations for developing international travel programs and ways to advocate for global education at the school, district, and state levels.

Researchers have noted that globally competent teachers tend to have certain *signature pedagogies* that cross disciplines and grade levels (Boix Mansilla & Chua, 2016; Tichnor-Wagner et al., 2016). Drawing on the definition of global competency from Boix Mansilla and Jackson (2011), these signature pedagogies are "a pervasive set of teaching practices that nurture students' capacity and disposition to understand and act on matters of global significance" (Boix Mansilla & Chua, 2016, p. 93). These pedagogies may involve the development of personal connections to distant places and comparing single issues across different locations and cultures (Boix Mansilla & Chua, 2016). They can also include the infusion of comparative and international perspectives into the curriculum, consistent engagement with issues of global significance, and a connection between teacher and student experiences along with the curriculum (Tichnor-Wagner et al., 2016).

Cain et al. (2017) developed the *Globally Competent Learning Continuum* as a way for teachers to self-assess their knowledge, skills, and dispositions related to global competency with accompanying resources to advance to higher levels. Dispositions include "empathy and valuing multiple perspectives" and "commitment to promoting equity worldwide;" knowledge includes a general understanding of global issues, multiple cultures, and intercultural communication; and skills include foreign language skills, and pedagogical and classroom management skills that help diverse students feel welcome and compel all students to conduct "content-aligned explorations of the world" (Cain et al., 2017, The Continuum section).

Global Competency in Teacher Certification and Accreditation

As noted previously, Engel (2019) and Engel and Siczek (2018) described the U.S. education system as one that is decentralized, with the onus to create and implement policy on the local and state levels. Despite this, the U.S. Department of Education has previously released policy guidance related to internationalization in teaching and teacher education. The first of such guidance was a strategy titled "Succeeding globally through international education and engagement" released in 2012 (U.S. Department of Education, 2012). Engel and Siczek (2018) analyzed the report to identify rationales for internationalizing education in the U.S. They found that the rationales were varied and "at times slightly conflicting" (p. 35) with regards to conceptualizations of rationales deriving from political, economic, and sociocultural aspects of internationalization as described by Knight (2004). The report was, however, rooted in the framework of global competency as described by Boix Mansilla and Jackson (2011). Engel and Siczek also interviewed educators about the policy and found that their interpretations and knowledge about how to implement it varied widely. The authors concluded that "there would be considerable challenge in moving a national vision for global education into an implementable policy agenda within the United States" (p. 44). Given the complications of creating a national policy on teaching for global competency in a federal and decentralized system, it is worthwhile to consider state certification and TEP accreditation requirements for globally competent teachers.

The curriculum in TEPs is typically heavily prescribed and largely regulated by state education agencies that certify teachers to practice in that state, which may create obstacles to internationalizing the curriculum in teacher education (Aydarova &

Marquardt, 2018; Schneider, 2007). Despite these challenges, accreditation agencies and frameworks for teaching standards have advocated for global competency (Aydarova & Marquardt, 2018). Aydarova and Marquardt (2018) examined standards published by the Council for the Accreditation of Educator Preparation (CAEP) and found that the vast majority of references to internationalization in the standards were situated within the economic rationale of building competitiveness in a global economy. The authors also discussed the Interstate Teacher Assessment and Support Consortium (InTASC) teaching standards, upon which the CAEP standards are based, and noted that they assume that in-service teachers possess a level of "global awareness" that enables them to connect disciplinary concepts with global themes (p. 26). This would indicate that teacher preparation programs have successfully helped teachers develop these skills, which may not be the case. The InTASC Model Core Teaching Standards, developed by the Council of Chief State School Officers (CCSSO), "describe what effective teaching that leads to improved student achievement looks like" (CCSSO, 2011, p. 3). Given that more than 350 educator preparation programs from 43 states, the District of Columbia, and Puerto Rico are accredited by CAEP, there is a significantly large number of teacher candidates enrolled in programs that must adhere to these standards (CAEP, 2020). Arhar et al. (2015) published guidelines for teachers and teacher educators that helped put a "global preparation lens" on the InTASC standards (p. 1). For many of the standards, this included adding simple phrases to the existing language such as "respect cultural differences," (p. 7) "social responsibility in local and global contexts," (p. 7) "global dimensions," (p. 8) "address local and global challenges," (p. 8) and "constructive participation in a changing world," (p. 9).

Aside from CAEP, a relatively new accreditation body, the Association for Advancing Quality in Educator Preparation (AAQEP) also indicates in their standards that graduating teacher candidates should "support students' growth in international and global perspectives" among other skills and dispositions (AAQEP, 2022b). They also require evidence that teacher candidates engage in "culturally responsive practice" (AAQEP, 2022a) and that the TEP offers "diverse clinical experiences" (AAQEP, 2022c). Aydarova and Marquardt (2018) concluded that accreditation standards related to global competency that teacher preparation programs must address do exist but are often vague with little guidance for specifically how teacher preparation programs should implement them in required coursework for teacher candidates. As of early 2022, 57 educator preparation programs were accredited by AAQEP, which means that fewer teacher candidates in the U.S. must adhere to these standards than to those developed by CAEP and based on InTASC (AAQEP, n.d.). However, this number could grow in future years as the accrediting body expands its reach.

Internationalization of TEPs is unique given the nature of TEPs' placement in which they are beholden both to university/college-level policies/mandates as well as certification/accreditation policies/mandates (Rhoades, 1990). If certification or accreditation standards do not adequately address global competency, the job may lie with the TEP itself and the larger university. Much of the work of internationalizing the curriculum begins with the university-level leadership (Jones, 2013; Leask & Charles, 2018). Still, internationalization at the university level does not seem to be translating down to the TEP unit level in every program (Longview Foundation, 2017). To better examine this process of internationalization between the SIO and TEP level of the

university, I utilized the theoretical framework of educational organizations as loosely

coupled systems as a lens for this study.

<div align="center">**Theoretical Framework: Loosely Coupled Systems**</div>

To help make sense of the process to internationalize the curriculum in

institutions of higher education (IHEs), it is important to understand how leaders and

units interact with each other, especially with regards to large-scale changes. In 1976,

organizational theorist Karl Weick published a seminal piece declaring educational

organizations "loosely coupled systems" (p. 1). Though often attributed to Weick (1976),

the general elements of *loose coupling* in organizations were discussed earlier by

Thompson (1967, as cited in Orton & Weick, 1990), who stated that organizations are

both rational and indeterminate, despite the inherent contradiction of these terms, and that

people struggle to understand how one organization could be both things. Thompson

posited that the location of rationality in an organization was at its "technical core,"

which dealt with very little uncertainty, and the indeterminateness was located at the

institutional level, which was relatively open to external variables (Orton & Weick, 1990,

p. 204). Thompson considered the managerial level as the one "that 'mediated' between

the two extremes" (Orton & Weick, 1990, p. 204). Weick (1976) later described

educational organizations as loosely coupled systems due to the tendency for elements

within an organization to be somewhat responsive to each other while maintaining their

own autonomy and identity (p. 3). Unlike Thompson, Weick (1976) and Orton and Weick

(1990) did not specify locations within organizations where rationality or indeterminacy

existed, but rather acknowledged that "interdependent elements that vary in the number

and strength of their interdependencies" exist at all levels of an organization (Orton &

Weick, 1990, p. 204). The term loosely coupled refers to both the ability of these interdependent elements to change spontaneously and to retain indeterminacy (i.e., *loose*) as well as their inherent connectedness (i.e., *coupled*) (Orton & Weick, 1990, p. 204).

The body of literature focusing on educational organizations as loosely coupled systems grew exponentially following Weick's (1976) paper, though loose coupling has also been used to describe and analyze organizations in other fields with as much as 50% of the literature from the last four decades focusing on business settings and closer to 15% focusing on educational organizations (Arango-Vasquez & Gentilin, 2021). Given this study's focus on loose coupling in education organizations, the following section explores this subset of the literature and the evolving nature of the concept.

The Evolution of Loose Coupling as a Conceptual Tool

Classical organization theory in the early 1900s typically depicted organizations as rational systems that sought to accomplish certain economic goals through specialized and divided labor and by using a scientific method to determine the best and most efficient way to operate (Shafritz et al., 2016). In this view, efficient organizations were seen as tightly coupled with a hierarchical and bureaucratic leadership structure. However, by the mid-1900s, organizational theorists began to acknowledge that, like people, not all organizations acted entirely rationally (March, 1982; March & Olsen, 1975). This shift was due, in large part, to Simon's (1955) suggestion that it is impossible for humans to consider the full range of outcomes for each decision they may make at any given moment, so they tend to make decisions with limited information. This concept later became known as *bounded rationality* (Wheeler, 2020). Bounded rationality was influential in organizational studies in the second half of the twentieth century as it

spurned theories that attempted to make sense of organizations' sometimes "inconsistent and conflicting… objectives" (March & Olsen, 1975). Loose coupling was one of those theories that was prominent and controversial in the second half of the 1900s and into the 2000s (H.-D. Meyer, 2002).

Aside from Thompson's (1967, as cited in Orton & Weick, 1990) early descriptions of some of the components of loosely coupled systems mentioned previously (namely, indeterminateness and rationality) and Weick's (1976) depiction of educational organizations as loosely coupled systems, J. W. Meyer (1975) explicitly mentioned loose coupling in educational organizations to mean that "structure is disconnected from activity, and activity is disconnected from its effects" (p. 1). J. W. Meyer described the elements that are loosely coupled: organizational control and classroom instruction (given a lack of content standards and coordination) and student achievement data and performance evaluation of teachers and schools. Despite these loose couplings, J. W. Meyer argued that schools are still relatively stable because administrative control still exists when it comes to hiring certified teachers, assigning students to classrooms, and class scheduling. Over the next several decades, these loose couplings tightened with increasing calls for accountability in schools and standards-based curricula (Spillane & Burch, 2006, p. 88).

In 1976, Weick published his highly influential paper asserting that schools should be viewed and managed as loosely coupled systems (H.-D. Meyer, 2002). Weick (1976) proposed that the concept of loose coupling could be used as a "sensitizing device" that would allow people to see the functions and elements of an organization that were previously cast aside and ignored when they did not fit the typical model of

rationality (p. 2). Weick acknowledged that his description of educational organizations as loosely coupled systems could create the appearance of schools as lacking crucial properties that hold the organizations together. To counteract this view, Weick described the functions and potential liabilities of loosely coupled systems: (a) they can persevere by nature of their ability to not need or be able to respond to every change in their environment; (b) their relatively independent elements can better know their environment, but this may also cause them to produce "faddish responses" given their deep familiarity with it (p. 6); (c) individual elements of the system can create change without affecting the whole system, though they also can prevent necessary whole system changes and standardization; (d) they can potentially respond and "adapt to a … wider range of changes in the environment than would be true for tightly coupled systems," but these beneficial adaptations may be cut off from other parts of the system (p. 7); (e) conversely, if any problems occur in specific parts of the organization, they can potentially be sealed off while the rest of the organization continues to function, but it may then be difficult to fix the problem; (f) individuals in the system may have more self-determination and a sense of efficacy, but they also may all have to deal with the same problem in different ways rather than having a more systematic approach; and (g) the costs of coordination are lower, although this benefit will not necessarily serve as an incentive given the non-rational behavior of the system. Weick concluded his paper with an overview of appropriate methodologies and a research agenda for others interested in exploring educational organizations as loosely coupled systems.

Weick (1982b) later provided a succinct way of characterizing the relationships between different elements or units of a loosely coupled system: "loose coupling exists if

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A affects B (1) suddenly (rather than continuously), (2) occasionally (rather than constantly), (3) negligibly (rather than significantly), (4) indirectly (rather than directly), and (5) eventually (rather than immediately)" (p. 380). Weick (1982a) also further elucidated his previous points by declaring that loosely coupled schools cannot be managed the same way that other types of organizations can. He provided several examples of loosely coupled elements in most schools such as educational goals (which are indeterminate) and performance evaluation, teacher-student and teacher-teacher relationships (given the large student to teacher ratio), and decisions and their implementation by leaders (given that administrators are often more concerned with documentation than with results) (Weick, 1982a, p. 673). However, other aspects of schools are tightly coupled such as the bus schedule, payroll, and physically open classrooms. In terms of their responsiveness, schools are tightly coupled with their community, but only in the sense that demands from parents are typically addressed quickly. The response, however, may often be "more form than substance" (Weick, 1982a, p. 674). Weick explained that loosely coupled systems are typically missing at least one of the following characteristics: "1) there are rules, 2) there is agreement on what those rules are, 3) there is a system of inspection to see if compliance occurs, and 4) there is feedback designed to improve compliance" (p. 674). Typically, the agreement over rules and/or a system of inspection are the elements missing in a loosely coupled system. Weick believed that education cannot occur in a tightly coupled system, and the key to managing schools is to simultaneously foster the "stability to handle present demands and [the] flexibility to handle unanticipated demands" (p. 674). School leaders can do so by clearly and frequently stating a unifying vision and values for the

organization, paying attention to the bonds and linkages that do exist between individuals and groups, including the issues on which they agree, and promoting aspects in the organization that exemplify their stated vision and values.

Weick's (1982a) focus on conjuring images and using symbols to disperse a clear vision and values throughout the organization was also supported by March (1982), who surveyed the field of organizational studies and noted, among other findings, that the emergence of loose coupling as a theory coincided with an emerging focus on "the place of myths, stories, and rituals in management" (p. 10). March also acknowledged that loosely coupled organizations tend to have weak linkages between different parts of the organization when it comes to actions as well as the decision-making process. H.-D. Meyer (2002), who also examined the state of the field of organizational studies and particularly loose coupling, observed that the literature of the 1970s and 1980s tended to encourage leaders of loosely coupled organizations to adapt their leadership style to this line of thinking rather than try to change it (see Weick, 1976, 1982a). However, H.-D. Meyer noted that there seemed to be a change in the literature after this time promoting and discussing more "conventional control- and command-oriented managerial thinking" that more closely resembled tightly coupled organizations (H.-D. Meyer, 2002, p. 516). It is likely that this shift occurred due to increasing demands for accountability and standardization around the 1990s, especially for K-12 schools and higher education (Fusarelli, 2002; H.-D. Meyer, 2002; H.-D. Meyer & Rowan, 2006).

In fact, literature did begin emerging in the 1980s that was critical of this idea of accepting and working with loosely coupled educational organizations (Firestone, 1984; Lutz, 1982). One of the first of this kind, Lutz (1982) argued that educational

organizations should not be viewed only through one specific theoretical lens (such as loose coupling) but rather through several lenses, and that Weick's (1976) warning against using loose coupling normatively had not been followed in subsequent research. The majority of Lutz's critiques of loose coupling, and of Weick, are centered around Weick's (1976) suggested methodologies and priorities for research on loose coupling as well as the resulting literature itself, although Lutz's own research lacked any generally accepted form of methodology and instead amounted to an analysis of three administrative events that he had experienced in the past.

Firestone (1984) also examined loose coupling within educational organizations in the U.S. and, similarly, indicated that loose coupling is a difficult concept to research empirically. Firestone attempted to study the issue through survey methods asking the following research questions: "is it more useful and accurate to think of schools as loosely coupled systems than as bureaucratic organizations?" and "can the ease of program implementation and the spread of change in schools be explained by the strength of particular coupling mechanisms?" (p. 11). Firestone found that secondary schools seem to be more loosely coupled than elementary schools, and implementation of change was, in fact, easier in the elementary schools. While the latter finding supports Weick's (1976) suggestion that systematic change is better promoted in tightly coupled systems, the former finding challenged his "notion of complementary coupling mechanisms because high schools are more loosely coupled across a wide range of dimensions" (Firestone, 1984, p. 16).

In 1990, Orton and Weick reflected on the emergence of literature (over 300 published pieces) that Weick's (1976) article had spurred, and were largely critical of it,

though they did present a conceptual map of five "voices" from their literature review from the intervening years that each sought to explain why and how loose coupling may or may not exist in organizations (Orton & Weick, 1990, p. 203). These included causes of loose coupling, types of loose coupling, positive direct effects of loose coupling, compensation for the negative effects of loose coupling, and organizational outcomes as a result of loose coupling. Their critique centered around the literature's utilization of the "unidimensional interpretation of loose coupling," which portrays loosely coupled systems as "having independent components that do not act responsively" rather than the "dialectical interpretation," which depicts loosely coupled organizations as having "both distinctiveness and responsiveness" (Orton & Weick, 1990, p. 205). Essentially, rather than viewing organizations as existing on a scale from tightly to loosely coupled, organizations should be examined for their degree of both distinctiveness (in their independent elements) and responsiveness (to their environment and also to other elements of the organization). Loosely coupled organizations have both. Organizations that are responsive but have no distinctiveness are tightly coupled, and organizations with distinctiveness and no responsiveness are decoupled. No distinctiveness or responsiveness likely indicates a non-coupled system or, more simply, the absence of a system altogether. Orton and Weick also addressed both Firestone (1984) and Lutz (1982) and criticized their methodologies (survey and "casual observation" (p. 219), respectively) as being incapable of providing the rich and detailed data needed to examine the processes of loose coupling within systems in the dialectical sense.

Following Orton and Weick's (1990) piece that proposed a shift in how researchers utilized loose coupling, several authors followed their advice to use more

qualitative methods to examine the process of loose coupling in educational organizations (Chu, 1995; Fusarelli, 2002; Horne, 1992). Horne (1992) and Chu (1995) both conducted case studies and examined the process, types, and/or causes of loose coupling in various educational settings. Fusarelli (2002) examined the phenomenon H.-D. Meyer (2002) discussed: the push toward tightening the "loosely coupled nature of the US education system" through a policy analysis of recent reform efforts (Fusarelli, 2002, p. 561). In doing so, Fusarelli advanced the concept of isomorphism in schools by attributing this phenomenon as one cause of the tightening of the coupling in schools. Fusarelli found that, through growing reform efforts, the U.S. education system has been tightening towards a system of "fragmented centralization" (J. W. Meyer, 1983, as cited in Fusarelli, 2002, p. 571). Rather than express concern at this development, Fusarelli noted that "alignment of standards, curriculum, and assessment is essential to creating higher-performing learning systems in schools," and that coordination between the federal, state, and local levels could help create a combination of both top-down and bottom-up approaches to sustaining reform initiatives (Fusarelli, 2002, p. 572).

