THE STATUS OF INTERNATIONALIZATION IN
U.S. COUNSELING PSYCHOLOGY DOCTORAL PROGRAMS

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Abstract

The purpose of this study was to gather more information about the process of internationalization in U.S. counseling psychology programs. Participants included 26 training directors and 83 doctoral students, representing 32 of the 63 APA-accredited, active counseling psychology doctoral programs. Results suggested that the presence of international learning opportunities did not increase from 2007 to 2010, with the exception that internationalism was increasingly being incorporated into the definition of multiculturalism. Results also suggested that training directors perceived opportunities to gain international experience in their programs integrated to a greater extent compared to their doctoral students. Doctoral students, however, perceived greater institutional commitment to international learning opportunities compared to their training directors. Finally, results suggested that both sets of respondents’ attitudes were generally favorable toward internationalization. Implications for counseling psychology training programs, as well as recommendations for improving internationalization efforts are discussed.
Chapter I: Introduction

Globalization is rapidly changing the world in which we live. Local and national phenomena are no longer confined to geographical borders, but rather have become integrated on a global scale. Such integration has been beneficial to people around the world, but also harmful. Whereas globalization has contributed to increased life expectancy of persons in developing countries, increased literacy rates around the world, and advances in women’s rights, globalization has also contributed to the depletion of natural resources, exploitation of foreign impoverished workers, and increasing inequalities between the richest and poorest countries (World Bank, 2001). Leung (2003) aptly stated that in a globalized society, for better or worse, “what happens to a small number of people in one tiny corner might affect the well-being of others elsewhere” (p. 418).

The fact that such circumstances exist underscores the truth that we are living in a world characterized by economic, social, and cultural interconnectedness (Heppner, 2006). As our interconnectedness becomes more pervasive, we are faced with an increased responsibility to acknowledge the far-reaching consequences of our actions. In order to ensure that we are impacting the world for the better, globalization necessitates that we develop a heightened sense of awareness regarding our inevitable involvement in world systems, and that we act accordingly.
Counseling psychologists are not exempt from the responsibilities of living in a globalized world. They, too, have the obligation to embrace an international perspective, especially within their profession. Leung et al. (2009) described internationalization as the “nurturance of a global perspective in counseling scholarship, through our teaching, research, and service” (p. 112). Because the profession of counseling and counseling psychology currently exists in diverse regions of the world including South America, Africa, Europe, Asia, and the Middle East, one might conclude that internationalization is an already integral process in the field.

Whereas the international presence of counseling psychology does indeed place the profession in an ideal position for U.S. counseling psychologists to develop an international perspective, it has been suggested that they remain relatively isolated from their international colleagues (Heppner, Leong, & Chiao, 2008a; Gerstein & Ágísdóttir, 2007). Such information is alarming when one takes into account the increasingly interconnectedness of macrosystems resulting from globalization. Thus, it is imperative that U.S. counseling psychologists develop an international perspective if the profession is to meet the demands of contemporary society, yet little is known regarding the extent to which training programs are actively preparing students to do so.

Only one study thus far has examined the extent to which counseling psychology programs provide students with opportunities to learn about the counseling profession beyond U.S. borders (Turner-Essel & Waehler, 2009). Turner-Essel and Waehler (2009) surveyed training directors of APA-accredited counseling psychology doctoral programs in the U.S. to determine the availability of international training opportunities.
International training opportunities referred to initiatives within a program that enhance one’s ability to understand the international context of counseling psychology. They reported that a number of counseling psychology departments have demonstrated a commitment to internationalizing the curriculum by promoting travel to international conferences, including international issues as part of multicultural issues, valuing international experience in the admissions process, incorporating readings from non-U.S. psychologists into the curriculum, and other methods to a lesser degree (e.g., offering international exchanges, inviting international guests). One major limitation of this study, however, was that few items were used in their survey to assess the extent to which programs provided students with international training opportunities. Because leaders of the international movement in counseling psychology have provided numerous suggestions for internationalizing counseling psychology training programs (e.g., Heppner, 2006; Leung, 2003; Ægisdóttir and Gerstein, 2010) future research needs to utilize more of these recommendations in order to provide a richer assessment. Furthermore, Turner-Essel and Waehler (2009) relied solely on training directors for examining current international training efforts. Because past research suggests that faculty and students may not perceive the availability of multicultural training opportunities similarly (Constantine, Ladany, Arpana, & Ponterotto, 1996), it is possible that faculty and students may also differ in their perceptions regarding the availability of international training opportunities. Thus, future research in this area should compare data across multiple sources.

Finally, the current research is limited in the way that attitudes toward internationalizing U.S. counseling psychology training programs have not been assessed.
Whereas there has been given increased attention to the importance of internationalizing U.S. counseling psychology programs, it has been suggested that some are still opposed to internationalization efforts (Marsella & Pedersen, 2004). Thus, one important factor that may contribute to the availability of international training opportunities, or the lack thereof, may be attitudes toward internationalizing counseling psychology programs. Namely, unless faculty and students are supportive of internationalization efforts, then such opportunities will not exist. For this reason, future research needs to examine attitudes toward internationalization.

While Turner-Essel and Waehler’s (2009) study offers important preliminary data about the current status of internationalization in U.S. counseling psychology programs, a more comprehensive assessment is needed. The present study contributes to this body of knowledge by further assessing the ways in which counseling psychology programs provide students with international training opportunities. Additionally, this study examines attitudes toward internationalizing U.S. counseling psychology programs. To address the aims of the study, training directors and graduate students of APA-accredited counseling psychology doctoral programs were surveyed.

The remainder of this chapter will elaborate upon the rationale for encouraging internationalization within the counseling psychology profession and the importance of integrating international training opportunities specifically in the training program. Then, the purpose of the current study will be outlined in detail. Finally, the significance of the current study will be discussed.
Rationale

The previous section briefly alluded to the importance of preparing counseling psychologists to develop an international perspective. In an interconnected world, the actions of U.S. counseling psychologists will inevitably have consequences elsewhere and such actions may positively or adversely impact others around the world. The following section will describe the implications of U.S. psychologists’ inevitable involvement in the international arena and describe the ways in which counseling psychologists can be of greatest service in a globalized world.

Gerstein and Ægisdóttir (2007) stated that counseling psychologists must develop an international perspective to ensure that they are engaging in competent practices for diverse clientele. They argued that counseling psychologists need to address demographic shifts that are occurring both within the U.S. and specifically within counseling psychology training programs. The U.S. Census Bureau (2008) recently identified immigration as the leading cause of population growth within the U.S. Approximately 12.6% of the current total U.S. population is foreign-born and this number is projected to increase dramatically over the next 40 years. In light of such information, it is evident that international-mindedness within the profession is essential, even within the U.S., if counseling psychologists are to meet the demands of working with an increasingly diverse population.

Similarly, as demographic shifts occur specifically within counseling psychology education settings, counseling psychology training programs must address the international utility of U.S. counseling theories and practices (Gerstein & Ægisdóttir, 2007; Leong & Ponterotto, 2003). One reason is because many of the international
students that come to the U.S. for training in counseling psychology often return to their home countries to practice (Gerstein & Ægisdóttir, 2005). Thus, counseling psychologists need to be aware of the applicability and limitations of U.S. counseling theories and practices when they are applied internationally. This is becoming increasingly important, as Kwan and Gerstein (2008) noted that the enrollment of international students in U.S. counseling psychology programs is increasing, although they reported no data to support this claim. Nevertheless, because of these apparent demographic changes, incorporating an international perspective into the profession is not simply optional, but critical to ensure that counseling psychologists are addressing contemporary societal needs that are relevant within U.S. borders.

U.S. counseling psychologists can do more than meet the minimum criteria for providing competent practice within the U.S. borders, but they can also increase international initiatives to be of the greatest benefit in an interconnected world. Several scholars have envisioned the positive impact that counseling psychologists can have in alleviating mental distress around the world. Leong and Blustein (2000) stated that encouraging international-mindedness within the profession would provide a way for counseling psychologists to be of maximum benefit to citizens of a global world. Similarly, Douce (2004) asserted that rather than confining counseling psychology to national borders, counseling psychologists could “advocate for the betterment of all lives around the globe” (p. 143). Moreover, Leung (2003) specifically challenged U.S. counseling psychologists to “be in the forefront to initiate international contacts and communication, to facilitate goodwill among citizens of the world, to form equal alliances with mental health professionals worldwide, and to use global perspectives and
knowledge to meet local needs in diverse cultural contexts” (p. 418). Indeed, U.S. counseling psychologists have the potential to positively impact the world at large.

Similarly, incorporating an international perspective within counseling psychology will also serve to benefit people around the world by strengthening the field. U.S. psychology as a human science has often been criticized because of its narrow focus on U.S. populations, which represents only 5% of the world’s population (Arnett, 2008). Arnett (2008) provided the following illustration:

“It is difficult to imagine that biologists, for example, would study a highly unusual 5% of the world’s crocodile population and assume the features of that 5% to be universal. It is even more difficult to imagine that such biologists would be aware that the other 95% of the world’s crocodile population was vastly different from the 5% under study, and highly diverse in habitat, eating habits, mating practices, and everyday behavior, yet show little or no interest in studying that 95% and continue to study the 5% exhaustively while making universal claims” (p. 608).

Undoubtedly, the U.S. field of counseling psychology should strive for a more accurate perception of humanity. Embracing an international perspective is one way in which to accomplish this goal. An international perspective of counseling psychology can bring intellectual renewal to the field by providing insight as to what psychological constructs are universal and by encouraging counseling psychologists to develop a deeper appreciation for the ways in which culture impacts behavior (Leong & Blustein, 2000). A more accurate understanding of human behavior has the potential to advance the profession as a science both domestically and internationally (Heppner, 2006). This
advancement would not simply be the exportation of U.S. counseling psychology abroad, but rather an acknowledgement and appreciation of the role that international colleagues play in expanding the knowledge base within the field. Thus, by incorporating an international perspective, counseling psychologists will be in a better position to benefit more people around the globe.

Although the U.S. field of counseling psychology has thus far managed to myopically focus on U.S. populations, the profession’s future may be dismal if it continues to do so. Heppner, Leong, and Gerstein (2008b) warned, “A profession cannot survive if it cannot demonstrate its utility to address important societal needs, not only in a specific country, but also across the world” (p. 244). Similarly, Giorgis and Helms (1978) stated that without adopting a global perspective and increasing contact with international colleagues, there are few safeguards to keep psychology from becoming an outdated study of “Western human behavior.” Clearly, there is a need for the profession to embrace a more internationally relevant counseling psychology.

In order to embrace a more internationally relevant counseling psychology, it is vital that U.S. counseling psychology training programs promote international training opportunities. Many scholars have stressed that it is the responsibility of training programs to prepare counseling psychologists to become competent workers in the global village (Gerstein & Ægisdóttir, 2007; Leung, 2003; Marsella & Pedersen, 2004). Leung (2003) asserted that counseling psychology training programs have the obligation to instill an awareness of our interconnectedness and encourage students to think globally. Indeed, by providing opportunities for counseling psychologists to learn about
international issues as they relate to counseling psychology, they will be better prepared to embrace their professional roles as citizens of a global world.

**Purpose of the study**

Therefore, the purpose of this study was three-fold. First, this project compared previous findings regarding the availability of international training opportunities to current findings in 2010. Second, this study examined perceptions regarding the availability of international training opportunities from both training directors of U.S. counseling psychology doctoral programs and their doctoral students. Finally, this study explored both training directors’ and counseling psychology students’ attitudes towards internationalizing counseling psychology training programs. Specifically, this study addressed the following research questions:

1. **Is there a difference in the number of international learning opportunities being provided in U.S. counseling psychology doctoral programs in 2010 compared to those being provided in 2007 as reported by training directors of U.S. counseling psychology doctoral programs?**

2. **Is there a difference between doctoral students in U.S. counseling psychology doctoral programs and training directors of U.S. counseling psychology doctoral programs in their perceptions of the extent to which international training opportunities are being provided in their training programs?**

3. **Is there a difference between doctoral students in U.S. counseling psychology doctoral programs and training directors of U.S. counseling psychology doctoral programs in their attitudes toward internationalizing U.S. counseling psychology doctoral programs?**
Significance of study

It was expected that results of this study would contribute to international learning initiatives within U.S. counseling psychology programs. First, it was expected that a follow-up study to Turner-Essel and Waehler’s (2009) study would provide a way to examine whether the presence of international learning opportunities have increased over time. With the results from this study, those who are responsible for training U.S. counseling psychologists may have a chance to critically evaluate whether the current rate of internationalization is sufficient. It was expected that the development of a comprehensive scale to measure perceptions of international learning opportunities could further aid in this evaluation process. Namely, results from this study could be used to assess areas of strengths and weaknesses within programs regarding international learning opportunities.

In addition, this project measured attitudes towards internationalization. It was expected that results from this study could clarify the current climate regarding the internationalization of counseling psychology programs. The clarification of attitudes would be an integral piece of information, as attitudes may impact the motivation to implement international training opportunities. Finally, it was expected that by gathering data from both training directors and doctoral students, one could better address any gaps that may exist between those responsible for implementing international training opportunities and those that are the recipients of such opportunities. Thus, it was expected that overall, this study would provide a way to better evaluate the success of their international training opportunities and to implement changes, if desired.
Chapter II: Review of Literature

In the previous chapter, the rationale for integrating an international perspective within U.S. counseling psychology programs was discussed. Given the purpose of the current study, a review of past efforts to work internationally will be discussed in order to gain a better understanding of the ways that U.S. counseling psychologists have historically contributed to both positive and adverse outcomes around the world. Second, the history of counseling psychology will be conceptualized within a developmental worldview paradigm. This developmental paradigm provides a conceptual model to explain the field’s past failures and successes in addressing international issues. Third, recommendations for incorporating international training opportunities into counseling psychology training programs will be discussed, as well as the current literature regarding the presence of international training opportunities. Fourth, the rationale for including counseling psychology doctoral students in the assessment of international learning opportunities will be given. Finally, the role that attitudes toward internationalization may play in the availability of international learning opportunities will be discussed.

History of Counseling Psychology

Counseling psychology originated as a vocational movement in the early 1900s in response to societal needs created by industrialization (Wright & Heppner, 1990). Pioneers of the vocational guidance movement revolutionized the role that an occupation
plays in one’s life by empowering individuals to increase their professional choices. Eventually, this vocational movement expanded its role to also promote personal, educational, and group adjustment. By the 1950s, the Division of Personnel Psychologists was established as Division 17 of the American Psychological Association (APA) and the field of counseling psychology as it is practiced today became a recognized subspecialty of psychology within the U.S. (Heppner et al., 2008a).

During these formative years of the field, efforts were also made to establish the counseling psychology profession worldwide (Heppner et al., 2008a). In the aftermath of World War II, the U.S. government aided efforts to export U.S. counseling practices to Japan. As a result, several U.S. counseling psychologists served as consultants to the Japanese government. Similarly, during the 1960s, U.S. counseling psychologists traveled abroad to help establish the profession in England. Such attempts, however, were limited to U.S. counseling psychologists promoting the adoption of U.S. counseling theory and practice abroad without regard to their applicability for the host culture (Heppner et al., 2008a, Norsworthy, Heppner, Ægisdóttir, Gerstein, & Pedersen, 2009). Internationalization efforts at this time were heavily influenced by the cultural values of early U.S. counseling psychologists, who were predominately white males of European descent.

Gergen, Gulerce, Lock, and Misra (1996) noted that the exportation of U.S. theory and practice abroad occurred within the broader psychology profession during this time as well. Gergen et al. (1996) described many psychologists’ early attempts to work internationally as “thinking locally, acting globally” (p. 500). In some instances, U.S. psychologists went so far as to prevent local cultures from “contaminating” Western
theories when practicing abroad (Gergen et al., 1996). In India, for example, U.S. and
British researchers of psychology took a strong universalistic stance, viewing culture as
an extraneous intrusion when applying Western psychological theories to Indian people. Similarly, only pure Western psychology was taught in Indian universities while indigenous psychologies were not permitted in the academic discourse. This neglect of Indian cultural traditions resulted in an incomplete understanding of Indian people that lasted for several decades.

Gergen et al. (1996) cited the experience of the Maori people of New Zealand as another example of the harmful exportation of Western psychology. Psychological constructs that were developed to meet the challenges faced by Western societies were used with the Maori people, even though many of these constructs were irrelevant to Maori culture. For example, although the Maori did not have a Western educational system, they were subjected to Western-based intelligence assessments. This resulted in psychologists labeling the Maori people as having below average intelligence. Similarly, the Maori were subjected to measurements of sanity developed in the West even though the Maori people did not conceptualize sanity in the same way. Within this Western psychological framework, many of the Maori people were deemed insane. In these ways, the use of Western values in conceptualization of the Maori people resulted in the mass abnormalization of a culture.

Clearly, early attempts of many U.S. psychologists to work internationally were executed in a culturally inappropriate way. Rather than collaborating with colleagues from around the world to gain a better understanding of humanity, U.S. psychologists acted as “experts” towards their international counterparts who were inaccurately
perceived as being less knowledgeable about the counseling profession (Pedersen, 2003). Thus, although early attempts were made to advance the profession internationally, they were ethnocentric in nature.

Not all efforts to promote the field internationally, however, focused on imposing Western psychology worldwide. Efforts also were made in the early years to educate U.S. counseling psychologists about international issues. *The International Journal for the Advancement of Counseling (IJAC)* was created during the 1960s to educate U.S. counseling psychologists about the counseling profession abroad. Further, in 1962, Gilbert Wrenn published his seminal work *Counseling in a Changing World*. Wrenn (1962) described counselors as “culturally encapsulated,” which referred to counseling professionals’ tendency to submerge themselves within a subculture that did not adequately address the concerns of the world at large. Although Wrenn stressed the importance of culture as an important variable in counseling, initially his message was not widely accepted (Heppner et al., 2008a). Whereas efforts were made during the 1960s to encourage an international perspective, they were unpopular with the majority of counseling psychologists.

In the 1980s, a small subset of counseling psychologists continued working towards advancing the field internationally. Several counseling psychologists during this time were awarded Fulbright scholarships to conduct international cross-cultural research (Hedlund, 1988; Heppner, 1988; McWhirter, 1988; Nugent, 1988; Rogers, 1987; Skovholt, 1988). Shortly after his time abroad, Fulbright Scholar Thomas Skovholt and others founded the Minnesota International Counseling Institute (MICI). MICI, which still presently operates, hosts biennial gatherings of counseling psychologists around the
world to advance the science and practice of international counseling (Skovholt, Hansen, Goh, Romano, & Thomas, 2005).

Further, in 1988, Bruce Fetz created the International Forum (IF) in The Counseling Psychologist (TCP) to advance cross-cultural counseling and enhance awareness of international issues (Kwan & Gerstein, 2008). Although the IF was intended to serve as a forum for non-U.S. counseling psychologists to voice their professional opinions, the IF initially served as a forum for U.S. counseling psychologists to talk about their experiences abroad. A thematic analysis of IF publications from 1988-2001 revealed that 34% of articles focused on U.S. psychologists’ experiences abroad, 17% examined the status of counseling international students in the U.S., 14% examined the status of counseling in the U.S., 14% were general commentaries on international perspectives on counseling, and only 10% examined counseling practices in countries outside of the U.S. (Leong & Ponterotto, 2003). Like many efforts to work internationally, these attempts fell short of true international collaboration, as the focus was mostly related to counseling psychology in the U.S.

Although not all early attempts to work globally were successful, it is evident that a limited number of counseling psychologists have worked to advance the profession internationally for quite some time. It has only been since the late 1990s, however, that these efforts have gained increased attention. Before describing the recent progress in promoting counseling psychology internationally, it is important to address possible reasons for the lack of attention that international efforts have historically received.

One explanation for the early lack of interest in advancing the field internationally is that efforts to promote an international perspective of counseling psychology were
largely overshadowed by efforts to promote a multicultural perspective of counseling psychology in the U.S. While the scope of an international perspective extends to all people worldwide, the scope of a multicultural perspective has been traditionally limited to recognizing the diversity that exists within a nation (Arredondo et al., 1992). Thus, *multicultural* counseling psychology is narrower in scope compared to *international* counseling psychology, but broader in scope compared to an *ethnocentric* counseling psychology. Because an ethnocentric form of U.S. counseling psychology dominated early attempts to work internationally, it is not surprising that U.S. counseling psychologists first needed to embrace multicultural values before embracing international ones.

Beginning in the 1960s, efforts to shift from an ethnocentric U.S. counseling psychology to a multicultural counseling psychology gained increasing attention and popularity. During the 1950s and 1960s, the Civil Rights movement began to take shape within the U.S., which in turn sparked the multicultural movement within the field of U.S. counseling psychology. Passage of Civil Rights legislation, such as the Civil Rights Act of 1964 that outlawed segregation, empowered psychologists to take a stronger stance in addressing the importance of culture in counseling (Arredondo & Perez, 2006). Rather than accepting that the values of white, European-descendant males could be universally applied, proponents of the multicultural movement argued that understanding and appreciating the role of culture would enrich counseling practice and theory. By the 1970s, various publications such as *Psychological Testing of American Minorities: Issues and Consequences* (Samuda, 1975) and *Even the Rat Was White: A Historical View of Psychology* (Guthrie, 1976) criticized psychologists’ past efforts to work with diverse
populations because of the ethnocentrism within their approaches (Arredondo & Perez, 2006).

In 1982, at the request of Former Division 17 President Allen Ivey, a committee headed by Derald Wing Sue proposed a set of multicultural guidelines to enhance cultural counseling competencies (Sue et al., 1982). The Executive Committee of Division 17, however, initially rejected them. The multicultural movement of counseling psychology was met with reluctance as some counseling psychologists argued that (a) the current counseling practices were already relevant to the culturally different and (b) cultural issues were irrelevant to mainstream counseling because minority populations constituted only a small segment of the population (Clark, 1990). Thus, although the efforts to promote multicultural values were increasing, multicultural values were not immediately accepted within the counseling psychology field. Leaders of the U.S. multicultural movement had to fight for several years before the field officially acknowledged the importance of multiculturalism in counseling psychology.

Approximately 20 years after Sue et al.’s (1982) multicultural guidelines were first proposed, they were finally endorsed by the APA as the *Multicultural Guidelines on Education and Training, Research, Practice and Organizational Development for Psychologists* (Arredondo et al., 1996; Sue, Arredondo, & McDavis, 1992). Consistent with the scope of the definition of *multicultural*, the guidelines were only meant to address diverse populations within the U.S. The Multicultural Guidelines explicitly stated that they were relevant to counseling the five major cultural groups in the United States and its territories: African/Black, Asian, Caucasian/European, Hispanic/Latino, and Native American (Arredondo et al., 1996).
Since its inception, however, the U.S. multicultural counseling movement has made significant progress in multicultural research, theory, and practice (Leung, 2003). Although initially slow to acknowledge the role that culture plays in counseling, most counseling psychologists now recognize that all counseling is cultural (Leung, 2003). In fact, multiculturalism is now considered the “fourth force” of counseling (Pedersen, 1999). In many ways, the multicultural movement has successfully shifted the field from an ethnocentric one to a multicultural one that appreciates the diversity that exists within the U.S.

As counseling psychologists have become more accepting of multicultural counseling psychology, several counseling psychologists have advocated for the international movement as the next step in the multicultural movement (Douce, 2004; Leong & Blustein, 2000). Leong and Blustein (2000) stated that the multicultural movement must occur at two levels: exploring diversity within the U.S. and exploring diversity outside of the U.S. Similarly, Former Division 17 President Paul Heppner expressed his hopes for the counseling profession to work to improve mental health on a global scale (Heppner, 1997). Former Division 17 President Louise Douce (2004) also expressed a similar sentiment in her Presidential Address, stating that the next challenge in the multicultural movement would be to address international issues.

Indeed, U.S. counseling psychologists have demonstrated increased interest in developing an international perspective. Heppner renewed internationalization efforts within The Counseling Psychologist (TCP) by assigning scholars who were leaders of the international movement as Series Co-Editors, by changing the review process to be more culturally sensitive for international authors, and by appointing an international scholar to
serve as Associate Editor (Heppner & Gerstein, 2008). Between 1997 and 2003, counseling psychology witnessed more publications highlighting the urgency of internationalizing the field (Heppner & Gerstein, 2008). Further, in March of 2008, Division 17 hosted the first International Counseling Psychology Conference. This conference offered a platform for dialogue regarding national and global issues facing the field of counseling psychology. Over 1,500 counseling psychologists and students representing 50 countries attended this conference (APA, 2008). In 2009, the International Handbook of Cross-Cultural Counseling: Cultural Assumptions and Practices Worldwide was published. This handbook served to provide a theoretical, research, and practical focus regarding the developments of counseling in several countries (Gerstein, Heppner, Ágísdóttir, Leung, & Norsworthy, 2009).

The movement to enhance internationalization efforts has been occurring in the broader field of psychology as well. The APA’s Committee on International Relations in Psychology (CIRP) has increased efforts to establish stronger ties with APA divisions in order to broaden the interest in international psychology (APA, 2009a). The APA also created an international division (Division 52) that facilitates international visits, workshops, and lectures for psychologists (APA, 2009b). Additionally, the APA now invites psychologists to collaborate with the United Nations to address a variety of global issues including gender equality and human rights (APA, 2009c). Furthermore, in 2004 the APA passed the “Resolution on Culture and Gender Awareness in International Psychology” to offer guidance in the internationalization process (Norsworthy et al., 2009). Taken together, the developments just mentioned suggest that there is an increased interest in promoting international initiatives among psychologists.
In summary, efforts to promote counseling psychology internationally are not a recent phenomenon, but rather have been present throughout the history of the field. Nonetheless, although such efforts persisted, they were the result of a few counseling psychologists and even well-intentioned efforts to work internationally were sometimes conducted in an ethnocentric manner. The progress of international initiatives within counseling psychology remained slow for several decades. Furthermore, whereas international initiatives failed to capture the attention of many counseling psychologists, the multicultural movement gained considerable momentum during this time. The shift from an ethnocentric to a multicultural counseling psychology was a gradual one, yet a multicultural perspective now dominates the field. Since embracing multiculturalism in counseling psychology, increased attention has been given to international concerns. To understand this progression from an ethnocentric to a multicultural framework, and finally to an international perspective, these foci will now be conceptualized through a developmental worldview paradigm as proposed by Wilber (2000).

**Developmental Worldview Paradigm**

Wilber (2000) created a model that integrated the theories of several psychologists and philosophers to explain the way in which an individual’s worldview develops over time. This model included the works of Lawrence Kohlberg, Carol Gilligan, Cheryl Armon, and John Rawls, among others. All of these theorists shared the commonality of proposing that individuals develop an increasingly complex view of the world over time. More specifically, individuals begin with an egocentric worldview (i.e., focusing primarily on one’s self-interests), next they increase awareness to develop a sociocentric worldview (i.e., focusing on what is good for one’s society), then expand
their awareness even more so to develop a global worldview (i.e., focusing on what is fair for all people around the world), and finally, some individuals go on to develop a theocentric worldview (i.e., focusing on the interconnectedness of all sentient and non-sentient beings). The theocentric worldview will not be further discussed in this document because it is outside the scope of the current study.

Wilber (2000) stated there are not clearly delineated boundaries to these worldviews. Rather, the shift from a less mature worldview to a more advance one is a gradual change. Moreover, he argued that individuals will not progress beyond the earlier worldviews of egocentrism and sociocentrism unless provided with learning opportunities to expand one’s awareness. Additionally, Wilber (2000) stated that if an individual is to develop a more expansive worldview, no earlier stage can be skipped (e.g., an egocentric worldview will always precede a sociocentric worldview, and a sociocentric worldview will always precede a globalcentric worldview).

Wilber’s (2000) developmental worldview model is depicted in Figure 1. The spiral image suggests that worldviews are not separate entities, but will inevitably overlap one another when an individual is progressing through the stages. The egocentric part of the spiral is in the middle and is also the smallest because it is the most limited worldview. Similarly, this figure depicts the sociocentric dimension as being the next worldview, and finally the globalcentric.

Wilber (2000) stated that not only individuals, but also collective groups of people progress through these stages. Thus, the field of counseling psychology can be similarly conceptualized through this developmental lens. Wilber’s (2000) developmental
paradigm can provide a model for understanding the U.S. counseling profession’s past successes and failures in working with culturally diverse populations.

Beginning in the 1940s and throughout the 1960s, an ethnocentric worldview dominated the U.S. counseling psychology field. This ethnocentric worldview is similar to Wilber’s (2000) egocentric worldview. Individuals with an ethnocentric or egocentric worldview view other people from the perspective of one’s own culture and thus impose their cultural values onto others. For U.S. counseling psychologists during this time, what was best for white, European-descendant males was thought to be best for everyone. At this early stage of development, it is not surprising that counseling professionals’ early attempts to work globally faltered.

Beginning in the 1960s and throughout the 1990s, albeit a slow process, U.S. counseling psychologists sought to move beyond an ethnocentric worldview to embrace a multicultural worldview. This multicultural worldview parallels Wilber’s (2000) sociocentric worldview in which an individual moves beyond oneself to focus on what is good for one’s society. During this time, U.S. counseling psychologists began acknowledging the diversity within the U.S. and adapted accordingly. This sociocentric worldview is further evident in the Multicultural Guidelines (Sue et al., 1996) that explicitly refer to counseling different cultural groups within only the U.S.

Since the late 1990s, an increasing number of U.S. counseling psychologists have sought to incorporate a globalcentric worldview into the profession. That is, these counseling psychologists have advocated transcending national borders to work for the good of humanity on an international scale. This movement is evident in the increased number of international initiatives within U.S. counseling psychology (e.g., Forrest,
2008; Heppner & Gerstein, 2008), and the increased number of U.S. articles published about the importance of an international perspective (Heppner & Gerstein, 2008). Yet, the relative isolation from international colleagues and the limited participation in international initiatives as evidenced by results from Turner-Essel and Waehler’s (2009) study suggest that the globalcentric worldview does not dominate the counseling field in the U.S.

Based on Wilber’s (2000) developmental worldview paradigm, one can better conceptualize the U.S. counseling psychology field’s past and current efforts to work with culturally diverse populations. This conceptualization is beneficial for several reasons. First, some counseling psychologists might be wary to embrace internationalization because of past failures. Within this paradigm, however, it becomes apparent that early attempts to work internationally failed because the field was predominately characterized by an ethnocentric worldview. Because this ethnocentric worldview no longer dominates the profession, counseling psychologists can be more confident in the success of internationalization efforts.

Further, this developmental paradigm can explain why efforts to promote a multicultural perspective succeeded, whereas efforts to promote an international perspective did not. Before the field could address international issues, U.S. counseling psychologists first had to embrace a sociocentric, or multicultural worldview. Again, this conceptualization highlights the understanding that the problem is not that counseling psychology is a field that is fundamentally unable to internationalize, but that internationalization is a developmental process. Rather, a multicultural worldview for U.S. counseling psychologists was a prerequisite for a global worldview.
Finally, this conceptual framework promotes an understanding that internationalization is not a radical shift in the identity of counseling psychology. Rather, internationalization is the next step in the evolution of a field that increasingly stresses the importance of the cultural context. Now that the prerequisites for a global worldview appear to have been met, it is necessary to learn how to encourage U.S. counseling psychologists to embrace this shift in perspective.

*International Training Opportunities*

A review of U.S. counseling psychologists’ past efforts to work internationally has shown that action abroad is not enough to provide the field with an international perspective. Although some counseling psychologists worked to promote the field internationally, their work often did not reflect an egalitarian, collaborative relationship with their international colleagues (Heppner et al., 2008a). If counseling psychologists are to develop a global worldview, then an international perspective must precede U.S. international action. One way to cultivate an international perspective is through providing international training opportunities. The following section will further clarify the concept of international learning opportunities for counseling psychologists.

Efforts to promote international training opportunities within U.S. counseling psychology training programs have been described in several ways. This process has been called internationalization (Leong & Ponterotto, 2003; Turner-Essel & Waehler, 2009), promoting international counseling competencies (Ægisdóttir & Gerstein, 2010), and cross-cultural training (Skovholt et al., 2005). Such terms have been used inconsistently throughout the discourse, but inconsistencies in terminology are to be expected when defining a new field (Kirkwood, 2001). In this document, the term
international training opportunities will be used, as international has been commonly used in the literature (e.g., Leong & Ponterotto, 2003; Turner-Essel & Waehler, 2009; Ægisdóttir & Gerstein, 2010). Additionally, the term “training opportunities” will be used to include both formal learning opportunities (e.g., curriculum-based initiative) and informal learning opportunities (e.g., interaction with international students) within counseling psychology training programs.

The purpose of international training opportunities is to prepare students to develop international competencies related to their profession. Thus, it is necessary to operationally define the dimensions of international competency. To better understand how to best define international competency for the field of counseling psychology, this section will review the current training paradigm used for the operational definition of multicultural counseling competencies. The multicultural training paradigm provides a foundation from which to operationally define international competencies. Finally, the training paradigm proposed by Ægisdóttir and Gerstein (2010) for international counseling competencies will be discussed, as will the cross-cultural competencies outlined by Heppner et al. (2008b).

Sue et al. (1996) proposed the current model that is used to identify multicultural competencies. This model is composed of three main dimensions: Awareness, Knowledge, and Skills. Within each of these dimensions, counselors are to develop competencies related to understanding their own cultural context as well as their client's cultural context. Sue et al. (1996) stated that (a) by enhancing awareness, counselors can better understand how their own personal values and biases affect the way in which they conceptualize their clients (b) by increasing knowledge, counselors can more accurately
understand the cultural context of the client and (c) by developing multicultural counseling skills, counselors can promote culturally appropriate interventions.

Ægisdóttir and Gerstein (2010) modified the existing AKS training paradigm to reflect international counseling competencies. Their model is composed of four dimensions: Motivation, Awareness, Knowledge, and Skills related to working internationally (MAKS). Specifically, Ægisdóttir and Gerstein (2010) suggested that (a) counselor trainees should be motivated to seek out opportunities to develop cross-cultural competencies, (b) counselors should be aware that microsystems and macrosystems may vary significantly by culture and country, (c) counselors should be knowledgeable about their own cultural heritage and customs, other cultural groups, and international topics, and (d) counselors should increase their cross-cultural competency skills. Ægisdóttir and Gerstein (2010) stated that the development of these cross-cultural competencies would assist counseling professionals in successfully addressing international issues. Compared to the traditional AKS training paradigm, the MAKS training paradigm places a stronger emphasis on the obligation that training programs have in fostering interest in developing these competencies.

Similarly, Heppner et al. (2008b) devised a list of six propositions that described the internationally competent counselor. They stated that internationally competent counselors (1) use an ecological model to understand the cultural context, (2) acquire knowledge about the microsystem, mesosystem, exosystem, macrosystem, and chronosystem (Bronfenbrenner, 1977, 1979) and recognizes this knowledge as culture-specific, (3) understand how the aforementioned systems impact ethnic minorities in their home country, (4) acquire knowledge about aforementioned systems in other parts of the
world, (5) apply such knowledge when engaged in international activities, and (6) use their knowledge and skills to accommodate for cross-cultural differences that would otherwise hinder their ability to work effectively. Heppner et al. (2008b) specifically stated that these competencies were relevant for those who plan to engage in international activities, but it is not only international workers that could benefit from developing these competencies. Encouraging all counseling psychologists to embrace the competencies would enrich one’s understanding and appreciation for the contextual factors that are inherent in the counseling process.

**Recommendations for International Training Opportunities**

An international education for U.S. counseling psychologists is one that provides opportunities for counseling psychologists to develop motivation, awareness, knowledge, and skills related to the profession on an international scale. Next, it is important to identify specific ways that programs can achieve this aim. Indeed, such concrete recommendations are essential. One of the early criticisms to incorporating a multicultural education within U.S. counseling psychology programs was that faculty members were unsure how to provide multicultural learning opportunities (Ponterotto, Alexander, & Grieger, 1995). In order to circumvent a similar obstacle for incorporating international training opportunities, it is important to identify specific recommendations.

Ægisdóttir and Gerstein (2010) described specific examples of ways that programs could encourage international competencies within the dimensions of motivation, awareness, knowledge, and skills. For example, they stated that students can be encouraged to gain field internship experiences as local international-focused sites and abroad. One limitation of the way that the recommendations are organized, however, is
that it does not provide a way of determining to what extent an international perspective is infused throughout U.S. counseling psychology training programs. For example, if a counseling program provides students with an opportunity to participate in an international immersion experience, then this experience will most likely increase motivation, awareness, knowledge, and skills related to international counseling.

Nonetheless, the existence of a single opportunity for counseling psychologists to counsel abroad does not necessarily imply that international training is being infused throughout the program.

To understand how international training could be infused throughout counseling psychology training programs, it is helpful to review the way that multicultural learning is infused throughout training programs. The APA specifically addressed six main areas in which counseling psychology programs can better prepare students to work with diverse populations (APA, 1997). These six areas included (1) the recruitment and training of culturally competent faculty, (2) the recruitment and training of culturally competent students, (3) promoting multicultural research, (4) demonstrating an institutional commitment to multicultural values, (5) incorporating specific multicultural learning opportunities in the curriculum, and (6) providing direct multicultural learning experiences through practica and internships. When preparing for accreditation visits, programs can specifically address the ways in which multicultural competencies are promoted within these areas. By defining these six areas, one can also better assess the extent to which international training opportunities are infused throughout the curriculum.
Recommendations for international training can thus be organized in a similar fashion. Whereas the goal is to promote motivation, awareness, knowledge, and skills related to international competencies, programs can organize such learning opportunities into the six aforementioned categories to ensure that this global perspective is being promoted throughout the training program. The following sections will outline recommendations for international training proposed by Ægisdóttir and Gerstein (2010), Leong and Ponterotto (2003), Marsella and Pedersen (2004), as well as others, within the six categories.