During this period of pushback on the notion of loose coupling in schools (around the 1990s according to H.-D. Meyer, 2002), Ingersoll (1993) argued that the theory of loose coupling had too easily become entrenched in organizational studies without enough critique. Ingersoll contended that loose coupling did not adequately address either the "degree" or "forms of organizational control in schools" (p. 83). In fact, Ingersoll contended that the theory ironically relied on assumptions from classical theorists that view all forms of socialization as practices in "rational exchange and utilitarian

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interaction" (p. 106). This view "underemphasizes the social organization and institutional character of organizations" (Ingersoll, 1993, p. 108).

Literature utilizing loosely coupled systems in the most recent two decades have propelled the theory forward in new and interesting ways with regards to institutional formation (Hallett & Ventresca, 2006), increasingly tight coupling as a result of increasing calls for accountability (H.-D. Meyer & Rowan, 2006), examinations of the process of coupling (Aurini, 2012; Newton et al., 2014), creating change in a loosely coupled organization (Burke, 2014; Kezar, 2017), and advanced analytical models to examine coupling between the school and classroom level (Shen et al., 2017). In a comprehensive review of the literature on organizational couplings, Arango-Vasquez and Gentilin (2021) found that over 71% of the 76 articles they reviewed followed a qualitative methodology with case studies being the most prominent approach (p. 170). A qualitative approach to studying loose coupling seems to fit Weick's (1976) original recommendations for methodologies that focus on "rich detail about context" (p. 10). In the last 10-15 years, many articles have been published that focus specifically on loose coupling in institutions of higher education, although the vast majority mention loose coupling as only a background concept (Elken & Vukasovic, 2019). In the following section, I discuss selected studies that use loose coupling as a conceptual tool specifically to examine IHEs.

Loose Coupling in Institutions of Higher Education

Institutions of higher education are unique because they are knowledge-intensive and knowledge-creating organizations (Bleiklie et al., 2015; Zechlin, 2010), and they are not businesses (with the exception of for-profit colleges and universities) unlike many

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organizations traditional theorists have examined (Ecker, 1979). Weick's (1976) loose

coupling theory helped elucidate this context, and the theory proved to be influential in

the study of IHEs as organizations (Peterson, 2007). In the following section, I discuss

the literature on loose coupling in IHEs with particular focus on the themes most

prominent in this study: the dialectical interpretation of loose coupling (Orton & Weick,

1990), relationships between elements in IHEs, strategic planning and change in IHEs,

colleges of education, and internationalization.

The Dialectical Interpretation of Loose Coupling

Elken and Vukasovic (2019) conducted a systematic review of the literature on

loose coupling in higher education with a focus on published scholarly articles. In doing

so, they found that the vast majority of authors did not heed Orton and Weick's (1990)

recommendation to focus on the dialectical interpretation of loose coupling (i.e.,

simultaneously paying attention to distinctiveness and responsiveness within the

institution), although they found two exceptions. Blaschke et al. (2014) and Sapir and

Oliver (2017) explicitly utilized the dialectical notion of loose coupling in their case

studies of specific events at two different universities in Germany and Israel,

respectively. Both also attempted to characterize the dialectical notion itself. For Sapir

and Oliver (2017), this meant exploring the "micro-processes in which organizational

members interpret and respond to institutional pressures" as well as the processes of

coupling including recoupling and decoupling (p. 712). Blaschke et al. (2014) also

mentioned micro processes, which they conceptualized as "micro patterns of strategic

issues and governing bodies" that "emerge in everyday practices" of leadership,

governance, and management of IHEs and are a tightly coupled element within a larger

loosely coupled institution (p. 715). The authors differentiated their study of micro

processes from previous literature that was more focused on the macro processes of

leadership, governance, and management of higher education.

Loose Coupling Between Units

Other studies utilized Weick's (1976) and/or Orton and Weick's (1990)

conceptualizations of loosely coupled systems very thoroughly to examine relationships

between subunits of IHEs (Birnbaum, 1989; Chu, 1995). Birnbaum (1989) proposed a

"cybernetic paradigm" to better understand how four different models of organizations

("bureaucratic, collegial, political and anarchical") appear simultaneously in IHEs to

ensure that the institution is self-correcting (p. 239). In doing so, Birnbaum specified that

loose and tight coupling can both exist, and tight coupling tends to show up in the strong

connections between members of the same unit, but loose coupling is present between

units, because the actions taken by one unit do not often create consequences for another.

Chu (1995) intentionally examined the relationship between the subunits of librarians and

faculty representatives for a library collection development initiative because of a lack of

understanding of subunits "in a horizontal layer of a loosely coupled organization" (p.

135). Specifically, Chu discussed loose coupling within Orton and Weick's (1990) voices

of causation and typology. Aside from subunits and horizontal coupling, few studies

specifically focus on vertical coupling within organizations (Elken & Vukasovic, 2019).

This could be attributed to the complications of "control, influence, adaptation, and

interaction between levels of analysis" (Orton, 2008, "More research on procedural loose

coupling" section). Elken and Vukasovic (2019) named vertical coupling as a potential

area for further research, especially as a way of examining the process and patterns of

coupling within the organization (p. 17). Vertical coupling between SIO and TEP leaders is one element on which this study focuses.

Loose Coupling in Strategic Planning and Change

One particularly popular topic in the literature focused on loose coupling in IHEs is strategic planning and change, though there are few empirical studies on the "forms and effects of strategic planning in higher education" (Zechlin, 2010, p. 259). However, many authors have examined the change and strategic planning process in the context of loosely coupled IHEs (Foss & Møllgaard, 2020; Gilmore et al., 1999; Kezar, 2017; Rhoades, 1990; Simsek & Louis, 1994; Storberg-Walker & Torraco, 2004; Zechlin, 2010). Simsek and Louis (1994) studied one college's implementation of a strategic planning process that started in the 1970s during a period of declining resources but growing enrollment. They found that the loosely coupled structure of the university hindered the ability to implement major changes, and that change in IHEs must be examined over longer periods of time. Emphasizing a bottom-up approach to change is one way to preserve the strengths of loosely coupled IHEs (Foss & Møllgaard, 2020; Zechlin, 2010). Foss and Møllgaard (2020) stated that this approach "may be crucial to fostering the entrepreneurial stance and the ability to adapt to a changing environment" which they conceptualized as "guided evolution" and claimed that it fits particularly well with loosely coupled organizations (P. 69). Similarly, Zechlin (2010) emphasized the bottom-up approach as opposed to a more hierarchical-driven approach so as not to disrupt the "curiosity-driven development" of the organization (p. 259).

Other authors also stressed that leaders must adapt their leadership style and decisions to fit the characteristics of a loosely coupled IHE, and consistent

communication is a common theme (Gilmore et al., 1999; Kezar, 2017). Gilmore et al. (1999) described these characteristics as uneven linkages between elements, a "federated character" (p. 1), uneven or disproportionate responsiveness between units after an action, and centralized authority that is derived from the members. In strategic planning, leaders of IHEs must be able to both protect the system and direct and develop the system (through allies, strategic tools, and consistent communication). Kezar (2017) provided context and guidelines for the change process in IHEs by describing loose coupling as a given in most institutions and noting that leaders must be aware of the "ambiguous goals, decentralized processes, and unclear decision-making processes" inherent in them (p. 325). Kezar recommended that leaders ensure conversations are held at multiple levels and in different venues of the organization to clearly articulate values. Storberg-Walker and Torraco (2004) also acknowledged loose coupling as a given in IHEs and urged leaders to be culturally responsive to various subunits within institutions, noting that each unit may have a different culture, so leaders cannot assume that planned changes will be received in the same way by every unit.

Loose Coupling in Colleges of Education

Rhoades (1990) compared colleges of education with colleges of arts and letters to illuminate the unique history and present-day functions of colleges of education and examine why and how change occurs within them. Colleges of education are unique because they were enveloped into universities only in the 1900s, formerly existing as *normal schools* that functioned only to prepare future teachers. Since joining the academic ranks, Rhoades argued that they attempted to mold themselves and their identity to the expectations of academia by building graduate programs and conducting

research. As such, they have had to contend with accusations of illegitimacy, and they must be responsive to both the professional demands of teaching as well as the demands of the university, which makes them unstable and insecure within the larger structure of the university. Because of their more tenuous disciplinary connection to the university, and because the curricula for most education degrees is determined outside of the university, Rhoades suggested that education deans had more freedom to implement experimental changes. A dean may also be able to do so because they are typically more entrenched in the profession of their peers, as opposed to deans of arts and letters, and therefore may actually be able to more tightly couple the units within their college together.

Loose Coupling in Internationalization

Loose coupling in IHEs also shows up in the literature on internationalization, though it typically does so in the normative sense (i.e., accepting that loose coupling is an inherent feature of IHEs and that they would not be IHEs without it) (Childress, 2010; Heyl, 2007; Kondakci & Van den Broeck, 2009). Accordingly, some authors describe how best leaders of internationalization (often SIOs) can implement comprehensive internationalization, which generally involves system-wide changes (Childress, 2010; Heyl, 2007). Childress (2010) and Heyl (2007) both discussed the autonomy of academic departments and their faculty members as presenting potential challenges to wide scale change efforts. In keeping with Weick's (1982a) suggestions, Childress recommended that leaders create opportunities for cross-departmental collaboration and communication, take steps to align internationalization with faculty members' "intellectual foundations and interests," and ensure that the priorities make their way into unit strategic plans rather

than only within a university strategic plan (p. 152). Heyl brought up specifically the diffusion of power within IHEs, using the tradition of faculty shared governance as an example (p. 10). Heyl noted that SIOs should be prepared for changes that are incremental and encouraged SIOs to be persistent.

Kondakci and Van den Broeck (2009) conducted a qualitative case study to examine continuous change in an IHE through the process of internationalization. In doing so, they noted that continuous change (i.e., both planned and emergent change co-existing) is possible largely because of loose coupling. As an example, though initiatives to internationalize may be planned by central administration (e.g., increasing international student enrollment), the implementation of these plans occurs within other subunits on campus (e.g., the student administration subunit crafting a new admissions process), and further ongoing changes occur within the subunit in order to adapt and mold the directives to fit their needs. Reconciling these differences between central leaders and subunits is resolved through what Kondakci and Van den Broeck refer to as "decoupling," which protects the more ceremonial structure of internationalization at the institutional level and allows for these subunit-level modifications (p. 458).

Conceptual Framework

Figure 2.1 shows the conceptual framework that guided this study. This depicts my central hypothesis that universities with SIOs who have knowledge of research-backed strategies to internationalize the TEP curriculum toward global competency for teacher candidates are more likely to have these strategies included in their TEP's strategic plan. My theoretical framework of loosely coupled systems added a lens through

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which I examined the process of diffusion of the curriculum internationalization plan

from the SIO to the TEP leader level.

Figure 2.1 Conceptual Framework

Summary

The review of the scholarly literature on internationalization of higher education

and teacher education illuminates the challenges inherent in this process as well as, by

contrast, the research-backed frameworks that exist for internationalizing the teacher

education curriculum toward global competency for teacher candidates. While SIOs are

generally seen as the leaders of the curriculum internationalization process, there is a gap

in the literature with regards to their perspectives on this process. The review has also

discussed the theoretical framework of this study, loosely coupled systems, and its

historical use as a conceptual tool to examine institutions of higher education. The conceptual framework highlights how the theoretical framework of loosely coupled systems may provide a lens through which to examine the process of curriculum internationalization from the SIO to the TEP leader level.

The research methods that guided this study are presented in chapter three. The research design, setting, sample and data sources, instruments and procedures, data collection and analysis process, and role of the researcher are discussed.

CHAPTER 3. RESEARCH METHODS

This study aimed to illuminate the perspectives of academic leaders involved in the process to internationalize the teacher education curriculum at U.S. universities. My objective was to examine whether SIOs and deans/directors of TEPs know about research-backed strategies to internationalize and infuse global competency into the TEP curriculum. I sought to understand how and to what extent SIOs craft institutional curriculum internationalization strategic plans that allow for diffusion into the TEP and, in turn, how academic leaders of TEPs interpret and implement their university's curriculum internationalization strategy into their unit's strategic or other relevant planning documents. In doing so, I sought to illuminate the degree to which the university and TEP processes for strategic planning related to internationalization were tightly coupled, loosely coupled, or decoupled (Orton & Weick, 1990). The following research questions guided this study:

1. To what extent are academic leaders at universities with teacher education programs familiar with research-backed strategies to internationalize the curriculum in teacher education toward global competency for teacher candidates?

   a. What is the relationship between a Senior International Officer's familiarity with the strategies and whether these elements are included in a TEP's unit-level strategic plan?

2. How do SIOs at universities with TEPs craft institutional curriculum internationalization plans that allow for diffusion into the TEP?

3. How do academic leaders of TEPs interpret and implement their university's curriculum internationalization strategy?

4. In what ways do the academic leaders' perceptions of the curriculum internationalization process in TEPs help to explain the quantitative results regarding the relationship between an SIO's familiarity with the research-backed strategies and whether these strategies are included in a TEP's unit-level strategic plan?

I have indicated the following hypotheses for questions 1 and 1a, which constitute my quantitative research questions:

1. Generally, SIOs at U.S. universities with a TEP are unfamiliar with strategies to internationalize the TEP curriculum toward global competency.

2. Generally, academic leaders in the TEP at U.S. universities with SIOs are somewhat familiar with strategies to internationalize the TEP curriculum toward global competency.

3. There is a statistically significant relationship between an SIO's self-reported level of familiarity with TEP internationalization strategies and whether those strategies are included in the TEP strategic plan.

My quantitative variables of interest are categorical independent variable "SIO's self-reported level of familiarity with TEP internationalization strategies" and categorical dependent variable "inclusion of strategies in TEP strategic plan".

This chapter presents the methodology used to achieve the study's purpose. The research design, setting, sample and data sources, instruments and procedures in both the

quantitative and qualitative paradigm, as well as the data collection and analysis methods and role of the researcher are presented.

Research Design

In this study, I utilized mixed methods research (MMR) to address my stated research questions. Research methodology describes the logic behind chosen methods for inquiry, and MMR constitutes a selection of the most appropriate techniques to study a given phenomenon from a combination of qualitative, quantitative, and mixed strategies in order to provide both depth and breadth in analyses and conclusions (Johnson et al., 2007; Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2010).

Although there have been debates in the literature about what characteristics should be used to categorize types of MMR (Maxwell, 2018), my study's design is based on Creswell and Plano Clark's (2018) typology of an *explanatory sequential* design which is typically used when a researcher is seeking to explain in more depth the results of an initial quantitative phase of data collection and analysis with the results of a subsequent qualitative phase. One variant of this design that I utilized in my study is the *case selection variant* (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018). This method involves a greater focus and emphasis on the qualitative phase of the research, using the initial quantitative phase as a way to conduct purposive sample selection of participants who can best describe a certain phenomenon. Morgan (2014) described this technique as a *preliminary quantitative input* design and explained it as a way for researchers to "locate data sources for a predominantly qualitative project" (p. 124). This specific design helps address two of the core aspects of qualitative research: having a small number of data sources/participants and using purposive selection to gather those sources. Therefore,

utilizing an instrument such as a survey to collect quantitative data from a much larger sample can help identify specific participants that fit the qualities a researcher is looking for.

I selected the case selection variant of the explanatory sequential design of MMR because it best addressed my research questions. Research question and sub-question one, which are quantitative in nature, focused on determining whether a relationship exists between the SIO's level of knowledge of research-backed strategies to internationalize the TEP curriculum and whether those elements are included in the TEP's unit-level strategic plan.

My second and third research questions help explain the results of the first question. By purposively selecting participants with differing levels of knowledge of the strategies to interview, I sought to understand how SIOs craft institutional curriculum internationalization plans that allow for diffusion into the TEP. I also sought to learn more about how deans/directors of TEPs interpret and implement their university's curriculum internationalization strategy if it exists. The findings for these questions shed light on the degree of coupling associated with the relationship between strategic planning process at the SIO and TEP leader levels.

My fourth and final research question is one that is both methods- and content-focused to explicate the integration of the qualitative and quantitative data and to illuminate how findings from the interviews and content analysis help explain the phenomenon identified and analyzed from the quantitative phase of the research (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018). The inclusion and phrasing of this question also indicate

the specific explanatory sequential design that I conducted. In the following section, I describe the setting and context for this study.

Research Setting and Context

The setting for this study was limited to universities in the U.S. that have both an SIO and a TEP dean/director. This was necessary because this study's focus was limited to only these types of academic leaders. I excluded any non-university institutions of higher education primarily because the leadership and administrative structure of other types of institutions are likely much different from those at traditional universities, which could skew the data. Additionally, universities are much more likely to employ an SIO than other types of IHEs (ACE, 2012).

Research Sample and Data Sources

For both phases of this study, I employed purposive sampling. While probability sampling is ideal when attempting to obtain samples that are representative of their population, it is still possible to obtain some degree of representativeness using traditional purposive sampling methods (Tashakkori et al., 2021). Purposive sampling involves including groups or individuals in a sample because the researcher determines that they have specific traits that help address the research questions (Nardi, 2014; Tashakkori et al., 2021). The population for this study was SIOs and TEP leaders at universities in the U.S. In the first phase of my study, I included in my sample SIOs and TEP leaders at all universities that have membership in both the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education (AACTE) and the Association of International Education Administrators (AIEA). By selecting all the U.S. universities that belong to both organizations, I created a robust and purposively selected sample of universities that

employed an SIO and also had a TEP (n = 141 universities). Because I intended for the survey to be sent to both the SIO and TEP leader at each university, the initial sample size was 282 individuals. I used public university websites to locate the names and email addresses for as many academic leaders from the initial sample as possible. Due to unavailability of contact information of both academic leaders at one university and one academic leader at another university as well as an intentional exclusion of the academic leaders at my own university, the final sample of potential survey participants was 139 universities/277 individuals. I sent two separate batches of emails, one to SIOs and one to TEP leaders, with a request and link to complete the survey.