Faculty. Programs may increase contact with faculty and mental health professionals who have international experience as a way to provide international training opportunities. This may be accomplished by hiring international faculty (Marsella & Pedersen, 2004), by establishing a visiting international scholar program so that in any given year there is an international scholar participating as a program faculty member (Heppner, 2006; Pedersen, 1999), and by inviting international guest speakers to classrooms (Marsella & Pedersen, 2004). Additionally, students may be encouraged to interview international mental health professionals to learn more about course-related topics (Ægisdóttir & Gerstein, 2010). Programs may also develop regular communication opportunities with international faculty through distance education (Heppner, 2006; Leong, 2003; Marsella & Pedersen, 2004). Providing the aforementioned opportunities will provide trainees with international training opportunities by increasing their contact with professionals that have already demonstrated a commitment to international issues.
Faculty may also provide international training opportunities by encouraging students to engage in informal activities related to international topics. Specifically, faculty may encourage students to read literature, surf websites, watch movies, and see plays with an international theme (Gerstein & Ágísdóttir, 2007). Furthermore, faculty may encourage students to listen to international music, learn international dances, eat in ethnic restaurants, visit museums displaying artwork from around the world, visit local international neighborhoods, interact with international organizations on campus, and serve as a host family for international students and visitors (Gerstein & Ágísdóttir, 2007). Finally, instructors may also encourage students who have not traveled abroad to do so and to spend time specifically with local people (Gerstein & Ágísdóttir, 2007; Heppner, 2006). In these ways, U.S. counseling psychology trainees may be encouraged to increase motivation, awareness, knowledge, and skills related to international competencies.

Students. U.S. counseling psychology programs may promote international training opportunities by increasing contact with students who have international experiences and interests. Programs may achieve this aim by recruiting more international students (Gerstein & Ágísdóttir, 2007) and by recruiting students that have already traveled abroad (Pedersen, 1999). Programs may also reconsider requiring a foreign language competency (Heppner, 2006; Marsella & Pedersen, 2004; Pedersen, 1999). Furthermore, programs may develop regular communication opportunities with international students through distance education (Heppner, 2006; Leong, 2003; Marsella & Pedersen, 2004).
Students with international experiences and interests may serve as resources within the classroom setting. They may be encouraged to critically evaluate the usefulness of certain theories abroad and serve as resources within the classroom setting (Ægisdóttir & Gerstein, 2010). By increasing contact with students who have international backgrounds and interests, students who have not had international experiences are provided with opportunities to learn about international issues.

**Research.** International training opportunities may be promoted through research methodology and topics. Programs may challenge students to think about the appropriateness of certain research methodology when conducting research abroad, as well stress the dangers of instrumental biases in international research (Ægisdóttir, Gerstein, & Çinarbas, 2008). Furthermore, programs may encourage the use of cross-cultural research methods and qualitative methods that may be more culturally appropriate (Marsella & Pedersen, 2004). Programs may also encourage students to conduct research on immigrant U.S. populations (Heppner, 2006). Additionally, universities may form collaborative training and research programs with foreign universities. Faculty may encourage international collaboration through web-based conferencing, chat rooms, and message boards (Gerstein & Ægisdóttir, 2007; Ægisdóttir & Gerstein, 2010). Thus, encouraging internationally competent researchers is another way to provide international training opportunities.

**Institutional Commitment.** U.S. counseling psychology programs may also provide international training opportunities by demonstrating a commitment to training internationally competent counseling psychologists. Departments of psychology may adapt their mission statements to explicitly reflect a commitment to international learning
(Marsella & Pedersen, 2004). Programs may also engage in practices that encourage students’ motivation to learn about global citizenship, such as through providing certificates in cross-cultural training and understanding (Marsella & Pedersen, 2004) and providing awards to recognize outstanding international accomplishments (Gerstein & Ægisdóttir, 2007). Departments may also demonstrate their commitment to international learning by celebrating the missions and contributions of international organizations through displays (Marsella & Pedersen, 2004). Additionally, departments may encourage interest in international training by providing financial support for those students participating in international exchanges (Leong & Ponterotto, 2003).

Programs may also express a commitment to international training by providing semi-structured learning opportunities. Programs may host international days on campus and within departments (Gerstein & Ægisdóttir, 2007), and promote learning opportunities with international students on campus (Heppner, 2006). Other semi-structured activities that departments may host on-campus include roundtable discussions, conversation hours, brown-bag lunches, potluck meals, poster and paper presentations, and symposiums (Gerstein & Ægisdóttir, 2007). Additionally, students and faculty may be encouraged to form multidisciplinary learning communities on global problems. Finally, departments may encourage off-campus learning opportunities as well, including workshops, seminars, and international travel to conferences (Gerstein & Ægisdóttir, 2007; Pedersen, 1999).

Curriculum. International training opportunities may be provided in U.S. counseling psychology training programs by integrating global topics into the curriculum. Programs may include an international section in course syllabus (Ægisdóttir & Gerstein,
2009). For example, coursework may address international topics through term papers and collaborative class projects (Ægisdóttir & Gerstein, 2010). Additionally, programs may offer a course in global and international topics (Heppner, 2006). An international perspective may also be infused throughout the curriculum. For example, when discussing psychopathology, instructors may promote an understanding of ethnic, cultural and international variations in psychopathology, especially the culture-bound disorders (Marsella & Pedersen, 2003; Ægisdóttir & Gerstein, 2010).

Promoting a multidisciplinary approach is another way in which U.S. counseling psychology programs can provide international training opportunities. Courses may incorporate publications in cultural anthropology, political science, linguistics, and other fields that historically have embraced a more global perspective (Ægisdóttir & Gerstein, 2010). Courses may also include social justice, equity, and universal human rights issues and concerns. Additionally, students may be encouraged to study alternative intellectual perspectives, such as post-modernism, social constructivism, feminist theory and cultural stress theories (Ægisdóttir & Gerstein, 2010).

Programs may also integrate international training opportunities by incorporating international readings such as journals, literature, and books authored by non-Americans into the curriculum at all levels (Pedersen, 1999). Specifically, students may be encouraged to read journals such as *The Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, *The European Psychologist*, *The European Journal of Psychological Assessment*, and *International Journal of Psychology* (Gerstein & Ægisdóttir, 2007; Ægisdóttir & Gerstein, 2010). By integrating international issues into the curriculum, students may
better understand the psychological consequences of world citizenship (Heppner, 2006; Marsella & Pedersen, 2004).

*Practica and Internships.* International training may be promoted through U.S. counseling psychology practica and internships. U.S. counseling psychology programs may promote internship experiences at local international-focused sites within the U.S. (Pedersen, 1999; Ægisdóttir & Gerstein, 2010) and also abroad (Douce, 2004; Marsella & Pedersen, 2004; Pedersen, 1999). Additionally, programs may promote internship applications to non-conventional training settings such as refugee camps, disaster settings, homeless shelters, street gangs, slums, and impoverished villages (Marsella & Pedersen, 2004). Programs may offer course credit for brief immersion programs (e.g., two weeks), and also for more extensive immersion programs (e.g., one semester) (Gerstein & Ægisdóttir, 2007). By providing trainees with opportunities to work with international populations, programs are thereby promoting an international perspective.

*Current International Training Opportunities*

Several recommendations have been proposed for providing U.S. counseling psychology trainees with opportunities to develop international competencies. Limited evidence suggests that some U.S. programs are, in fact, promoting international competencies specifically through international immersion programs. The following section provides a brief description of these international immersion programs and their reported outcomes. Additionally, the findings from Turner-Essel and Waehler’s (2009) study examining international training opportunities will be discussed.

International collaboration between faculty at the University of Missouri-Columbia (MU) and National Taiwan Normal University (NTNU) has resulted in a two-
week Bi-directional Cross-Cultural Immersion Program (BCCIP) for counseling students and faculty (Wang & Heppner, 2009). The authors stated that the purpose of the BCCIP is to (a) promote cross-cultural awareness, knowledge, and skills by providing an opportunity to live and study in another culture, (b) promote personal and professional cross-cultural relationships among students and faculty, and (c) establish a long-term professional collaboration between MU and NTNU. Reported outcomes of past BCCIPs included increased cross-cultural sensitivity, enhanced self-awareness in relation to cultural contexts, increased knowledge and appreciation for one another’s cultures, and increased cross-cultural skills for participants (University of Missouri Center for Multicultural Research, Training and Consultation, 2009). Additionally, many students reported that the experience was a powerful one that significantly impacted their worldview and career goals. MU and NTNU also offer a dual Master’s degree in which students spend two years studying at their home university and one year studying at the host university (Wang & Heppner, 2009). Clearly, such initiatives promote international competencies.

The counseling psychology doctoral program at the University of Albany-State University of New York (SUNY) and the Post-Graduate Program in Family Interventions at the Universidad de La Coruña, Spain have also developed a bilateral exchange program for students (Friedlander, Carranza, & Guzman, 2002). This partnership was created to foster international ties between the two universities and to enhance cross-cultural and bilingual therapy skills through both short-term and long-term exchanges. U.S. students attend workshops and seminars, observe and conduct family therapy under supervision, and assist with research while abroad. In Albany, Spanish students attend
courses in counseling psychology, clinical psychology, school psychology, or social work, and may also complete a counseling practicum. Friedlander et al. (2002) observed that the students gain a new perspective on cultural diversity through the Albany-Spain exchange, enhance their sensitivity to bias and oppression through the minority experience, and learn to integrate the strengths from practices in both countries to develop a consolidated counseling theory. Friedlander et al. (2002) further observed that the exchange program has not only benefitted the students participating, but that the program has also renewed enthusiasm for cross-cultural competence within the entire program. Additionally, the counseling psychology doctoral program at University at Albany-SUNY provides students with the opportunity to collaborate with colleagues in Portugal, and Trinidad and Tobago (University at Albany Division of Counseling Psychology, 2009a; 2009b). Such evidence suggests that the counseling psychology doctoral program at University at Albany-SUNY is promoting international competencies.

Ball State University also offers immersion experiences for graduate credit in counseling psychology to South Africa, Trinidad, and St. Lucia (C. Alexander, personal communication, March 15, 2009). Alexander, Kruczek, and Ponterotto (2005) described an international immersion experience to Trinidad for a group of U.S. counseling students. Over the course of three weeks, participants gained direct experience working in an international school setting and received feedback from both the host guidance counselor and the U.S. instructor for the course. Specific goals for this exchange were to (a) develop multicultural awareness, knowledge, and cross-counseling skills in counseling students, (b) develop a school counseling
curriculum that was internationally relevant, and (c) promote an international exchange of ideas on mental health. The authors suggested that this approach enhanced counselor trainees’ awareness of cross-cultural issues and encouraged them to examine the assumptions that guided their behavior, attitudes, and insights in counseling. Such opportunities to develop international competencies suggest that Ball State University is also providing international training opportunities.

The Fordham University counseling psychology program offers a multicultural counseling course in Orvieto, Italy every summer as well. Students engage in experiential activities, small group exercises, and analysis of multicultural counseling cases (J. Fueres, personal communication, March 5, 2007, as cited in Heppner et al., 2008a). No additional information regarding the outcome of this exchange program, however, is available.

Observations from leaders and participants of the immersion experiences described above suggest that these programs do indeed promote international training by providing students with the opportunity to increase their motivation, awareness, knowledge, and skills related to international competencies. Nonetheless, one major limitation of this literature is that the aforementioned outcomes rely on anecdotal evidence rather than empirical research. None of these publications systematically examined these gains through pre-test/post-test measures.

Their observations, however, are consistent with the research that has examined the impact of international immersion experiences for social workers. Several social work programs have integrated study abroad experiences into the curriculum as a way to promote cultural competency. For example, Boyle, Nackerud, and Kilpatrick (1999)
examined the impact of an international social work exchange program on multicultural learning for a group of 18 participants. Participants were given pre-post tests of the Multicultural Counseling Awareness Scale form B (MCAS:B). Results suggested that participants’ cultural competence increased as a result of this experience. Similarly, Krajewski-Jaime, Brown, Ziefert, and Kaufman (1996) examined the impact of a six-week international immersion program on intercultural sensitivity for a group of undergraduate social work students. Participants were asked to set goals related to cultural learning before the immersion experience and to chart their progress along the dimensions of denial, defense, minimization, acceptance, adaptation, and integration. Results suggested that most students attained their respective goals. Such results are unsurprising when one considers that counselors most frequently describe field experiences as being highly influential in their professional development (Furr & Carroll, 2003).

Although the social work research suggests that immersion programs do provide students the opportunity to develop international competencies, U.S. counseling psychology training programs should be reluctant to rely solely on immersion programs for providing international training opportunities. Logistical and financial barriers often limit the number of students who can participate in such programs, and those that do commit the time and resources to an international experience may already have an interest in working internationally (Turner-Essel & Waehler, 2009). Whereas international immersion experiences do appear to be an excellent way to enhance cross-cultural motivation, awareness, knowledge, and skills for those that participate, U.S.
counseling psychology training programs should strive to incorporate other opportunities so that all students have the opportunity to develop international competencies.

Several recommendations have been made for incorporating international training opportunities within U.S. counseling psychology programs, and yet little is known about the actual opportunities that are being provided. Heppner et al. (2008a) stated that few major U.S. institutions currently support the internationalizing of the profession. Furthermore, Heppner et al. (2008b) asserted that counseling students are not being trained to practice and promote mental health on an international level. Similarly, Leung (2003) claimed that U.S. graduate students can receive a Ph.D. in counseling psychology without ever reading an article about counseling published outside of the U.S, and Gerstein and Ægisdóttir (2007) stated that counselors from the U.S. remain at a disadvantage for learning about psychology beyond U.S. borders. This information suggests that international training opportunities within counseling psychology training programs may be few and far between.

Turner-Essel and Waehler (2009) conducted the only study that examines the ways in which U.S. counseling psychology training programs provide students with international training opportunities. They surveyed training directors of APA-accredited counseling psychology doctoral programs (N = 47) and reported that more than one-half of the respondents indicated that international issues were incorporated into their respective programs by including international issues as part of multiculturalism (70.2%), promoting travel to international conferences (71.1%), incorporating non-American reading into the curriculum (59.5%), and by considering international experience as somewhat important or extremely important in the admissions process (89.2%). Less than
one-half of the respondents indicated that international learning was incorporated through training experiences with an international focus (45.5%), inviting international guests (41.6%), offering international exchanges (4.4%), and requiring foreign language competency (0%). This study was an important preliminary step in examining available international training opportunities, but a few notable limitations of their study need to be addressed. One limitation was that their study only utilized Leong and Ponterotto’s (2003) eight recommendations for internationalizing counseling psychology programs. To gain a more accurate assessment of the ways in which programs are promoting international competencies, more of the recommendations that have been proposed for internationalizing the curriculum need to be utilized (e.g., Marsella & Pedersen, 2004; Ægisdóttir & Gerstein, 2010).

Furthermore, Turner-Essel and Waehler (2009) utilized a yes/no response format in their survey. This response format is problematic because it does not allow one to distinguish between the varying degrees for the endorsement of items. For example, sending an e-mail about an international conference and providing financial support to an international conference may both qualify as “promoting international conferences,” but clearly to a different extent. Thus, future studies should provide a finer way of discriminating the data, such as through a Likert-type response format.

Another limitation of Turner-Essel and Waehler’s (2009) study was that they relied only on training directors to assess the availability of international training opportunities within programs. While training directors would ideally be familiar with the international training opportunities being provided within their programs, past research on multicultural training opportunities suggest that faculty and students may perceive the
availability of training opportunities differently. Constantine et al. (1996) examined students’ perceptions of multicultural training in counseling psychology programs using the Multicultural Competency Checklist (Ponterotto, Alexander, & Grieger, 1995; MCC). Prior to this study, only faculty had been asked to respond to the MCC (Quintana & Bernal, 1995). Constantine et al. (1996) then reported student responses on the MCC and compared them to faculty responses on the MCC from a concurrent study (Ponterotto, 1996). Results from Constantine et al.’s (1996) study suggested that faculty perceived more multicultural training opportunities than students in several areas. Sixty-two percent of faculty reported that their program had one or more multicultural courses that were recommended or required, but only 42% of students agreed with this statement. Similarly, 58% of faculty reported that multicultural issues were integrated into all coursework, whereas only 49% of students agreed with this statement. Faculty rated their programs higher in other areas as well. Faculty reported that multicultural issues were an important component of clinical supervision more so than students (73% vs. 63%), faculty reported that there was clear faculty research productivity in multicultural issues more so than students (83% vs. 65%), and faculty reported that students were mentored in multicultural research more so than students (80% vs. 65%). Students, however, agreed to the statement that at least 30% of the students were racial minorities more so than faculty (54% vs. 33%). Overall, it is evident that a discrepancy clearly exists between faculty and student responses.

There are several potential explanations for this discrepancy. One potential reason for this difference is that faculty may simply be over-reporting multicultural training opportunities. Another possibility is that the multicultural opportunities do exist, but there
is a gap in communication and students are not properly informed of them. Yet another possibility for the results is related to the sampling of students and faculty. Namely, because the responses from students and faculty were not matched within programs, it is possible that more faculty from programs that incorporated multicultural training opportunities responded to the survey whereas more students from programs that incorporated fewer multicultural training opportunities responded to the survey. Future research should thus match students and faculty within programs to clarify this matter.

In summary, the literature suggests that some U.S. counseling psychology programs are offering international training opportunities, specifically through immersion programs. Additionally, Turner-Essel and Waehler’s (2009) study suggested that other international training opportunities were present within programs (e.g., incorporating international issues as part of multiculturalism). Nonetheless, as Constantine et al.’s (1996) study has shown, there is a possibility that faculty and students may perceive training opportunities differently. Furthermore, whereas it appears that at least some U.S. faculty members and students of counseling psychology are interested in international training opportunities, the overall level of support for internationalizing U.S. counseling psychology programs remains unknown. Thus, it is also important to address reasons why counseling psychologists may be reluctant to promote international training opportunities in counseling psychology programs.

**Challenges**

Incorporating international training opportunities into counseling psychology programs is not without its challenges. Many possible explanations exist as to why the U.S. counseling profession might remain culturally encapsulated (Wrenn, 1962).
Logistical, personal, professional, and political factors have been identified as challenges to transcending national borders of the counseling profession (Gerstein & Ægisdóttir, 2007; Heppner et al., 2008a; Marsella & Pedersen, 2004). Many U.S. counseling psychologists have pointed to the inherent difficulty in initiating international contacts because of geographical barriers, the cost of international travel, and language barriers that hinder international collaboration (Gerstein & Ægisdóttir, 2007). Gerstein et al. (2009) stated that the relative geographic isolation of the U.S. has put U.S. counseling professionals at a disadvantage for internationalization. In other areas of the world, such as Europe, internationalization is commonplace because of the fluid borders. Namely, mental health professionals frequently travel from country to country, as well as speak multiple languages. Nonetheless, it has been proposed that there are more barriers to internationalizing U.S. counseling psychology than those that are associated with logistical concerns.

Some U.S. counseling psychologists have suggested that ethnocentrism, xenophobia, and difficulty accepting others’ worldviews also may contribute to a lack of international collaboration (Heppner, 2006). Others have speculated that counseling psychologists may be fearful that studying non-U.S. populations might “weaken” the profession by making it appear as if counseling psychology is “invalid, biased, and possibly destructive” (Marsella & Pedersen, 2004, p. 415). Similarly, some counseling psychologists have hypothesized that U.S. counseling psychologists may be reluctant to give up their status as experts by learning from international colleagues (Pedersen, 2003). The tension between the multicultural movement and the international movement has been cited as yet another challenge to internationalization. More specifically, one concern
has been that an international focus will take resources away from a multicultural focus (Heppner et al., 2009). For example, some fear that working abroad with people in Mexico would be highly regarded whereas working with Mexican-Americans would be shunned (Gerstein et al., 2009). Finally, it has been argued that counseling psychologists may be apprehensive because U.S. international efforts could be perceived as a form of neocolonialism in which the U.S. exerts influence for political gain (Varenne, 2003).

Turner-Essel and Waehler (2009) surveyed directors ($N = 47$) of counseling psychology training programs and identified four major obstacles to providing international training opportunities. They found that financial difficulties for students (81.0%), financial difficulties for faculty (73.8%), time restraints for faculty (42.9%) and the logistics of traveling abroad (35.7%) were the main obstacles to incorporating an international opportunities. Other obstacles included time restraints for students (19.1%), lack of faculty interest (11.9%), difficulty in finding international readings (9.5%), lack of student interest (7.1%), no perceived need to incorporate an international perspective (2.4%), and other obstacles not previously mentioned (11.9%). It is important to note, however, that although many of these obstacles are linked to traveling abroad, a number of the recommendations provided for incorporating international training opportunities do not require travel. This suggests that another current obstacle may be that U.S. counseling psychologists are unaware of how to incorporate international opportunities in the training curriculum.

A limitation of Turner-Essel and Waehler’s (2009) research regarding the challenges of incorporating international training opportunities is that they did not assess attitudes toward internationalization. As previously stated, it is unclear whether the
majority of U.S. counseling psychologists are in support of internationalization although many observations have been made both in support of and against internationalization. Further, it is unclear whether faculty and students are equally supportive of internationalization. Gerstein and Ægisdóttir (2007) observed that students have shown interest in collaborating with international colleagues, in training and consulting experience overseas, in conducting cross-culturally valid research, and developing a better knowledge base and appreciation for international cultures and counseling. Gerstein and Ægisdóttir’s (2007) observation suggests that U.S. counseling psychology trainees may strongly favor internationalization efforts.

Attitudes toward internationalization within U.S. counseling psychology programs may be important for several reasons. According to the Theory of Reasoned Action (Azjen & Fishbein, 1980), one’s behavioral intention to engage in a behavior is determined by a person’s attitude towards the behavior as well as subjective norms (i.e., expectations of others regarding the behavior). Furthermore, this relationship is moderated by the importance of one’s personal attitude and subjective norms regarding the behavior. Thus, if a person has a positive attitude toward a behavior, and if s/he thinks that others want him/her to perform the behavior, then this results in an increased likelihood that the person will have greater intentions of performing the behavior, although the importance of personal and subjective norms will also be a factor. The relationship between attitudes and subjective norms in assessing behavioral intention, subsequently predicting behavior has been found in numerous studies (Sheppard, Hartwick, & Warshaw, 1988).
The Theory of Reasoned Action can thus be applied to better understand internationalization efforts in counseling psychology programs. As previously discussed, no studies thus far have measured training directors’ attitudes toward internationalizing U.S. counseling psychology programs. Because this is an important factor in determining behavioral intentions to internationalize, attitudes of training directors need to be examined.

Additionally, the current literature is unclear regarding the overall support, or subjective norms, toward internationalizing U.S. counseling psychology programs. By providing a clearer understanding of subjective norms, behavioral intentions to internationalize counseling psychology programs could potentially be impacted. For example, if the majority of counseling psychologists are in support of internationalization, it is likely that those responsible for programs will have greater behavioral intentions to provide international training opportunities. Similarly, if there are overall negative attitudes toward internationalization, then it is likely that those responsible for training programs will have less behavioral intention in providing international training opportunities. Yet another factor that may contribute to subjective norms toward internationalizing U.S. counseling psychology programs is doctoral students’ attitudes. While there have been inconsistent reports hypothesizing faculty members’ attitudes toward internationalization, it has been suggested that students are receptive to the idea (Gerstein and Ægisdóttir, 2007). Thus, it is possible that if a positive attitude toward internationalization is a subjective norm among counseling psychology students, then this could also increase the likelihood of behavioral intentions to
internationalize programs. To this extent, it is important to know both training directors’ and doctoral students’ attitudes toward internationalization, and whether they differ.

It is important to note that although transcending national borders in the field of counseling psychology may be a formidable task, it is not an impossible one. Many professions are overcoming such challenges to collaborate on an international level. The National Board of Certified Counselors (NBCC), which is a national certification organization, has taken steps toward acknowledging the increasingly globalized context. The NBCC-International (NBCC-I) was established in 2003 to acknowledge counseling needs throughout the world (Gerstein et al., 2009). It has collaborated with the World Health Organization (WHO) in providing relief services, such as those needed in the wake of the Southeast Asia tsunami of 2004.

The profession of social work provides another example. The International Federation of Social Workers (IFSW) formed in 1956, currently boasts 745,000 members and 90 national chapters (IFSW, 2009). Moreover, the IFSW recently collaborated with the International Association of Schools of Social Work (IASSW) to adopt an international definition of social work in response to the current globalized context. This international definition stated,

“The social work profession promotes social change, problem solving in human relationships and the empowerment and liberation of people to enhance well-being. Utilising theories of human behaviour and social systems, social work intervenes at the points where people interact with their environments. Principles of human rights and social justice are fundamental to social work” (Sewpaul & Jones, 2004, p. 22).
The IFSW and IASSW asserted that an international definition was needed in order to adapt to an increasingly globalized society, to protect international consumers of social work services worldwide, to help social workers move internationally, and to facilitate international partnership and exchange programs (Sewpaul & Jones, 2004). Additionally, the sole accreditation body for social work, the Council on Social Work Education (CSWE), now requires that all baccalaureate and Master’s level social work programs include an international learning component in the curriculum (CSWE, 2008). Such evidence suggests that it is, in fact, possible for mental health professionals to succeed internationally despite the aforementioned challenges in doing so.

Summary

In summary, this chapter first presented a historical overview of U.S. counseling psychology’s successes and failures in working with culturally diverse populations. This history clearly demonstrated that international training needs to be a prerequisite to international action. Furthermore, this history was conceptualized within Wilber’s (2000) developmental worldview paradigm to suggest that the U.S. field of counseling psychology originated with an ethnocentric worldview, currently embraces a multicultural worldview, and has the potential to progress to a global worldview. It was also suggested that if counseling psychology in the U.S. is to progress to this higher level of awareness, then all U.S. counseling psychologists need to be provided with opportunities to develop an international perspective. Next, it was recommended in this chapter that U.S. counseling psychology programs achieve this aim by providing opportunities for students to enhance motivation, awareness, knowledge, and skills related to international competencies. Specific, concrete recommendations for enhancing
these competencies throughout U.S. counseling psychology programs were provided. Finally, this chapter suggested that the ways in which U.S. counseling psychology programs offer international training opportunities needs to be further examined, as do counseling psychologists’ attitudes towards internationalization.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

Based on the aforementioned review, the following research questions and hypotheses were proposed.

1. *Is there a difference in the number of international learning opportunities being provided in U.S. counseling psychology doctoral programs in 2010 compared to those being provided in 2007 as reported by training directors of U.S. counseling psychology doctoral programs?* Based on the increased number of publications supporting internationalization in counseling psychology (e.g., Heppner et al., 2008; Ægisdóttir & Gerstein, 2010), it was expected that the number of opportunities being provided in 2010 compared to 2007 would have increased.

2. *Is there a difference between doctoral students in U.S. counseling psychology doctoral programs and training directors of U.S. counseling psychology doctoral programs in their perceptions of the extent to which international training opportunities are being provided in their training programs?* Based on Constantine et al.’s (1996) study examining differences in perceptions of the availability of multicultural training opportunities, it was predicted that training directors of U.S. counseling psychology doctoral programs would perceive international training opportunities integrated to a greater extent
compared to their doctoral students of U.S. counseling psychology doctoral programs.

3. *Is there a difference between doctoral students in U.S. counseling psychology doctoral programs and training directors of U.S. counseling psychology doctoral programs in their attitudes toward internationalizing U.S. counseling psychology doctoral programs?* Because this research question had not been explored before, it was predicted that no difference would exist between graduate students and training directors of U.S. counseling psychology doctoral programs in their attitudes toward internationalizing U.S. counseling psychology programs.
Chapter III: Method

Participants

Participants included 31 training directors of APA-accredited counseling psychology doctoral programs and 111 counseling psychology doctoral students in 2010. The demographic information for training directors and doctoral students are discussed separately (See Table 1 for demographic information of participants). For the training director sample, the response sets of five training directors were excluded from analysis because the respondents failed to complete the survey. Additionally, two training directors completed the survey twice, and in this case their second response sets were deleted. The final sample consisted of 26 training directors, which yielded a response rate of 41.3% ($N = 63$). It should be noted that at the time of this study, there were 63 APA-accredited counseling psychology programs within the U.S. that were currently active. Thus, it was possible to receive 63 responses. Thirteen of the training directors that responded were men (50%) and thirteen were women (50%). Their mean age was 49.9 ($SD = 9.5$), ranging from 35 to 64 years. The sample was 73.1% Caucasian ($n = 19$), 3.8% African American/Black ($n = 1$), 7.7% Asian/Asian American/Pacific Islander ($n = 2$), 3.8% Hispanic/Latino ($n = 1$), and 11.5% Multiracial ($n = 3$). Two participants indicated that they were born in a country other than the U.S. (7.7%) (See Table 2 for country of origin information).
Within the doctoral student sample, the response sets of 26 doctoral students were excluded from analysis because the respondents failed to complete the survey. Additionally, two response sets were deleted because the doctoral students reported that they were affiliated with a non-APA accredited counseling psychology program. The final sample consisted of 83 doctoral students representing 22. This represented 34.9% of the eligible counseling psychology doctoral programs \((N = 63)\). The number of doctoral students that represented a given program ranged from 1 to 7, with a mean of 3.77 doctoral students responding per program. It was estimated that 83 doctoral students represented 4.15% of the total population of counseling psychology doctoral students \((N = 2000)\). The doctoral student sample was 68.7% Caucasian \((n = 57)\), 2.4% African American/Black \((n = 1)\), 7.2% Asian/Asian American/Pacific Islander \((n = 6)\), 10.8% Hispanic/Latino \((n = 9)\), 2.4% Middle Eastern/Middle Eastern American \((n = 2)\), and 8.4% Multiracial \((n = 7)\). Eleven participants reported that they were international students \((13.3\%)\).

Demographic information about the counseling psychology programs participating in the study was also collected. The number of counseling psychology doctoral students in departments ranged from 0 to 65 \((M = 41.5, SD = 11.64)\). The number of international students in counseling psychology programs, as reported by training directors \((n = 25)\), ranged from 0 to 20 \((M = 4.04, SD = 4.06)\). The mode was 3. Table 3 presents the frequencies of international students in programs.

The number of total faculty in counseling psychology programs, as reported by training directors \((n = 26)\), ranged from 4 to 11 \((M = 6.88, SD = 2.12)\). The number of international faculty ranged from 0 to 4 \((M = .69, SD = .88)\). The modes were 0 and 1,
respectively. Table 3 presents the frequencies of international faculty members and students in programs.

Measures

This study implemented a survey research design to explore the current status of international training opportunities in U.S. counseling psychology programs. A questionnaire was developed by the primary researcher based on the specific recommendations set forth by leaders of the international counseling psychology movement for internationalizing graduate programs. The questionnaire gathered (1) demographic information, (2) program demographic information, (3) current international training opportunities information as measured by a previous survey (Turner-Essel & Waehler, 2009), (4) current international training opportunities in the respondent’s counseling psychology training program based on more of the recommendations for internationalization, and (5) attitudes towards internationalization in counseling psychology training programs. The sections of the survey are outlined below.

Demographic information. All participants were asked to indicate their age, sex, ethnicity, country of origin, education level, affiliation with the university (e.g., training director or doctoral student), and the name of the university in which they were currently enrolled (see Appendix A for demographic form). Additionally, doctoral students were asked to indicate their year in the program.

Program demographic information. Training directors were also asked to provide more specific information about their program including the size of their program, the number of U.S. and international faculty in their program, as well as the number of U.S.
and international students in their doctoral program (see Appendix B for program demographic form).

*Current International Training Opportunities Survey.* Training directors were asked to respond to a section regarding current international training opportunities being provided in their program. This section of the questionnaire consisted of the eight items in the study conducted by Turner-Essel and Waehler (2009) to measure international training opportunities, which were based on Leong and Ponterotto’s (2008) recommendations (e.g., *Does your department offer a course specifically in global/international topics?*). The response format and wording of the items remained the same to ensure consistency between the previous study and the current study (see Appendix C for Current International Training Opportunities Survey).

*Perceptions of International Learning Opportunities Scale.* This section also assessed current international training opportunities, but expanded the scope to include more of the recommendations that have been made for internationalizing the curriculum. Both training directors and their doctoral students were asked to respond to this section. This section initially consisted of 35 items. Items were developed based on a literature review regarding recommendations for internationalizing U.S. counseling psychology programs. The proposed subscales, which were adapted from the APA’s (1997) six main areas in which counseling psychology programs can better prepare students to work with diverse populations, included (1) training and inclusion of internationally competent faculty (e.g., *Counseling psychology faculty members with international experience serve as resources for educating U.S.A. counseling psychology students about international topics*), (2) training and inclusion of internationally competent students (e.g., *Counseling
psychology students with international experience serve as resources for educating U.S.A. counseling psychology students about international topics), (3) promoting internationally relevant research (e.g., *My counseling psychology doctoral program collaborates with a non-U.S.A. institution in conducting research*), (4) institutional commitment for international training (e.g., *My doctoral program embraces a definition of multiculturalism that includes an international perspective*), (5) international curriculum initiatives (e.g., *My department offers specialization in cross-cultural training*), and (6) direct international training experiences (e.g., *Counseling psychology faculty members or doctoral students travel to international conferences*), as well as (7) overall perceptions of international learning initiatives (e.g., *My doctoral program is successful in providing international learning opportunities*). The response format was a Likert scale in which participants were asked to rate each item from (1) Not at all to (6) A Very Great Extent.

This section of the survey was sent to a jury panel consisting of three experts in the subject of international counseling psychology. Candidates for the jury panel were considered “experts” based on their contribution of three or more research publications in the area of international counseling psychology. Candidates were selected by the primary researcher and faculty advisor. The jury panel was asked to provide feedback on the content validity and overall usefulness of the survey for measuring internationalization efforts in counseling psychology training programs. To strengthen content validity, the jury panel was asked to include additional items that were relevant to potential international learning opportunities that were not previously mentioned in the survey. The jury panel was also asked to rate each item for clarity of wording on a 5-point Likert
scale ranging from (1) vague to (5) clear/concise. The mean rating for the items was 4.62 (SD = 1.22). This mean suggested that on average, jury panelists rated items as “somewhat clear” or “clear and concise.” The seven items that received less than a four were revised based on the feedback. One jury panelist submitted an additional item to include on the survey. Additionally, it was recommended by a jury panelist to include an “I don’t know” response option for participants. Thus, the final survey section consisted of 36 items and participants could respond to each item using the 6-point Likert scale described above, or they could respond “I don’t know” (see Appendix D for Perceptions of International Learning Opportunities Scale).

Because potential responses to this scale included not only the traditional Likert-type format, but also an “I don’t know” response option, the data was re-coded before calculating reliability statistics. More specifically, the “I don’t know” response was re-coded as missing data because it was a qualitatively different response than the Likert scale (i.e., measuring whether one knows the information compared to the degree to which one perceives an international opportunity to be present).

It is important to note that SPSS uses a listwise deletion procedure when calculating reliability statistics. Thus, if there is any missing data (i.e., “I don’t know”) in a participant’s responses, the entire response set is excluded from the analysis. For this reason, the sample size varied among the subscales when conducting the analyses. Sample sizes are reported in Table 3.

Cronbach’s alpha reliability coefficient for the total 36 items on the Perceptions of Internationalization Scale was .97. Cronbach’s alphas for the proposed subscales were as follows: .80 for Subscale 1 (Training and inclusion of internationally competent faculty),
.90 for Subscale 2 (*Training and inclusion of internationally competent students*), .76 for Subscale 3 (*Promoting internationally relevant research*), .91 for Subscale 4 (*Institutional commitment for international training*), .77 for Subscale 5 (*International curriculum initiatives*), .86 for Subscale 6 (*Direct international training experiences*), and .90 for Subscale 7 (*Overall perceptions of international initiatives*). Corrected item-total correlations ranged from .32 to .87. Because the reliability for all subscales was sufficiently high, all 36 items were retained. Potential scores for the total scale ranged from 36 to 216.

**Attitudes toward Internationalization.** Both training directors and doctoral students were asked to respond to this section. This section initially consisted of fifteen items that assessed general attitudes toward internationalizing counseling psychology doctoral programs. The following definition of internationalization was provided at the beginning of this measure: *Internationalization refers to the process of incorporating into the curriculum a range of intellectual and experiential activities designed to help individuals understand the cultural, social, and political systems of other nations and the interactions between them.* Examples of items included *U.S.A. counseling psychology programs have a responsibility to internationalize the curriculum* and *Counseling psychology students should be trained to address international issues.* Participants were asked to rate each item on a 6-point Likert scale ranging from (1) Strongly Disagree to (6) Strongly Agree. Eight items were positively-worded items and seven items were negatively-worded to minimize response bias. See Appendix E for Attitudes toward Internationalization Scale.
This section of the survey was also sent to the jury panel for review. Again, the jury panel was asked to provide feedback on the content validity and overall usefulness of the survey usefulness for measuring internationalization efforts in counseling psychology training programs. The jury panel was asked to rate each item for clarity of wording on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from (1) vague to (5) clear/concise. The mean rating for items on this scale was 4.98 (SD = 1.13). This mean suggested that on average, the items were rated by panelists as being “clear and concise.” One jury panelist responded that four of the items did not adequately measure an attitude and these items were thus eliminated.