In the second phase of my study, participants were selected for interviews (and analysis of their TEPs' strategic plans) by *quota* sampling, also a purposive sampling technique, which attempts to include enough participants that have certain attributes to represent different *strata* in a given population (Nardi, 2014; Tashakkori et al., 2021). This technique allowed me to implement the strategy of "systematic comparisons" to compare individuals from four different groups (Morgan, 2014, p. 129). I originally planned to include SIOs and TEP leaders from four different types of institutions: those at which the SIO is familiar with strategies to internationalize the TEP, and those strategies are included in the TEP's strategic plan; those at which the SIO is unfamiliar with the strategies, but they are still included in the TEP strategic plan; those at which the SIO is familiar with the strategies, but they are not included in the TEP strategic plan; and those at which the SIO is unfamiliar with the strategies, and they are also not included in the TEP strategic plan. However, because I was limited to survey completers who indicated that they would be willing to participate in an interview, this plan changed due to an

inability to recruit any academic leader pairs (SIO and TEP leader) from the same university. Additionally, I was unable to recruit any SIOs who were unfamiliar with the strategies. Instead, I successfully interviewed two SIOs who were familiar with the strategies and reported that they were included in their TEPs' strategic plans, three SIOs who were familiar with the strategies but reported that the strategies were not included (or they did not know if they were included) in their TEPs' strategic plans, one TEP leader who was only slightly familiar with the strategies but reported that they were included in their TEP's strategic plan, and one TEP leader who was unfamiliar with the strategies and reported that they were not included in their TEP's strategic plan. Therefore, my final sample size ($n = 7$) for the interviews consisted of five SIOs and two TEP leaders, all from different universities.

In order to protect the rights of participants, I completed the Responsible Conduct of Research and Social/Behavioral Investigators and Key Personnel training through the Collaborative Institutional Training Initiative program. I also secured approval for the study from my university Institutional Review Board (IRB) (Appendix D). One of the largest risks for participants in social science research is a breach of confidentiality (National Research Council, 2003). Because my participants did not complete the surveys anonymously, this could have been a larger risk than for participants that complete anonymous surveys. To maintain confidentiality, I saved all survey responses under password protected internet accounts. Additionally, as soon as identifying information was no longer needed in the course of my study, it was removed from the data. All participants in both phases of the study received a cover letter with informed consent information including: (a) approximately how long the survey and/or interview would

take, (b) possible risks, (c) potential benefits, (d) how confidentiality would be maintained, (e) who they could contact with questions about the study, and (f) assurance that participation was voluntary and that they could withdraw at any time (National Research Council, 2003).

Instruments and Procedures

To collect and analyze data for this explanatory sequential design research study, I utilized procedures described by Creswell and Plano Clark (2018) and Morgan (2014) (see also Ivankova, 2014; Ivankova & Stick, 2007). To collect data in the first quantitative phase of my study, I used a primarily closed-ended survey instrument that collected data on SIOs' and TEP leaders' institutions, leader characteristics, level of knowledge of strategies to internationalize the TEP curriculum toward global competency for teacher candidates, and inclusion of those strategies in the TEP strategic plan. The survey instrument is included in Appendix A. To collect data in the second qualitative phase of my study, I created and used a semi-structured interview protocol, which is included in Appendix B. Both instruments are described in more detail in the following sections.

Design in the Quantitative Paradigm: Survey Research

In the first, quantitative, phase of the research study, I distributed an online survey (Appendix A). One existing survey assisted in the development of this survey. Longview Foundation (2017) surveyed deans/directors of teacher education programs asking them to "reflect on their efforts to internationalize" (p. 1). This survey included items that I adapted for my own regarding title of the respondent, accreditation status, enrollment of teacher candidates, whether internationalization is included in their institution and TEP

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unit's strategic plans, and descriptions of examples of initiatives to internationalize teacher education. Permission was given to adapt these items by the Longview Foundation (Appendix C). Longview Foundation (2017) stated that "constructs listed on the survey were derived from an in-depth literature review on internationalization of teacher education curriculum, as well as cognitive interviews with experts in higher education internationalization" (p. 1). To further improve content validity of the survey for the two new items I added regarding participants' level of knowledge about the strategies to internationalize teacher education and whether these strategies were included in their TEP's planning documents, I convened an *expert panel* consisting of five former and current international education and TEP professionals that reviewed the survey (Ivankova, 2014; Rubio et al., 2003). These included both "content experts," who are professionals in the field of international education and teacher education, as well as "lay experts," who represented "potential research subjects" to ensure that survey items were phrased in ways that would allow participants to effectively answer the questions (Rubio et al., 2003, p. 96).

I used the survey instrument to collect data on the participants' university (name, whether it is public or private, total student enrollment), their own job and work setting (whether they are the SIO or TEP leader; if SIO, whether they are a faculty or staff member, how many years they had served in their current role, and in which discipline they had worked prior to becoming an SIO; and if TEP leader, their job title, how many years they had served in their current role, how many students seeking a degree that leads to teacher certification are currently enrolled in their TEP, and by whom their TEP is accredited), their level of familiarity with research-backed strategies to internationalize

teacher education prior to taking the survey (with a list of many examples provided), whether these strategies were included in their TEP's strategic planning or other relevant documents to *any* degree, and, if they were willing to be interviewed, their name and email address.

Designs in the Qualitative Paradigm: Semi-Structured Interviews and Content Analysis

To collect the qualitative data, I conducted semi-structured interviews with survey participants who consented to be interviewed, were purposively selected to provide different perspectives, and followed through with me to schedule an interview. I conducted interviews via a virtual platform (Zoom) and recorded them to produce accurate transcripts. The semi-structured interview protocol can be found in Appendix B. I also asked for copies of the TEP's strategic plan, if it existed and I could not locate it online, in order to perform content analysis to search for manifest content related to internationalizing the curriculum toward global competency for teacher candidates (Duriau et al., 2007).

I designed the semi-structured interview protocol to help me address my qualitative-focused research questions. The connection between research questions and interview questions can be found in Table 3.1. I included additional questions in the interview protocol that asked the participant to describe their involvement with the strategic planning process (to confirm that they were, in fact, leaders of this process) as well as the following question to TEP leaders: to what extent do you believe your strategic plan will help support growth in your teacher candidates' global competency? The intention of this question was to prompt the TEP leader to consider and explain whether strategies included in the plan were intentionally placed to support growth in

their teacher candidates' global competency and whether they felt that goal was being achieved.

Table 3.1 Connections Between Qualitative Research Questions and Semi-Structured Interview Questions

Research Question	Connected Interview Questions for Academic Leader
How do SIOs at universities with TEPs craft institutional curriculum internationalization plans that allow for diffusion into the TEP?	SIO:
	Describe the process you employ to include internationalization of the curriculum in the university strategic plan.
	How do you ensure that the plan/strategy to internationalize the curriculum can be adapted into various colleges/units/disciplines?
	What strategies, if any, do you employ to help the teacher education unit include education-specific strategies to internationalize the curriculum in their relevant planning documents that align with the institutional strategic plan?
How do academic leaders of TEPs interpret and implement their university's curriculum internationalization strategy?	TEP Leader:
	Describe the process, if any, to adapt the university's strategic plan related to internationalization into the strategic or other relevant plan for the teacher education unit.
	(If the TEP leader does not mention internationalization *of the curriculum,* specifically): Specifically for internationalization of the curriculum, how do you interpret and implement the university's strategic plan into the teacher education unit's strategic or other relevant plan?

Qualitative research is primarily assessed for its credibility, trustworthiness (Ivankova, 2014), meaningful coherence, rich rigor, and resonance, among other criteria (Tracy, 2020). In Ivankova's (2014) report of implementing quality criteria in the design

of an explanatory sequential study, the researchers utilized triangulation of data sources, intercoder agreement, and member checking. Similarly, I used triangulation of data sources to confirm whether strategies to internationalize the TEP curriculum were indeed included in a TEP's strategic plan (through a survey question, interview, and content analysis of the strategic plan). I also utilized member checking by sending extended summaries of participants' interviews to them to verify accuracy. No interviewees requested any changes or indicated that any inaccuracies were included. For the content analysis of TEP strategic plans, I ensured content validity through cross-referencing research-backed frameworks and definitions for curriculum internationalization toward global competency in TEPs.

Data Collection

To collect the quantitative data, I distributed the survey, which was created using Qualtrics (www.qualtrics.com) to my sample of 277 individuals via email. Only one email was sent to each individual, which was personalized with their name using a mail merge, and it included the cover letter, link to the survey, and a request to complete the survey within two weeks of receipt. The survey included only one required question, the first one, which provided a brief summary of the cover letter and asked whether they consented to participate in the study. Selecting that they did not consent immediately ended the survey while selecting that they did consent took them to the rest of the survey items, which were all optional to answer.

After two weeks, I closed the survey and examined the results. I identified individuals who had provided contact information indicating that they were interested in participating in a follow-up interview. I purposively selected individuals to invite to an

interview in an attempt to recruit a diverse pool that represented different self-reported

levels of knowledge of the strategies to internationalize TEPs, different answers to

whether the strategies were included in their TEPs' strategic plans, and participants from

different types of universities including geographic and Carnegie designation differences

(The Carnegie Classification of Institutions of Higher Education [Carnegie], n.d.). I

invited each individual to participate in an interview via an email that included a new

cover letter and a link to set up an interview appointment with me via Calendly

(www.calendly.com). All interviews were conducted via Zoom (www.zoom.us). At the

beginning of the interview, I reviewed the content of the cover letter with each participant

and asked them to verbally confirm that they still consented to participate. After doing so,

I began recording so that I could later generate transcripts from the interviews. All

interviews were held within a two-month period at the end of 2022.

Data Analysis

Once the response time concluded for the survey, it was closed, and I downloaded

the data from Qualtrics using a Qualtrics-generated format suited for use with the

Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS, www.ibm.com/spss) software for

analysis. I then organized and cleaned the data. I entered label names for variables, which

helped identify demographic questions regarding institutional characteristics (e.g., type,

population of students, size of TEP, etc.), leader characteristics (e.g. years in the role,

disciplinary/academic field), and my variables of interest: level of familiarity with the

strategies to internationalize the teacher education program curriculum toward global

competency for teacher candidates (using an intensity scale of 1 = very familiar, 2 =

somewhat familiar, 3 = slightly familiar, 4 = not at all familiar), and whether or not these

strategies are implemented in the TEP strategic or other relevant plans (1 = yes, 2 = no, 3 = unknown, 4 = no plans exist).

The final count of survey respondents was 55. Out of a possible 277, this represented a 19.85% response rate. However, among those, three respondents indicated that they did not consent to continue the study, and therefore did not complete the rest of the survey. An additional six respondents indicated that they provided consent to use their responses as part of the study but did not answer any of the remaining survey questions. An additional four respondents provided responses to some questions but not all. Of these four, all but one (who provided only university data and whether they were an SIO or TEP leader) of those respondents provided enough answers that they could be included in the initial demographic data analysis. These three respondents (all SIOs) were then removed from further data analysis. One other respondent that completed the full survey was removed from all analysis because they were determined to be neither the SIO nor TEP leader of their university based on their survey responses. The final total of valid survey respondents for descriptive statistical analysis was 44. Of the 44 respondents, 26 were SIOs and 18 were TEP leaders.

I addressed the first research question and sub-question by using descriptive (e.g., percentages) and inferential (Fisher exact test) statistics. The Fisher exact test was used to determine whether there was an association between an SIO's reported familiarity with the strategies and whether these strategies were included in the TEP's strategic planning documents.

To analyze the qualitative data collected from interviews and address the second, third, and fourth research questions, I re-listened to the interviews and took notes on

emergent themes and categories (Maxwell, 2013). To increase the validity of my interpretations of the data, I created extended summaries of each interview and sent them via email to the participant to confirm whether the summary accurately reflected their perspectives.

After verifying that the extended summaries were accurate, I began a two-cycle coding process using the qualitative and mixed method data management and analysis software package Dedoose (2023). I read through every interview and first utilized "structural coding," which is recommended for studies that include "semi-structured data-gathering protocols" (Saldaña, 2021, p. 130). Structural coding helps categorize the data in the interviews based on their application to relevant research questions. Employing this process allowed me to segment the participants' responses and compare across similar categories relating to my research questions with, for example, codes like "SIO TEP Curr Align SP" to represent SIO interviewees' descriptions of how they help the teacher education unit include education-specific strategies to internationalize the curriculum in their strategic planning documents that align with the institutional strategic plan, which addressed my second research question. At the same time, for participant comments that were not directly related to research questions or were answers to interview questions that were not originally listed on the protocol, I employed "holistic coding," which is a "preparatory approach" that typically codes large segments of data when "the researcher already has a general idea of what to investigate in the data," which is appropriate given my prior knowledge of themes related to internationalization and loose coupling (Saldaña, 2021, p. 214).

After creating structural and holistic codes to categorize the data, I then utilized in vivo coding, which is ideal for "studies that prioritize and honor the participant's voice" (Saldaña, 2021, p. 138). Given the prioritization of academic leaders' perspectives of the process to internationalize teacher education in my study, this method, combined with structural and holistic coding, helped "preserve participants' meanings of their views and actions in the coding itself" (Charmaz, 2014, as cited in Saldaña, 2021, p. 141). After this first cycle of coding, in the second cycle, I used *pattern coding* to group the in vivo codes into smaller numbers of "categories, themes, or concepts" that related to my theoretical framework of loose coupling and/or my overarching focus of internationalization and strategic planning (Miles, 2019, p. 79).

I also analyzed the TEP strategic plans from these institutions using a similar but more simplistic process. I searched the documents for manifest content related to internationalizing the curriculum toward global competency for teacher candidates (Duriau et al., 2007). To do so, I identified keywords from the literature on global competency in teacher education and coded the plans appropriately, then analyzed for placement in the plan (which may indicate the degree to which the concept is foregrounded) and used the data to confirm whether aspects of global competency were included in the plan.

Finally, I integrated the results of the quantitative and qualitative findings to address the fourth research question and produce interpretations and implications. According to Creswell and Plano Clark (2018), "integration is the centerpiece of mixed methods research" (p. 220). It entails more than simply collecting and analyzing both quantitative and qualitative data but necessitates some combining of the data so that the

results inform each other. Integration in MMR also "requires the researcher to explicate the links between the rationale for conducting the research, the purpose, and the analysis" (Collins, 2015, p. 243). Integrative data analysis occurred at two stages of my study: when selecting the participants to interview that could provide more information regarding the findings of the quantitative phase, and, accordingly, when I used the qualitative results of the interviews and content analysis to better understand and illuminate the quantitative results (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018).

Role of the Researcher

Researchers tend to subscribe to a certain research paradigm, which shapes their worldview and informs the way they collect, analyze, and interpret data (Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017). Kivunja and Kuyini (2017) stated that methodology makes up one element of a research paradigm along with epistemology (ways of knowing), ontology (beliefs about what is real), and axiology (the ethical concerns of researchers). It is important for researchers to understand their own paradigm to examine the ways in which it informs their research. I closely identify with the *pragmatic* paradigm, which is characterized by the researcher determining the best methods of the research based on the research questions, the acknowledgement that there exists no singular reality, a concern with conducting research that carries benefits for the participants or population in general, and a focus on mixed methods. The pragmatic paradigm allows me as the researcher to appropriately select the best fitting research methods that will elucidate the process, behaviors, and beliefs behind the phenomenon I examined in this study, which is the internationalization of teacher education and the perceptions of academic leaders regarding that process.

As a practicing educator in the field of internationalization for many years, I have deep familiarity with the literature on this topic. I also knew or had heard of some of the participants in this study. As a researcher, my goal is to practice reflexivity to acknowledge these ties to the research topic and participants. I am also uniquely positioned to examine my own assumptions, beliefs, and biases as someone who has studied and taught themes related to intercultural and global learning concepts. Recognizing that I am personally invested in internationalization and the growth of global competency amongst pre- and in-service teachers, I acknowledge that one of my goals in this research is to help spread knowledge of the research-backed strategies to internationalize the TEP curriculum. I also acknowledge that not all academic leaders will be familiar with these strategies given the many competing priorities inherent in academia and teacher education. I sought not to judge academic leaders for their knowledge (or lack thereof) of these strategies, but rather to examine what challenges may be present in the structure of universities and the relationship between SIO and TEP that may be preventing the inclusion of these strategies in the TEP curriculum.

Summary

For this study, I employed the case selection variant of a sequential explanatory mixed methods design to explore the perspectives of academic leaders at U.S. universities regarding the process to internationalize the teacher education curriculum toward global competency for teacher candidates. I first utilized a survey that collected demographic information as well as information regarding level of knowledge of research-backed strategies to internationalize the TEP and whether these strategies were included in the TEP strategic plan. After analyzing the demographic data from the survey as well as

conducting a Fisher exact test to establish whether a relationship existed between an SIO's knowledge of the strategies and whether the strategies existed in the TEP plan, I then purposively selected several academic leaders to participate in semi-structured interviews that focused on the leaders' perceptions of the process. I coded the data from the interviews using structural, holistic, in vivo, and pattern coding to better identify emergent themes related to my theoretical framework of loose coupling and the internationalization process within strategic planning. I integrated the data from the quantitative and qualitative phases both to select participants for the interviews and to explain the findings of the quantitative stage using the findings from the qualitative stage. I approached this study using the pragmatic paradigm to utilize the research methods that would best help me address my research questions. In the following chapter, I present the findings from the first, quantitative, phase of the study.

CHAPTER 4. QUANTITATIVE RESULTS

This study aimed to illuminate the perspectives of Senior International Officers (SIOs) and teacher education program (TEP) leaders at universities in the U.S. on the process to internationalize teacher education. Specifically, I focused on the process of strategic planning and utilized the theoretical framework of loose coupling to explore the alignment of the strategic planning processes related to internationalization of the curriculum at the university level as well as the TEP level. My research questions were as follows:

1. To what extent are academic leaders at universities with teacher education programs familiar with research-backed strategies to internationalize the curriculum in teacher education toward global competency for teacher candidates?

   a. What is the relationship between an SIO's familiarity with the strategies and whether these elements are included in a TEP's unit-level strategic plan?