Reliability analyses were conducted to examine the internal consistency of items on the attitudes measure. Cronbach’s alpha for the original 12 items was .91. Corrected item-total correlations for eleven of the items ranged from .59 to .79. The corrected item-total correlation for Item 66 (i.e., International issues are irrelevant to U.S.A. counseling psychology programs) was .25, which suggested that an individuals’ response to this item was not consistent with the individuals’ responses to the total scale. Because this item-total correlation was much lower than the others, it was eliminated. Cronbach’s alpha for the remaining eleven items was .93. Item and item-total statistics are reported in Table 4. Overall, these reliability results suggested that the attitude scale with eleven items demonstrated good internal consistency.

Additionally, a Pearson Correlation Matrix was conducted to examine the relationship between responses to the subscales and attitudes measure. This procedure was conducted separately for the training director sample and the doctoral student sample. For the training director sample, all correlations were significant (p < .01).
Correlations in responses to the subscales and attitudes scale were moderate and ranged from .45 to .75. The moderate correlations implied that to some extent, training directors who reported that international opportunities were available in one aspect of their program were likely to report that international opportunities were being provided in the other areas of their programs as well. The moderate correlations also implied that responses were adequately dissimilar, which suggested that the subscales were indeed measuring different aspects of internationalization. Furthermore, the moderate correlations in responses to the subscales and attitudes scale implied that those training directors who had positive attitudes toward internationalization were more likely to have international learning opportunities being provided in their programs.

For doctoral students, only correlations in responses to the subscales were significant \( (p < .01) \). Correlations in responses to the subscales were moderate and ranged from .49 to .80. The moderate correlations implied that to some extent, doctoral students who reported that international opportunities were available in one aspect of their program were likely to report that international opportunities were being provided in the other areas of their programs as well. Unlike training directors, however, responses to the attitude scale were not significantly correlated with responses to the subscales \( (p > .05) \). This implied that the attitudes of doctoral students toward internationalization were not associated with the international learning opportunities being provided in their program. See Table 5 for all the Pearson’s correlations discussed above.

Procedure

The primary researcher e-mailed all training directors of APA-accredited counseling psychology programs requesting their participation in the study (see Appendix
The e-mail included a brief description of the current study, a description of the incentive to participate, a link to the questionnaire on a website, and a request that training directors forward the e-mail to their doctoral students after they completed the survey. The stated purpose of the study was to gather participants’ views about their doctoral training program’s involvement in international learning opportunities. The incentive to participate for all involved was entry into a drawing in which respondents were eligible to receive one of six Amazon gift certificates: $30, $20, $20, $10, $10, and $10. There were two separate drawings (total of 12 gifts) for training directors and counseling students.

The survey was hosted on the Integrated Network Quizzing, Surveying, and Interactive Testing software (InQsit; Fortriede & Draper, 1996). Once participants clicked the link provided in the recruitment email, they were directed to an online consent form. This consent form informed participants that their participation was voluntary and anonymous, and that they could withdraw from the study at any time. Once participants agreed to the consent form, they were directed to the survey. The sections of the survey were administered in a counterbalanced order to minimize any ordering effect as a threat to internal validity. All data was coded to ensure confidentiality and no names were attached to the responses. However, participants who entered the drawing for gift cards were asked to e-mail their names to an e-mail address that was specifically created for the purpose of the gift card drawing.

Participants were not asked to provide their names for the purposes of this study, but responses were tracked by university name and affiliation in order to determine which
training directors needed to be contacted for a follow-up request. Participants who did not respond were e-mailed a reminder approximately two weeks later.

Training directors who did not respond to the first two e-mails received a follow-up questionnaire packet via postal mail approximately three weeks later (see Appendix G). This packet included a cover letter with the same information that was previously sent via e-mail, a hard copy of the questionnaire for participants to complete, and a self-addressed stamped envelope to return the questionnaire once was completed.

Because of the low response rate, a request was then sent to all training directors of APA-accredited counseling psychology programs via listserv. In a final attempt to increase response rates, the primary researcher’s faculty advisor e-mailed training directors asking for their participation.
Chapter IV: Results

This chapter is divided into three sections to discuss the results of each of the three proposed research questions separately. Within each section, the rationale for the statistical analysis is given, and both descriptive and inferential statistics related to the research questions are reported.

2007 and 2010 International Training Opportunities

The first research question was: *Is there a difference in the number of international learning opportunities being provided in U.S. counseling psychology doctoral programs in 2010 compared to those being provided in 2007 as reported by training directors of U.S. counseling psychology doctoral programs?* Hypothesis #1 was that the number of international opportunities being provided in 2010 compared to 2007 would have increased.

To answer this research question, Turner-Essel and Waehler’s (2009) survey data from 2007 was compared with survey data from the current study that was conducted in 2010. First, descriptive statistics were examined to determine whether any trends could be observed in responses from 2007 and 2010. Because more training directors in 2007 (*n* = 46) completed the survey than in the current study conducted in 2010 (*n* = 26), the relative frequencies that an item was endorsed within a given year were examined, as well as the actual frequencies. Relative frequencies referred to the percentage of
respondents within a specific category (i.e., year 2007 or 2010) who responded positively to an item. For example, if 23 of the 46 respondents in 2007 reported that a specific international opportunity was present, then the relative frequency would be 50.0%. If 23 of the 26 respondents in 2010 reported that a specific international training opportunity was present, then the relative frequency would be 88.9%.

For six of the eight items in Turner-Essel and Waehler’s (2009) study, the descriptive data suggested that a higher percentage of training directors in 2010 compared to 2007 positively endorsed items about the presence of international learning opportunities. More specifically, 70.2% of training directors in 2007 reported that internationalism was being included in their definition of multiculturalism compared to 92.3% in 2010. While not significant, similar results were obtained regarding the incorporation of non-American readings into the curriculum (59.8% in 2007 vs. 80.8% in 2010), and for the inclusion of training with an international focus (45.5% in 2007 vs. 65.4% in 2010). Increases in the presence of other international training opportunities were also found (i.e., promoting international conferences, inviting international guests, providing an international exchange program within the department), but to a lesser degree.

As previously mentioned, increases in percentages from 2007 to 2010 regarding the presence of international opportunities occurred for only six of the eight survey items. One exception to this trend was that a smaller percentage of training directors reported that international experience was considered important in admissions decisions in 2010 (69.2%) compared to 2007 (89.2%). Additionally, no training directors in 2007 or in
2010 reported that students were required to take a foreign language course as part of their training.

Chi-square tests of independence were conducted for seven of the items in Turner-Essel and Waehler’s (2009) survey to examine the impact of the independent variable of time (2007 and 2010) on the dependent variable (presence of international learning opportunities). An analysis was not conducted for one of the items (i.e., Are your graduate students required to take a foreign language course/sequence as part of their training?) because no respondents positively endorsed this item. Responses to five of the seven items met all the assumptions associated with the Pearson’s chi-square test. Responses to two of the seven items (i.e., Is international experience considered an important part of admissions and Does your department offer an international exchange?) violated an assumption associated with the Pearson’s chi-square test. Namely, responses to these two items had a cell count of less than five. Because of this violation, the significance for Fisher’s Exact Test was reported for these two items rather than the significance for the Pearson’s chi-square test.

Of the seven chi-square tests conducted, only one test was significant. A higher percentage of training directors in 2010 (92.3%) compared to 2007 (70.2%) reported that internationalism was being included in their definition of multiculturalism. Thus, it was concluded that internationalism was being incorporated into multiculturalism more often in 2010 compared to 2007 ($\chi^2 = 4.78$, $p < .05$). For the six other aspects of internationalization, it was concluded that no differences existed between the presence of international training opportunities in 2007 and 2010. Table 6 presents the complete results of the chi-square analyses.
The second research question was: *Is there a difference between doctoral students in U.S. counseling psychology doctoral programs and training directors of U.S. counseling psychology doctoral programs in their perceptions of the extent to which international training opportunities are being provided in their training programs?*

Hypothesis #2 was that training directors of U.S. counseling psychology doctoral programs would perceive international training opportunities integrated to a greater extent compared to doctoral students of U.S. counseling psychology doctoral programs.

Data from the Perceptions of International Learning Opportunities Scale was used to explore this research question. Because respondents could answer “I don’t know” or they could rate the extent to which an opportunity was present (i.e., Likert scale 1 to 6), the frequencies of responses for training directors and doctoral students were first examined. This was necessary because the “I don’t know” response could not be incorporated into a mean response, but was nonetheless important information regarding whether perceptions of international learning opportunities differed between doctoral students and training directors.

The relative frequencies of training directors’ and doctoral students’ responses to the Perceptions of International Learning Opportunities subscales are reported in Table 7. The relative frequencies were used rather than the actual number of times that a response was endorsed to compensate for the different sample sizes. Figure 2 further aids in the interpretation of Table 7 in comparing the relative frequencies of responses for training directors and doctoral students by organizing their responses into three categories: (1) The presence of an international learning opportunity is unknown (i.e., item responses of 1...
don’t know), (2) the presence of an international learning opportunity is known, but not present (i.e., item responses of 1), and (3) the presence of an international learning opportunity is known and present (i.e., item responses of 2-6).

Certain trends emerged in the responses to the seven subscales (Subscale 1: Training and inclusion of internationally competent faculty; Subscale 2: Training and inclusion of internationally competent students; Subscale 3: Promoting internationally relevant research; Subscale 4: Institutional commitment for international training; Subscale 5: International curriculum initiatives; Subscale 6: Direct international training experiences; Subscale 7: Overall perceptions of international learning initiatives). Both training directors and doctoral students most frequently responded that they knew international learning opportunities were present to some degree (i.e., from rarely to a very great extent). The relative frequency of this response for training directors ranged from 66.9% to 91.5% within subscales. For doctoral students, the relative frequency of this response ranged from 65.9% to 86.8%. Training directors and doctoral students least frequently responded that they were uncertain whether international opportunities were present (i.e., I don’t know). Training directors endorsed this response 13.8% of the time or less within subscales and doctoral students endorsed this response no more than 16.9% of the time.

Although training directors and doctoral students endorsed an “I don’t know” response within subscales less so than the other two categories, the greatest disparity between training directors’ and doctoral students’ responses was present in this category. More specifically, doctoral students responded “I don’t know” more frequently than training directors for five of the seven subscales (Subscale 1: Training and inclusion of
internationally competent faculty; Subscale 3: Promoting internationally relevant research; Subscale 4: Institutional commitment for international training; Subscale 5: International curriculum initiatives; Subscale 6: Direct international training experiences).

The greatest disparity in training directors’ and doctoral students’ responses occurred specifically for Subscale 3: Promoting internationally relevant research (e.g., *My counseling psychology department collaborates with a non-U.S.A. university in conducting research*). Doctoral students responded “I don’t know” 16.9% of the time, while training directors responded “I don’t know” 3.9% of the time. More specifically, 31.3% of doctoral students responded that they were uncertain whether their department collaborated with a non-U.S.A. university in conducting research. Furthermore, 36.1% of doctoral students responded that they were uncertain whether the counseling psychology faculty members in their department submitted or published articles in non-U.S.A. journals.

The second greatest disparity occurred with responses to Subscale 4: Institutional commitment for international training (e.g., *My department supports students conducting research with non-U.S.A. populations*). Doctoral students responded “I don’t know” 13.2% of the time while training directors responded “I don’t know” 6.9% of the time. More specifically, 31.3% of doctoral students reported that they were uncertain whether their department offered awards for international accomplishments or whether their department supported students conducting research with non-U.S.A. populations. For the three other subscales in which doctoral students responded “I don’t know” more
frequently than training directors, the difference in relative frequencies ranged from 3.8% to 4.6%.

For two of the subscales, training directors responded “I don’t know” more frequently than doctoral students did. Within Subscale 2: Training and inclusion of internationally competent students (e.g., Students in my program are encouraged to be involved with international students on campus, such as through workshops, discussion, etc.), training directors responded “I don’t know” (5.4%) slightly more often compared to doctoral students (4.1%). Within Subscale 7: Overall Perceptions of International Learning (e.g., Students will be knowledgeable about mental health issues in countries other than the U.S.A. by the time that they graduate from our doctoral program), training directors responded “I don’t know” 13.8% of the time while doctoral students responded in this way only 2.2% of the time. Thus, this aspect of internationalization was the one in which training directors responded that they were least familiar. More specifically, 28.1% of training directors responded that they were uncertain whether their doctoral students would be knowledgeable about the ways that counseling is practiced outside of the U.S.A. by the time that they graduate. Training directors were equally uncertain whether their students would be aware of the ways that counseling psychologists could contribute to positive social change outside of the U.S.A. by the time that they graduate from their program.

Some disparity also existed in how often training directors and doctoral students reported that international opportunities were not present as measured by the seven subscales, but no clear trends emerged. Doctoral students responded that opportunities were not present more often than training directors for Subscales 1 (i.e., inclusion of
internationally competent faculty), 2 (i.e., inclusion of internationally competent students), 6 (i.e., direct international experiences), and 7 (i.e., overall international learning opportunities). The greatest differences were found between training directors’ and doctoral students’ responses to Subscale 2 and Subscale 6. The opposite trend was found for Subscales 3 (i.e., promoting internally relevant research), 4 (institutional commitment for internationalization), and 5 (international curriculum initiatives).

To further examine differences between training directors and doctoral students in their perceptions of international learning opportunities, mean scores were calculated for the two groups. For missing data (i.e., *I don’t know* responses), mean replacements were used. This procedure was done to ensure that the same number of responses was used to calculate the raw subscale scores. The mean replacement value was calculated by finding the individual’s score within a given subscale.

It should be noted that although raw scores were used in the data analyses, the mean item scores for each subscale were reported rather than the raw scores to aid in the interpretation of findings. Namely, this allowed for better interpretation of the subscale scores on the Likert response format and also compensated for the different number of items on each scale. Thus, possible scores for the mean response to items ranged from 1 to 6.

For training directors (*n = 26*), the mean item scores for the total Perceptions of International Learning Opportunities Scale ranged 1.84 (i.e., responses between *Not at All* and *Rarely*) and 5.14 (i.e., responses between *To a Great Extent* and *To a Very Great Extent*). The mean item score for training directors 3.41 (*SD = .83*), which suggests that
on average, training directors responded most often that international learning opportunities were integrated *To a Small Extent* and *To Some Extent*.

The doctoral students’ scores from a program were combined to create an average student score within that program to prevent the responses of doctoral students from any given program being overrepresented in the sample. For programs represented by doctoral students \((n = 22)\), the scores for the total scale ranged 2.44 to 5.49. The average score for doctoral students within programs was 3.38 \((SD = .74)\). This suggested that on average, doctoral students most often responded that international learning opportunities were integrated *To a Small Extent* and *To Some Extent*.

Data from training directors and doctoral students within programs was also combined to gather the most comprehensive information about perceptions of international learning opportunities. When only training directors responded from a program, their scores were directly reported. In instances in which more than one doctoral student from a program responded, their scores were averaged. In cases where training directors and multiple doctoral students responded within a program, the mean student score was combined with the training director score. Table 8 reports the mean, standard deviation, and range for each subscale as reported by training directors and doctoral students in programs \((n = 32)\).

To aid in comprehension of the program scores to the Perceptions of International Learning Opportunities Scale, Table 9 provides the distribution of the scores in increments linked with the range of potential Likert responses. Approximately one-third of the respondents representing programs \((n = 10)\) reported that international learning opportunities were present *Rarely* or *To a Small Extent*. Half of the respondents...
representing programs \( (n = 16) \) reported that international learning opportunities were present *To a Small Extent* or *To Some Extent*. The remaining twenty-percent of respondents representing programs \( (n = 9) \) reported that international learning opportunities were present *To Some Extent, To a Great Extent, or To a Very Great Extent*.

To test Hypothesis #2 that training directors would perceive international learning opportunities integrated to a greater extent than their students, a repeated measures multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was conducted. Specifically, the repeated measures MANOVA was conducted to examine the impact of status within program (training director and doctoral students) on the dependent variables (subscales of the Perceptions of International Learning Opportunities Scale).

It should be noted that a repeated measures MANOVA was conducted rather than a between-subjects MANOVA because the data violated the assumption of independence that is associated with a between-subjects MANOVA. Namely, training directors’ and doctoral students’ perceptions of available international learning opportunities were dependent upon their counseling psychology program. For this reason, responses from training directors were matched with responses of doctoral students within programs, which served as the repeated measures variable. Each matched pair consisted of the training director score and an average student score within a program. Response sets in which only a training director from a program or only doctoral students from a program were present were not included in this analysis. The final sample for this analysis consisted of sixteen programs.

Before conducting the analysis, the data was examined to ensure that the assumptions associated with the repeated measures MANOVA were met. The
distribution of training directors’ responses (skewness = .45, kurtosis = -.04) and the distribution of doctoral students’ responses (skewness = .50, kurtosis = -.7) were within normal range, and thus the assumption of normality was met. Additionally, the moderate correlations among responses to the subscale suggested that the assumption regarding the linearity of the dependent variables was met.

As hypothesized, the multivariate effect for responses to the Perceptions of International Learning Opportunities Scale for within subjects (i.e., within programs) was significant with training directors ($M_{item} = 3.43, SD = .72$) reporting international learning opportunities being integrated to a greater extent than doctoral students ($M_{item} = 3.35, SD = .62$) (Pillai’s Trace = .794, $F(1, 15) = 4.97, p < .05$, Partial Eta Squared = .79).

Because the results from the repeated measures MANOVA suggested that training directors and doctoral students perceived international learning opportunities differently, univariate analyses were conducted to examine differences between training directors’ and students’ responses to the seven subscales. Significant differences between the responses of training directors and doctoral students were found for two subscales. There was a significant difference between training directors’ responses ($M_{item} = 2.50, SD = .92$) and doctoral students’ responses ($M_{item} = 3.09, SD = .78$) to Subscale 4 (i.e., Institutional commitment for international training) ($F(1, 15) = 6.82, p < .05$). A significant difference between training directors ($M_{item} = 3.77, SD = 1.08$) and doctoral students’ scores within programs ($M_{item} = 3.31, SD = .73$) also was found for Subscale 6 (i.e., Direct international training experiences) ($F(1, 15) = 4.74, p < .05$). No significant difference ($p > .05$) was found between training directors’ and doctoral students’ perceptions for the other five subscales (i.e., training and inclusion of internationally competent faculty,
training and inclusion of internationally competent students, promotion of internationally relevant research, international curriculum initiatives, and overall perceptions of international learning initiatives). Results for the repeated measures MANOVA and subsequent univariate analyses are reported in Table 10.

Attitudes toward Internationalization

The third research question was: Is there a difference between doctoral students in U.S. counseling psychology doctoral programs and training directors of U.S. counseling psychology doctoral programs in their attitudes toward internationalizing U.S. counseling psychology doctoral programs? Because this research question had not been explored before, Hypothesis #3 was that no difference would exist between graduate students and training directors of U.S. counseling psychology doctoral programs in their attitudes toward the internationalizing U.S. counseling psychology programs.

Data from the Attitudes toward Internationalization Scale was used to answer this research question. For training directors ($n = 26$), the mean item scores ranged from 2.54 to 6, with a mean item score of $4.60 (SD = 1.02)$. This meant that on average, training directors most often endorsed a response of Slightly Agree and Agree to items regarding their support of internationalizing counseling psychology programs. These results suggested that training directors had somewhat positive attitudes toward the internationalization of U.S. counseling psychology programs.

For doctoral students ($n = 83$), the mean item scores ranged from 2.82 to 6, with a mean score of $4.92 (SD = .76)$, which was similar to the mean score of training directors. This implied that students endorsed a response of Slightly Agree and Agree to items assessing their support of internationalizing counseling psychology programs. These
results suggested that similar to training directors, doctoral students had somewhat positive attitudes toward the internationalization of U.S. counseling psychology programs.

An independent-samples *t* test was conducted to examine the impact of the independent variable of status (training director or doctoral student) on the dependent variable (attitudes toward internationalization). Training directors and students were treated as independent samples to answer this research question because respondents were being asked to report their personal attitudes toward internationalization rather than being asked to evaluate an aspect of their respective programs. Skewness and kurtosis of training directors’ and doctoral students’ responses were examined to ensure that the data did not violate the assumption of normality that is associated with this test. The distribution of responses for training directors (skewness = -.55, kurtosis = -.62) and the distribution of responses for doctoral students (skewness = -.72, kurtosis = -.06) were both within normal limits and thus the assumption of normality was met.

The assumption of equal variance was not assumed because Levene’s Test for Equality of Variances was significant \( F(1,107) = 4.10, p < .05 \). Thus, a correction in the degrees of freedom was applied before interpreting the significance. With this correction in the degrees of freedom, the difference in attitudes toward internationalization between training directors \( (M_{item} = 4.60) \) and doctoral students \( (M_{item} = 4.92) \), was not significant \( (t(34.13) = 1.50, p > .05) \). Thus, it was concluded that no difference existed between training directors and doctoral students in their attitudes toward internationalizing U.S. counseling psychology programs.
Chapter V: Discussion

The purpose of this study was to gather more information about the process of internationalization in U.S. counseling psychology programs. Specifically, this study examined the presence of international learning opportunities over time, investigated differences in doctoral students’ and training directors’ perceptions of international learning opportunities, and researched attitudes toward internationalizing U.S. counseling psychology programs.

2007 and 2010 International Training Opportunities

The first research question investigated in this study was: *Is there a difference in the number of international learning opportunities being provided in U.S. counseling psychology doctoral programs in 2010 compared to those being provided in 2007 as reported by training directors of U.S. counseling psychology doctoral programs?* Based on the increased number of publications supporting internationalization in counseling psychology (e.g., Heppner et al., 2008; Ægisdóttir & Gerstein, 2010), it was expected that the number of opportunities being provided in 2010 compared to 2007 would have increased.

The hypothesis that the presence of international learning opportunities would be greater in 2010 compared to 2007 was not supported, with the exception of one aspect of international training (i.e., the incorporation of international issues into the definition of multiculturalism). Seven areas in which international opportunities did not increase
included: (1) considering international experience as an important part of the admissions process, (2) promoting international conferences, (3) incorporating non-American readings, (4) promoting training experiences with an international focus, (5) inviting international guests, (6) offering an international exchange, and (7) requiring a foreign language.

Several possible explanations exist as to why more opportunities were not present in 2010. Heppner et al. (2000) stated that although the multicultural movement has advanced considerably since its inception, the changes brought forth by the multicultural movement did not come easily. This statement may also be representative of the international movement. Namely, although there has been an increase in the literature supporting internationalization (Leong & Ponterotto, 2003; Marsella & Pedersen, 2004; Ægisdóttir & Gerstein, 2010), establishing international opportunities within counseling psychology programs is a relatively slower process. Thus, the expectation of finding a significant increase in the presence of international training opportunities after only three years may have been too ambitious.

One explanation can be ruled out, however, based on the findings of the current study. Namely, the lack of international learning opportunities did not appear to be because training directors and doctoral students held unfavorable attitudes toward the internationalization process. The findings in this study suggested that training directors and doctoral students held somewhat positive views toward internationalizing U.S. counseling psychology programs. Thus, other possibilities must be explored.

Although the presence of international learning opportunities did not significantly increase in the majority of the domains that were examined, there was one aspect of
internationalization that did increase. Namely, international issues were increasingly integrated into the definition of multiculturalism. This finding is consistent with Wilber’s (2000) developmental worldview paradigm. That is, internationalization is not perceived as a radical shift from what has already been occurring in counseling psychology, but rather it is seen as the next step of developing a more inclusive and culturally relevant discipline. Because the multicultural movement brought the issue of cultural relevance to the foreground (Arredondo & Perez, 2006; Pedersen, 1999), it is not surprising that internationalization may be conceptualized within the multicultural context.

Leaders of the international movement in counseling psychology have similarly argued for the incorporation of international issues as part of multicultural learning. For example, Leong and Blustein (2000) stated that the multicultural movement should occur at two levels: exploring diversity within the U.S. and exploring diversity beyond U.S. borders. Therefore, it appears that conceptualizing international issues within the multicultural framework may be the most popular method of internationalization thus far.

It is also important to note, however, that conceptualizing international issues as part of multiculturalism may not occur without challenges. As previously mentioned earlier in this thesis, uneasy tensions have existed between the multicultural and international movements in counseling psychology (Heppner et al., 2009). These tensions have arisen as counseling psychologists within the two movements compete for limited financial resources, as well as compete for attention within the discipline. Heppner et al. (2009), therefore, encouraged counseling psychologists to explore how the two movements might complement one another in the areas of research, training, and practice. It is unclear at this time whether the two movements are indeed complementing
one another or competing. Thus, the relationship between counseling psychologists in the multicultural movement and international movement needs further examination.

Although the multicultural and international movements may be compatible in some respects, there is also potential for complications to arise when conceptualizing international issues from within the multicultural paradigm. Leung and Chen (2009, as cited in Heppner et al., 2009) described several limitations of the U.S. multicultural movement regarding its international utility. They stated that the U.S. multicultural movement developed from U.S. social and political realities. Thus, similar to other psychological constructs, counseling psychologists should be careful not to simply “export” U.S. multicultural values abroad. Furthermore, complications may arise when people from other cultures do not share similar definitions of social justice, equality, and human rights that are prevalent among U.S. counseling psychologists. Such conflicts result in ethical dilemmas that require further discussion. For example, should U.S. counseling psychologists promote U.S. values of social justice abroad even when people of another culture embrace dissimilar values? If so, to what extent should this occur?

While there are no easy answers to such questions, it appears that dialogues of this kind must continue to take place in light of the increasingly international context of counseling psychology.

Although the majority of differences in the current study regarding the presence of international learning opportunities in 2007 and 2010 were not significant, it is important to note the overall trends in the data. Namely, for six of the eight items, a higher percentage of training directors in 2010 compared to training directors in 2007 reported the presence of international opportunities. For four of the items (i.e.,
internationalism included in multiculturalism, incorporation of non-American readings, training with an international focus, inviting international guests), this increase was more than 15 percentage points. Promoting international conferences and international exchanges were among the lowest increases.

This pattern suggests that those international learning opportunities that do not require faculty or students to travel may be more likely to be integrated than those that do. This finding is congruent with past literature that identified financial and logistical barriers as major challenges to the incorporation of international learning opportunities (Turner-Essel & Waehler, 2009). Thus, the results in 2007 and 2010 suggest that counseling psychology departments may need more financial and logistical support if they are to incorporate international learning opportunities that require travel. Furthermore, the 2007 and 2010 findings suggest that even though traveling abroad may not be occurring, U.S. counseling psychology programs are finding ways to promote an international perspective.

As previously mentioned, not all aspects of international learning were present in either 2007 or 2010. More specifically, no training directors in either year reported that foreign language was required as part of training. More information will be needed to determine why programs do not include this requirement. Future researchers might examine whether foreign language courses are at a minimum encouraged or whether they will count toward a student’s degree or area of specialization. Reframing the question, such as “Is bilingualism encouraged by faculty members in your department?” may yield more informative data regarding the incorporation of foreign language into counseling psychology programs.
Another trend to highlight was the apparent decrease in the importance of international experiences in admission from 2007 to 2010. The implications of this trend should be noted. Varenne (2003) warned that one of the potential dangers of internationalization is that U.S. counseling psychologists might act as international experts. This may become a reality if U.S. counseling psychologists do not include those with international experiences into the internationalization process. Indeed, the results of this study suggest that counseling psychology programs may not be incorporating faculty and students with international experiences. Not only were international experiences not considered as important in admissions, but of the programs represented in the survey, 46.2% of departments employed no international faculty members. Thus, counseling psychologists should continue to monitor this area of internationalization to ensure that internationalization is not occurring in a way in which U.S. counseling psychologists are still “culturally encapsulated” (Wrenn, 1962) from international colleagues and future potential colleagues.

*Perceptions of International Learning Opportunities*

The second research question in the current study was: *Is there a difference between doctoral students in U.S. counseling psychology doctoral programs and training directors of U.S. counseling psychology doctoral programs in their perceptions of the extent to which international training opportunities are being provided in their training programs?* Based on Constantine et al.’s (1996) study examining differences in perceptions of the availability of multicultural training opportunities, it was predicted that training directors of U.S. counseling psychology doctoral programs would perceive international training opportunities integrated to a greater extent compared to their
doctoral students. The findings of this study partially supported Hypothesis #2 that training directors and doctoral students within their respective counseling psychology programs perceived the presence of international learning opportunities differently. The current results suggested that overall, training directors perceived international training opportunities integrated to a greater extent compared to their doctoral students.

The findings of the current study parallel the findings of Constantine et al.’s (1996) study, which suggested that faculty perceived a greater presence of multicultural opportunities compared to students. Unlike Constantine et al.’s (1996) study, however, the current study controlled for differences between programs by matching training directors’ and doctoral students’ responses within programs. Thus, the possibility of training directors or doctoral students from a given program being overrepresented could be eliminated as a potential confounding variable. Therefore, other possible explanations for the findings must be examined.

Another possibility for the difference in training directors’ and doctoral students’ responses is that while they were both knowledgeable about the presence of international learning opportunities, training directors perceived the opportunities to be present to a greater extent while doctoral students perceived them to be present to a lesser extent (i.e., malingering). Similarly, there was a possibility that training directors and doctoral students used different criteria for rating the extent to which opportunities were provided. Several factors could contribute to differences in ratings including respondents’ attitudes toward internationalization and differences in their operational definitions of responses (e.g., one participant could rate an opportunity being provided once a month as being present “to a small extent” compared to another participant who rated this opportunity as
being present “to a great extent”). Future researchers might be more explicit about operationalizing the response criteria (e.g., “a very great extent is equivalent to the opportunity being present once per week”) to further examine the possibility that differences reflected different criteria for responses rather than true differences in an opportunity being present.

For two domains of international learning opportunities, training directors responded significantly different from their students. Specifically, training directors perceived direct international training experiences to be integrated into the curriculum to a significantly greater extent than their doctoral students. That is, training directors believed that there was more encouragement for students to engage in international immersion experiences, international conferences, and to work with international populations compared to their doctoral students. It is recommended that if faculty members do indeed provide and encourage students to obtain direct international experiences, this may need to be more clearly communicated to students.

Although there was an overall trend of training directors perceiving more international learning opportunities available than students, it should be noted that the opposite occurred specifically in their perceptions of the institutional commitment to international learning. Namely, doctoral students perceived institutional commitment to international learning to be present to a significantly greater extent than their respective training directors. This suggests that at least conceptually, doctoral students believed that there was an institutional commitment to internationalization. One potential explanation for this finding is that because the international movement is relatively new, doctoral students may have been exposed to this issue from the time they began their training.
Training directors, however, may perceive less institutional commitment because of their familiarity with the challenges of internationalization. It should be further noted, however, that institutional commitment was perceived by doctoral students and training directors as the least internationalized area. Respondents most often reported that international opportunities in this area were rarely present or only present to a small extent.

The implications of doctoral students perceiving international learning opportunities integrated to a lesser extent than training directors have been previously mentioned in this thesis. Namely, doctoral students may not perceive international issues to be a priority or may not be aware that certain opportunities exist, which could lessen their participation in such opportunities. The consequences of students perceiving more international learning opportunities than training directors, however, are less evident.

Given that training directors are more likely to be familiar with institutional policies and opportunities regarding international learning opportunities, it is likely that the training directors responses may be a more accurate reflection of international commitment. Further support for this statement is given because of the high number of students reporting that they were uncertain whether institutional commitment to internationalization was present.

The implications of these findings can therefore be interpreted in several ways. If doctoral students are either uncertain about institutional commitment or believe institutional commitment to be higher than it is, then it may be important for training directors to communicate the reality of the situation. While there is a chance that this could discourage students from participating in international learning opportunities, it
could also provide the impetus for students and faculty to create change so that greater institutional commitment would truly be present.

Another discrepancy between the perceptions of training directors and doctoral students should be mentioned. Namely, there was a trend for training directors to be more knowledgeable about the availability of international learning opportunities compared to students. This difference was particularly salient in responses to the subscale that measured the presence of opportunities related to international research. Again, it appears that the best recommendation for programs is to be more explicit about the availability of international learning opportunities that are present in their programs. If doctoral students are not aware of the international learning opportunities being provided, it can be assumed that doctoral students are not taking advantage of them.

There are several ways in which faculty members can make international opportunities more salient to their students. For example, departmental newsletters might include an international section in which faculty and students discuss current international learning opportunities that are available (e.g., opportunities to collaborate with international colleagues, current research focused on international issues, upcoming international events on campus, etc.). Similar information might also be placed on bulletin boards in the department. Departments may also choose to include a page on their websites that provides current information about available international learning opportunities. By making the availability of current international opportunities more explicit, it is expected that doctoral students could become more knowledgeable of such opportunities and thus participate more frequently in them.
One exception to the trend of training directors being more knowledgeable than doctoral students about the presence of international learning opportunities related to the overall perceptions of international learning opportunities subscale. Namely, training directors were less certain whether students would be knowledgeable about international issues by the time they graduated. One reason for this finding may be that while training directors had more knowledge about opportunities that were available, they were uncertain as to whether these opportunities were effective in enhancing the international competencies of doctoral students. In light of this disparity, it appears that it may be equally important for doctoral students to increase communication regarding their experiences of the international learning opportunities being provided. Namely, doctoral students will need to communicate whether current international learning opportunities are indeed effective in increasing their motivation, knowledge, awareness, and skills related to international competencies (Ægisdóttir & Gerstein, 2010).

The current study not only examined perceptions of international learning opportunities in relation to one’s affiliation within the program (i.e., training director or doctoral student), but also provided descriptive data at the program level. When responses of training directors and doctoral students within programs were combined to create a program score, the results indicated that programs provided the most opportunities for international learning within the following domains: (1) the training and inclusion of faculty with international experiences, (2) the promotion of internationally-focused research, (3) the training and inclusion of students with international experiences, and (4) the promotion of direct international learning experiences. On average, respondents reported that international learning opportunities were offered in these areas
to some extent. Curriculum initiatives, overall perceptions, and institutional commitment were those areas in which international learning opportunities were integrated least. On average, it was reported that these opportunities were offered to a small extent.

Similar to past reports (e.g., Friedlander, 2002; Wang & Heppner, 2009), these findings suggest that the international focus within programs may be coming from individuals who are dedicated to the international movement (i.e., faculty members or doctoral students) rather than through formalized, institutional channels (e.g., coursework requirements, institutional policies, etc.). It is hoped that creating a more formal commitment will result in more successful international learning opportunity initiatives in the future.

Formal commitments refer to those learning opportunities that are officially incorporated into counseling psychology departments on a permanent basis. Examples of formal commitments include highlighting a commitment to international issues in the department’s mission statement, incorporating assignments with an international focus into the course syllabi, and offering financial incentives to attend international conferences or to conduct research with an international focus. Informal commitments, on the other hand, refer to those opportunities that may only occasionally be offered in a department, and are more likely to be the result of an individual faculty member’s efforts (e.g., encouraging international travel, discussing the relevance of international issues to counseling psychology). It is important to note that both formal and informal commitments to international learning opportunities are important and are critical when providing counseling psychologists with international competencies. Because results from the current study implied that informal opportunities were present, however, it is
suggested that departments focus on strengthening more formal commitments to the internationalization process.

It also is important to discuss the scale that was created for this study to measure perceptions of international learning opportunities. The scale demonstrated adequate reliability, with the total reliability of the scale being .97 and subscale reliabilities ranging from .76 to .91. Further, the Perceptions of International Learning Opportunities Scale demonstrated good content validity. A rational approach was used for item development based on an extensive literature review in the area of internationalizing psychology. Additionally, content validity was strengthened with feedback from experts in this area of research.

The construct validity of the Perceptions of International Learning Opportunities Scale, however, requires further exploration. More specifically, a factor analysis will need to be conducted in the future to determine whether there is statistical evidence for the rationally derived subscales. It should be noted, however, that scale development was not the primary focus of the current research. The scale was developed because there were no established scales that measured perceptions of international learning opportunities. Thus, it was decided that for the purposes of this study, content validity and reliability was sufficient for establishing the psychometric properties of the international learning opportunities measure. It is recommended that the validation of this scale be further examined before it is used again in the future.

The scale also had other strengths that should be mentioned. The atypical response format (i.e., including the “I don’t know” response) provided information that would have been missed with a traditional Likert scale. This format made it possible to
see that the discrepancies occurred not only with perceptions of international learning opportunities, but also the knowledge of the availability of international learning opportunities. Additionally, the Likert response format provided rich information regarding current international learning opportunities. More specifically, the Likert-response format created the opportunity to assess the degree to which internationalization was occurring within programs. Furthermore, the development of subscales provided a way to more closely examine the different areas in which a program might be lacking international opportunities or might be successfully integrating opportunities.

It is hoped that this scale will aid in future studies that measure internationalization efforts. A follow-up study using this measure would provide an opportunity to examine internationalization efforts in counseling psychology programs over time. This scale could also be used within programs to determine whether faculty members and students perceive international opportunities similarly. Such information would help to create constructive dialogue between faculty and students regarding international opportunities.

*Attitudes toward Internationalization*

This study also examined attitudes toward internationalization. The third research question of this study was: *Is there a difference between doctoral students in U.S. counseling psychology doctoral programs and training directors of U.S. counseling psychology doctoral programs in their attitudes toward internationalizing U.S. counseling psychology doctoral programs?* Because this research question had not been explored before, it was predicted that no difference would exist between graduate students and training directors of U.S. counseling psychology doctoral programs in their
attitudes toward internationalizing U.S. counseling psychology programs. Results of this study suggested that the attitudes of training directors and doctoral students toward internationalizing U.S. counseling psychology programs were not significantly different from one another and thus the hypothesis was supported.