2. How do SIOs at universities with TEPs craft institutional curriculum internationalization plans that allow for diffusion into the TEP?

3. How do academic leaders of TEPs interpret and implement their university's curriculum internationalization strategy?

4. In what ways do the academic leaders' perceptions of the curriculum internationalization process in TEPs help to explain the quantitative results regarding the relationship between an SIO's familiarity with the research-backed

strategies and whether these strategies are included in a TEP's unit-level strategic plan?

Question one and sub-question one are both quantitative in nature while questions two through four are qualitative in nature. My hypotheses for question one and sub-question one were as follows:

1. Generally, SIOs at U.S. universities with a TEP are unfamiliar with strategies to internationalize the TEP curriculum toward global competency.

2. Generally, academic leaders in the TEP at U.S. universities with SIOs are somewhat familiar with strategies to internationalize the TEP curriculum toward global competency.

3. There is a statistically significant relationship between an SIO's self-reported level of familiarity with TEP internationalization strategies and whether those strategies are included in the TEP strategic plan.

I collected quantitative data from participants via a primarily closed-ended survey that was sent to SIOs and TEP leaders at universities in the U.S. The survey data was used to address research question one and sub-question one. I analyzed the data through descriptive statistical analysis including demographic breakdowns for each group as well as a Fisher exact test for my categorical independent variable "SIO's self-reported level of familiarity with TEP internationalization strategies" and my categorical dependent variable "inclusion of strategies in the TEP strategic plan" to determine whether the variables are associated with each other (Fisher, 1925, as cited in Korosteleva, 2018). I selected the Fisher exact test to use because of the study's small sample size of SIOs ($n = 23$ for the Fisher exact test), which produced multiple cells in the contingency tables with

expected counts below five. In these cases, a Fisher exact test is preferable to the chi-square test, which is also a nonparametric test for associations between variables, but it is not recommended for very small sample sizes or when more than 20% of the cells in a contingency table "have an expected frequency of less than 5" (Nishishiba et al., 2017, p. 245; see also Korosteleva, 2018). Though the Fisher exact test was originally conceptualized to examine only a 2X2 contingency table, Freeman and Halton (1951) extended its use to 2X3 bivariate tables, which is what I created to examine my independent variable with two categories (whether SIOs are familiar or not familiar with the strategies) and dependent variable with three categories (SIOs reporting that the strategies are, are not, or they do not know if they are included in the TEP strategic plan).

The following sections detail study participant demographics, including SIO- and TEP leader-specific information, in addition to findings for research question one and subquestion one. These are addressed through analysis of descriptive statistics and a Fisher exact test, respectively.

Study Participant Demographics

From the original sample of 277 individuals at 139 universities, the final total of valid survey respondents for descriptive statistical analysis was 44 individuals from at least 34 different universities. Eight respondents did not provide the name of their university, and two pairs of respondents were each from the same university. Of the 44 respondents, 26 were SIOs and 18 were TEP leaders. Sample demographic characteristics of respondents' answers to questions on the survey that were presented to all participants are displayed divided by leadership role in Table 4.1.

Most participants (75%) were from public universities and most (70.5%) had university student enrollments of over 10,000. Over half (56.8%) of the participants had only served in their current leadership role for five years or fewer.

Table 4.1 Demographic Characteristics of Survey Respondents and Their Universities by Role

University characteristic		SIO		TEP leader		Full sample	
		n	%	n	%	n	%
University public or private	Public	19	73.1	14	77.8	33	75
	Private	7	26.9	4	22.2	11	25
University student enrollment	Fewer than 2,000	1	3.8	0	0	1	2.3
	2,001 to 5,000	1	3.8	4	22.2	5	11.4
	5,001 - 10,000	4	15.4	3	16.7	7	15.9
	10,001 - 20,000	9	34.6	5	27.8	14	31.8
	20,001 - 30,000	5	19.2	3	16.7	8	18.2
	30,001 - 50,000	3	11.5	2	11.1	5	11.4
	More than 50,000	3	11.5	1	5.6	4	9.1
Years in current leadership role	0 - 5	12	46.2	13	72.2	25	56.8
	6 - 10	9	34.6	3	16.7	12	27.3
	11 - 15	4	15.4	2	11.1	6	13.6
	16 - 20	1	3.8	0	0	1	2.3
	21 or more	0	0	0	0	0	0

Teacher Education Leaders and Programs

  Descriptive statistics for the TEP leaders and their programs are displayed in
Table 4.2. The vast majority (83.3%) of respondents held the job title of "dean" while one
was an "associate dean" and two held the title of "chair". Just over half (55.6%) of the
respondents indicated that their program enrolled between 500-1,000 students seeking a
degree that led to teacher certification. No programs enrolled more than 2,000 students.
Half (50%) of the respondents indicated that their programs were accredited by CAEP
while 2 (11.1%) were accredited by AAQEP and 11 (61.1%) were accredited by a state-
based agency. Only four respondents (22.2%) indicated that their program was accredited
by more than one agency, and all four listed both CAEP and a state-based agency.

Table 4.2 Characteristics of Teacher Education Program Leaders and Their Programs

Characteristic		TEP leaders	
		n	%
TEP leader job title	Dean	15	83.3
	Associate dean	1	5.6
	Assistant dean	0	0
	Director	0	0
	Chair	2	11.1
	Coordinator	0	0
	Faculty member	0	0
	Other	0	0
Number of students seeking a degree that leads to teacher certification	Fewer than 500	4	22.2
	500 - 1,000	10	55.6
	1,001 - 2,000	4	22.2
	2,001 - 3,000	0	0
	3,001 - 4,000	0	0
	4,001 - 5,000	0	0
	5,001 - 6,000	0	0
	More than 6,000	0	0
Accreditation	CAEP	9	50
	AAQEP	2	11.1
	State Agency	11	61.1

Senior International Officers

Descriptive statistics for the SIO survey respondents are displayed in Table 4.3.

Of the 26 SIO respondents, 30.8% reported that they were a faculty member while 69.2%

reported that they were a staff member. Regarding the discipline or sector in which they had primarily worked prior to becoming an SIO, the majority (61.5%) worked in international education. The next most common discipline was social sciences with 19.2% having worked in this discipline.

Table 4.3 Characteristics of Senior International Officers

Characteristic		SIO	
		n	%
Whether SIO is faculty or staff	Faculty	8	30.8
	Staff	18	69.2
In which discipline/sector SIO worked prior to becoming SIO	Humanities	1	3.8
	Social sciences	5	19.2
	STEM	2	7.7
	International education	16	61.5
	Applied science (business, ed, law, journalism, health, public admin, social work, etc.)	1	3.8
	Other	1	3.8

Research Questions Results

First Research Question Results

RQ1: To what extent are academic leaders at universities with teacher education programs familiar with research-backed strategies to internationalize the curriculum in teacher education toward global competency for teacher candidates?

H1: SIOs are generally unfamiliar while TEP leaders are generally somewhat familiar with strategies to internationalize the TEP curriculum toward global competency.

I calculated descriptive statistics for each group of participants (SIOs and TEP leaders) using SPSS (see Table 4.2). Only 23 out of the 26 SIOs that answered the initial demographic questions answered the question regarding their familiarity with the strategies, and all 18 TEP leaders answered the question. Only 9.8% of these participants reported being "not at all familiar" with research-backed strategies to internationalize TEPs. However, more SIOs (65.2%) reported being at least somewhat familiar with the strategies rather than only slightly or not at all familiar, which provided evidence against my initial hypothesis that SIOs at U.S. universities are generally unfamiliar with the strategies. My second hypothesis, that TEP leaders are generally familiar with the strategies, was supported with 72.2% of TEP leaders reporting as such. Notably, no TEP leaders reported that they were "very familiar" with the strategies while five (21.7%) SIOs did so.

Table 4.4 Descriptive Statistics of Participant Familiarity with Strategies

Characteristic		SIO		TEP leader		Full sample	
		n	%	n	%	n	%
Level of familiarity with research-backed strategies to internationalize the TEP	Very familiar	5	21.7	0	0	5	12.2
	Somewhat familiar	10	43.5	13	72.2	23	56.1
	Slightly familiar	5	21.7	4	22.2	9	22.0
	Not at all familiar	3	13	1	5.6	4	9.8

First Research Subquestion Results

RQ1a: What is the relationship between an SIO's familiarity with the strategies and whether these elements are included in a TEP's unit-level strategic plan?

H₀₁ₐ: There is no relationship between an SIO's self-reported level of familiarity with TEP internationalization strategies and whether those strategies are included in the TEP strategic plan.

H₁ₐ: There is a relationship between an SIO's self-reported level of familiarity with TEP internationalization strategies and whether those strategies are included in the TEP strategic plan.

Many more TEP leaders (16 or 88.9%) than SIOs (8 or 34.8%) reported that the strategies were included in their TEP strategic plan (see Table 4.3). A significant portion (11 or 47.8%) of SIOs reported that they did not know whether the strategies were included in their TEP's strategic plan.

Table 4.5 Descriptive Statistics of Inclusion of Strategies in TEP Plan

Characteristic		SIO		TEP leader		Full sample	
		n	%	*n*	%	*n*	%
Whether strategies are included in TEP strategic/ relevant planning documents	Yes	8	34.8	16	88.9	24	58.5
	No	3	13	2	11.1	5	12.2
	I don't know	11	47.8	0	0	11	26.8
	No such plans exist	1	4.3	0	0	1	2.4

To examine whether a relationship existed between the variables of "SIO's self-reported level of familiarity with TEP internationalization strategies" and "inclusion of strategies in the TEP strategic plan," I conducted a Fisher exact test using SPSS. I was able to conduct the test using data from the 23 SIOs who all completed the survey fully including the questions related to these variables. It should be noted that three cases were missing from the original 26 SIOs that were included in basic demographic analysis. To

conduct the test, I first transformed the existing variable "level of familiarity" for SIO

respondents to convert the responses "very familiar" and "somewhat familiar" into the

new category "generally familiar" and the responses "slightly familiar" and "not at all

familiar" into the new category "generally not familiar" to create a categorical

independent variable with only two categories. My dependent variable, whether the

strategies are included in the TEP plans, initially included four categories: yes, no, I don't

know, and no such plans exist. I transformed these into three categories with the "no" and

"no such plans exist" responses being combined into one "no" category. Table 4.6

displays the frequencies in crosstabs.

SIOs who were generally familiar with the strategies more often answered that

these strategies either were included in their TEP's plans (46.7%) or that they did not

know whether they were included in their TEP plans (40%) than that the strategies were

not included (13.3%). SIOs who were generally not familiar with the strategies more

often answered that they did not know whether the strategies were included in the TEP's

plans (62.5%) than that they were included (12.5%) or not included (25%). However, the

Fisher exact test determined that there was not a significant association between these

variables, $p = 0.276$. Because the p value is larger than $\alpha = 0.05$, I cannot reject the null

hypothesis; there is not enough evidence to suggest an association between the SIO's

familiarity with research-backed strategies to internationalize the teacher education

curriculum and their general familiarity with the content of their TEP's strategic (or other

relevant) planning documents.

Table 4.6 Frequencies for Senior International Officers' Familiarity with Strategies and

Knowledge of Inclusion in Teacher Education Program Strategic Plan

Characteristic		Whether SIO is familiar with strategies					
		Generally familiar		Generally not familiar		Total	
		n	%	*n*	%	*n*	%
Whether strategies are included in TEP plans	Yes	7	46.7	1	12.5	8	34.8
	No	2	13.3	2	25	4	17.4
	I don't know	6	40	5	62.5	11	47.8
Total		15	100	8	100	23	100

Summary

In this first, quantitative, phase of the study, I calculated descriptive statistics for my study sample as well as descriptive statistics for SIOs and TEP leaders as distinct groups. My first research question addressed the level of familiarity SIOs and TEP leaders had with research-backed strategies to internationalize the curriculum in teacher education toward global competency for teacher candidates. Though I hypothesized that SIOs would be generally unfamiliar and TEP leaders would be generally somewhat familiar, the findings suggest that over half of the SIOs surveyed were at least somewhat familiar with the strategies. In support of my second hypothesis, the findings suggest that most TEP leaders surveyed are somewhat familiar with the strategies.

My first research sub-question addressed whether there was a relationship between an SIO's self-reported level of familiarity with TEP internationalization strategies and whether those strategies are included in the TEP strategic plan. After

running a Fisher exact test, I found that there is no statistically significant relationship between the variables. However, SIOs who were generally familiar with the strategies were more likely to answer that they either were included or that they did not know whether they were included rather than that they were not included in the TEP strategic plan. Perhaps the most surprising finding was that nearly half of the SIOs surveyed did not know whether the strategies were included in their TEP's strategic plan, including 40% of SIOs who were generally familiar with the strategies.

The following chapter presents the findings of the second, qualitative, phase of the study including data gleaned from semi-structured interviews as well as content analysis of TEP strategic planning documents.

CHAPTER 5. QUALITATIVE FINDINGS

The purpose of this study was to illuminate the perspectives of Senior International Officers (SIOs) and teacher education program (TEP) leaders at universities in the U.S. regarding the process to internationalize teacher education toward global competency for teacher candidates. Through an examination of strategic planning processes and using loose coupling as a theoretical framework, I researched the alignment of the strategic planning processes related to internationalization of the curriculum at the university level as well as the TEP level. My research questions were as follows:

1. To what extent are academic leaders at universities with teacher education programs familiar with research-backed strategies to internationalize the curriculum in teacher education toward global competency for teacher candidates?

    a. What is the relationship between an SIO's familiarity with the strategies and whether these elements are included in a TEP's unit-level strategic plan?

2. How do SIOs at universities with TEPs craft institutional curriculum internationalization plans that allow for diffusion into the TEP?

3. How do academic leaders of TEPs interpret and implement their university's curriculum internationalization strategy?

4. In what ways do the academic leaders' perceptions of the curriculum internationalization process in TEPs help to explain the quantitative results regarding the relationship between an SIO's familiarity with the research-backed

strategies and whether these strategies are included in a TEP's unit-level strategic plan?

Question one and sub-question one are both quantitative in nature, and results were reported in chapter four. Questions two through four are qualitative in nature and will be addressed in the following chapter.

Qualitative data was collected primarily through semi-structured interviews with survey completers who had indicated that they were open to a follow-up interview. I purposively selected participants who would represent diverse perspectives on the internationalization and strategic planning processes at their universities. I also collected qualitative data through the strategic planning documents for each participant's TEP that were publicly available online to confirm whether the strategies were or were not included in order to triangulate the findings related to inclusion of the strategies in these plans. For all but one interviewee, I was able to locate the TEP strategic plans online and confirmed that their answers as to whether the strategies were included were correct. For the TEP at the university of the participant who answered that they did not know whether the strategies were included, I was unable to locate any strategic planning documents for the TEP online, which validated their answer.

I analyzed the data from the interviews using a multi-cycle coding process. I first utilized holistic and categorical coding to identify major themes and participant responses that directly addressed components of my research questions. I then used in vivo coding to capture the essence of each participants' responses. Finally, I used pattern coding to sort the in vivo codes into themes and groups that addressed "theoretical constructs and processes" (Saldaña, 2021, p. 322).

This chapter presents the findings of the qualitative phase of this study. I first describe the interview participants to contextualize their responses and provide information about their role and institution. I then present major findings organized by research question. Participant quotes are added to elucidate major themes. I include only broad descriptions of the participants and their universities, use titles such as "SIO 1," "TEP Leader 1," etc. instead of names, and use gender-neutral pronouns to refer to participants to maintain confidentiality and anonymity.

Interview Phase Participants

Following analysis of the quantitative data, I invited eight survey completers who had indicated that they would consent to an interview to schedule an interview with me. Seven participants responded, and I successfully conducted interviews with all seven via Zoom. Five of the participants were SIOs and two were TEP leaders. All participants worked at public, four-year universities. Though the regional representation was limited with four participants at Midwest universities, two were located in the Northeast and one was located in the Southeast. The eighth individual invited to interview who did not respond was located at a university in the Southwest. All but one of the interviewees reported being at least slightly familiar with the research-backed strategies to internationalize teacher education toward global competency for teacher candidates prior to completing the survey. For the purpose of analysis, for one of these participants who reported being only "slightly familiar" with the strategies, I counted them as being in the "generally not familiar" with the strategies category as indicated in the previous chapter. Three respondents reported that the strategies were included in their TEP's strategic plan, three reported that they were not included, and one reported that they did not know

whether they were included. After searching this participant's university's TEP public webpages, I could not locate any strategic planning or other relevant planning documents. Accordingly, for the purposes of analysis, this participant was grouped with the other SIOs who indicated that the strategies were not included in their TEPs' strategic plans. Details regarding each participant, their universities, and their answers to the survey questions related to my variables of interest are provided in Table 5.1.

Table 5.1 Interview Participant Details

Participant	Approximate number of years in current leadership role	University region location	University Carnegie (n.d.) basic classification	Level of familiarity with strategies	Whether strategies are included in TEP strategic plan
SIO 1	0 – 5	Midwest	Doctoral- very high research activity	Somewhat familiar	Yes
SIO 2	6 – 10	Northeast	Doctoral- very high research activity	Somewhat familiar	Yes
SIO 3	0 – 5	Southeast	Doctoral- high research activity	Somewhat familiar	No
SIO 4	6 – 10	Midwest	Doctoral- very high research activity	Very familiar	No
SIO 5	16 – 20	Midwest	Doctoral- high research activity	Somewhat familiar	Do not know
TEP Leader 1	11 – 15	Midwest	Master's- larger program	Slightly familiar	Yes
TEP Leader 2	0 – 5	Northeast	Doctoral- very high research activity	Not at all familiar	No

Research Questions Results

Second Research Question Results

My second research question was: How do SIOs at universities with TEPs craft institutional curriculum internationalization plans that allow for diffusion into the TEP? SIOs try to develop curriculum internationalization plans that complement, but are not

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entirely reliant on, the university strategic plan. They implement collaborative processes, including faculty members from across campus, to assist in formulating their goals. SIOs see themselves and their offices as supporters and advocates of internationalization within the university, but they shy away from proposing or trying to implement curriculum changes themselves. They see the curriculum as being wholly owned by academic units and faculty members. They are keenly aware of the need for support of internationalization from university administration as well as allies across campus. They offered processes other than strategic planning that, in some cases, are contributing more to curriculum internationalization than strategic plans. They acknowledge that teacher education programs experience unique barriers to internationalization including the prescriptiveness of the curriculum, state licensing requirements, and, in some cases, accreditation concerns. Their reported successes in internationalizing the curriculum within teacher education programs typically include experiential international learning or other small-scale initiatives that do not tend to reach a large majority of the teacher candidates enrolled. These findings with accompanying quotes from participants are further discussed in the following sections.