Furthermore, the results of this study suggested that attitudes toward internationalizing U.S. counseling psychology programs were positive for both training directors and doctoral students. The implications of these positive attitudes can best be understood by applying the Theory of Reasoned Action (Azjen & Fishbein, 1980). The Theory of Reasoned Action would suggest that in light of the overall support for internationalization (i.e., a high subjective norm) doctoral students who hold positive attitudes toward internationalization would be likely to engage in international learning opportunities if they were available. Counseling psychology programs should, therefore, continue to provide international learning opportunities, as it is likely that students will participate in them.

Similarly, the Theory of Reasoned Action has implications for the actions of training directors. Namely, training directors may be likely to promote international learning opportunities because of their favorable attitudes toward internationalization. Furthermore, the Theory of Reasoned Action would imply that training directors would be likely to promote international learning opportunities if they perceived that their colleagues were also supportive of these opportunities. Thus, it is imperative that the positive attitudes toward internationalization among training directors be made explicit to all training directors. It is hoped that making the subjective norm for internationalization
more explicit would result in training directors taking more action in implementing international learning opportunities within programs.

Given the positive attitudes of training directors and doctoral students in the current study, it also would be important to know whether training directors and doctoral students are satisfied with the current levels of internationalization within their programs. Data from the Perceptions of International Learning Opportunities Scale suggested that on average, programs provided international learning opportunities “to some extent.” It is unclear, however, whether training directors and doctoral students considered this to be sufficient. Future researchers should examine training directors’ and doctoral students’ satisfaction regarding international learning opportunities.

Although training directors’ and doctoral students’ attitudes toward internationalization were somewhat positive on average, it should be noted that there was significantly greater variability in the scores for training directors compared to doctoral students. That is, training directors had stronger attitudes either for or against internationalizing U.S. counseling psychology programs compared to doctoral students. This finding is important because it suggests that one cannot assume that all training directors are equally supportive of internationalization efforts.

The way in which the unfavorable attitudes of some training directors in the current study may have been linked with the international learning opportunities being provided within programs should be discussed. In this study, there were moderate correlations between training directors’ responses to the attitudes scale and their responses to the perceptions of international learning opportunities subscales. These moderate correlations suggested that attitudes had some association with the perceptions
of international learning opportunities being provided in programs. Thus, it may be concluded that those training directors who are not in support of internationalization perceive less international opportunities being provided in their programs compared to training directors who do support internationalization. Such information is consistent with the Theory of Reasoned Action, which would suggest that the personal attitudes of training directors would impact their behavioral intentions to provide international learning opportunities in their programs. Furthermore, this information highlights the importance of researching attitudes toward internationalization as a potentially important factor in the perceptions of international learning opportunities. Future researchers may wish to more specifically explore the relationship between attitudes and behavioral intentions to provide international learning opportunities.

Although the implications of negative attitudes have been discussed, the results from this study suggested that on average, training directors and doctoral students held somewhat favorable attitudes toward internationalization. These favorable attitudes, therefore, may provide an important foundation from which to enhance internationalization efforts. Namely, now that there is preliminary evidence that suggests attitudes toward internationalization are somewhat favorable, counseling psychologists may further investigate the specific ways in which training directors and doctoral students might strengthen an international focus for counseling psychology training programs.

It is also important to discuss the scale that was developed to examine attitudes toward internationalization. The Attitudes toward Internationalization Scale had good psychometric properties. Reliability was sufficiently high. Additionally, the scale included both positively- and negatively-worded items, which may have reduced
response bias. Furthermore, the jury panel feedback contributed to the content validity. The jury panel provided feedback about the relevance of potential items to the domain of attitudes toward internationalization.

Although the jury panel helped to establish content validity for the attitude scale, further assessment regarding other forms of validity will need to be conducted. More specifically, the construct validity of this attitude scale needs to be further examined. For example, a factor analysis may provide insight as to whether attitudes toward internationalization are a single- or multi-dimensional construct. Furthermore, divergent and convergent validity should be established. Divergent validity might be examined by comparing responses to the Attitudes toward Internationalization Scale and responses to the State-Trait Anxiety Inventory (STAI; Spielberger, 1983), which is a theoretically unrelated measure. The STAI has demonstrated adequate construct validity, concurrent validity, and an adequate reliability of .93 (Spielberger, Sydeman, Owen, & Marsh, 1990). Convergent validity might be examined by comparing responses to the Attitudes toward Internationalization Scale and responses to the Munroe Multicultural Attitude Scale Questionnaire (MASQUE; Munroe & Pearson, 2006). The MASQUE has demonstrated adequate reliability (alpha = .80). Furthermore, content validity, construct validity, and discriminate validity have been established for this measure. Thus, while the Attitude toward Internationalization Scale demonstrated sufficient psychometric properties to examine overall attitudes toward internationalization, it is recommended that researchers gather more rich and statistically driven evidence for the validity of this scale before it is used again.
Limitations

Although the significant results and trends in the data for this study have been discussed, one should be cautious when generalizing the findings because several limitations exist. A major limitation of comparing 2007 data (Turner-Essel & Waehler, 2009) and the 2010 data obtained in the current study is that the sample sizes in 2007 and 2010 were very different. Almost twice as many training directors responded to the survey in 2007 compared to 2010. The primary researcher in the current study made several attempts to contact training directors so as to obtain a similar sample size, but these efforts were only somewhat successful. It should be further noted that increasing the response rate was especially difficult because the population of eligible training directors for this study was quite small (N = 63). With such a small sample size in 2010, the statistical power of the chi-square tests was limited. There was a risk, therefore, of the tests not being powerful enough to detect differences in the 2007 and 2010 responses, even if a true difference existed. Thus, similar sample sizes would have yielded greater confidence in interpreting the non-significant findings.

Similarly, the uneven sample sizes limit the generalizability of the trends that were discussed in the 2007 and 2010 data. It is possible that the uneven sample sizes of training directors resulted in the appearance of an increase in the presence of international training opportunities when no actual increase existed. Because only half the number of training directors responded in 2010, it is possible that training directors in programs without international opportunities that responded in 2007 opted not to respond in 2010. Thus, the increases in percentages for the presence of international learning opportunities from 2007 to 2010 would reflect a lack of participation from those programs not
incorporating international opportunities rather than a true increase in the number of programs providing international training opportunities. This is certainly something to be mindful of because the total numbers of participants endorsing any item in 2010 were all lower than in 2007. The current survey should be replicated in the future to determine whether the increases in percentages found in this study reflected a true difference in the presence of international learning opportunities or whether they reflected a response bias.

Furthermore, there were limitations related to the findings involving training directors’ and doctoral students’ perceptions of international learning opportunities. More specifically, including the “I don’t know” response option in the survey resulted in difficulties when interpreting the results. An “I don’t know” response option was included because it was decided that doing so would be more accurate than forcing respondents to rate the extent to which opportunities were present. Nonetheless, this posed certain challenges in comparing training directors’ and doctoral students’ perceptions. There were several potential ways in which to proceed with the data analysis of this response format. One option was to altogether eliminate response sets of participants who reported “I don’t know” to items. With this approach, approximately 60% of the sample would have been eliminated, thus resulting in too few participant responses to conduct the analysis. Another alternative was to replace “I don’t know” options with scores of 1, which would be equivalent to a Not at All response regarding the presence of an opportunity. Proceeding with this option would have resulted in drastically deflating the subscale scores of participants, and mostly those of doctoral students because they were the ones who most frequently responded “I don’t know.” A third option, which was considered the best alternative, was noting the frequency that
respondents reported “I don’t know” on a given subscale, replacing the “I don’t know” responses with mean scores from an individual’s responses for the given subscale, and noting this as a limitation to the current study. Thus, the findings of training directors’ and doctoral students’ perceptions of international learning opportunities should be interpreted with caution.

Another limitation in measuring perceptions of international learning opportunities in the current study involved the procedure for calculating mean scores for doctoral students in programs. Student scores were averaged, and thus the variability of student scores within programs was not taken into account. Although this averaging procedure did not account for variability among students within programs, it was successful in controlling for the different response rates within programs. This is an issue that had not been addressed in previous research. Future researchers, however, may want to examine the variability of students’ scores within programs to determine whether there is consistency in programs.

Yet another limitation could be the role of the primary researcher’s advisor in this study. A bias may have resulted from his involvement. More specifically, the primary researcher’s advisor answered the survey distributed in this study because he was the training director of an APA-accredited counseling psychology doctoral program. It should be noted, however, that the purpose of incorporating doctoral students’ perceptions of international learning opportunities was to balance the perspectives of training directors. Thus, it was expected that any bias of the primary researcher’s advisor would be mitigated by student’s responses in his program. Nonetheless, it is recommended that another faculty member within the advisor’s department who may be
knowledgeable about training initiatives participate in future studies of this kind rather than a faculty member who had been invested in the research project.

Furthermore, although the trends in the data were discussed regarding the differences in training directors’ and students’ knowledge of whether international learning opportunities were present (i.e., comparing “I don’t know” responses), it should be noted that no statistical analyses were conducted to substantiate these trends. Statistical analyses were not conducted because of the inherent complexity that would exist in doing so. Namely, the responses of training directors and doctoral students would need to be paired because their responses were dependent upon their experiences in a specific counseling psychology program. Because the data was nominal, however (i.e., knowing vs. not knowing), an average student score could not be determined. Thus, one could not control for the student sample size being three times greater than the training director sample size. A further complication would be that the students within programs might not have been a representative sample because of their year in the program. For the overall descriptive statistics reported, this was not a problem because the sample of 83 students equally represented first, second, third, and fourth year or beyond students.

Limitations were also present regarding the style in which the items were written for the Perceptions of International Learning Opportunities Scale. More specifically, many of the items were complex and wordy. This was the cost for operationalizing the items to convey meaning. Such specificity was deemed appropriate, however, because respondents may not have been familiar with certain concepts unless provided with concrete examples. Yet another limitation of the scale was that none of the items were negatively-worded. Thus, it was possible that the positively-worded items resulted in
response bias. It was decided that negatively-worded items would not be used because they could have led to unnecessary confusion. For example, it would have been confusing to state that an international opportunity was *not* provided in a program “to a very great extent.” Because respondents in the study did utilize the entire range of ratings, however, it appears that response bias was not a major issue.

It should also be noted that certain limitations exist when applying the Theory of Reasoned Action to explain the relationship between attitudes and the internationalization process in the current study. In most research regarding the Theory of Reasoned Action, respondents are typically asked about their perceptions of subjective norms (i.e., what they believe others think about the particular topic). This is different from the current study in which participants were not asked about subjective norms. Rather the sum of the individual attitudes of training directors and doctoral students was used to calculate the subjective norm. This latter method was chosen, however, because it was hoped that the findings could provide the most accurate information about attitudes toward internationalization. Nonetheless, it is possible that respondents’ actual perceived subjective norms might be different from the subjective norm that was found in this study.

The current study is further limited because it is possible that the current respondents’ positive attitudes did not necessarily relate to high subjective norms. That is, although the participants held positive attitudes toward internationalization, they did not believe that actions should be taken linked with this topic. Therefore, future researchers should survey training directors and doctoral students to better understand what actions, if any, are related to the subjective norms regarding internationalization.
Conclusions

Although limitations were present, the current study provided invaluable information regarding the process of internationalization in U.S. counseling psychology programs. Specifically, this study examined the presence of international learning opportunities over time, investigated differences in doctoral students’ and training directors’ perceptions of international learning opportunities, and researched attitudes toward internationalizing U.S. counseling psychology programs. Results suggested that the presence of international training opportunities did not increase from 2007 to 2010, with the exception that internationalism was increasingly being incorporated into the definition of multiculturalism. Further, results suggested that training directors were generally more knowledgeable compared to doctoral students about the availability of international learning opportunities. When doctoral students were aware of the opportunities, they perceived them to be integrated to a lesser extent than their training directors did, although this difference was small. Finally, results suggested that there were generally favorable attitudes toward internationalization. In light of such findings, the recommendations that have been mentioned throughout this discussion will be briefly summarized.

Overall, it appears that counseling psychology programs can benefit most from being more reflective about current internationalization efforts. This would first involve more communication from faculty members regarding the availability of international learning opportunities. Additionally, doctoral students should communicate how these opportunities impact their overall ability to address international issues. With increased communication, training programs will be able to better address whether current efforts
are sufficient. Another aspect in the reflection process involves examining the different ways in which internationalization is occurring, or not occurring. From the results of this study, it appeared that demonstrating formal, institutional commitments to the internationalization process will be an important next step in the internationalization process. Finally, it was recommended that U.S. counseling psychologists monitor the internationalization efforts of counseling psychology programs to ensure that this process is occurring in an internationally collaborative way. That is, U.S. counseling psychologists need to include non-U.S. colleagues and students as part of the internationalization process. The U.S. field of counseling psychology has come a long way in its ability to address the needs of different populations. It is hoped that through a thoughtful reflection on the internationalization process, the field will further be able to address international issues in a culturally appropriate and responsible way.
References


Table 1

**Demographic Information of Training Directors, Doctoral Students, and Total Sample**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Training Directors (n = 26)</th>
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<th>Total Sample (n = 109)</th>
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<td>%</td>
<td>n</td>
</tr>
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<td>1.2</td>
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<td>2</td>
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Table 2

*Number of International Students and Faculty in Counseling Psychology Departments*

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<th>Response</th>
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<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
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<th>Response</th>
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<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
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<td>1</td>
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<td>96.2</td>
<td>100</td>
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<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
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<td>100</td>
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*Note.* Reported by training directors (n = 26)
Table 3

*Cronbach’s Alphas for Perceptions of International Learning Opportunities Scale*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subscale</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th># items</th>
<th>alpha</th>
<th>N (%)</th>
<th>$M_{item}$</th>
<th>SD</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Faculty</td>
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<td>0.80</td>
<td>89 (81.7)</td>
<td>3.78</td>
<td>1.29</td>
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<td>2</td>
<td>Students</td>
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<td>93 (85.3)</td>
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<td>1.45</td>
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<td>3</td>
<td>Research</td>
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<td>0.76</td>
<td>66 (60.6)</td>
<td>3.64</td>
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<td>4</td>
<td>Institutional Commitment</td>
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<td>0.91</td>
<td>68 (62.4)</td>
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<td>5</td>
<td>Curriculum Initiatives</td>
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<td>85 (78.0)</td>
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<td>6</td>
<td>Direct Training Experiences</td>
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<td>87 (79.8)</td>
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<td>7</td>
<td>Overall Perceptions</td>
<td>5</td>
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<td>1.33</td>
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*Note.* Subscale 1: Training and inclusion of internationally competent faculty; Subscale 2: Training and inclusion of internationally competent students; Subscale 3: Promoting internationally relevant research; Subscale 4: Institutional commitment for international training; Subscale 5: International curriculum initiatives; Subscale 6: Direct international training experiences; Subscale 7: Overall perceptions of international learning initiatives. Item Responses: ? = I Don’t Know, 1 = Not at All, 2 = Rarely, 3 = To a Small Extent, 4 = To Some Extent, 5 = To a Great Extent, 6 = To a Very Great Extent.
Table 4

*Item and Item-Total for Attitudes toward Internationalization Scale*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>$M$</th>
<th>$SD$</th>
<th>Item-Total Statistics</th>
<th>Cronbach’s Alpha if Item Deleted</th>
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<tr>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td>Corrected Correlation</td>
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<tr>
<td>59</td>
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<td>0.78</td>
<td>0.90</td>
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*Note.* $N = 106$. Item Responses: ? = I Don’t Know, 1 = Not at All, 2 = Rarely, 3 = To a Small Extent, 4 = To Some Extent, 5 = To a Great Extent, 6 = To a Very Great Extent.
Table 5

*Pearson’s Correlations among Responses to Perceptions of International Learning Opportunities Subscales and Attitudes toward Internationalization Scale*

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<tr>
<th>Training Directors</th>
<th>SS2</th>
<th>SS3</th>
<th>SS4</th>
<th>SS5</th>
<th>SS6</th>
<th>SS7</th>
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<td>.67**</td>
<td>.51**</td>
<td>.51**</td>
<td>.72**</td>
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<td>.72**</td>
<td>.58**</td>
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<td>.75**</td>
<td>.66**</td>
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<td>SS6</td>
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<td>.80**</td>
<td>.21</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>SS7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.19</td>
<td></td>
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</table>

*Note.* SS1: Training and inclusion of internationally competent faculty; SS2: Training and inclusion of internationally competent students; SS3: Promoting internationally relevant research; SS4: Institutional commitment for international training; SS5: International curriculum initiatives; SS6: Direct international training experiences; SS7: Overall perceptions of international learning initiatives
Table 6

2007 and 2010 International Training Opportunities\(^a\)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>2007</th>
<th>2010</th>
<th>2007</th>
<th>2010</th>
<th>Difference</th>
<th>(\chi^2)</th>
<th>(p)</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. International experience considered in admissions?</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>89.2</td>
<td>69.2</td>
<td>-20.0</td>
<td>4.45</td>
<td>&gt;.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2007 ((N = 46))</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td>2010 ((N = 26))</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Promote international conferences?</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>71.1</td>
<td>76.9</td>
<td>5.8</td>
<td>0.28</td>
<td>&gt;.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2007 ((N = 45))</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
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<td>2010 ((N = 26))</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Internationalism included in multiculturalism?</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>70.2</td>
<td>92.3</td>
<td>22.1</td>
<td>4.78</td>
<td>&lt;.05</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Non-American readings?</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>59.5</td>
<td>80.8</td>
<td>21.3</td>
<td>3.31</td>
<td>&gt;.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2007 ((N = 42))</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Training with international focus?</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>45.5</td>
<td>65.4</td>
<td>19.9</td>
<td>2.60</td>
<td>&gt;.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2007 ((N = 46))</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>2010 ((N = 26))</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Invite international guests?</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>41.6</td>
<td>57.1</td>
<td>15.5</td>
<td>1.37</td>
<td>&gt;.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2007 ((N = 41))</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td>2010 ((N = 21))</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Department offers international exchange?</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4.4</td>
<td>11.5</td>
<td>7.1</td>
<td>1.27</td>
<td>&gt;.05</td>
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<tr>
<td>2007 ((N = 45))</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2010 ((N = 26))</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Foreign language required?</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2007 ((N = 46))</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2010 ((N = 26))</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note.

b. \(p\)-values are reported for Fisher's Exact Test because the data did not meet the assumptions for \(\chi^2\) (i.e., cell count < 5).
Table 7

Relative Frequencies of Training Directors and Students Responses to Perceptions of International Learning Scale

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item Responses</th>
<th>Respondents</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Subscale 1</strong></td>
<td>Training Director</td>
<td>3.1%</td>
<td>5.4%</td>
<td>6.2%</td>
<td>20.0%</td>
<td>30.8%</td>
<td>21.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Doctoral Student</td>
<td>7.2%</td>
<td>6.0%</td>
<td>15.2%</td>
<td>17.8%</td>
<td>22.2%</td>
<td>17.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Subscale 2</strong></td>
<td>Training Director</td>
<td>5.4%</td>
<td>7.8%</td>
<td>7.0%</td>
<td>20.2%</td>
<td>32.6%</td>
<td>17.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Doctoral Student</td>
<td>4.1%</td>
<td>11.3%</td>
<td>19.5%</td>
<td>20.0%</td>
<td>24.3%</td>
<td>11.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Subscale 3</strong></td>
<td>Training Director</td>
<td>3.9%</td>
<td>6.2%</td>
<td>14.0%</td>
<td>16.3%</td>
<td>21.7%</td>
<td>23.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Doctoral Student</td>
<td>16.9%</td>
<td>5.9%</td>
<td>13.0%</td>
<td>16.7%</td>
<td>19.1%</td>
<td>12.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Subscale 4</strong></td>
<td>Training Director</td>
<td>6.9%</td>
<td>26.2%</td>
<td>23.1%</td>
<td>20.8%</td>
<td>11.5%</td>
<td>6.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Doctoral Student</td>
<td>13.2%</td>
<td>18.0%</td>
<td>20.0%</td>
<td>15.6%</td>
<td>16.1%</td>
<td>9.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Subscale 5</strong></td>
<td>Training Director</td>
<td>3.8%</td>
<td>28.2%</td>
<td>16.0%</td>
<td>14.1%</td>
<td>14.7%</td>
<td>10.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Doctoral Student</td>
<td>7.6%</td>
<td>26.5%</td>
<td>15.5%</td>
<td>13.1%</td>
<td>16.1%</td>
<td>11.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Subscale 6</strong></td>
<td>Training Director</td>
<td>3.1%</td>
<td>6.2%</td>
<td>16.9%</td>
<td>17.7%</td>
<td>25.4%</td>
<td>17.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Doctoral Student</td>
<td>7.7%</td>
<td>9.7%</td>
<td>22.2%</td>
<td>19.1%</td>
<td>18.4%</td>
<td>11.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Subscale 7</strong></td>
<td>Training Director</td>
<td>13.8%</td>
<td>11.5%</td>
<td>23.8%</td>
<td>20.0%</td>
<td>18.5%</td>
<td>6.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Doctoral Student</td>
<td>2.2%</td>
<td>13.2%</td>
<td>22.9%</td>
<td>23.2%</td>
<td>20.2%</td>
<td>13.4%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note.* SS1: Training and inclusion of internationally competent faculty; SS2: Training and inclusion of internationally competent students; SS3: Promoting internationally relevant research; SS4: Institutional commitment for international training; SS5: International curriculum initiatives; SS6: Direct international training experiences; SS7: Overall perceptions of international learning initiatives. Item Responses: ? = I Don’t Know, 1 = Not at All, 2 = Rarely, 3 = To a Small Extent, 4 = To Some Extent, 5 = To a Great Extent, 6 = To a Very Great Extent.
Table 8

*Means, Standard Deviations, and Range of Scores for Perceptions of International Learning Opportunities Subscales*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subscale</th>
<th>$M_{item}$</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Range</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.95</td>
<td>0.75</td>
<td>2.8 - 5.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>3.57</td>
<td>1.04</td>
<td>1.6 - 5.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>3.89</td>
<td>0.75</td>
<td>2.68 - 5.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>2.83</td>
<td>1.03</td>
<td>1.6 - 5.56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.09</td>
<td>0.83</td>
<td>1.83 - 5.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>1.04</td>
<td>1.6 - 6.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>3.06</td>
<td>1.03</td>
<td>1.0 - 6.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>5.83</td>
<td>2.11 - 5.49</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note.* As reported by training directors and doctoral students within programs ($N = 32$). Subscale 1: Training and inclusion of internationally competent faculty; Subscale 2: Training and inclusion of internationally competent students; Subscale 3: Promoting internationally relevant research; Subscale 4: Institutional commitment for international training; Subscale 5: International curriculum initiatives; Subscale 6: Direct international training experiences; Subscale 7: Overall perceptions of international learning initiatives. Item Responses: 1 = Not at All, 2 = Rarely, 3 = To a Small Extent, 4 = To Some Extent, 5 = To a Great Extent, 6 = To a Very Great Extent.
Table 9

Distribution of Program Responses to Perceptions of International Learning Opportunities Scale in Increments of the Range of Likert Responses

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Range</th>
<th>Likert Equivalent</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.00 - 1.99</td>
<td>Not at All - Rarely</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.00%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.00 - 2.99</td>
<td>Rarely - Small Extent</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>31.25%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.00 - 3.99</td>
<td>Small Extent - Some Extent</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>50.00%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.00 - 4.99</td>
<td>Some Extent - Great Extent</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>9.38%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.00 - 5.99</td>
<td>Great Extent - Very Great Extent</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>9.38%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. As reported by training directors and doctoral students within programs (N = 32).
Table 10

Differences in Perceptions of International Learning Opportunities between Training Directors and Doctoral Students

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subscale</th>
<th>Training Directors</th>
<th>Doctoral Students</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.97 (.76)</td>
<td>3.73 (.58)</td>
<td>1.92</td>
<td>&gt; .05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>3.87 (1.01)</td>
<td>3.56 (.60)</td>
<td>2.35</td>
<td>&gt; .05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>3.80 (.89)</td>
<td>3.73 (.69)</td>
<td>0.07</td>
<td>&gt; .05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>2.50 (.92)</td>
<td>3.09 (.78)</td>
<td>6.82</td>
<td>&lt; .05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.19 (.74)</td>
<td>2.97 (.79)</td>
<td>0.91</td>
<td>&gt; .05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>3.77 (1.08)</td>
<td>3.31 (.73)</td>
<td>4.74</td>
<td>&lt; .05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>2.92 (1.00)</td>
<td>3.18 (.76)</td>
<td>1.38</td>
<td>&gt; .05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>3.43 (.72)</td>
<td>3.35 (.62)</td>
<td>4.97</td>
<td>&lt; .05</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. As reported by training directors and doctoral students within programs (N = 32). Subscale 1: Training and inclusion of internationally competent faculty; Subscale 2: Training and inclusion of internationally competent students; Subscale 3: Promoting internationally relevant research; Subscale 4: Institutional commitment for international training; Subscale 5: International curriculum initiatives; Subscale 6: Direct international training experiences; Subscale 7: Overall perceptions of international learning initiatives. Item Responses: ? = I Don’t Know, 1 = Not at All, 2 = Rarely, 3 = To a Small Extent, 4 = To Some Extent, 5 = To a Great Extent, 6 = To a Very Great Extent.
Figure 1. Developmental worldview paradigm model for counseling psychologists adapted from Wilber (2000).
Figure 2

Relative Frequencies of "I Don't Know" Responses to Subscales

Relative Frequencies of "Opportunities Not at All Present" Responses to Subscales
Figure 2. Relative Frequencies of Training Directors’ and Doctoral Students’ Responses to Perceptions of International Learning Opportunities Subscales

Appendix A

Demographic Information

The purpose of this survey is to gather information about your views concerning your counseling psychology doctoral program. No information will be released that will identify you personally, nor will any information be released that identifies your specific counseling psychology program. Please answer the following items.

1. Are you a:
   □ Training Director
   □ Doctoral Student If so, year in program______

2. Name of University________________________

3. Gender:  □ Male  □ Female

4. Age_______

5. Ethnicity (mark all that apply):
   □ African American/Black
   □ Caribbean/Caribbean American
   □ Middle Eastern/Middle Eastern American
   □ Asian/Asian American/Pacific Islander
   □ Caucasian/White
   □ Hispanic/Latino
   □ Native American
   □ Other

6. Country of origin__________
   If your country of origin is not the U.S.A. how long have you resided in the U.S.A.?_______
Appendix B

Program Demographic Information

7. Approximate size of your university________________________ (Enter #)

8. Approximately how many students are enrolled in your doctoral counseling psychology program? ______ (Enter #)

9. Approximately how many of your enrolled counseling psychology students are from outside the U.S.A.? __________ (Enter #)

10. Approximately how many of your enrolled U.S.A. counseling psychology students have spent at least six months outside of the U.S.A.? __________ (Enter #)

11. How many of your enrolled counseling psychology students are bilingual? (Enter #)

12. How many full-time faculty members are employed in your doctoral counseling psychology program? ______ (Enter #)

13. How many full-time faculty members in your doctoral counseling psychology program are originally from outside the U.S.A.? __________ (Enter #)

14. How many full-time faculty members in your doctoral counseling psychology program are bilingual? __________ (Enter #)
Appendix C

International Training Opportunities Survey (Turner-Essel & Waehler, 2009)

Directions: Please answer the following items to the best of your knowledge about your current U.S.A. counseling psychology doctoral program.

15. To what degree are experiences with international travel, living abroad, and bilingualism important factors in your admissions decisions?
   - □ Extremely important (would make a big difference in admission decision)
   - □ Somewhat important (might make a difference in admission decision)
   - □ Not important at all (would make no difference in admission decision)

16. Does your program offer any international exchange opportunities to your graduate students and/or faculty?
   - □ No
   - □ No, but the University offers a graduate exchange program
   - □ Yes, we offer an exchange program
   - □ Yes, we offer an exchange program AND provide funding for:
     - □ Students  □ Faculty

17. Does your program integrate international perspectives into its definition of multiculturalism?
   - □ No  □ Yes

18. Are your graduate students required to take a foreign language course/sequence (beyond Quantitative Methods) as a part of their training?
   - □ No  □ Yes

19. In the past 5 years, how many international guest speakers and/or visiting faculty from abroad has your program invited? _____ (Enter #) How many attended? _____ (Enter #)
    Did you provide financial assistance? □ No  □ Yes  □ N/A

20. To the best of your knowledge, are readings from non-American scholars incorporated into your curriculum?
   - □ No  □ Yes  □ Don’t Know

21. Are training experiences with an international focus encouraged for graduate students in your program?
   - □ No
   - □ Yes
   - □ Yes, they are encouraged AND:
     - □ They receive academic credit for these training experiences
     - □ They receive financial assistance with international travel expenses

22. Does your program promote student and faculty travel to conferences held outside of the United States?
   - □ No
   - □ Yes  If yes, does your program provide financial assistance for travel to international conferences? □ No  □ Yes
Appendix D
Perceptions of International Learning Opportunities Scale

Directions: Please rate the following items using the scale below about your experience in your current U.S. counseling psychology doctoral program.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I Don’t Know</td>
<td>Not at All</td>
<td>Rarely</td>
<td>To a Small Extent</td>
<td>To Some Extent</td>
<td>To a Great Extent</td>
<td>To a Very Great Extent</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

23. Faculty members with international experiences serve as resources for educating students about international topics (e.g., evaluating the usefulness of U.S.A. counseling theories abroad, translating non-English journals, etc.)

? 1 2 3 4 5 6

24. Faculty members in my counseling psychology doctoral program travel outside of the U.S.A.

? 1 2 3 4 5 6

25. My counseling psychology department hosts international guest speakers.

? 1 2 3 4 5 6

26. Faculty members in my department have served in a professional capacity outside of the U.S.A. (e.g., presenting at conferences, teaching, counseling, etc.)

? 1 2 3 4 5 6

27. Faculty members in my program demonstrate an interest in international topics.

? 1 2 3 4 5 6

28. Students with international experiences are encouraged to serve as resources for educating other students about international topics (e.g., evaluating the usefulness of U.S.A. counseling theories abroad, translating non-English journals, etc.).

? 1 2 3 4 5 6

29. Students in my program are encouraged to be involved in informal international learning opportunities outside of the classroom (e.g., watching foreign films, listening to international music, travel, etc.)

? 1 2 3 4 5 6
30. Students in my program are encouraged to be knowledgeable about current world events (e.g., read newspapers, watch the news, etc.)

? 1 2 3 4 5 6

31. Students in my program are encouraged to be interested in international issues as they relate to counseling psychology.

? 1 2 3 4 5 6

32. Students in my program are encouraged to be involved with international students on campus, such as through workshops, discussions, etc.

? 1 2 3 4 5 6

33. My doctoral program integrates readings from the literature outside the U.S.A. into the curriculum (e.g., Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology, The European Psychologist, International Journal of Psychology, etc.).

? 1 2 3 4 5 6

34. My department utilizes distance education (e.g., web conferencing) for networking with counseling professionals outside the U.S.A.

? 1 2 3 4 5 6

35. My department offers courses specifically focusing on global/international topics.

? 1 2 3 4 5 6

36. My counseling psychology department incorporates readings from disciplines that have traditionally embraced a more global perspective (e.g., history, anthropology, political science, etc.).

? 1 2 3 4 5 6

37. My department offers specialization in cross-cultural training (e.g., minor, cognate, certificate, etc).

? 1 2 3 4 5 6

38. Cultural variables are emphasized in my program’s counseling psychology courses.

? 1 2 3 4 5 6
39. Counseling psychology students in my department are encouraged to participate in professional development opportunities outside of the U.S.A. (e.g., traveling to conferences, workshops, etc.).

   ?  1  2  3  4  5  6

40. Counseling psychology students in my department are encouraged to participate in international immersion experiences (e.g., study abroad).

   ?  1  2  3  4  5  6

41. My doctoral program encourages students to gain experience in non-conventional training settings.

   ?  1  2  3  4  5  6

42. Students in my doctoral program have international experiences (e.g., travel, working with non-U.S.A. populations, etc.).

   ?  1  2  3  4  5  6

43. Faculty members in my doctoral program have international experiences (e.g., travel, working with non-U.S.A. populations, etc.).

   ?  1  2  3  4  5  6

44. My doctoral program provides international learning opportunities.

   ?  1  2  3  4  5  6

45. My counseling psychology doctoral program produces globally-minded psychologists.

   ?  1  2  3  4  5  6

46. Counseling psychology doctoral students will be knowledgeable about the way that counseling is practiced outside of the U.S.A by the time that they graduate from our doctoral program.

   ?  1  2  3  4  5  6

47. Counseling psychology doctoral students will be knowledgeable about mental health issues in countries other than the U.S.A. by the time that they graduate from our doctoral program.

   ?  1  2  3  4  5  6
48. Counseling psychology doctoral students will be aware of ways that counseling professionals can contribute to positive social change outside of the U.S.A. by the time that they graduate from our doctoral program.

49. My doctoral program incorporates international perspectives as part of multicultural training.

50. My doctoral program celebrates the mission and/or contributions of international professional counseling/psychology organizations (e.g., through displays, newsletters, journals, etc).

51. My doctoral program hosts events related to international topics (e.g., on-campus roundtable discussions, conversation hours, brown-bag lunches, potluck meals, poster and/or paper presentations, symposiums, etc).

52. My counseling psychology doctoral program’s mission statement reflects a commitment to international topics.

53. My department offers awards for outstanding international accomplishments (e.g., recognition for research or service outside of the U.S.A).

54. Cross-cultural biases are discussed when learning about cross-cultural research in class.

55. Qualitative methods of research are promoted in my counseling psychology department.

56. My department supports students conducting research with non-U.S.A. populations.
57. My counseling psychology department collaborates with a non-U.S.A. university in conducting research.

58. Counseling psychology faculty members submit/publish articles in non-U.S.A. journals.

Proposed Subscales

(1) Training and inclusion of internationally competent faculty: 23, 24, 25, 26, 27
(2) Training and inclusion of internationally competent students: 28, 29, 30, 31, 32
(3) Promoting internationally relevant research: 54, 55, 56, 57, 58
(4) Institutional commitment for international training: 49, 50, 51, 52, 53
(5) International curriculum initiatives: 33, 34, 35, 36, 37, 38
(6) Direct international training experiences: 39, 40, 41, 42, 43
(7) Overall perceptions of international learning initiatives: 44, 45, 46, 47, 48
Appendix E

Attitudes towards Internationalization Scale

Internationalization refers to the process of incorporating into the curriculum a range of intellectual and experiential activities designed to help individuals understand the cultural, social, and political systems of other nations and the interactions between them.

With this definition in mind, please rate the following items using the scale below about your experience in your current U.S. counseling psychology doctoral program.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>Slightly Disagree</td>
<td>Slightly Agree</td>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

59. U.S.A. counseling psychology programs have a responsibility to internationalize the curriculum.

60. Internationalizing the curriculum improves the quality of U.S.A. counseling psychology programs.

61. Internationalizing the curriculum of U.S.A. counseling psychology programs is not worth the effort.

62. Counseling psychology students should be trained to address international issues.

63. Internationalizing U.S.A. counseling psychology programs is a mistake.

64. Internationalization efforts take time away from a focus on more important topics in U.S.A. counseling psychology programs.

65. Internationalizing my counseling psychology program will enhance my effectiveness as a counseling psychologist.
66. International issues are irrelevant to U.S.A. counseling psychology programs.

67. Internationalizing U.S.A. counseling psychology programs weakens the profession of counseling psychology.

68. All U.S.A. counseling psychology programs should be required to internationalize.

69. Internationalizing U.S.A. counseling psychology programs does more harm than good.

70. Internationalizing the curriculum should be a top priority for U.S.A. counseling psychology programs.

Reverse Scored Items
61, 63, 64, 66, 67, 69
Appendix F

E-mail Invitation to Participate

Hello,
I am writing to request your participation in a research project I am conducting as part of my Master’s thesis. The purpose of this study is to gather your views about your doctoral training program’s involvement in international learning opportunities. I am requesting participation from both training directors AND doctoral students at your university. Therefore, it is asked that you please forward this email to your doctoral students after participating.

The survey will take approximately 20-30 minutes to complete. If you are interested in participating, please access the online survey by clicking on the following link: http://inquisitor.bsu.edu/inqsit/inqsit.cgi/gerstein/hurley?Status

For your participation in the study, you will be eligible to enter into a drawing to receive one of six Amazon gift cards in the following amounts: $30, $20, $20, $10, $10, $10. There will be two separate drawings: One for training directors participating in the study and one for doctoral students participating.

Your responses will remain confidential. Please note that your participation is voluntary and you may exit the survey at any time for any reason.

I greatly appreciate your participation. If you have any questions or concerns, please contact me or my faculty advisor.

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Appendix G

Follow-up Invitation to Participate

Hello,

On <date>, you were sent an invitation to participate in a research project. As of <date>, I have not received your survey. I am writing to once again request your participation in a research project I am conducting as part of my Master’s thesis. The purpose of this study is to gather your views about your training doctoral program’s involvement in international learning opportunities.

Enclosed is a self-addressed stamped envelope and a copy of the survey. The survey will take approximately 20-30 minutes to complete.

For your participation in the study, you will be eligible to enter into a drawing to receive one of six Amazon gift cards in the following amounts: $30, $20, $20, $10, $10, $10. There will be two separate drawings: One for training directors participating in the study and one for doctoral students participating.

Your responses will remain confidential. Please note that your participation is voluntary. After I receive your survey, you will receive an e-mail link to forward on to your students so that their opinions may be heard as well.

I greatly appreciate your participation. If you have any questions or concerns, please contact me or my faculty advisor.

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