SIOs Build on Vague Language in University Strategic Plans to Create Internationalization Strategic Goals through Collaborative Processes

Though each of the five SIOs reported unique processes for strategic planning that were adapted based on their institutional context, several common themes emerged. Namely, the university strategic plan is usually too broad to be useful, so SIOs lead a process to craft their own internationalization-specific strategic plans. SIO 4 recounted:

I remember having conversations with different provosts about, 'well, why do you need an internationalization plan? We already have a strategic plan'. Well, because the strategic plan doesn't really address much of what we need to address in terms of internationalization. I don't want to be in conflict, but it really is insufficient for what we need to do.

For SIOs, the university strategic plan provides "parameters around which we need to work" (SIO 4), and the internationalization strategic plan is "an operationalization of the language in [the] larger university-wide strategic plan" (SIO 3). To craft an internationalization strategic plan, SIOs seek input from faculty and academic leaders from cross-campus units. The ability to collaborate across campus was seen as a benefit of their administrative position. SIO 1 reported,

our institution definitely encourages collaboration, and we've got a very collaborative culture on our campus. At the same time, it's always beneficial from a structural standpoint to have a position or an appointment that allows you, by the very nature of the job, to connect with other colleges throughout the entire university.

Advisory boards/councils made up of a diverse group of faculty members that help craft the internationalization strategic plan are common. Three of the SIOs (1, 3, and 4) specifically mentioned their board/council playing a key role in the strategic planning process. In doing so, the SIOs clarified that it was important for the goals to emerge from this collaborative process both for buy-in from faculty members but also so that the goals did not seem top-down or mandated from the SIOs themselves. Speaking of the strategic

plan that emerged from this process related to internationalization of the curriculum, SIO 3 shared,

> I wanted to stay hands-off. There were some things I certainly wanted to see in it, and a handy opportunity to make sure all that stuff was included for the final draft, won out. But I'll also say I really didn't have to manipulate it. I don't mean that in a pejorative way because the folks saw the same thing that I saw specifically about the curriculum.

In fact, the notion of being hands-off was reflected in the way SIOs more broadly understood their position in the university and the role of their office (generally, an international center comprised of units related to study/education abroad and international student and scholar services) in supporting internationalization, as discussed in the following section.

SIOs and their Offices Serve as Advocates and Support Units for Internationalization

The SIOs described their roles and the roles of their staff as "logistical experts" serving in a "consulting capacity to faculty" (SIO 2) who can help connect individuals across campus connect to resources or research that supports their own internationalization goals and initiatives. These roles were often reflected in their internationalization strategic plan. SIO 1 shared the model for their international office as a "sort of hub and spoke, making sure that these connections are there, that the relationships are maintained, that we communicate on priorities, and that we do what we can together to execute them." For both university administration and faculty, SIOs advocate for internationalization in order to secure buy-in and communicate the value of internationalization for students. SIO 5 shared,

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I'm luckily in a position now, where, you know, I'm like 'this is very important

for us to do,' and [university leadership] certainly understand high impact

practices like study abroad and international internships and things like that, so

that's really, I think, the extent of it, the influence that we have.

At the same time, SIOs recognize and are generally unhappy with the focus on

increasing (primarily international) student enrollment as a primary goal of university

administration when it comes to internationalization. SIOs referred to this strategy as a

"marketing game," a "rudimentary form of internationalization," (SIO 2) and a form of

competition with other universities (SIO 5). Instead, SIOs described initiatives they had

successfully implemented or were trying to implement to help academic units on campus

consider how to internationalize that focused less on enrollment numbers and more on the

quality of the initiatives and programs.

Successful Curriculum Internationalization Most Commonly Involves Experiential Learning and Small-Scale Initiatives

When describing specific initiatives and programs that SIOs felt were successful

in helping academic units internationalize, they often first mention traditional

education/study abroad programming, including within the TEP. In sharing their

university's successes, SIO 2 noted:

Where we're mostly developed, and I think that's also typical of other institutions,

is around student mobility and faculty-led courses. So, in [our teacher education

program], they've had multiple faculty who developed courses and internships

that are integrated in the curriculum to build global competency.

SIO 3 also had some success encouraging studying abroad within the TEP, stating: "I'll tell you what I'm happy with, though, is that there is some movement in the [teacher education program] for study abroad." SIO 4 shared that their TEP had just recently developed their first study abroad program.

Aside from study abroad programming, other successes or goals across academic units SIOs reported were regarding microcredentials and certificates (SIO 3), infusion of global perspectives into the general education curriculum (SIO 5), collaborative online international learning (COIL) programs (SIO 5), international learning communities (SIO 4), strong international partnerships (SIO 5), colleges or units with their own international offices/support systems (SIO 1), programs withing a TEP that brought together K-12 teachers for an initiative that gave "global perspectives back to [their] students" (SIO 1), and, for one TEP, flexibility in accreditation or licensing requirements that allow for international initiatives (SIO 2).

The vast majority of the initiatives and programs SIOs described tended to reach a relatively small portion of the university student population and especially of the teacher candidates. The SIOs noted that large-scale initiatives and changes are difficult to implement, especially at large universities. "Challenging" (SIOs 2, 4), "complex" (2), and "disappointing" (SIOs 3, 5) were commonly used to describe the internationalization process in general. Most often, these were in relation to the many roadblocks SIOs faced in funding initiatives, encouraging units to internationalize, and navigating the university's curriculum change process.

SIOs View the Curriculum Change Process as one Owned by the Faculty

SIOs made it clear that they understood university curriculum and the curriculum change process are completely under the purview of the university faculty. They felt it was a nearly impenetrable process that was also lengthy and full of roadblocks. SIO 4 shared:

> Particularly in a [very high research] university where there's a tremendous amount of autonomy to the colleges, an office that's separate from the colleges is going to find it very challenging getting into the sphere of anything to do with faculty, promotion, tenure, and anything to do with curriculum, which, rightly so. The departments and the faculty in these departments feel it is their prerogative, and they're the quality gatekeepers for that curriculum. And I accept that.

SIO 5 was able to circumvent this challenge by providing seed grants to faculty members to "basically create a new course or revamp an existing course that's offered to integrate 'international' into the curriculum" which is "a great way for us to impact the curriculum directly". Similarly, SIO 1 described a bottom-up process in which faculty members seek out funding to implement internationalization initiatives:

> [Our university] is a place where, if you have good ideas and you have initiative, that you can usually find support. There aren't necessarily budgets per se, but there's access to money. That's kind of the way we phrase it, and so if someone does have a good idea that they pitch to their collegiate dean or they pitch to me, we usually try to find a way to fund it.

Partially because of this inability to change curriculum directly, SIOs expressed that having both support for internationalization from university administration as well as from allies on campus is crucial to have an effect on curricula.

Support of University Administration and Allies on Campus is Important for Curriculum Internationalization

Influence and allyship were major keywords as SIOs discussed gaining support for internationalization on campus. SIO 4 described the importance of these concepts:

> The people who are involved [in the internationalization strategic planning process] is extremely important to this level of success for the initiatives. Sometimes I think people pay too much attention to representation, particularly discipline representation… I think it's more important that you have in the group that's working together… folks that care about, or willing to advocate for [internationalization], because ultimately, whatever success you can get is largely through an alliance of the willing and interested, and they will eventually help to persuade some of the… middle-of-the-road folks."

SIO 4 and 5 both expressed the sentiment that it is not possible to convince every leader or faculty member that internationalization is important. It is best to work with those who are already interested and willing. At the same time, having an SIO position usually means that the leader is "at the table" of university administration (SIO 5), and the support of administration is key for successful curriculum internationalization. SIO 1 succinctly stated,

> if you've got the people at the top, who are, you know, out there speaking, supporting international work and global engagement, that really helps, I think,

promote what we're doing to globalize or internationalize the curriculum and underscore [our] international mission.

However, even when university administration is supportive of internationalization, budget constraints remain a barrier. SIO 2 shared that

when I hear administration talk about it, I know that they genuinely believe that we need to be more internationalized, that there has to be more global content in the courses, that we have to have more students going abroad, they want to have more international students here. But with an environment of scarce resources, that area is not being prioritized, and that's happening now for 20 years.

SIO 5 shared that a big part of the role of SIO is learning "how to find your way into the mainstream conversations and not be the afterthought". They added that SIOs need to "speak the language of the administration and what they're thinking about," which for many campuses, is "the bottom line".

The sense that internationalization had fallen on the list of priorities for university administrators in the last few decades was prominent in the SIOs' responses. Internationalization has been "on the backburner" (SIO 2) and no longer the "flavor of the month, or the flavor of the decade" (SIO 1). In its place, diversity, equity, and inclusion, with a more domestic and multicultural as opposed to global focus, are at the forefront of many administrators' priorities today.

A crucial component of the changing landscape of higher education priorities today is related to the changes wrought by the COVID-19 pandemic, which was mentioned by nearly all participants. SIO 5 stated that "COVID has changed a lot of things, and the university just went through a revision for the next two years to sort of

update the [strategic] plan." Major staffing changes and reshuffling brought on by pandemic-related budget crises have upended many international initiatives and strategic plans. SIO 3 reported having a "totally new staff" in their study abroad unit, and SIO 5 similarly recounted many university, academic unit, and faculty leaders that had departed their institution in the last year. SIOs noted that, when faculty or leaders who have been running particular international programs for some time leave the university, their program often disappears without them. The pandemic especially left SIOs and academic units to "start from the ground back up" (SIO 2) with some international programs.

Processes Other than Strategic Planning are Facilitating Curriculum Internationalization

The challenge of programs ending when individual faculty and leaders depart the institution is due in large part to the bottom-up nature of many international initiatives. When asked about the alignment process between internationalization strategic plan and academic unit strategic plan, SIOs tended to deny that the strategic planning process is a significant motivator for faculty or academic units to actually implement initiatives related to internationalization of the curriculum. Instead, they described alternative motivators such as personal interest and influence of the dean. SIO 2 described the personal motivators at their institution:

> The conversations I've have with faculty, both of the faculty who had courses
> [with international components] have had global experiences themselves, and they
> found them very transformative, so they wanted to make sure that that is available
> to students.

SIO 4, whose TEP strategic plan did not include language related to internationalization of the curriculum or global competency, shared that the TEP had developed their first study abroad program recently, which "reflects the influence of the dean who feels that this is something that the college should be participating in and supporting."

Teacher Education Programs Experience Unique Barriers to Internationalization

Despite the aforementioned successes with internationalization, even within the TEP unit, overwhelmingly, the SIOs shared what they saw as unique barriers to internationalizing the TEP curriculum. SIO 3 stated that TEPs have "traditionally been one of the most difficult units to internationalize" and cited "prescriptiveness of the curriculum" and "state licensure" requirements that do not allow "time for study abroad". SIO 2 described the TEP as the "most parochial," noting the lack of international students enrolled and hyper-local focus of the faculty and curriculum. SIO 2 additionally noted that, though this was not a barrier their own TEP faced, they had talked with many colleagues who reported that their state licensing requirements for teachers "did not allow" programs such as overseas student teaching.

TEP accreditation was mentioned by two SIOs, though only one (SIO 3, who noted that strategies to internationalize the TEP were not included in their TEP strategic plan) mentioned it as a barrier to internationalization, while the other (SIO 1, who noted that strategies to internationalize the TEP are included in their TEP strategic plan) reported that it did not seem to be a barrier. SIO 3 described the accreditation process as one that preoccupied the attention of TEP leader. However, SIO 1 said that it did not seem to be an "either/or situation" with regards to accreditation and internationalization.

Third Research Question Results

My third research question was: "How do academic leaders of TEPs interpret and implement their university's curriculum internationalization strategy?" I interviewed two TEP leaders including one who reported being only slightly familiar with the strategies to internationalize teacher education but that the strategies were including in their TEP strategic plan, and one who reported being not at all familiar with the strategies and that they were not included in their TEP strategic plan (see Table 5.1).

The TEP leaders both felt that the university and internationalization-specific strategic plans were not the primary catalysts for curricular changes related to internationalization within their TEP. The factors that did primarily drive curricular changes were largely due to state- and accreditation-based requirements, some of which, they described, were tangentially related to the notion of global competency. These same factors were also seen as barriers to internationalization within the TEP. Overall, the TEP leaders were unsure whether their strategic goals were helping to foster global competency for their teacher candidates. These findings are further detailed in the following sections.

TEP Leaders do not Believe that the University/Internationalization Strategic Plan Drives Changes

Despite their differing answers to the survey questions related to my variables of interest, both TEP leaders indicated that the strategic planning process, and specifically the university and internationalization strategic plan, are not the primary catalysts of actual changes to the TEP curriculum, and they do not feel "tied [to] or limited" (TEP Leader 1) by the university strategic plan. As with many of the SIOs, TEP Leader 1

referred to the university strategic plan as "broad". Describing the alignment process between university and TEP-level strategic plans, TEP Leader 1 qualified that after the university disseminated their strategic plan to the academic units on campus, their TEP would "do our own strategic planning level… taking into consideration the needs and expectations and what's happening with us professionally and in our field." TEP Leader 2 stated that the mission statement is important but denied that it garnered "concrete changes" to what they were doing that could be seen in any measurable way. For TEP Leader 2, even the college of which the TEP program is a part has a distinct mission and vision that "it never really talks about," and the college "leaves that up to the departments" to determine specific mission, vision, and goals. Recounting a commonly heard remark about K-12 school vision statements, TEP Leader 2 said:

> we can look at the visions of these schools, and I think any teacher would say 'I have no idea what my vision or mission statement is for the school'… I would say that rings a little bit true at our level as well.

TEP Leader 2 admitted that they felt they could do a better job helping TEP faculty connect what they are doing with the university strategic plan. However, they felt "the message is pretty clear with faculty in terms of what really is expected of them in order to get [tenure and promotion]". At the same time, TEP Leader 2 described the disconnect between university- and unit-level strategic plans after I mentioned their university's publicly available strategic planning document:

> Just your mention of the [university strategic plan] … it's like, oh yeah, that's right. We do have that… [university administration] does come and they do talk about that at least once a year in our [college] meeting… [But] I think that the

university [leadership] could help identify objectively what they want to see from us.

The factors, largely external to the institution, that do drive curricular change for TEPs are accreditation, state licensing requirements and standards, and "intense accountability" (TEP Leader 1) for teacher candidates. These factors were also described as barriers to internationalization with the TEP curriculum.

TEP Leaders Cite Major Barriers to Internationalization

The TEP leaders cited many of the same factors that the SIOs did when describing barriers to internationalizing the curriculum. TEP Leader 1 and 2 both mentioned the already-challenging demands of state licensure and standards, accreditation requirements that take priority over other kinds of changes, the difficulty of the curriculum change process, and the necessity for faculty members to focus on aspects of their job related to tenure and promotion that leave them little time to innovate and change the curriculum of their coursework.

Regarding state licensure and standards, TEP Leader 1 shared that the "state has some pretty intense standards," and "trying to meet those sometimes can be more challenging, to be honest, than the national or international [standards]". Additionally, state licensure for teachers is demanding, and TEP Leader 1 felt that "our whole dynamic around accountability has intensified to a level that's probably been at times more limiting than proactively supporting the work" that could lead to curriculum changes and a focus on understanding the needs of the students in the teacher candidates' future classrooms. Put succinctly, TEP Leader 1 explained the difficulty of prioritizing internationalization of the curriculum:

I think the challenge with some of that becomes, again, just all the expectations of 'What do our candidates have to have and be able to demonstrate around knowledge, skills, and dispositions and competencies just to become licensed within the state?" Let alone go that deeper, that broad with the 'global,' it's really difficult.

TEP Leader 2 discussed at length the fact that meeting accreditation requirements took priority over interpreting and meeting the strategic goals of the university or internationalization unit. TEP Leader 2 described a TEP course that had recently been developed and was tangentially related to the idea of global competency but noted that the course development happening "mostly because of the accreditation process versus any [university strategic planning] protocols". Despite the challenge of changing the TEP curriculum, the course was pushed through because "there's a key assessment that's tied to it that is measured… throughout [teacher candidates'] program". TEP Leader 2 also described the accreditation conversations in their TEP as "a much more formal" conversation than those regarding university strategic planning.

As TEP leaders, the participants were keyed into the concerns of the faculty members under their purview. Discussing what aspects of the strategic mission, vision, and goals set forth by the university, TEP Leader 2 qualified that "what I do know that is important is what is going to get tenure and promotion, you know, as a [very high research] institution, research is everything". In explaining the multiple demands on the TEP curriculum from external requirements, TEP Leader 1 noted that sometimes faculty members "get a little tired or worn out with that constant, 'how does this fit in?'"

Fostering Global Competency for Teacher Candidates is not a Central Component of

TEP Strategic Plans

Both TEP leaders felt unsure about whether their strategic plan and goals for their

TEP helped support growth in their teacher candidates' global competency. TEP Leader 1

stated that they would "like to think they do" but hedged that "one goal kind of talks

more broadly about 'global'" and described initiatives that helped teacher candidates

understand "the dynamics of the diversity and the cultural backgrounds" of the students

they would one day teach. Similarly, TEP Leader 2 offered that accreditation-based

requirements tangentially related to global competency were helping teacher candidates

consider the cultural backgrounds of their future students.

Fourth Research Question Results

My fourth research question was: "In what ways do the academic leaders'

perceptions of the curriculum internationalization process in TEPs help to explain the

quantitative results regarding the relationship between an SIO's familiarity with the

research-backed strategies and whether these strategies are included in a TEP's unit-level

strategic plan?" To address this question, I reviewed the major themes and codes from all

SIO and TEP Leader interviews to consider how the data helped address the main

findings from the quantitative phase which were: SIOs are generally familiar with the

research-backed strategies to internationalize TEPs, but nearly half of them are unfamiliar

with the content of their TEP's strategic plan and whether these strategies are included;

TEP leaders are generally familiar with the strategies, and most of them reported that the

strategies were included in their strategic plan; and although SIOs who were generally

familiar with the strategies were more likely to answer that they either were included or

that they did not know whether they were included rather than that they were not included in the TEP strategic plan, the Fisher exact test determined that there was no statistically significant relationship between the SIO's level of knowledge of the strategies and whether those strategies were included in the TEP strategic plan.

To help visually examine the qualitative data that helps inform the quantitative findings, a "2-by-2 set of subcategories for systemic comparison" is presented in Table 5.2 (Morgan, 2014, p. 140). Though, ideally, the rows would represent the two categories of my independent variable "SIO level of knowledge of research-backed frameworks" (generally familiar or generally not familiar), because I was unable to interview any SIOs who reported being generally not familiar with the strategies, the TEP leaders, who both indicated being generally not familiar with the strategies, are listed in this row. Quantitative data from the first phase of this mixed methods study is presented through the positioning of the participants on the chart with accompanying specific answers to survey questions related to the variables of interest. I included brief summaries of their interviews to represent the second phase qualitative data. The qualitative findings helped illuminate the quantitative findings primarily by providing an explanation for why nearly half of SIOs do not know the content of their TEP's strategic plan: there is an apparent disconnect between these processes of strategic planning for institutional internationalization and strategic planning for the TEP unit. Additionally, there are barriers to internationalizing TEPs that are unrelated to the strategic planning process. These findings are detailed in the following sections.

Table 5.2 Systematic Comparison of Mixed Methods Findings

Level of familiarity with strategies to internationalize the TEP	Whether strategies are included in TEP strategic plan	
	Strategies are included	Strategies are not included
Generally familiar	SIO 1 *(Somewhat familiar, strategies included)*: Focuses on connection with academic units on campus and collaborative nature of strategic planning. Many international initiatives are "bottom-up," and they try to find funding. The TEP has private funding that helps implement international initiatives. University administrators are highly supportive of internationalization. Strategic plans have specific metrics and are assessed regularly for progress. SIO has significant experience leading strategic planning processes. SIO 2 *(Somewhat familiar, strategies included)*: There has not been a "robust strategic planning process for internationalization," but many faculty on campus have international initiatives, including relatively new ones in the TEP, which are made possible by flexible state licensure requirements. University leadership is supportive of internationalization but there is a relatively low capacity for resource development or implementation of innovation programs like COIL.	SIO 3 *(Somewhat familiar, strategies not included)*: Sought to stay "hands-off" during the internationalization strategic planning process, which is meant to complement the university strategic plan, and involved academic unit leaders. Included examples of on-campus international-themed initiatives and events in addition to traditional "study abroad". The TEP accreditation process seemed to take priority over internationalization within the TEP. SIO 4 *(Very familiar, strategies not included)*: The internationalization strategic planning process involved input and decisions made with a "standing international council," and this plan does not intend to directly address the university strategic plan. Influencing or affecting curriculum is particularly difficult, especially at this very high research institution. There is a known challenge with helping academic units on campus translate the university strategic plan into their own. Emphasized supportive leadership and allies on campus.

Table 5.2 (continued)

		SIO 5 *(Somewhat familiar, do not know if strategies are included)*: The last few years have seen many positions at the university eliminated, including those who have worked on internationalization. University leadership have focused on the enrollment aspect of internationalization. The TEP has had some international initiatives, but leadership was recently reshuffled. Emphasized the budget crisis in higher education and the need to consider low-cost programs such as COIL.
Generally not familiar	TEP Leader 1 *(Slightly familiar, strategies included)*: The university strategic planning process is a lengthy one, and they rely on their TEP unit leadership to assist in translating the university strategic plan into their own while also considering the demands of the education profession. The TEP curriculum is largely based on state requirements, and changing curriculum can be very difficult and take a long time. While focusing on the global aspect can be challenging, they try to create opportunities, especially within general education coursework that students can then translate into their TEP courses, that allow for a focus on international perspectives.	TEP Leader 2 *(Not at all familiar, strategies are not included)*: The TEP strategic planning process is collaborative and largely focused on an established mission and vision for the unit. They report to university leadership on how faculty are contributing to the larger university mission, but alignment between the two levels could be better. Regarding internationalization, university leadership has focused on international student enrollment. Internationalization within the TEP is largely due to accreditation requirements, which is generally a "more formal conversation" than those related to strategic mission, vision, or goals.

Disconnect Between Internationalization and TEP Strategic Planning Processes

The SIO survey respondents were often unfamiliar with the contents of their TEPs' strategic plans, and the TEP leaders interviewed generally expressed that internationalization of the TEP was not driven by the university or internationalization strategic plan, which helps explain this unanticipated finding. Thus, there appears to be a disconnect between the strategic planning process for internationalization that the SIO typically leads and the strategic planning process for the TEP. Though a prioritization of accreditation requirements was mentioned frequently by both SIOs and TEP leaders, it was cited both as a driver of internationalization (TEP Leader 1) as well as a barrier to internationalization (TEP Leader 2; SIO 3). This disconnect does not appear to exist as strongly between the general university strategic planning and TEP strategic planning process. Both TEP leaders specifically mentioned how they interpret and work with the university's strategic plan, though TEP Leader 2 felt that this alignment could be improved, and university leadership could help elucidate specific actions steps academic units could take to achieve university strategic goals.

Barriers Unrelated to Strategic Planning Prevent TEP Internationalization

The interview participants, both SIOs and TEP leaders, understood the unique challenges to internationalizing teacher education curriculum. Accreditation and state licensing requirements were often cited. However, participants from both groups also emphasized barriers to internationalization that affect any academic unit and are unrelated to the strategic planning process: the difficulty of changing curriculum and a lack of incentive to act on internationalization initiatives unrelated to increasing international student enrollment. SIO 2 summarized:

There is no benefit through the tenure process if you develop global content. Most of the faculty who develop it are tenured already, so usually senior faculty/junior faculty. We've had a few in other colleges who develop programs but, institutionally, we provide very little administrative support. So, the faculty do the majority of that work. So, that's challenging, similar with globalizing the curriculum. We don't really have any institute or center that provides that.

SIOs and TEP leaders alike also acknowledged that university leadership often have a limited idea of internationalization which generally includes only student mobility ("boots on the ground," as SIO 2 referred to this) and recruiting more international students to increase tuition revenue. However, there is a lack of incentive, capacity, resources, and funding to develop curricular or extracurricular international initiatives.

These barriers unrelated to strategic planning may help explain why the strategic planning does not influence whether TEPs include strategies to internationalize their curriculum toward global competency for teacher candidates. Even if they were familiar with the strategies and aware of the university's internationalize strategic plan process and contents, they may find it too difficult to incorporate such strategies into their own strategic plans.

Summary

In this chapter, I have presented the findings for the second, qualitative, phase of this study. In addressing my second research question regarding how SIOs craft curriculum internationalization plans that allow for diffusion into the TEP, I found that SIOs tend not to cater their internationalization plans directly to the university strategic plan. They implement a collaborative process with faculty and leaders from across the

institution and see themselves as supporters and advocates for initiatives that come from faculty or academic units. They are hesitant to attempt to affect curriculum directly as they see this as wholly owned by the faculty. They are aware of barriers to internationalizing TEPs and mentioned processes other than strategic planning that influence internationalization. Successful international initiatives in TEPs tend to be smaller scale. They acknowledge that supportive university administration and allies across campus are important for successful internationalization.

My third research question focused on TEP leaders and how they interpret and implement their university's curriculum internationalization strategy. The two TEP leaders I interviewed both felt that the university and internationalization-specific strategic planning processes were not the main driver of curricular changes related to internationalization of their TEPs. External factors like accreditation and state licensing requirements are the primary drivers of these changes, some of which are somewhat related to global competency, but they can also be barriers to internationalization. They were not confident that goals in their strategic plans are fostering growth in teacher candidates' global competency.

I addressed the fourth and final research question by integrating the data and findings from the first, quantitative, and second, qualitative, phase. The question focused on how the qualitative data collected from interviews helps inform the findings from the quantitative data. Overall, there is an apparent disconnect between the process of institutional strategic planning for internationalization and TEP strategic planning. Additionally, barriers to internationalizing TEPs are largely unrelated to the strategic

planning process all together and mostly have to do with the difficulty of changing

curriculum and the lack of incentives for internationalization.

CHAPTER 6. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

This study illuminated the perspectives of academic leaders at U.S. institutions regarding the process to internationalize the teacher education program (TEP) curriculum toward global competency for teacher candidates. In this final chapter, I present a summary of the study and findings for each research question. I then discuss significant themes from the analysis that cut across all study findings with connections to previous research. Next, I present the contributions of this study to the fields of research relating to internationalization, teacher education, and loose coupling in educational organizations. I also discuss potential limitations of the study. I conclude this chapter with implications for future policy, practice, and research.

Summary of the Study

Teacher education programs (TEPs) have been identified as one of the least internationalized units on university campuses in the U.S., and their curriculum has been criticized as having a largely parochial worldview (Gilliom & Farley, 1990; Goodwin, 2019; Tucker & Cistone, 1991). Additionally, Tran and Nghia (2020) identified a gap in the research on international education representing the perspectives of Senior International Officers (SIOs). Because SIOs are generally expected to provide "context for curriculum internationalization" on college campuses, I sought to illuminate the perspectives of academic leaders (both SIOs and TEP leaders) regarding curriculum internationalization specifically related to teacher education (Jones, 2013, p. 170). To do so, I examined the extent to which academic leaders are familiar with research-backed strategies to internationalize the TEP curriculum toward global competency for teacher candidates and whether those strategies are included in the strategic planning documents

for TEPs. I then gathered information on the perspectives of SIOs and TEP leaders regarding the process to internationalize teacher education.

I utilized the case selection variant of an explanatory sequential mixed methods research design to address my research questions (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018). The research questions that guided this study were:

1. To what extent are academic leaders at universities with teacher education programs familiar with research-backed strategies to internationalize the curriculum in teacher education toward global competency for teacher candidates?

    a. What is the relationship between a Senior International Officer's familiarity with the strategies and whether these elements are included in a TEP's unit-level strategic plan?

2. How do SIOs at universities with TEPs craft institutional curriculum internationalization plans that allow for diffusion into the TEP?

3. How do academic leaders of TEPs interpret and implement their university's curriculum internationalization strategy?

4. In what ways do the academic leaders' perceptions of the curriculum internationalization process in TEPs help to explain the quantitative results regarding the relationship between an SIO's familiarity with the research-backed strategies and whether these strategies are included in a TEP's unit-level strategic plan?

For the first research question, I hypothesized that SIOs would be generally not familiar with the strategies and TEP leaders would be somewhat familiar with the

strategies. My hypothesis for the first sub-question was that there would be a statistically significant relationship between an SIO's familiarity with the strategies and whether those elements were included in the TEP's strategic plan.

In the first, quantitative, phase of the study, I distributed an online survey to SIOs and TEP leaders at U.S. universities that held membership in two professional organizations specifically for TEPs and SIOs. I then analyzed the survey data for participant demographics and conducted a Fisher exact test, which determined that there was no statistically significant relationship between an SIO's level of knowledge of research-backed strategies to internationalize the TEP curriculum and whether those strategies were included in the TEP's strategic plan. Following quantitative data analysis, I purposively selected survey participants who consented to participate in an interview to further illuminate their perspectives. I interviewed five SIOs and two TEP leaders from seven different U.S. universities. Qualitative data from the interviews helped address my second, third, and fourth research questions, and the findings are reviewed in the following section.

Summary of Major Findings

Regarding SIOs' process to craft institutional curriculum internationalize plans that allow for diffusion in the TEP, I found that SIOs develop internationalization strategic plans that are only partially based on university strategic plans. They try to use collaborative processes to develop strategic goals and see faculty members and academic units as those in charge of curriculum changes. They expressed that university administrators' support was crucial for successful internationalization. They noted that processes other than strategic planning often contribute more to curriculum

internationalization. They also acknowledged many barriers TEPs face in trying to internationalize, and their reported successes in TEP internationalization generally include small-scale initiatives that do not tend to reach a large majority of teacher candidates.

Regarding the process TEP leaders use to interpret and implement their university's curriculum internationalization strategy, the leaders acknowledged that strategic plans for the university were typically not the major drivers of curricular change related to internationalization within their unit. Instead, they offered external factors such as accreditation and state licensing requirements, which can also serve as barriers to internationalization. They were unsure whether their current strategic plans helped foster global competency for their teacher candidates.

To address the final question, I integrated the quantitative and qualitative data to examine how the academic leaders' perceptions of the curriculum internationalization process helped address the quantitative findings. To explain why most SIOs were at least somewhat familiar with research-backed strategies to internationalize TEPs but nearly half are unaware of the content of their TEP's strategic plan, I found that there is a disconnect between the university process of strategic planning for internationalization and the TEP process for strategic planning; one does not appear to inform or affect the other. Instead, internationalization for TEPs is more affected, both positively and negatively, by external factors such as accreditation and state licensing requirements rather than by university strategic planning.

Discussion of Findings

This study's purpose was to examine the perspectives of academic leaders regarding the process to internationalize teacher education towards global competency for teacher candidates. The most unexpected finding in the first phase of this study was SIO's general lack of knowledge of the content of their TEP's strategic plan. As leaders of the strategic planning process for internationalization on their campus, I expected most SIOs to be at least familiar enough with their TEP's strategic plan to know whether strategies to internationalize were included. However, nearly half of SIO respondents did not know the content of their TEP's strategic plan. In the second phase, I was only able to interview one SIO who reported not knowing the content of their TEP's strategic plan. In this specific instance, I confirmed that a strategic plan may not exist for their TEP, or at least that one was not made publicly available on the TEP's website. However, interviews with all participants helped illuminated the potential explanation for this phenomenon: the strategic planning processes for university internationalization and the teacher education program are largely decoupled from each other, as conceptualized by Orton and Weick (1990), in that they have distinctiveness and nearly no responsiveness to each other (p. 205). In fact, the general university strategic planning process and the internationalization strategic planning process as led by the SIO appear to be only loosely coupled rather than tightly coupled because they are somewhat responsive yet distinct from each other (Orton & Weick, 1990). An updated conceptual framework for the findings of this study related to the coupling of these processes is presented in Figure 6.1. As stated by most SIO participants of this study, they see the main university strategic plan as broad, with vague language, largely unhelpful for internationalization, and

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rudimentary. Their internationalization plan is meant to complement the larger plan with some areas of intersection, but it is largely seen as a somewhat separate and distinct process.

Figure 6.1 Updated Conceptual Framework for Findings Related to Degree of Coupling
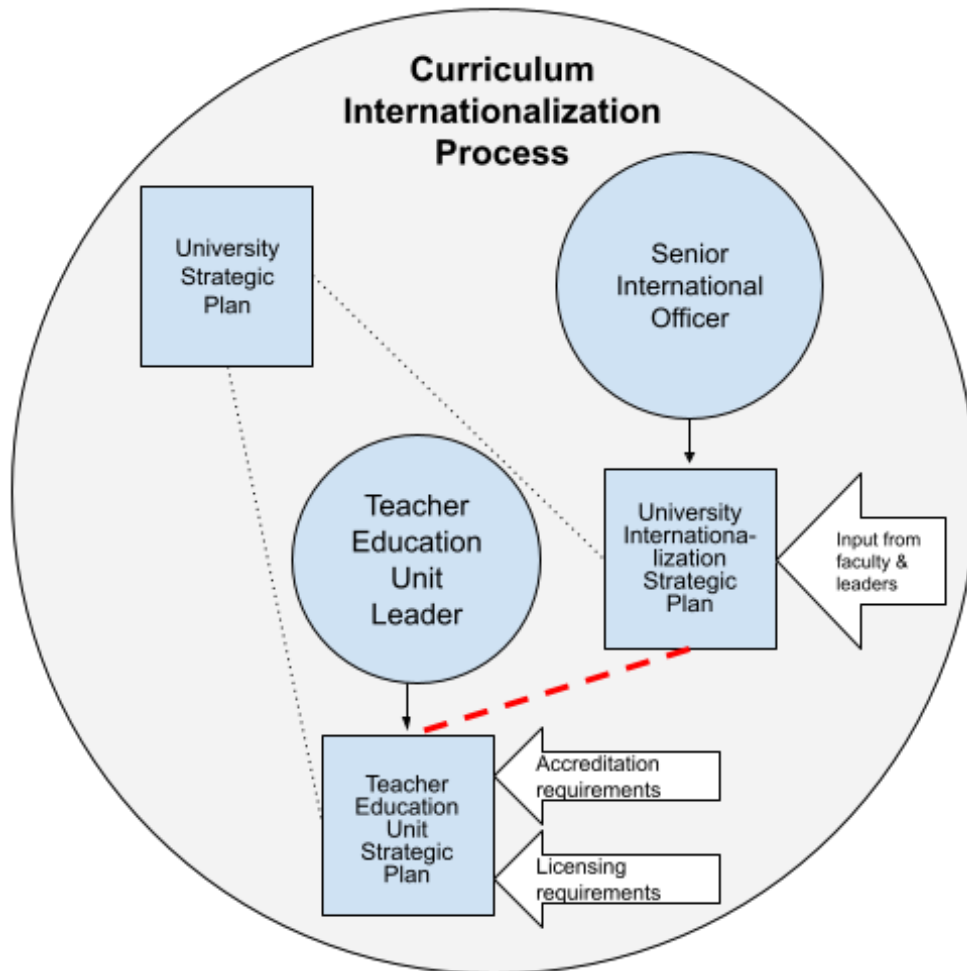
Note. This model shows the nature of coupling between the processes of university, internationalization, and teacher education unit strategic planning as represented by dotted and dashed lines. Dotted lines between university strategic plan and internationalization strategic plan as well as between university strategic plan and teacher education unit strategic plan represent loosely coupled processes in the university. The dashed line between internationalization strategic plan and teacher education unit

strategic plan represents decoupled processes. The arrows represent inputs that most affect the content of the internationalization and teacher education unit strategic plans.

Several of the other major findings from this study also reaffirm findings from previous research on teacher education and internationalization. The prescriptiveness of the teacher education curriculum as a barrier to internationalization was identified in Schneider's (2007) widescale research on internationalization of teacher education. Mahon (2010) also identified state licensing requirements and restrictions as a possible barrier to internationalization, specifically for overseas student teaching, even if it was only a perceived barrier in most states. TEP leaders and SIOs alike in this study also noted this significant barrier, primarily as one that leaves little room in the curriculum to embed seemingly "extra" themes related to global competency. Longview Foundation's (2017) survey findings support the finding from this study that, while university leadership tends to be relatively supportive of internationalization, there are few "tangible supports" for internationalization including funding and value in the tenure and promotion process (p. 1).

With regards to specific initiatives participants reported that universities and TEPs were implementing to promote global competency for teacher candidates, some participants mentioned increasing exposure to global concepts through general education coursework as recommended by Schneider (2003, 2004, 2007) and Longview Foundation (2008). Participants also mentioned increasing study abroad and student teaching abroad programming, which these sources also recommended. However, this is also warned about in the literature given the lack of accessibility for lower-income students (Roberts, 2007) as well as tendencies for programs to replicate patterns of global inequity (Major,

2020; Sharma, 2020). Only one SIO (1) specifically mentioned external funding, as recommended by Schneider (2007), for the TEP program that allowed them to offer more comprehensive programming related to global competency for both pre- and in-service teachers as recommended by Schneider. Other recommendations from Schneider (2007) and Longview Foundation (2008) (increasing foreign language training, increasing opportunities for faculty international travel, recruiting students with international interests into the TEP, and recruiting more world language teachers) were not specifically mentioned by any participants.

In the following section, I present significant themes from the analysis of the data in this study along with additional connections to previous research. I provide discussion regarding these themes, which are relevant to both phases of the study and multiple findings.

Significant Themes from the Analysis

In this section, I discuss major themes that emerged from analysis of findings from both phases as well as the integration of data from both phases of this research study. These themes include a discussion of coupling of internationalization and other strategic planning processes in higher education, the prioritization of a focus on diversity, equity, and inclusion in higher education and how this has pushed internationalization to the backburner, varying levels of understanding of the notion of global competency amongst academic leaders, COVID-19's impact on internationalization and teacher education, and increasing scrutiny of, controversy within, and demands on teacher education. Connections to prior research are included.

Coupling in Higher Education Internationalization Strategic Planning Processes

As noted previously, I utilized the theoretical framework of loose coupling, and specifically the "dialectical interpretation" of this concept, which depicts loosely coupled elements within organizations as having "both distinctiveness and responsiveness" to each other (Orton & Weick, 1990, p. 205). I found evidence that the processes of general university strategic planning and internationalization strategic planning (typically led by the SIO) appear to be loosely coupled while the processes of internationalization strategic planning and TEP unit strategic planning appear to be decoupled. The former, loosely coupled, process fits Weick's (1982b) description because the university strategic plan appears to only suddenly, negligibly, and indirectly affect the internationalization strategic plan (p. 380). Additionally, Weick (1982a) explained that loosely coupled systems typically are missing at least one element from the following: "1) there are rules, 2) there is agreement on what those rules are, 3) there is a system of inspection to see if compliance occurs, and 4) there is feedback designed to improve compliance" (p. 674). While it could be argued that any effective strategic planning process should have all four elements, it appears that the strategic planning processes of universities and their internationalization unit are missing the elements of "agreement on [the]… rules" and "a system of inspection [for]… compliance," which Weick suggests are the elements most commonly missing in a loosely coupled system (p. 674).

The decoupled nature of the strategic planning processes for university internationalization and the TEP is due to a lack of "inherent connectedness" that represents the idea of coupling (Orton & Weick, 1990, p. 204). These processes, from interviews with all academic leaders in this study, appear to be completely disconnected

from each other. Instead, TEP strategic planning appears to be highly connected to external demands such as accreditation and licensing requirements, and any inclusion of internationalization strategies appears to be either a byproduct of those demands or a representation of committed "internationalists" within the TEP unit. Rhoades (1990) noted that colleges of education have the unique challenge of being responsive to both the professional demands of teaching as well as the demands of the university and, given that TEP leaders typically come from the profession itself, they may be able to couple the units within the college more tightly together. Findings from this study support this notion.

SIOs in this study noted a challenge described in the literature of creating systemic change in a loosely coupled system. Childress (2010) and Heyl (2007) warned of the autonomy of academic departments and faculty and the resulting difficulty of changing curriculum without (or in spite of) them. SIOs in this study mentioned this challenge, both the autonomy of colleges and faculty members' ownership of the curriculum, and they tended to address it by staying hands-off in the strategic planning process. They sought to bring together diverse faculty voices from across the university to contribute to the internationalization strategic plan, which is a strategy promoted by Childress (2010) and Weick (1982a). However, Childress also recommended that SIOs ensure that internationalization priorities are translated from the broader strategic plan into the unit strategic plans and "aligned with disciplinary priorities," which does not appear to be happening at universities represented in this study (p. 153).

One possible explanation for why these strategic planning processes in higher education are not tightly coupled could be because, as some scholars have pointed out,

strategic planning may not be an appropriate process for institutions of higher education (Buller, 2014; Mintzberg, 1994). Strategic planning emerged from the military and corporate worlds, which have hierarchical elements that are generally much more tightly coupled than education systems (Buller, 2014; Weick, 1976). Mintzberg (1994) drew a distinction between "*strategic planning* [and] *strategic thinking*" (p. 107, emphasis in original). He saw strategic thinking as being rooted in the idea of synthesis, which "involves intuition and creativity," and believed that formalizing this process removed these elements (p. 108). Instead, planning is only about analysis while strategic thinking should allow for new ideas. Buller (2014) presented several reasons why strategic planning does not work well in institutions of higher education: mission statements tend to be too vague to be useful (a point supported by some participants in this study), planning limits options when new technologies may emerge, the process leads to "mission creep" and a necessity for continual expansion (p. 110), the "planning fallacy" emerges in which institutions underestimate resources needed and overestimate the likelihood of success (p. 111), there is an overemphasis on measurable data points, scans of the environment inevitably miss important aspects, and it is impossible to predict all possible scenarios that may occur and affect higher education in the future. Strategic plans in higher education are so plagued by the administrations' inability to stick to them that the phenomenon has garnered its own acronym (SPOTS: Strategic Plan On The Shelf), and leaders have written about steps to counteract this phenomenon (Paris, 2004).

While an examination of whether strategic planning is effective for institutions of higher education is outside the scope of this study, it may be the case that *internationalization* strategic planning is a sort of oxymoron; as the world rapidly

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changes around us, new technologies emerge, conflicts break out between countries and non-governmental actors, and global health crises arise, SIOs may find strategic planning in five- or ten-year increments a meaningless endeavor and seek out an alternative method of goal setting for internationalization.

Prioritization of Diversity, Equity, and Inclusion in Higher Education

Many participants noted the evolving priorities of higher education being responsive to the broader sociopolitical environment. Several participants mentioned that internationalization, which was once a large focus a couple of decades ago, has taken a backseat to a focus on domestic U.S. issues related to diversity, equity, and inclusion (DEI). There is no question that the emergence of the Black Lives Matter movement, which gained increased recognition following historic protests after the murder of George Floyd by police in 2020, sparked introspection for institutions of higher education, many of whom made statements regarding racial equity and justice with accompanying action plans for increasing DEI amongst their faculty, staff, and student populations (Chamberlain et al., 2021).

While internationalization and DEI approaches may seem to share similarities, in fact, internationalization has been criticized as an approach that only benefits the elite and one that replicates patterns of neocolonialism and neoliberalism (de Wit & Altbach, 2021; Stein & McCartney, 2021; Suspitsyna, 2021). Several study participants expressed dismay that internationalization was only seen at their universities as a way of increasing revenue from international student tuition, without a focus on how best to serve those students, most of whom are non-white and from non-Western countries. Buckner et al. (2021) found that universities viewed their international student population in the context

of "an abstract notion of diversity" that disconnected them from U.S.-based conceptualizations around race. The authors noted that, when universities acknowledge the racial diversity of their international student body, they are more apt to see racial injustice as a global issue rather than one localized within the U.S. On the other hand, international students coming to U.S. universities know little about, and receive little education from their host institution regarding, racial identity and disparities in the U.S. (Fischer, 2020). Leaders in international education have discussed how frameworks within internationalization, especially related to intercultural understanding, can help support conversations around racial inequity and social justice (Bennett, 2007; Harvey, 2020). An increasing body of literature takes a critical stance on internationalization, encouraging universities to interrogate their motivations to internationalize, how they market international programs and to whom, and how they support international students on campus (Cunningham et al., 2020; Stein & McCartney, 2021).

Varying Understanding of Global Competency for Teacher Candidates

Just as the concept of internationalization has struggled to garner a widely accepted single definition (Knight & de Wit, 2018), so too has the concept of global competency (Hunter et al., 2006). An off-hand comment from the TEP leader (2) who reported that they were not at all familiar with the research-backed strategies to internationalize teacher education toward global competency succinctly demonstrated the confusion around the term: after listing several international-related initiatives they had implemented in their TEP, the leader said, "[but] there seems to be something more formal about global competency and what its expectations are."

In recent literature, definitions have emerged that seem to be most widely used, which I placed on the survey I distributed for this study: "the capacity and disposition to understand and act on issues of global significance" (Boix Mansilla & Jackson, 2011, p. xiii) and/or the ability to "examine local, global and intercultural issues, understand and appreciate different perspectives and world views, interact successfully and respectfully with others, and take responsible action toward sustainability and collective well-being" (OECD, 2018, p. 4).

Buczynski et al. (2010) warned that an inability to coalesce around a common understanding of the term *international* can stall a TEP's efforts to actually embed international initiatives into the curriculum. Beyond the aforementioned disappointment some participants expressed about their university administrations' limited views of internationalization, this challenge around defining concepts such as international, global competency, etc., was not a specific topic brought up frequently by participants. However, the issue emerged in other ways: SIO 3 discussed an education-based study abroad program developed by a faculty member that seemed to be more focused on the destination rather than the learning aspect, and many participants noted the lack of prioritization for internationalization which seemed to be a result of the view that internationalization would be something nice to do, but not necessary. These phenomena indicate that the prevailing notions of internationalization and global competency are that they are not *necessary* for future teachers to encounter in the TEP, perhaps because there is little recognition for how interconnected and interdependent our world has truly become.

COVID-19's Impact on Internationalization and Teacher Education

One of the biggest and most recent examples of our world's interconnectedness and interdependence is the global COVID-19 pandemic. The rapid spread of the disease around the globe, bolstered by forms of travel inaccessible to most people just over half a century ago, as well as the incredibly fast development of a new vaccine to help prevent the illness, could not have occurred without a deeply interconnected world, which bolsters the idea that we must continue to promote international cooperation through internationalization of higher education (Hudzik, 2020). The vast majority of SIOs interviewed in this study mentioned the effects of COVID-19 on their operations as well as the strategic directions for internationalization at their universities. Financially, the pandemic was devastating for international student and scholar mobility (NAFSA, 2020). Many universities indicated that staff positions in international offices could be eliminated, which was discussed especially by SIOs 3 and 5 in this study. Policy-wise, institutions of higher education along with professional networks in international education realized the need for education abroad programming to rely less on federal guidance, which was confusing and, at times, conflicting during the height of the pandemic (Holliday et al., 2022). Looking to the future, Mok et al. (2021) found that 84% of students surveyed from China and Hong Kong (which represents a large proportion of international students in the U.S.) did not intend to study abroad after the pandemic and, for those who did, they indicated more interest in staying in Asia rather than going to Western countries. This would have a significant impact on international student enrollment at U.S. institutions.

Despite the severe challenges associated with the pandemic, academic leaders in this study identified new initiatives they may not have previously considered. The quick shift to online learning led many SIOs to consider more deeply investing in collaborative online international learning (COIL) programs given that many more faculty members are now familiar with methods for online delivery of teaching. The American Council on Education (2020) organized a "rapid response virtual exchange" COIL program that garnered participation from 14 U.S.-Japan higher education partnerships just five months after COVID-19 forced most universities to switch to remote learning. However, one SIO (2) in this study noted that their university's leaders were still unsure about investing in the necessary resources and training to implement COIL at their university. They added that the administration believed in a more "boots on the ground" approach to global learning favoring physical travel for education abroad. With increasing instances of global health crises, extreme weather events due to climate change, and global conflicts that may prevent travel to certain countries, an investment in virtual international learning seems fruitful for the future of international education, especially for teacher candidates as Merryfield (2003) insisted two decades ago.

Teacher education has also seen many cascading effects from the COVID-19 pandemic. Like higher education, many P-12 educators were forced to pivot to delivering instruction remotely, which also had implications for teacher candidates in field placements for practica and student teaching, many of whom graduated with their teaching license without ever stepping foot in a physical classroom during their TEP. The pandemic also caused significant staff shortages in school districts around the U.S., and schools in higher poverty areas with higher populations of non-white students were

disproportionately affected (Brown Center Chalkboard, 2022). These challenges seemed to come at the same time that the teaching profession and teacher education programs were facing increasing scrutiny for reasons unrelated to the pandemic, which are detailed below.

Addressing Increasing Scrutiny of and Demands on Teacher Education

Teacher education programs are attempting to address the nationwide teacher shortage, which was worsened by the pandemic (Holcomb-McCoy, 2023; Spears & Kast, 2023). In Kentucky, TEPs are finding ways to embed teacher candidates within real P-12 classrooms early and frequently as well as developing fast-tracks to teacher licensure (Spears & Kast, 2023). At the same time, the teaching profession and, by extension, teacher education, are contending with competing demands, increasing scrutiny, and political controversies that can serve as barriers to internationalization. Teacher stress has been cited as one reason for the growing teacher shortage, with sources of stress ranging from the need to take on second jobs to supplement income to heavy dependence on standardized testing and an inability to control their curriculum in the classroom (Schmitt & deCourcy, 2022). Global competency, as a concept embedded in the curriculum, can help give teachers and students more curricular control. Considering issues that matter to students at a local level as well as matter to others around the world, with a focus on how we can come together to solve critical issues, can help students get engaged in student-driven inquiry.

As discussed by both TEP leaders and several of the SIO participants in this study, there are many demands on teacher education that stem from rigorous state teaching standards and accreditation requirements. Reimers (2009) argued that

internationalization in teacher education cannot happen simply because there are too many competing policy goals in education reform, a movement that Goodwin (2019) argued has resulted from globalization and the emergence of neoliberal policies related to standardized curricula and rankings. Goodwin (2019) said that such policies "diminish the value of teacher education" (p. 4). Schneider (2007) and Mahon (2010) identified what seem to be mostly perceived barriers related to possible restrictions from state and local governments on part or all of the student teaching requirement taking place overseas. Mahon found that, in fact, only three states explicitly prohibited this. Yet, few TEPs allow and specifically offer this kind of experience. On the other hand, it is true that the curriculum for TEPs is generally prescribed and heavily regulated by state education agencies (Aydarova & Marquardt, 2018; Schneider, 2007). Without an express requirement for teacher candidates to improve their global competency, TEP leaders may feel they have no room to embed this in the curriculum.

Additional controversies related to teaching have cropped up in the political sphere in recent years that, no doubt, restrict TEPs' ability to infuse intercultural and global perspectives in the curriculum. An obsession with whether critical race theory is taught in classrooms, lack of acceptance and exclusion of LGBTQIA+ students and teachers, and accusations that teachers are following a "woke" agenda indicate that themes related to acceptance of intercultural and international perspectives could be the next item of scrutiny for prominent education critics (Malkus & Martin, 2019; Shapero, 2023). Roberts (2007) warned that internationalization of teacher education could be seen "as a threat to national unity," and an attempt to indoctrinate students (p. 10).

Accreditation requirements for TEPs can fill the internationalization void left by state standards that ignore this dimension. Unfortunately, Aydarova and Marquardt (2018) found that CAEP, one of the largest accrediting bodies for TEPs, had references to internationalization within their standards that seemed exclusively related to ideas of building competitiveness amongst the next generation due to the global economy, which does not reflect the more collaborative nature of the concept of global competency. The authors also note that accreditation standards are too vague with little guidance for how to implement international perspectives into the curriculum for teacher education. Another growing accrediting body, AAQEP, does explicitly call for teacher candidates to be able to "support students' growth in international and global perspectives" (AAQEP, 2022b) as well as engage in "culturally responsive practice" (AAQEP, 2022a) in "diverse clinical experiences" (AAQEP, 2022c). However, like CAEP, little guidance is given to TEPs for how to instantiate these in the TEP curriculum. The field of teacher education, accrediting bodies, and state education agencies will need to more deeply consider the importance of global competency as well as develop more requirements with accompanying resources for TEPs to include this dimension in the TEP curriculum.

Contributions of the Study to the Field

The purpose of this study was to illuminate the perspectives of academic leaders on the process to internationalize teacher education. Specifically, I focused on the concept of global competency, a newer concept in the body of literature related to internationalization of teacher education, but one that international education leaders and major international organizations have coalesced around. I also included SIO perspectives in this study, which have largely been absent in existing literature.

Following the lead of Longview Foundation's (2017) survey of teacher education programs and the extent to which they featured initiatives related to growing teacher candidates' global competency, I extended this research by also surveying SIOs at universities in the U.S. This study ultimately presented the perspectives of 23 SIOs and 18 TEP leaders (regarding their level of knowledge of strategies to internationalize the teacher education curriculum as well as whether these strategies are included in their TEP strategic plan). An additional five SIOs and two TEP leaders are represented in the rich qualitative data and findings that identify a greater need to support TEPs in infusing global competency into their curricula.

In addition to the field of internationalization of teacher education, this study furthers understanding of the nature and degree of coupling in the internationalization strategic planning processes at U.S. universities. The study presents the unique finding that university strategic planning and internationalization strategic planning appear to be loosely coupled processes while internationalization strategic planning and TEP strategic planning appear to be entirely decoupled processes.

Limitations of the Study

Though this study has broad representation from universities across the U.S., because I utilized purposive sampling rather than random sampling in both data collection phases, the generalizability of the findings from this study are limited. Regarding the first phase survey, it is possible that TEP leaders more familiar with the strategies to internationalize teacher education or those who knew the strategies were included in their TEP strategic plans may have been more likely to respond to the survey, and thus could be overrepresented, considering that I specified the focus of the research

study in the initial cover letter. SIOs, given that internationalization is a core component of their job, may have been motivated to complete the survey regardless of whether they were aware of these specific strategies or whether the strategies were included in their TEP's strategic plan, and thus those who were unfamiliar with the strategies could be overrepresented. Therefore, non-response bias could have factored into this study's results.

In the second phase, though I sought to interview as many academic leaders with as broad and diverse perspectives as possible, I was limited by the number of survey participants who indicated that they would consent to an interview as well as by those who actually responded to my interview request. Therefore, participant responses cannot be assumed to be representative of all U.S. SIOs and TEP leaders. My own passion for internationalization and promotion of its inclusion in the TEP curriculum, for which I was open about in interviews, could have also swayed the responses of participants.

Despite these limitations, this study presents new findings in the areas of internationalization and global competency for teacher candidates, perspectives of SIOs, and the degree and extent of coupling between processes in higher education, which can inform researchers and practitioners in similar contexts. Implications for future policy, practice, and research in these areas are discussed in the next section.

Implications for Future Practice, Policy, and Research

Implications from this study for future practice and policy are mostly related to considerations for the roles of SIOs and TEP leaders in U.S. universities, as well as for educational leadership training programs, accreditation agencies, and state teacher licensing bodies. Suggestions for future research include additional examination of SIOs'

perspectives, exploration of TEPs' strategic planning processes, and longitudinal studies on teacher candidates' ability to bring global competency into their future classrooms.

Implications for Practice: Educational Leaders

As evidenced by the findings from this study, SIOs have a difficult job to interpret university strategic planning goals, which are usually vague, to create an internationalization strategic plan, for which they try to bring in diverse voices from across campus to prevent the plan representing only their desires, and then to help academic units and faculty understand how to implement internationalization initiatives without encroaching on the faculty's ownership of curriculum and autonomy of academic units. In addition, they must balance using a top-down and bottom-up approach to internationalize. Literature on the loosely coupled nature of higher education indicates that a bottom-up approach to change is the best way to work within a loosely coupled system (Foss & Møllgaard, 2020; Zechlin, 2010). At the same time, SIOs are expected to lead the curriculum internationalization process for the university, which is a top-down process (Jones, 2013; Leask & Charles, 2018). SIOs should therefore ensure that they have a clear understanding of the culture and environment of their university before attempting system-wide changes. Institutional context, e.g., whether the university has a very high research level, is a liberal arts institution, has a higher commuter student population, etc., should be considered and factor into the strategy used by the SIO to internationalize. This study supports recommendations by Weick (1982a), Childress (2010), and Kezar (2017) that these leaders seek to have cross-departmental collaboration and take care to ensure that internationalization initiatives align with faculty members' disciplinary interests and research. Additionally, SIOs should be in the room for

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academic unit-level discussions and processes to develop strategic plans. If TEP leaders (as well as other academic unit leaders) cannot see a way to integrate international initiatives, the SIO should be ready to offer support and ideas.

As higher education priorities shift and, as noted previously, domestic diversity, equity, and inclusion issues push internationalization to the backburner, SIOs and advocates of internationalization must push to change the image of international education as an experience reserved only for the elites. As experts in internationalization, SIOs must show clear connections between DEI movements and initiatives and intercultural and global perspectives and understanding. The movement for racial equity is a global one not limited to the U.S. SIOs can help university administration see these linkages. SIOs must also communicate the value and, indeed, necessity of investing in resources to develop virtual international exchanges. Not only do these initiatives increase access to global learning for students without the means to physically travel, but they are tried-and-true methods tested by the COVID-19 pandemic.

At the same time, teacher educators, many of whom are implementing and testing small-scale yet promising initiatives to internationalize their curriculum, should translate their findings to audiences beyond other teacher educators. SIOs would benefit from knowing about these initiatives, which may or may not be products of the TEP strategic plan but could help SIOs see the specific considerations necessary for internationalizing TEPs, which are academic units on college campuses with unique needs. Given that TEPs are often the least internationalized unit on campus, other faculty members in the TEP who may be based in other departments or colleges outside of the college of education could also have a role to play in sharing best practices and initiatives regarding

internationalization and global competencies for their disciplines. By giving these individuals time during TEP faculty meetings to share their expertise, TEP faculty and leaders could expand their efforts to internationalize their own curriculum.

Within the field of educational leadership, programs training future leaders should consider including elements of globally competent educational leadership in their curricula. Whether or not TEPs infuse global competency into the teacher preparation curriculum, P-12 school leaders must be prepared to support and foster globally competent teaching practices amongst their faculty. Tichnor-Wagner and Manise (2019) produced guidance regarding seven core tenets of globally competent school leaders, which guides leaders through the process to consider how to add global competency to their school's mission and vision, curriculum, professional learning communities, international partnerships, engagement with the community, considerations around equity and inclusion, and logistical operations for the school. Leadership training programs, much like accreditation and licensing bodies, should help future leaders understand how to infuse these practices into the existing structure and curriculum of their schools so that globally competent instructional practices represent a *lens* rather than an extra, superfluous unit of instruction or co-curricular activity.

Implications for Policy: Accreditation and State Licensing

Accrediting and state education licensing bodies have a big role to play in increasing TEPs' ability to infuse global competency into the TEP curriculum. Because the standards from these bodies are most often cited as barriers in the literature as well as by the participants in this study, they should reconsider the extreme demands placed on TEPs. While it is outside the scope of this study to recommend wholescale changes to

accreditation and teaching standards, for these bodies, it is at least worth considering how global perspectives and intercultural understanding can be more deeply embedded in TEP curriculum and teaching standards, not as an "extra" element or something that is "nice to have," but rather as a lens that is relevant to each and every topic covered in a standard curriculum. TEPs need more guidance on how to do this, and they already look to accrediting and state licensing bodies for the standards. These same agencies can and should provide this guidance, which is accessible in increasing amounts of publications from internationally-renown organizations.

Suggestions for Future Research

Future research could more deeply explore the perspectives of SIOs, especially with regards to how they learn to do their job. One SIO indicated that they had earned the role of SIO simply by knowing another language and having lived in another country. This could indicate that the role of SIO is still new, one that has only recently developed standards and best practices associated with it. Future research on how SIOs learn to internationalize the campus, from what resources they devise their processes, and how they understand differences in internationalization approaches for different disciplines would help further this field.

Future research could also focus on a wider-scale examination of TEP strategic plans. Because this study was limited with only two TEP leaders represented in the interview phase, future research could cast a wider net to better understand patterns and processes for how TEPs develop their strategic plans, what external forces are most at play, and whether the TEP leader is able to more tightly couple the elements of the TEP as Rhoades (1990) suggested. Regarding global competency for the teacher education

curriculum, longitudinal research studies should be conducted to examine the long-term effects on in-service teachers that were exposed to and deeply engaged in curriculum related to global competency while enrolled in their TEP.

Conclusion

In this final chapter, I have presented a summary and discussion of the major findings from this study. Major themes that emerged from the data analysis and findings have to do with coupling in higher education internationalization, evolving priorities in higher education with a shift from internationalization to more domestic concerns regarding diversity, varying understanding of the concept of global competency, the impact of the COVID-19 pandemic on internationalization and teacher education, and other concerns that have emerged regarding scrutiny of and demands on teacher education.

I presented implications for practice, policy, and future research that connect the themes. Namely, SIOs must consider institutional context before beginning an internationalization strategy, teacher education professionals involved in internationalizing their curriculum should help translate their findings and recommendations beyond other teacher educators, educational leadership programs should add elements of globally competent leadership to their curricula, and accrediting and teacher licensing bodies should reconsider how they require and provide guidance for infusing global competency into the TEP curriculum. Future research can focus more deeply on SIO perspectives and also elements of strategic planning in TEPs as well as how teacher candidates exposed to concepts regarding global competency in their TEP are bringing their knowledge into their classrooms as in-service teachers.

Institutions of higher education and teacher education programs alike have many priorities and demands to contend with. However, they must not lose sight of the importance of helping the next generation of teachers understand the deep interconnectedness of today's world. Our children's health, environment, and safety may depend on it.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: Survey Instrument

1. What is the name of the university at which you work?
   a. (Options will include all universities included in the sample)
2. Is your university public or private?
   a. Public
   b. Private
3. What is the total student enrollment at your university?
   a. Fewer than 2,000
   b. 2,001-5,000
   c. 5,001-10,000
   d. 10,001-20,000
   e. 20,001-30,000
   f. 30,001-50,000
   g. More than 50,000
4. Are you the university's Senior International Officer (leader of institutional internationalization) or leader of the university's teacher education program?
   a. I am the Senior International Officer
   b. I am the/a leader of the teacher education program

IF SENIOR INTERNATIONAL OFFICER:

5. Are you in a faculty or staff role?
   a. Faculty
   b. Staff
6. How many years have you served in the role of SIO at this institution?
   a. 0-5
   b. 6-10
   c. 11-15
   d. 16-20
   e. 21 or more
7. In which sector/discipline did you primarily work before becoming an SIO?
   a. Humanities
   b. Social Sciences
   c. Science, technology, engineering, and/or math (STEM)
   d. International Education
   e. Applied Science (e.g., business, education, law, journalism, health, public administration, social work, etc.)
   f. Other:

IF LEADER OF A TEACHER EDUCATION PROGRAM:

8. What is your current job title? (Select all that apply)
   a. Dean
   b. Associate Dean
   c. Assistant Dean

d. Director
e. Chair
f. Coordinator
g. Faculty member
h. Other:

9. How many years have you served in your current role at your current institution?
   a. 0-5
   b. 6-10
   c. 11-15
   d. 16-20
   e. 21 or more

10. Approximately how many students seeking a degree that leads to teacher certification are currently enrolled in your teacher education program?
    a. Fewer than 500
    b. 500-1000
    c. 1001-2000
    d. 2001-3000
    e. 3001-4000
    f. 4001-5000
    g. 5001-6000
    h. More than 6000

11. By whom is your teacher education program accredited?
    a. Council for the Accreditation of Educator Preparation (CAEP)
    b. Association for Advancing Quality in Educator Preparation (AAQEP)
    c. State education agency
    d. Other:

FOR BOTH SIOs AND TEP LEADERS:

12. The following section will ask about your **familiarity** with research-backed strategies to internationalize teacher education and **whether they are included** in your teacher education program's current relevant planning documents to *any* degree.

In recent decades, there has been an increasing push to internationalize teacher education to infuse global competency into the curriculum for pre-service teachers. Publications detailing research-backed strategies to do so have included: Longview Foundation's (2008) "Teacher Preparation for the Global Age: The Imperative for Change," OECD's (2018) "Preparing our Youth for an Inclusive and Sustainable World: The OECD PISA Global Competence Framework," and Cain et al.'s (on behalf of ASCD) (2017) "Globally Competent Learning Continuum".

These strategies include but are not limited to:

- Defining/conceptualizing "global competency" using language such as "the capacity and disposition to understand and act on issues of global significance" (Boix Mansilla & Jackson, 2011, p. xiii) and/or the ability to "examine local, global and intercultural issues, understand and appreciate different perspectives and world views, interact successfully and respectfully with others, and take responsible action toward sustainability and collective well-being" (OECD, 2018, p. 4).
- Assessing or encouraging self-assessment of pre-service teacher global competency to consider dispositions that include "empathy and valuing multiple perspectives" and a "commitment to promoting equity worldwide;" knowledge that includes a general understanding of global issues, multiple cultures, and intercultural communication; and skills that include foreign language competency as well as pedagogical and classroom management skills that help diverse students feel welcome and encourage students to conduct "content-aligned explorations of the world" (Cain et al., 2017).
- Required or elective courses for pre-service teachers that focus on fostering a global perspective and include global learning outcomes.
- Offering international experiences (abroad, at home, or virtual) including study abroad, student teaching abroad, and/or cross-cultural interactions between international and native (U.S.) students or scholars.
- Collaboration with faculty outside the teacher education unit on internationalization including development of a general education curriculum that is globally oriented/focused on global competence.
- Collaboration between the College/School of Arts and Sciences and College/School of Education to increase the number of world language teachers.
- Encouraging or requiring teacher candidates to meet some level of competency in a world language.

Before taking this survey, to what extent were you **familiar with these or other similar strategies** to internationalize the teacher education curriculum toward global competency for pre-service teachers?

a. Very familiar
b. Somewhat familiar
c. Slightly familiar
d. Not at all familiar

13. To your knowledge, are these or similar strategies to internationalize the teacher education curriculum toward global competency for pre-service teachers included in your institution's teacher education program's current relevant planning documents to *any* degree?
    a. Yes
    b. No
    c. I don't know
    d. No such plans exist
14. For this mixed methods research study, I hope to interview several SIOs and leaders of teacher education programs in the next phase of my research. Would you be willing to participate in an interview via Zoom? If so, please add your name and email:

APPENDIX B: Semi-Structured Interview Protocol

- For SIOs:
  - o Describe your involvement with the strategic planning process related to internationalization at your university.
  - o Describe the process you employ to include internationalization of the curriculum in the university strategic plan.
    - How do you ensure that the plan/strategy to internationalize the curriculum can be adapted into various colleges/units/disciplines?
      - *If the participant does not mention the teacher education unit specifically, ask:* What strategies, if any, do you employ to help the teacher education unit include education-specific strategies to internationalize the curriculum in their relevant planning documents that align with the institutional strategic plan?
- For TEP leaders:
  - o Describe your involvement with the strategic or other relevant planning process for the teacher education unit.
  - o Describe the process, if any, to adapt the university's strategic plan related to internationalization into the strategic or other relevant plan for the teacher education unit.
    - *If the participant does not mention internationalization of the curriculum:* Specifically for internationalization of the curriculum, how do you interpret and implement the university's strategic plan into the teacher education unit's strategic or other relevant plan?
    - *If the participant is able to describe the process to integrate the plan for internationalization of the curriculum:* To what extent do you believe the plan will help support growth in your pre-service teachers' global competency?
    - *If TEP's strategic plan is not publicly available:* Would you be willing to send me your teacher education unit's strategic or other relevant planning document via email?

APPENDIX C: Survey Instrument Adaptation Permission

Adapting Longview Survey for Doctoral Research Study ⊅ Inbox ×   ⌄ 🖨

Holliday, Ellie <eholliday@uky.edu>   Fri, Apr 15, 11:05 AM ☆ ↩ ⋮
to joanne ▾

Hi Joanne,

My name is Ellie Holliday, and I'm an employee and doctoral candidate at the University of Kentucky College of Education studying educational leadership and, more specifically, internationalization of teacher education and academic leaders' perceptions of that process. We've spoken (very briefly) once or twice when I've joined my colleague Sharon Brennan for GTE Fellows virtual events in the past. I am reaching out to you regarding a survey that GTEI distributed in partnership with Longview and AACTE in 2017 to Deans/Directors of teacher education programs. My proposed doctoral research will also include a survey to this population, and I am writing to see if you would 1) be able and willing to share the original survey instrument and 2) if you would allow me to adapt some of the items for my own survey. This is the report I have cited in my research previously: https://longviewfdn.org/files/1515/3969/4336/ Internationalization_Self_Reflection_Survey_.pdf. If the original survey instrument is not available, I can also adapt many of the items based on their phrasing in the report if you would allow me to do so. I originally sent this request to Jennifer Manise a few days ago, but Sharon indicated that you may have been more directly involved with this survey, so I wanted to pass along the request to you as well. Please feel free to let me know if there is someone else that may be more appropriate to ask.

I would be very happy to provide additional info about my research if you would like and even share the completed dissertation with you when published. I look forward to hearing from you and appreciate your consideration of this request!

Sincerely,
Ellie

Joanne Arhar via luky.onmicrosoft.com   💬 Wed, Apr 27, 1:12 PM ☆ ↩ ⋮
to Ellie ▾

CAUTION: External Sender

Hhi Ellie,

Attached is the self-reflection tool that the report was based on. The revised version was put together at a later date. You are welcome to use both in your research. Just make sure you cite Longview Foundation as the source.

Best wishes to you in your research!

Joanne

Joanne Arhar, Ed.D.
Professor Emeritus
Kent State University
Director Global Teacher Education Fellows Program
Longview Foundation
joanne@longviewfdn.org

APPENDIX D: IRB Approval

University of Kentucky

Office of Research Integrity
IRB, RDRC

EXEMPTION CERTIFICATION

IRB Number: 79783

TO: Eleanor Holliday, PhD
Educational Leadership Studies
PI phone #: 7046828773

PI email: eholliday@uky.edu

FROM: Chairperson/Vice Chairperson
Nonmedical Institutional Review Board (IRB)

SUBJECT: Approval for Exemption Certification

DATE: 9/12/2022

On 9/12/2022, it was determined that your project entitled "*Internationalizing the Teacher Education Curriculum Toward Global Competency: Academic Leaders' Perceptions*" meets federal criteria to qualify as an exempt study.

Because the study has been certified as exempt, you will not be required to complete continuation or final review reports. However, it is your responsibility to notify the IRB prior to making any changes to the study. Please note that changes made to an exempt protocol may disqualify it from exempt status and may require an expedited or full review.

The Office of Research Integrity will hold your exemption application for six years. Before the end of the sixth year, you will be notified that your file will be closed and the application destroyed. If your project is still ongoing, you will need to contact the Office of Research Integrity upon receipt of that letter and follow the instructions for completing a new exemption application. It is, therefore, important that you keep your address current with the Office of Research Integrity.

For information describing investigator responsibilities after obtaining IRB approval, download and read the document "PI Guidance to Responsibilities, Qualifications, Records and Documentation of Human Subjects Research" available in the online Office of Research Integrity's IRB Survival Handbook. Additional information regarding IRB review, federal regulations, and institutional policies may be found through ORI's web site. If you have questions, need additional information, or would like a paper copy of the above mentioned document, contact the Office of Research Integrity at 859-257-9428.

see blue.

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